CHAPTER – II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Literature survey comprises locating, reading and evaluating reports of research as well as reports of casual observation and opinion that are related to the individuals planned research report. A study of relevant literature is an essential step to get a full picture of what has been done with regard to the problem under study. The investigator has made an attempt to bring a brief review of research related to the present study to form the background for the present study and presented the same with appropriate headings.

Kirkcaldy (1982) evaluated the personality and sex difference related to positions in team sports. Athletes were administered personality inventory. The attacking positions scored higher on psychoticism and extroversion as compared to middle field players. The defenders showed more emotionally stable pattern than the offensive players. The female attacking players were less extroverted and more neurotic than players from other position.

Daino (1985) studied the differences in personality traits of adolescent tennis players and non-participating adolescent group possessing similar characteristics. Eysenck personality inventory and ‘will to win’ questionnaire were administrated. The results indicated that tennis players are significantly higher in extroversion and ‘will to win’ but exhibit less neuroticism, anxiety obsession and depression.

Dr. J. Sathiah (1996) administered his study on 1214 UG and PG student players from 47 arts and science colleges in Tamilnadu and he found five of the
seven psychological variables viz., General Anxiety, Happiness, General Aggressiveness, Sports adjustments and sports competition anxiety are found exerting a significant influence on sports and games performance of the college players independently.

A study by Schendel (1965) compared athletes to non-athletes in ninth and twelfth grades and in college, on the California inventory. He found that ninth and twelfth grade athletes generally possessed more desirable personal social psychological characteristics than non-athletes. However, at the college level, the non-athletes generally possessed more desirable characteristics than the athletes.

Mann and Sandhu (1990) conducted a study on the adjustment of 202 university team representative male students, grouped into individual sports athletes and team sports athletes, with the help of AICS. The athletes from individual sports (n = 88), were drawn from athletics, boxing, gymnastics, wrestling cross country race and weight lifting, while the team athletes (n = 114) were from football, hockey, handball, basketball, Kabaddi and volleyball. The team sports athletes showed a better educational adjustment than the individual sports athletes.

Awoskia (1991) investigated the social and emotional adjustment of the athletes in individual and team sports and reported that team sports athletes were average in adjustment, socially better adjusted and matured as compared to athletes in individual sports.

Biro (1977) evaluated the relationship between physical load sensory, motor load and personality traits. Physical load was assessed by physiological measures
of physical fitness. Bio-electrical skin reactivity was used to measure sensory motor load. Eysenck personality inventory was used to assess the personality of subjects. The subjects were 30 male athletes in the age group between 18 and 25 years. This study concluded that a close relationship was found between uncertainty aggressiveness and hostility on one hand and the physiological measures like respiratory quotient at rest and maximum rest and maximum physical work capacity on the other.

The purpose of the study of Ralph (1999) was twofold: (a) to determine if the dimensions of the five-factor model of personality could be used as predictors of athletic performance and (b) to demonstrate the utility of the five-factor model as a theoretical paradigm capable of organizing personality research on athletic competition. Subjects were 79 female athletes from four different women NCAA division I soccer teams. All subjects completed a bipolar adjective scale designed to measure the five factors. Coaches ratings on several performance dimensions and actual game statistics were also collected. Regression analyses indicated that the personality dimensions of neuroticism and conscientiousness explained approximately 23% of the variance in coaches ratings, while conscientiousness was the sole predictor of actual games statistics, explaining about 8% of the variance. The potential theoretical and empirical value of these findings were discussed.

Dennis (1998) conducted a study on, male members of two college teams, baseball and football, and female members of two teams, field hockey and lacrosse (combined) and equestrians were compared on the five scales of the Zuckerman-Kuhlman personality Questionnaire (ZKPQ). All teams were significantly higher on the activity and lower on the Neuroticism-Anxiety scales than the general college population of the University of Delaware. Lacrosse and field hockey
athletes were higher on activity than equestrians and baseball players were higher than football players on this scale. Contrary to predictions, football players scored lower than the general university male population on impulsive sensation seeking and the lacrosse and field hockey players did not differ from the general college females on impulsive sensation seeking. The baseball players also scored lower on this scale. The hypothesis that body contact sports attract high sensation seeking and aggressive participants was not supported. Sensation seeking is more characteristic of participants in high risk sports offering unusual sensation and personal challenges.

A study by Raglin (2001) revealed that the Mental Health Model (MHM) of sport performance purports that an inverse relationship exists between psychopathology and sport performance. The model postulates that as an athlete's mental health either worsens or improves performance should fall or rise accordingly, and there is now considerable support for this view. Studies have shown that between 70 and 85% of successful and unsuccessful athletes can be identified using general psychological measures of personality structure and mood state, a level superior to chance but insufficient for the purpose of selecting athletes. Longitudinal MHM research indicates that the mood state responses of athletes exhibit a dose-response relationship with their training load, a finding that has shown potential for reducing the incidence of the staleness syndrome in athletes who undergo intensive physical training. The MHM also has implications for the general care of athletes as support services have traditionally been limited to preventing or treating physical problem. Despite its simple premise and empirical support, the MHM has often been mischaracterized in the sport psychology literature and recently some authors have questioned its validity. This overview will summaries MHM research, including the more recent work
involving the model's dynamic features in an effort to resolve disputes surrounding the model.

Cate J and others (2009), investigated the relationship between sociability and surveyed, body growth and fecundity, in one-year-old individuals in semi-natural populations with varying senstity. 'Asocial' and 'social' lizards displayed different fitness outcomes in populations of different densities. Asocial lizards survived better in low-density populations, while social females reproduced better. Spatiotemporal variation in environmental conditions might thus be the process underlying the maintenance of these personality traits within a population. Finally, we also discuss the position of sociability in a more general individual behavioral pattern including boldness, exploration and aggressiveness.

Schutz (1979) investigated the Academic achievement, absenteeism, and athletic involvement (hockey) data were collected on 484 boys throughout British Columbia. School and minor hockey records were used to obtain longitudinal data for each boy from grade 1 until high school graduation or school withdrawal. Results indicated that hockey players exhibit less school absenteeism than non hockey players, but are not different with respect to grade point average. Hockey players, at the juvenile level or lower, tend to attain a slightly higher grade point average during the years they are playing hockey in comparison with their academic achievement during the years they are not playing hockey. Of the hockey players with lower than average I.O's those who exhibit poor achievement tend to drop out of hockey earlier than those who have average or above average grades.

Sosnoff and Newell (2008) investigated the ability of older adults to intentionally adapt their sensorimotor output to differing time and frequency
properties of a target-force target waveform. We tested the hypothesis that elderly adults are less adaptable than their younger counterparts to the time and frequency-dependent demands of continuous sensorimotor output and that this effect is medicated by the frequency content of the task demand. The results showed that older adults were progressively less able than young adults to approximate the lighter-color-noise force targets and utilize the information in the higher frequencies of the target signal. There is a declining ability with aging to use the faster time scales of sensorimotor control, but the declining directional effect of the loss or gain of complexity of force output is moderated by the differential impact of task demands.

Sosnoff and Voudrie (2009) examined whether the ability to adapt to task constraints is influenced by short-term practice in older adults. Young (18-29 years old) and old (65-75 years old) adults produced force output to a constant force target and a 1-Hz sinusoidal force target by way of the index finger flexion. Participants completed each task 5 times per session for 5 concurrent sessions. The amount and structure of force variability was calculated using linear and nonlinear analyses. As expected, there was a decrease in the magnitude of variability (approximate entropy) in both tasks and task-related change in the structure of force variability (coefficient of variation) in both tasks and task-related change in the structure of force variability (approximate entropy) with training across groups. The authors found older adults to have a greater amount of variability than their younger counterparts in both tasks. Older adults also demonstrated an increase in the structure of force output in the constant task but a decrease in structure in the sinusoidal task. Age differences in the adaptability to task constraints persisted throughout practice. The authors propose that older adults ‘ability’ to adapt
sensorimotor output to task demands is not a result of lack of familiarity with the task but that it is, instead, characteristic of the aging process.

Patrick and other (2009) reviewed alternative historic descriptions of the disorder together with empirical findings for the best-established assessment instruments in use with adolescents and youth as a basis for formulating an integrative, triarchic model of psychopathy. The essence of the triarchic model is that psychopathy encompasses three distinct phenotypic constructs: disinhibition, which reflects a general propensity toward problems of impulse control; boldness, which is defined as the nexus of social dominance, emotional resiliency, and venturesomeness; and meanness, which is defined as aggressive resource seeking without regard for others. These differing phenotypic components are considered in terms of relevant etiologic and developmental pathways. The triarchic conceptualization provides a basis for reconciling and accommodating alternative descriptive accounts of psychopathy, and a framework for coordinating research on neurobiological and developmental process contributing to varying manifestations of the disorder.

McCarthy and Kelly (1978) studied, partially, replicated a former one showing a relationship between aggression and performance among hockey players. With certain penalties used as a measure of aggression, two groups of male college ice hockey players were compared for differences in goals and assists. Those rated high in aggression scored significantly more goals than those low in aggression. The direction of differences in assists was the same but did not reach significance. When the same groups were compared for shots on goals, significant differences were found, favoring the high aggressive group. This findings was discussed in light of energy output and efficiency. Attempts to relate
performance and personality measures were not successful when comparison on a self-report measure of anger were analyzed.

Thatcher (2004) examined gender differences in the pre-competition temporal patterning of anxiety and hormonal responses. Six male and 6 female field hockey players completed the modified competitive state anxiety inventory-2, including both intensity and direction subscales, and provided saliva and urine samples 24, 2, and 1 hour prior to competition. These samples were analyzed for cortisol, and noradrenalin and adrenaline, respectively. Two x 3 repeated measures ANOVAs revealed significant gender x time interactions for cognitive and somatic anxiety intensity and adrenaline and noradrenalin, but not cortisol. While males' anxiety and hormonal responses demonstrated no significant changes, significant increases in females' anxiety, and significant decrease in their adrenaline and noradrenalin were observed over time. Moreover, while males' anxiety and hormonal responses mirrored each other, this was not the case for the females with increases in females' cognitive and somatic anxiety intensity levels accompanied by decreases in adrenaline and noradrenalin. Although this study has extended this line of research by adopting a psycho-physiological approach and measuring anxiety intensity and direction in male and female athletes, replication is required with larger samples from a greater diversity of sports.

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

Pinter et al (2007) conducted two experiments contrasted interactions between group leaders with interactions between individuals in a mixed-motive setting. Consistent with the idea that being accountable to the in group implies normative pressure to benefit the in-group, experiment 1 found that accountable leaders were more competitive than individuals. Consistent with the idea that being unaccountable to the in-group implies normative pressure to be cooperative and that high guilt proneness provides motivation to be moral, experiment 2 found that when guilt proneness was high, unaccountable leaders were less competitive than accountable leaders and did not differ significantly from individuals. In other words, the robust inter individual-inter group discontinuity effect was eliminated when groups had unaccountable leaders who were high in guilt proneness.

Mc Murrich and Johnson (2009) tested three primary predictors of criticism among family members of people with bipolar disorder: shame-proneness, guilt-proneness, and depression. Depressive symptoms were significantly associated
with EE. Discussion focuses on limitations and implications of the study and suggestions for future research.

The results of Adam and Wilberg (1992) indicated that, consistent individual differences in rate of visual information processing. More importantly, it was found that rate of visual information processing as indexed by the backward-masking technique, has promising validity for predicting general performance excellence in university ice hockey and basketball players.

Lautent and Bredney (2007) proved, athletic training leaders are transformational leaders. Athletic training education program accreditation requirements likely account for the difference in leadership practices between PDs and HATCs.

Juntumaa et al (2005) results contribute to the planning of a coaching system that serves more educational and development purposes, and that encourages the desire to play ice hockey as a hobby.

Toni ward (2005) studied, if there was a significant difference in measures of ambition, perseverance, self-esteem, and power motive between non-athletes and athletes, and also between different sports such as soccer, volleyball, basketball, softball, baseball, football, track/cross country, and cheerleading.

Alison and Briony (2004) investigated the personality differences of 21 amateurs and 20 instructors who participated in the high risk sports of skydiving, hang-gliding, paragliding, scuba diving, micro lighting, and rock climbing, versus those who did not. 38 men and 28 women were assessed using the Eysenck
personality questionnaire revised, the general health questionnaire, the generalized self-efficacy scale, and a type A/B personality measure. Instructors and amateurs scored significantly higher on extroversion and lower in neuroticism than non participants, however they differed from each other on the GHQ and type A/B personality scores. Amateurs scored significantly higher on psychoticism and self-efficacy than instructors and non participants. In conclusion, these test scores suggest that people who are attracted to high risk sports tend to be at the extroverted and emotionally stable end of the scale, with a tendency to exhibit type A characteristics; however, instructors scores on psychoticism and self-efficacy are more akin to those of non participants.

Miguel (2000) studied whether it be at a collegiate or professional level, organizations have been faced with public pressure to be successful. The selection of appropriate personnel is one means for doing this. Although coaches are experts in identifying the physical characteristics needed for success in their field; they lack the skills necessary to assess the psychological factors that have been proven to have a significant impact on athletic performance. The identification, quantification and implementation of these psychological attributes in selection decisions can therefore have a significant impact on a program’s success. This paper reviews the factors that have been associated with athletic success, measures of these factors, and use of these factors in making selection decisions.

Tara and Larrie (2007) studied that the security community has used psychological research on attacker personalities, but little work has been done to investigate the personalities of the defenders. One instrument currently dominating personality research is the five factor model, a taxonomy that identifies five major domains of personal traits, composed of sets of facets. This model can be used
within an organizational or vocational capacity to reveal dominant tendencies, such as openness to new experiences. Within a security context, this tool could show what patterns professionals exhibit, which may reveal areas of insufficient diversity and ‘blind spots’ in defenses. We surveyed 43 security professionals using a five factor model-based test (the IPIP-NEO) to reveal common dominant traits. Found that our sampled security population demonstrated that they were highly dutiful, achievement-striving, and cautious; in addition, they were high in morality and cooperation, but low in imagination.

Aziziyahaya (2009) studied the relationship between self concepts and personality and students academic performance in selected secondary schools. The purpose of this research is to determine the relationship between the self-concept and personality of students with academic. The sample consists of 270 students from six secondary schools were chosen by using stratified randomly method in Kluang, Johor. Meanwhile the questionnaire for personality was modified from the Junior Eysenck personality inventory (JEPI) that was created by H.J. Eysenck (1967). The descriptive statistics such as frequency, percentages, mean and standard deviation were used to analyze the dominant dimension in student’s self-concept. Other than that, inferential statistic such as t-test was used to analyze the difference between the self-concept and personality of students according to gender. The research finding showed that the dominant dimension of self-concept was family self-concept. Beside that, t-test analysis showed that there was no significance difference between dimensions of self-concept and personality of students according to gender. Person correlations analysis showed that there were no significance relation between dimension of self-concept and personality with student’s academic achievement. Therefore, suggestions were made to increase the
student’s self-concept and the tendency of their positive personality in order to enhance their academic achievement.

Tanja (2004) investigated personality traits of high-risk sports athletes. The aim was to investigate the personality dimensions and compare the results to the results of non-risk sports athletes and non-athletes. Thirty eight high-risk sports athletes participated in the research (alpinists, sky divers, paragliders, white-water kayakers, downhill mountain-bikers, motocross riders, downhill skiers and ski jumpers). The non-risk sports athletes consisted of 38 swimmers, track athletes, sailors, flat-water kayakers, rowers, Nordic skiers, sports climbers and karatekas. The non-athletes were equaled with both groups in age and education and included 76 non-athletes. It was found that high-risk sports athletes scored by non-risk sports athletes. The same order of groups was shown in conscientiousness and energy. Openness was highest in the non-risk sports athletes, followed by the non-athletes and the lowest score was achieved by the high-risk sports athletes. The differences in acceptability were not significant.

Mauricio (2005) carried a study to compare psychological characteristics between athletes and non-athletes is one of the most explored topics in the personality study in sports. To find a possible personality profile for high-level athletes has been one of the main goals of researchers, studying and comparing samples of athletes with those of non-athletes. To compare the personality profiles between Brazilian high-level athletes and non-athletes through psychological characteristics, verifying similarities and differences between them our Inhibition, Irritability, Aggressiveness, Fatigability, Physical, Complaints, Health Concern, Frankness, and Emotionality. It is observed that there are specific and unique psychological characteristics of Brazilian high-level athletes when compared with
a non-athletes sample. The groups are distinguished significantly in the majority of variables, indicating that athletes present differentiated psychological characteristics.

Besty (2001) compared high achieving and low achieving adolescents attitudes towards school, attitudes toward teachers, goal-valuation, motivation, and general academic self-perceptions. Specifically, they sought to determine whether high achievers really differed from low achievers on these five factors, and to ascertain which of the five factors were the best predictors on these five factors, and to ascertain which of the five factors were the best predictors of students status as either a high achiever or a low achiever. The comparison of the scores of high achievers and low achievers on attitudes toward school, attitudes toward teachers, goal-valuation, motivation, and general on all five factors. However, two factors, academic self-perception and motivation/self-regulation, predicted students achievement status as well as the five-factor model did. Using logistic regression, these two subscales were able to classify student’s achievement status correctly over 85% of the time. These results suggest that high achievers and low achievers differ in both their motivational patterns and their academic self-perceptions. Future research should continue to explore the relationship between these student characteristics and academic achievement.

Hoffman (1983) in his study “Effects of psychological Momentum on the physiology and cognition among American Athletes”, investigated the effect of psychological momentum on athletic performance. The subjects were randomly placed in the experimental group and were issued a self - included relaxation procedure (S.I.R.P) designed to develop psychological momentum over one month period. The remaining ten subjects were placed in the control group and were not
issued the S.I.R.P. Strength and endurance were measured upon the amount of completed intervals of three separate tasks (a) Bar-dips; (b) Sit-ups; and (c) Pull-ups, respectively. A base line assessment of completed intervals revealed approximately equal strength and endurance between subjects in the pre-treatment phase. The results strongly support the hypotheses. It was found that the development of psychological momentum significantly improves the strength and endurance of athletes in terms of completed intervals of each task.

Carron (1984) conducted a study on forty two teams in twelve sports in which Cattell’s 16 PF Questionnaire had been used. The data revealed the marked inconsistency of the group personality trait profile from sport to sport and from sub group (superior vs average performers).

Liewellyn and Blucker (1982), he compared groups that had nine to ten years experience with groups with one to two years experience. And found that the more the experienced group is, more is social extroversion, general sociability and social leadership. Because personality traits change gradually, cautions against reading the results as a demonstration of cause and effect. That changes occur with experience is clear. The problem occurs when we try to analyses all the elements that make up the “experience”.

Kamlesh (1989) made an attempt to diagnose the incentive motivation of Indian athletes through Wood’s Incentive Motivation Inventory and concluded that excellence, affiliation, success and sensation are the major reason for the athletes to participate in competitive sport. He also found that Indian athletes are average in their motivation profile.
Kroll (1967) conducted a study on ninety four amateur and collegiate wrestlers by administering the 16 PF questionnaire. Personality profiles were studied across different levels of demonstrated achievement in wrestling. Discriminant function analysis failed to establish any profile difference between criterion groups. Groups assessed were (a) a superior group comprised of twenty eight wrestlers from U.S. Olympic team, NCAA or NAIA champions or place winners (b) an excellent group comprised of thirty three collegiate wrestlers who were varsity representatives, rated excellent by their coach and who had won at least sixty percent of their matches during the season and (c) an average to below average group of thirty three wrestlers representing four college teams. When compared to the norm, wrestlers demonstrated a significant departure from average on factor I indicating tough-mindedness, self-reliance and masculinity. No support was found for the suggestion that wrestlers may posses a neurotic profile.

Kamlesh (1985) administered Torrence Test of thinking creativity, SPM, IPST, and adapted version of A-S. reaction (N.K. Dutt) to ninety five male and ninety six female high performers and ninety six male and ninety six female performers in inter-university track and field athletes and found (i) university athletes to be on the lower side of the average intelligence, point-performance being unrelated to intelligence. (ii) creativity to be unrelated to sex and athletic performance though significant relationship existed between intelligence and creativity \(r=225\); (iii) anxiety level is slightly higher in athletes and they were more neurotic than extroverts (iv) significant relationship existed between anxiety and neuroticism \(r=222\); (v) male athletes were more ascendancy than submission. This study by implication, revealed the psychological profiles of inters university athlete was not much different from that of the general population so far as these intellectual and non-intellectual aspects of the personality were concerned.
Newton Niedfelt and Savage (1997) examined the relationship of anatomical and achievement motivation goals to injury conditions in collegiate track athletes. The results revealed that the achievement motivation goals were related significantly with performance and with injury. It was proposed that more several athletes develop anatomical propensities towards injury because of the greater amount of physical strain they endure. The implications of the results of the study are:

1. High aspiration to perform is a characteristic of better track athletes.
2. High levels of performance and improvement should not be expected from individuals who are not "driven" to achieve.

Uppal and Gill (1986) compared the psychological profile of twenty Junior National level Badminton players with that of twenty female entrants to the Bachelors Degree course in physical education. The badminton players were found to be significantly higher on factors A (outgoing), C (emotionally), E (Assertive), F (Happy-Go-Lucky), L (Hard to fool) and Q (Analytical) than the physical education entrants. In all other cases normalcy was reported.

According to Teipel (1989) individual and team performance in soccer is highly dependent on the technical and psychological abilities of the individual players. Successful behavior in specific game situations must systematically teach and learnt in a long-lasting process. In general successful behaviour comprises the process of anticipation is determined by, problem analysis, decision making and evaluation of the selected section. In that way decision making depends on time related complex, perception of space as well as of movements of the ball, the opponents and the team mates. In this study decision making of soccer players
from high and low skill levels is analyzed. A sample of professional players and a sample of low amateur players evaluate thirty game scenes on a monitor in a laboratory situation in respect of the expected action of the ball-leading players. The results show that at least one third of the thirty scenes significantly different decisions between professional and amateur players. The professional players tend to prefer individual rather than group or team related technical and tactical actions. The evaluation of the effectiveness of the selected actions in the professional players in the most scenes are slightly higher than that of the amateur players. These findings are discussed in respect of the different skill learning and aspects of decision making of professional and amateur players.

Om Kumari (1999) carried out an investigation to study the selected psychological variables of female hockey players of India with the purpose to sketch a profile of national hockey players, to compare the status of national and international players and finally to draw the individual profiles for international players who have represented the country in the recent international tournaments. The variables selected for the study were incentive motivation (consisting of seven different systems), achievement motivation, state and trait anxiety, sport competition anxiety and extraversion-introversion and neurotism. For the collection of data, Alberta incentive motivation inventory, the sports achievement motivation test, state and trait anxiety inventory (STAI). Sport competition anxiety test and Eysenck personality inventory were administered during 23rd senior hockey championship. Mean and SD on all the variables for both the groups were calculated and ‘t’ test was used to find the significance of difference in the mean scores. The group and individual profiles were sketched. On the basis of results, following conclusions were drawn.

1. The level of their achievement motivation is just moderate.
2. Both are best with high trait and state anxiety.
3. Low competition anxiety is perhaps, a great asset with both of them.
4. International players were found to be stable introverts whereas national players had leaning towards ambiversion – neuroticism.

Radha Powan (1995) studied the selected psychological variables namely anxiety, aggression, motivation and personality traits in relation to Basket ball performance. The psychological factors, aggression is highly correlated with the playing ability ($r=.941$). Further, it is noted that the coefficient of multiple correlation ($r=.981$) revealed that psychological factors put together play in important role in basket ball performance.

Dureha (1995) administered the kamlesh Sports Achievement motivation test, and Rainer martins sports competition anxiety test (Adult Form) to find out achievement motivation and pre-competition anxiety among Indian inter varsity hockey players and to compare high and low pre-anxiety competition anxiety group on achievement motivation. It was concluded that there is a significant relationship between achievement motivation and pre-competition anxiety of hockey players and significant difference in the level of achievement motivation of high and low pre-competition anxiety group of Indian inter varsity level male hockey players.

Bhuller (1991) conducted a study on five groups of sports women specializing in hockey, hand ball, basket ball, cricket and volley ball, by using 16 PF questionnaires. The results of inter group comparison with the help of t-ratio revealed that hockey group was characterized by being emotionally stable (c) assertive (e) tough minded (I) lively (F) and venturesome (H). The hand ball group
was venturesome (H) like hockey players. The traits of volley ball group observed were E (Mild), F (Sober), and H (Shy) cricket group excellent in A (Outgoing) and volley ball in H (Venturesome). All the five groups in spite of differences in games had basically some common traits.

Verma (1986) administered Sinha Anxiety scale to university athletes and non athletes and found that the anxiety level was highest in basket ball group followed by Hockey, Volley ball, Athletic, Non-Sportsmen and lowest in Cricket.

Singh Rambali (1989) has conducted a study on 400 students (200 sportsmen and 200 non sportsmen) and compared the personality traits and achievement motivation of two groups. Cattell’s 16 PF and Gandhi and Srivastava’s Achievement motivation scales were administered. The results show that the sportsmen scored significantly higher on the personality traits of emotional stability, intelligence, trustworthiness, assertiveness, obedience, independence, relaxed temperament and practicability than non-sportsmen. Contrary to it the sportsmen were found to have weak ego strength and are apprehensive, less intelligent, less stable, tense and humble. Like wise, the sportsmen were possessing significantly higher achievement motivation than the non-sportsmen. The sports group and the non sports group differ in terms of second order personality factors. Sports group scored significantly higher on extroversion, tough poise and independent dimensions where as non sports group scored higher on anxiety.

Williams (1980) from his study found that within a sport there is still some question about differences between those who excel and those who do not but certain consistencies appear to prevail. In general the successful athletes will score
higher than the less successful ones on personality attributes of assertion, dominance, aggression, reservation, self-sufficiency and need for achievement, and he/she will score lower on dimensions of anxiety, depression, schizoid features, fatigue and confusion. The data on intelligence is inconsistent.

Kirkcaldy (1982) in his study administered the Eysenck personality questionnaire to athletes. By comparing team and individual athletes using univariate and multiple discrimination function analysis method, no significant differences were found to exist among the personality dimensions. However, when team sports were considered separately and by categorizing athletes into one of the three classes (offensive, center and defensive players), it was found that males in attacking positions were substantially higher in “Psychoticism (tough minded, dominant, aggressive) and extroversion” compared to mid-field players. The forward, offensive players were less easily differentiated from defensive players, the later group exhibiting a more “emotionally stable” pattern than the offensive athletes. In females the trend was somewhat reversed, that is attacking players were less extroverted and neurotic than players from other positions.