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CHAPTER –II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Review of related literature provides the background and context for the research and problem. It should establish the need for the research problem and indicate that the writer is knowledgeable about area.

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The search for related literature is one of the steps in the research process. For any research a comprehensive study of the related literature is an essential and indispensable prerequisite. According to Best, “A familiarity with literature in any problem area helps the student to discover what is already known, what other have attempted to find out, what methods to attack have been promising and disappointing and what problems remain to be solved.”

Review of the related studies implies locating, reporting and evaluating of research as well as reports of casual observation and opinion that is related to the individuals who planned research projects. It gives the scholar an understanding of the previous work has been done. It enables him to know the means of getting to the frontier in the field of a problem. Until we have learnt what others have done and what still remains to be done we cannot move forward. The review provides us with an opportunity of gaining insight into the methods, measures and approaches implied by other research workers. The
review of related study in any field forms the foundation upon which all future work will be developed. Therefore, Clark and Clark (1970) have advised that a survey of the existing literature must be accomplished before data are collected.

The investigator taped the various sources of available literature like various books, journals, periodicals, handbook of information year book, university news and other related material. The information pertaining to the present study a comprehensive review of the variables is classified year-wise under the following heads:

1. Review of Psychological Well-being
2. Review of Aspiration Level
3. Review of Family Adjustment

**Psychological Well-being**

Employee well-being is a key factor in determining an organisation's long-term profitability. Workplace stress has attracted considerable interest in recent decades. An extensive body of research suggests that a sizeable and increasing proportion of the population suffers from high levels of stress at work (e.g., Smith, Johal, Wadsworth, Davey Smith and Peters, 2000). Concern is expressed over the negative consequences of stress for individuals' psychological well-being (World Health Organization [WHO], 2001), impaired organizational performance and efficiency (Jones, Hodgson, Clegg and
Elliott, 2003) and financial costs imposed on the economy (European Foundation, 2001).

Boris and Elchanan (2004) investigated the influence of two aspects of person-environment congruence on well-being, occupational congruence (OC), the subject of numerous studies, and an entirely new concept, congruence with the physical conditions of the workplace (work setting congruence) (WSC). Using a sample of 164 men and women employed in seven of Roe’s eight occupational fields, significant correlations, all in the expected direction, were found between WSC and well-being measures (i.e., satisfaction, burnout, and anxiety), as positive. These were then compared to the correlations between OC and the same well-being measures. The results indicate that WSC is a distinct concept with a unique and significant contribution to well-being. Furthermore, evidence of an additive effect was found so that the presence of both WSC and OC produced higher well-being values than the presence of only one of the congruencies.

Marco Bonhauser et.al, (2005) has studied on improving physical fitness and emotional well-being in adolescents of low socio-economic status in Chile. The objective of this study was to evaluate the effects of a school-based physical activity program on physical fitness and mental health status of adolescents living in a low socioeconomic status area in Santiago, Chile. A quasi-experimental design was used to evaluate the effects of the program over one academic year. The study
included 198 students aged 15 years old. Two ninth grade classes were randomly selected as the intervention group, with two classes of the same grade as controls. A social planning approach was used to develop the intervention. The program was designed and implemented based on student preferences, teachers' expertise and local resources. Changes in physiological and mental health status were assessed. After the intervention, maximum oxygen capacity achieved a significant increase of 8.5% in the intervention versus 1.8% in the control group (p < 0.01).

Speed and jump performance scores improved significantly more in the intervention versus the control group (p > 0.01). Anxiety score decreased 13.7% in the intervention group versus 2.8% in the control group (p < 0.01), and self-esteem score increased 2.3% in the intervention group and decreased 0.1% in the control group after the end of the program (p < 0.01). The result was found that no significant change was observed in the depressive score. Student participation and compliance with the program was >80%. To conclude, a school-based program to improve physical activity in adolescents of low socioeconomic status obtained a high level of participation and achieved significant benefits in terms of physical fitness and mental health status.

A further key influence on psychological well-being is the extent to which work life negatively affects private life. It is widely accepted
that achieving a positive work-life balance is a significant protector of good health. Although work-life balance is the most commonly used term, a body of research (e.g., Demerouti, Bakker and Bulters 2004, Guerts, Kompier, Roxburgh and Houtman 2003, Guerts, Rutte and Peeters 1999, Janssen, Peeters, De Jonge, Houkes and Tummers 2004) prefers the term work-home interference (WHI). This is defined as 'the extent to which a person experiences pressures within the work domain that are incompatible with the pressures that arise within the family domain' (Guerts et al., 1999, 1136). It has been shown for a variety of occupations, including medicine, that work characteristics are more powerful than home factors in explaining WHI. Work by Guerts et al. (1999) on medical residents suggested that WHI serves to mediate the impact of some key work characteristics (having an unfavorable work-schedule, e.g., shift working or a high workload) and home characteristics (having a partner who frequently works overtime) on psychological health.

Linda Mezydlo Subich (1998) in the article on women’s work and life satisfaction in relation to career adjustment wrote that literature on women's satisfaction and career adjustment encompasses a broad range of women's career experiences subsequent to entry into an occupation. The experiences most commonly investigated in relation to satisfaction include satisfaction in relation to work experiences and characteristics, satisfaction in relation to managing multiple roles, and
satisfaction in relation to occupational transitions. Conclusions from this review include the need to use multidimensional assessments of satisfaction and to use more qualitative assessment strategies as they may be more sensitive to non-normative events than are standard quantitative approaches.

Terry et.al. (1993) examined the relationships among levels of work stress, social support, and well-being. In the first instance, it was proposed that high levels of work stress (role ambiguity, role conflict, work overload, and under utilisation of skills) would have a negative impact on job satisfaction and psychological well-being. Second, it was proposed that the perceived availability of support for work-related problems would have both direct and stress-buffering effects on levels of well-being. These hypotheses were tested in a study of 153 employees of a large public sector organisation. After control of the potential confounding effects of neuroticism, there was some support for the proposed affects of work stress and social support on well-being. Role ambiguity and role conflict emerged as significant predictors of both psychological well-being and job satisfaction. There was also some support for the proposed role of under utilisation of skills; however, contrary to expectations, the experience of quantitative work overload did not have a main significant effect on either Psychological well-being or job satisfaction. As expected, there was evidence to suggest that, irrespective of the level of stress, levels of
supervisor support had main effects on levels of well-being. Consistent with Cohen and Wills' (1985) stress-support matching hypothesis, there was also some evidence to suggest that the availability of work-related support (from one’s supervisor) buffered the negative effects of work stress (role conflict and work overload).

Warr (1978) has studied on “three kinds of psychological well-being first tests reposed anxiety about the specific features of everyday life, second, about specific features in general, and third obtains material about positive and negative effects”. The last component of well-being was studied by Brad Burn on a large sample survey in U.S.A. he found positive and negative effects were uncorrelated, rather the two dimensions were related to quite a different set of variables. Positive affect was associated with higher levels contact and mere exposure to new experiences’. Negative affect was found to be associated with various indices of anxiety, fear of breakdown, physical symptoms of illness. Several research studies carried out in U.S.A. and U.K. have broadly confirmed. Bradbury’s results (Costa and McCrae (1980), Bryant and Veroff (1982). Warr further pointed out the several facets of well-being are conceptually and statistically distinct but overlapping. Well-being is not the same as happiness although the later is a component of the former. External factors such as sex, employment position, age, education, work orientation have varying influence on different facets of well-being; e.g. Warr (1978) concluded the
unemployed people reported significantly lower well-being and more and more anxiety than their employed counterparts, however, employment position was related to aspects of well-being only for high-orientation groups and not for those in the middle-aged groups. Bhogle and Parkash (1995) developed the psychological well-being questionnaire (PWB) help of factor analysis. They identified the following sources of correlation among 70 items take from different sources.

1. Meaningfulness.
2. Symptoms.
3. Self-Esteem
4. Positive affect.
5. Daily activities.
7. Suicidal idea.
8. Personal control.
9. Social support.
10. Tension.

Nishizawa (1996) constructed the well-being scale (SWB), which comprised eight factors: good and poor mental health, social support and stress, and personal support and stress. Each factor consists of five
items. The WBS was found to save reliable and valid indicator of people's well-being in that Cronbach Alpha 0.70-0.80; test-retest reliability (month interval) 0.79; convergent validity with Goldberg's 12 item GHQ (r=0.83) and Kozma and Stones' MUNSH (r=0.82).

The QOL developed by Greenly, Greenberg and Brown (1997) assesses subjective quality of life in the following seven areas identified with the help of confirmatory factor analysis.

1. Living situation.
2. Finances.
3. Leisure.
4. Family.
5. Social life.

Schwarz and Stake (1999) demonstrated in a series of studies that global measures of satisfaction could be influenced by mood at the moment of responding to the scale and by other situational factors. They also found that the ordering of items and other facts could influence of SWB. Eid and Diner (1999) found, however, that situational usually place in comparison with long-term influences on well-being measures. Another potential problem is that people may respond scales in socially desirable ways. If they believe that happiness is normatively appropriate, they may report they are happier than other types of assessment may indicate Magaletta and Oliver (1999)
differentiated among hope, self-efficacy and well-being. Magaletta and Oliver sought the structure underlying the instruments operational zing the concepts when the unit of analysis was individual items comprising the instruments. They discuss the origin of the constructs of hope, self-efficacy, and optimism. They were of the view that hopes both will and ways while optimism refers to general expectancy that one will experience good out come in life. Optimism dose not implies the specification of the agency through which the good outcome is realized.

Magaletta and Oliver (1999) have not explained the construct of well-being beyond that it is related to the constructs of hope, efficacy, and optimism. However, the General well-being Questionnaire used in the studies reported to have the following seven higher order factors.

1. Attitudes relevant to health and well-being
2. Beliefs-ethical and spiritual and broad values that direct such goals as achievement and community with others
3. Behaviour and health related
4. Situations representing environmental forces and process, such as work and social settings
5. Emotions and subjective aspects of feeling stress
6. Physical components symptoms of physiological and immune dysfunctions.
7. Recent events and recent stressors.
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The maximum likelihood method of factor analysis yielded four factors showing that will, ways, self-efficiency and optimism are related but not identical constructs. The hierarchical multiple regression analyses that were done to predict well-being to find unique contribution of the predictors and would enable to differentiable between them.

Good life can be defined in terms “subjective well-being” SWB and in colloquial terms is sometimes labelled “happiness”. According to Diner (2000), SWB refers to people’s evaluations of their lives-evaluations when they feel many pleasant and few unpleasant emotions, when they are engaged in interesting activities, when they experience, many pleasures and few pains, and when they are satisfied with their lives”. The field of SWB focuses on people’s own evaluations their lives. Diner, Sapyta, and Suh (1998) says that SWB is not sufficient for the good life but it appears to be increasingly necessary for it.

Nathawat and Mathur (1993) compared marital adjustment and subjective well-being in 200 adult Indian house wife and 200 adult women working outside the home. Subjective were administered a marital adjustment Questionnaire (P. Kumar and Rastogi (1978) and measure of subjective well-being (e.g., general health questionnaire, self-rating, depression questionnaire scale) results indicate significantly better marital adjustment and subjective well-being for
the subjects working outside the home than for the subjects working outside the home reported higher scores on hopelessness, insecurity and anxiety. However, housewife had lower scores on negative effects than did subjects working outside the home.

Garrison (1998) identified the socio-economic/demographic determinates of the quality of life of rural families, computer dialling procedures was used to collect data in Spring 1996 from 510 rural (both farm and non-farm) respondents. Quality of life was measured by five subscales finances, home family and friends, household, community and environment. Regression analysis indicated that the independent variables gender, race, marital status, employment status residence, age family income and household size-differentially affected the quality of life subscales. Among the independent variables, household size was the most important predictor of subjective well-being findings support dimension rather than global measurement of subjective well-being.

Lee (1998) explores the effects of marital status and gender on the subjective quality of life in Korea drawing on national scale data from 955 marital on single predictor of the quality of life regardless of one's marital status man are better of than women being married appears to affects the level of general happiness positively. Analyses with other measures of quality of life suggest that the effect of marital
status is moderated by gender for man being married negatively affects the quality of life, while the effect is positive for women.

Hugher and Thomes (1999) demonstrated that the subjective well-being of African and American’s in the force as well as better than whites, suggesting a change in the pattern observed for nearly 40 years. Using data from the general society survey for the period 1972 to 1996, it is shown that quality of life do not vary and are not explained by S E S. Although racial inequality appears to be primary cause of their differences the exact processes producing them are as yet unknown.

Khan (2004) examined the differences between mean scores of married working and non-working women on subjective well-being. The sample consisted of 100 working women and 100 non-working women from different department of Aligarh Muslim University and residence of Aligarh city by using random sampling. Dieners (1985) satisfaction with life scale (S W L S) was used to measure the subjective well-being of the subjects. The data were analyzed by married working and non-working women on subjective well-being.

Subhakrishna (2003) studied with the aim to examine the role of work-related factors, availability of support and coping styles as predictors of well-being. Sixty married working women were individually interviewed with regard to reasons for employment and support availability, well-being inventory. Results on stepwise multiple
regression analysis, depicted that greater use of social support seeking and less use of denial as coping styles, absence, of multiple role strain, working to be financially independent, availability of support and refusal of job promotion were significant predictors of well-being.

Diener, Lucase, Oishi and Suh (2002) conducted two large international studies on subjective well-being, the authors examined that whether happy and unhappy individuals weighted 8 life domains (health, finances, family, friends, recreation, religion, self and education) differently when constructing life satisfaction judgment. In both studies, regression equations predicting life satisfaction showed that there were significant interaction between happiness and a person's worst domain even after controlling for participants weighting their best domains more heavily than did unhappy individuals, where unhappy people used different information when constructing satisfaction judgment.

Kim and McKensy (2002) examined the relationship between marriage and psychological well-being using a sample from the national survey of families and households panel data. Eight different marital status groups were identification and used to test two competing perspective explaining the relationship between (Protection Vs Selection) Findings confirmed the strong effects of marital status on psychological well-being supporting the protection perspective. The effects of the quality of marital (cohabiting) relationship on
psychological well-being was significant, but the strong effect of marital status remained unchanged after controlling for relationship quality findings also indicated that the transition to cohabiting did not have the same beneficial effects as marriage for psychological well-being suggesting that the protective effects of marriage are greater of psychological well-being were found to be weak and inconsistent, the finding generally did not vary by gender.

Hillers, Aguero, Hedda and Winblad (2001) examined the facts that either increase or decrease well-being of both young and old people. Many factors have been studied in relation to well-being but only some have been found to be associated with it. These factors are demographic (Age, sex, Culture, Marital status) social (socio-economic status, having children, religion social contacts) all are related to personality, life events, health and activity. However some of their factors have a stronger association than others.

Gohm, Oiah, Darlington and Diener (1998) examined the association between parental married status, marital conflict, and culture (individualism-collectivism, divorce rate) and the subjective well-being of young adults. Study assessed 2,625 men and 4,118 women from 39 countries on 6 continents, subjective well-being was negatively associated with marital conflict among offer parying of never-divorced and re-married parents. The association of marital status and the subjective well-being of offer parying differed across
individualism collectivism and divorce rate. Collectivism lessens the impact of divorce after a high conflict marriage and the impact of marital conflict when a parent remarriage study examined the association of parental marital status and conflict among 76 adopted and 87 non-adopted young adults. The negative association of divorce and of marital conflict with the life satisfaction of the offspring did not differ by adoption. The selection hypothesis was not supported.

**Family Adjustment**

Mindy and Jaime (2008) argued that personal vulnerability characteristics instead moderate the effect of organizational sexual harassment climate on sexual harassment because of their role as identity markers within social hierarchies. Using a sample of nearly 8,000 male and female military personnel from four ethnicity groups, the proposition that organizational climate differentially affects sexual harassment frequency across sex and ethnicity was evaluated. Results suggested that sex is an important moderator of these relationships, but that ethnicity is not. Further, sex and ethnicity were not found to moderate the effect of sexual harassment on its outcomes.

Jesse and Michael (2008) in their study provided a greater degree of empirical clarity concerning the interplay of work and family by directly examining the indirect effects of work and family conflict linkages and the direct effects of segmentation linkages on work and family satisfaction outcomes. Results, based on 209 samples and 994
sizes, indicate that indirect effect work–family conflict models explain 2.20% and 6.20% of the variance in job and family satisfaction outcomes, whereas direct effect segmentation models explain 54.10% and 48.50% of the variance in job and family satisfaction outcomes.

Karthik and Xinyuan (2007) examined the relationships among work–family conflict (WFC), organizational commitment (OC) and job satisfaction (JS) in a hotel setting. Responding to calls in the literature to explore organizational constructs in international settings data were collected from the employees of a large independently owned and operated hotel in India. Hierarchical linear regression analyses demonstrated that one of two sub dimensions of WFC namely, family related roles interfering with work related roles (FIW) was negatively associated with JS. Both direct and moderating relationships of three sub dimensions of OC were investigated and it was found that the affective component of OC has stronger direct effects on JS than normative OC; continuance commitment had no effect. The study also revealed that employees’ affective commitment moderates the effects of FIW on JS.

Monique (2007) investigated the relationships of work hours, job complexity, and control over work time to satisfaction with work family balance based on data from a sample of 570 telephone call center representatives, a moderated hierarchical regression analysis revealed that work hours were negatively related to satisfaction with
work family balance, consistent with the resource drain perspective. Job complexity and control over work time were positively associated with satisfaction with work family balance. Control over work time moderated the relationship such that as work hours rose, workers with low control experienced a decline in work–family balance satisfaction, while workers with high control did not.

Remus. Ilies, et.al. (2007) presented a longitudinal examination of antecedents and outcomes of work-to-family conflict. A total of 106 employees participating in an experience-sampling study were asked to respond to daily surveys both at work and at home, and their spouses were interviewed daily via telephone for a period of 2 weeks. Intraindividual analyses revealed that employee’s perceptions of workload predicted work-to-family conflict over time, even when controlling for the number of hours spent at work. Workload also influenced affect at work, which in turn influenced affect at home. Finally, perhaps the most interesting finding in this study was that employee’s behaviors in the family domain (reported by spouses) were predicted by the employee’s perceptions of work-to-family conflict and their positive affect at home.

Rachel and Yisrael (2005) Investigated Work family conflict among 187 Israeli women teachers to better understand relationships between teachers’ professional and family lives. The research examined perceived importance of work and family roles and effects of
stress and support variables on $W\rightarrow F$ and $F\rightarrow W$ conflict. Additionally, effects of teachers, years of experience and school level (primary, junior and senior high) on work–family conflict were examined. Cluster analysis revealed that many teachers attributed high importance to both roles and had higher $W\rightarrow F$ than $F\rightarrow W$ conflict. Relations between teacher stress and support variables and work–family conflict diverged from patterns found in other occupations. School level and teacher experience contributed to explaining the conflict.

Allyson K., Karen and Hazel M. (2005) developed and tested an integrative model of the work-family interface. This model was applied separately to male and female sub samples to assess mean gender differences and gender differences in the links between the variables. Analyses were based on existing questionnaire data from 320 participants who were full-time professional employees of Canadian organizations. Gender differences were found in the relationship between family demands and family interference with work, while the results for family interference with work and job satisfaction, and family satisfaction and life satisfaction were equivocal.

Rosalind and Phillip (1998) studied family stress and school adjustment, two path models of Predictors of Adjustment to School (for each level of school primary and secondary school) were developed and tested. Data from 200 randomly selected families provided demographic information along with details regarding stressful life
events and psychological well-being for adults, children and adolescents. The students' teachers rated their adjustment to school. Children (and adolescents) were separately interviewed regarding stressful life events, attitude to school and coping with stress. Results revealed a different interplay of factors across the age groups influencing adjustment to school. The Primary school model analysis indicated that more difficult temperament, higher number of Childs reported stressful life events and child sex (male) were predictive of teachers rating children as poorly adjusted to school. The Secondary school model analysis showed that a less cohesive family environment, adolescents reported stressful life events, and their reports of coping directly impacted on poor adjustment to school, while family stress and parent's rating of the adolescent's stress coping indirectly influenced adjustment through the child stress variable. The outcomes of this study help to clarify the links between stressful life events in families and children's and adolescents adjustment to school.

Hussein (1996) says that while dealing with adjustment as a process we are confronted by two factors environmental demands, needs and motives to be satisfied. There is always a conflict between these two forces, which call forth adjective process. And that has been considered adjective behaviour, which makes a harmony between the individual and environmental demands and helps the individual in achieving harmonies, stable and satisfying relationship with his
environment. Madigan (1962) states, "If the conflicts are solved to satisfy the individual's needs within the tenets approved by society, the individual is considered adjusted." Adjustment also requires a harmonious inter-relationship within the individual of his various behavioural tendencies. The function of adjustment is to bring about a stable equilibrium among the various components of these two type of stimulations have been referred to as motivating stimuli which are perceived as uncomfortable or distressing. The individual's behaviour is directed toward the reduction of such stimuli, facing external and internal realities (Sapp Enfield, 1961).

In the adjustment of female teachers, their occupational or vocational adjustment plays an important role, the school environment or the type of school influence over the family adjustment of the teachers. The occupational world of the teachers dominates their mode of family adjustment. The degree of satisfaction with the choice of occupation, working conditions, relationship with colleagues and principal, financial satisfaction and chances of promotion, decide one's adjustment to one's occupation and contributes significantly towards one's overall adjustment.

Kay J. et.al. (1989) examined the relationships among family domain variables and three sources of work-family conflict for 156 working men and women. In general, the family variables were able to explain some of the variance in work family conflict for both men,
women and evidence of specific correlates was fairly similar. Time-based conflict was best predicted by the frequency of family intrusions and total role involvement for men and by family conflict for women. Strain-based conflict was best explained by level of family conflict for men and women. Also for women, the frequency of family intrusions was positively related to reported levels of strain-based conflict. The family variable significantly related to behavior-based conflict for men and women was the level of family conflict reported.

Paige (1980) did a comparative analysis of male and female managerial communication style in two organizations. The study addressed the question do male and female managers demonstrate a significantly different communication style with subordinates in staff meetings. A category system was developed for coding communicative behaviors as components of communication style. Audio-recordings of staff meetings conducted by male or female managers in a social service agency and bank branch offices were content analyzed using the category system. Chi-square analyses were used to test for differences between male and female managerial communication style. In addition, managers were administered the Bem Sex Role Inventory to assess their perceived sex type. The results of the study indicated that male and female managers in both organizations demonstrated a similar communication style in their staff meetings. Moreover, they indicated a similar “masculine” perception of themselves as managers.
Maas (1970) defined adjustment as the ability to get along with others. Freedenberg (1971) said adjustment involves transaction with the environment, which may result in a change in one's behaviour or a change in the environment or both. Each one of us experiences both internal as well as external need. Adjective behaviour may be viewed as concerned with three level of adjustment those meeting the psychological and the sociological need of the individual.


Shaffer and Shoben (1956) defined in his classical book "The psychology of adjustment". It mainly emphasized the biological adoption of the organism to its environment. Later on in 1961 Lazarus published his famous work “Pattern of adjustment”.

Freud (1933) theory of personality is based on two very original ideas. The first idea was that human behaviour is ruled primarily not by a reason but by irrational instincts, aggression instincts and sexual instincts. The second idea was that only portion of our thoughts and
actions emerge from conscious mental processes, the major influence on our behaviour is the unconscious. Freud said that there is a close relationship between the kind and degree of adjustment of an individual and the functioning of his id, ego, and superego. According to Freud, maladjustment or neurosis occurs when a person’s upbringing has resulted in the development of a weak ego-an-ego that cannot mediate between the individual demands for instinct gratification and the superego’s demands for moral conduct. When this happens, the individual falls victim to anxiety, fearing that instincts will take over and/or that his superego will punish him for violating moral standard.

**Aspiration Level**

Today employees want to move up the ladder of success very fast. But where some people long for the vertical growth, some strive for the lateral growth. For example, an assistant manager can have entrepreneurial aspirations and might aspire to become the VP or head the department, whereas an employee engaged in some technical job might want to achieve mastery in his skill or craft.

The study of Lefcout (1965) on black and white grown up prison imamates has yielded results, though not significant, but opposite in direction to that obtained by Boyd on black and white children. Using skill and chance type (Gambling) tasks of level of aspiration, Nag rose were found to be continuous and failure avoiding, particularly in skill situation. Beside lower goal discrepancy they made larger number of
erratic shifts in the goal as compared to whites. It was also evident that Negroes were more externally created than whites. That is they see the events that happened to them contingent much more upon luck or outside power beyond control than on their actual effort.

Alexander (1950) states that “In overt behaviour many peptic ulcer patients show an exaggerated aggressive ambitions, independent attitude”. Sullivan and Nickel (1950) described the ulcer patients as “the driving active individual frequently seen as the go-getter, who will not admit defeat and who are continually striving to excel in their environment. Little and Choen (1951) found that asthmatic children showed significantly higher level of aspiration than non-asthmatic. Berkeley (1952) Gorard and Phillips (1953) found a reliable relationship between adrenal activity and level of aspiration scores.

Shanmugan (1975) have conducted a study ‘A factor analytical of delinquents in comparison with non-delinquents the sample of the study was up delinquents (24 Boys plus 22 Girls) and 44 non-delinquents (20 Boys plus 24 Girls) of age rang 14 to 18 plus years. Eyzenezek personality. Inventory test of aesthetic performance, suggestibility tests the self-deal self-congruity test. The ladder test of level of aspiration the rigidity test, the creative instruments picture frustration test, cognitive dissonance test, semantic deferential test, Ravens standard progressive metrics were used, He found dynamics of delinquent boys and girls have special characteristic distinguishing
them from those of non-delinquents. In contrast to non-delinquents, delinquent's boys were characterized by high degree of psychologist, impunities reaction and intelligence and by lack of extra version, extra punitive reaction, suggestible and level of aspiration. Delinquent girls were found to have high degree of rigidity suggestibility and evaluative leniency and lack of intelligence and ideal self congruence.

As argued by Hall and Lindsey (1957) the achievement need is a learned motive and strive for success and a seas of human behaviour. Since achievement need is a learned motive and there are wide differences among individuals in their past experiences, the strength of their motivation with respect to achievement also differs accordingly.

Hoopes (1930) has studied on method for studying aspiration level was inferential, which involved drawing interferences about subject’s aspiration level on the basis of over and verbal behaviour, including the expression of the task of activity. His observation revealed that success Tends rays and failure tends, to lower the expiration level, and that characteristic of the subject like ambition, consciousness and prudence etc. Exercise a determining effect obviously, the operation of these factors is not likely to make the individual a realistic enough is goal and expectation.

Jusknat (1937) has studied on “developed indirect precise for studying aspiration level”. She made used of a series of ten papers and pencil mazes arrange in order of difficulty, which the subject code
easily recognized when glancing over them. The subject was asked to choose a maze and start working on it. The particular maze chosen indicated his aspiration level. The idea of forming the situation in such a way that the subject expressed his aspiration level automatically could be considered a significant advancement to the subjective inferential technique of hope. Satisfaction is an over-riding concept which beyond the context in which term like restoration of homeostasis and drive is used. Cantril (1965) found the term more suitable for describing an experience, which is unique to human being and is permeated with value overtones.

Karen and Weitz (1955) state that the organism is having certain needs or desires that must be fulfilled in order to adjust to the environment. As a result of this organism changes, its behaviours in various ways for maintaining its behaviour in the environment.

Muthayya, B.C. (1959) conducted a study on level of aspiration and saw its relation to modes of reaction and frustration among adolescents. He tried to explore the relationship between frustration, reaction categories and different aspiration measures such as goal discrepancy score, attainment discrepancy score etc.

Lener and Kube (1964) and Coleman (1956) say that it is a continues process of interaction between ourselves and our environment and it is the effectiveness of an individual efforts to his needs. Lazarus (1961) state that adjustment consists of psychological
processes by which the individual manages or copes with various demands of pressures.

Khan, et al (1982) made an attempt to examine the scholastic achievement of pre-university students as influenced by their educational and vocational aspiration, religion and socio-economic status. They found that the students with low education and vocational aspiration were poor achievers when compared with students with high educational and vocational aspirations.

Grichting (1983) has studied on “investigated happiness, satisfaction, constructs and gives valuable information with regard to the issue of domain, scope and degree”. The term happiness was restricted by him but its ambiguity was also pointed out. The enunciation of domain, scope and degree was an attempt to clarify its meaning concomitants.

Prettic (1984) attempted to find out the relationship between sex, aspiration level of perceptual discriminations. The author attempted to investigate some of the differences in a perceptual discriminations performance task due to (i) sex and (ii) level of aspiration of eighty-seven female and fifty-six male under graduates. It was found that the discrimination performance of females was greater than that of males. Level of aspiration did affect both males and females. But the female students to a greater degree there was a significant effect of sex and aspiration level.
Kanwal and Kaur (1987) studied the relationship of aspiration level of performance in four hockey skills. The result indicated that there was a significant relationship between aspiration level and motor skill attainment.

Bhatnagar (1993) stated that the correlation between level of aspiration and involvement in studies was found which is insignificant and denotes almost no relationship between these two variables. The result also showed when the high involvement girls and boys were compared, significant difference (at .05 levels) in the level of aspiration with boys showing higher mean score than girls. Same pattern is evident where both sexes having low involvement are compared. The difference was significant at .01 levels with boys showing higher level of aspiration than girls.

Kaur (1994) conducted a study to see the difference in educational aspiration and academic achievement between athletes and non-athletes of university and college students. They selected a sample of two hundred students comprising of fifty female athletes, fifty male non-athletes and fifty female non athletes, equal number from same class and institution. They administered educational aspiration test by Saxena to measure educational aspiration and academic achievement scores were worked out against the percentage of marks secured by the subject in the previous university examination. After analyzing the data they found that mean of educational aspiration scores of athletes and
non-athletes differed significantly at .01 level and similar results were reported when subjects were compared for educational aspiration as compared to non-athletes group. This study has taken into consideration the educational aspiration of the athletes and non-athletes. To draw generalizations regarding aspiration level in a broader sense the need is there to study the general aspiration level of individuals.

Sharma and Joshi (2000) stated that competition in sports is connected with the aspiration of the individual for achieving higher goal in other field along plans to create a new record or to become the champion in particular sports, in higher category of the competition, in higher aspiration. This might be the reason that athlete female may have higher aspiration.