Chapter - 1

INTRODUCTION

Keep close to experience; add as little of your own as possible; if you have to add something, be mindful to give an account of every step you take.
— F.M. Urban
Throughout the ages, scholars have been interested in the psyche of the athlete. Greek philosophers linked their athletes closely to their God, and suggested that athletic excellence implied a kind of spiritual purity. More recently experimental psychologists and neo-Freudian psychoanalysts have attempted to determine some of the parameters of high-level physical skill.

One spurious assumption sometimes voiced is that eliciting superior athletic performance is solely a problem of psychologically preparing the athlete. Ignored is the indication that superior athletes probably possess innate perceptual-motor attributes somehow different from those of the mediocre performance. If a group of people are subjected to the same practice conditions, influenced by the personality of the same coach, and encouraged to persist in their efforts by the same kinds of motivation conditions, their final performance will differ widely.

Despite the fact that individual differences in neuromotor make-up influence performance in basic ways, the kind of environment in which the athlete practices, the dynamics of interaction between team-mates,
and the personal attributes of the performer himself all influence the quality and quantity of effort he will put forth. The athlete’s stable personal characteristics as well as the influence of relatively transitory factors will significantly affect his performance. It has been observed in the games of the XXXVIth Olympiad Centennial Olympic games held at Atlanta (U.S.A.). These games presented to the world a fascinating pageant of youth from different parts of the world who offered their best in terms of achievements born out of meticulous planning and painstaking efforts, dogged will, motivation, dedication and perseverance of sports persons.

Suinn (1976) Jean Clavate Killy, a three times winner of Olympic gold medals, stated that his only preparation for race was to ski (the course) mentally. Suinn uses several techniques of sports psychology to enhance performance. Of course, the methods were tailored to meet the need of each athlete.

The importance of sports is a universally established thought of Rishis and great thinkers of the east and the west. In the words of Doncash Seaton (1956), “Sports by their nature are enjoyable challenging, all absorbing and require a certain amount of skill and physical condition.” In order of human values conquest in the field of
sports holds a unique place. It is success, victory, triumph and domination of some over other teammates and friends because sports are comradeship and friendship. The sublimity of competition lies in the loser’s acclaims for the winner, which along with the friendly hand shape acknowledges both defeat and triumph.

Sports are as old as Human Society, and it has achieved a universal following in the modern times. It now enjoys popularity, which outstrip any other form of social activity. It has become an integral part of the educational process. Millions of fans follow different sports events all over the world with enthusiasm boarding on devotion may participate in sports activities for the fun of it or for health, strength and fitness. It is taking the shape of a profession to some with high skills, with ample financial benefits linked with high level of popularity.

Sports now-a-days have assumed a major influence in the world and in every day life. It reflects society, particularly with regard to the character of human and institutional relations, and ideological foundations rationalizing those relations. Man’s efforts towards achievement, even record achievements in Sport, have their roots in the valuation that society puts upon physical-culture and sports. One must start from the assumption that readiness and ability of an individual as a
social and biological being in sport reflects the economic, ideological, political, cultural, scientific, technical and social etc., objectives and tasks of the different social formations and classes; in other words, the totality of social influences. According to Novikov, social and economic factors affect the performance of the players.

At the present time sports have achieved such high levels of development that the physical, technical and tactical perpetration of the strongest athletes in the world is approximately the same. The major competition, the more stressful the sports become.

Sports are psychosocial activity. It has both psychological and social dimensions besides physiological and technical aspects. Man’s interest in sports is found in all societies of the world. Most of the nations share a common interest in sports competition, especially at certain times such as during the Olympic games, where people from all nations focus their attention on that drama of competition. But the quality of the participation of the athletes and sportsmen are determined by their psychological factors. In this modern era of competition, the psychological preparation of a team is as much important as teaching the different skills of a game on the scientific lines. The teams are prepared
not only to play the games, but also to win the games. And for winning the games, what is important is not only the proficiency in the skills, which bring victory, but also the spirit of the players, with which they play and perform their best in the competition.

Sports, all over the world has emerged as a very competitive area of human activity. Not only sports persons but also people from various walks of like have shown their interest in the world of sports. Sport persons have come forward with more enthusiasm and zeal. Their approach towards sport have became. Professional each and every nation wants to produce the best sports personalities. Besides these factors, psychology of a sports person plays an important role in clinching a medal. Various advanced countries have made efforts in the direction of mental development of their sports persons. Psychological training has become an essential part of the athletic conditioning for sportsmen.

The application of psychological factors to the improvement of performance in sports has received greater attention during these days. There are certain accepted psychological factors, which have to be applied, so that the sportsmen and non-sportsmen may be able to show their best in their performance. Coaches, physical educationists and sports scientists have always expressed a great need to know more about those
psychological principles, which are helpful in improving the motor skills of the players. It is important to know about the role of reaction time, movement time, emotional phenomena like competitive anxiety adjustment and some personality traits like extraversion and neuroticism of the players during training as well as competitive situations.

**ROLE OF SPORTS PSYCHOLOGY**

Presently coaches and physical educators have become more conscious and concerned about the psychological and sociological aspects of sports rather than merely physiological fitness and skill in the various activities. They realized that psychological and sociological characteristics of the participants contribute more towards their success than more physical fitness. They further need to know more about principles of motor learning, patterns of growth and development, the role of emotional phenomena, motivation for the peak performance, interpersonal relationship and character traits of the athletes.

Kellor (1898) emphasized saying that the players do not play with their bodies alone but they use various mental process side by side. Hall (1908) reiterated that physical education is not an end in itself but it is for the sake of mental and moral culture. It is to make the intellect feeling and will more vigorous, sane, supple and resourceful.
Venek and Cratty (1970) mentioned that founder of modern Olympic movement, De Coubertin wrote a book in 1913 entitled “Essay in Sports Psychology” in which he described sports as an aesthetic expression as well as educational tool for attaining better emotional balance.

Kane (1972) opined that “… an individual’s physical athletic abilities are related to his personality structure. The environment in which physical abilities are displayed (e.g. in games and sports) constitutes an ideal setting for the development of desirable personality characteristics such as confidence, sociability, self-reliance, co-operativeness and general personal adjustment.

Suinn (1976) and Llewellyn and Blucker (1982) have stressed on use of specifically tailored psychological techniques to suit a particular event of sports person like many other techniques initiated in professional sports, the sports psychology has begun to occupy a prominent place in the design of sports programmes.

It is believed that biological capabilities of athlete have reached to the saturation point. Therefore future record will be broken with psychological approach of the competition. In modern competitive sports, psychological factors of an individual or a team have become as much
important as teaching of different skills of a game on scientific lines. Today, the war is fought and won with psychological strategies and not with guns only and sophisticated weapon. Same is the case with modern competitive sports for winning a game or a race.

It is not the proficiency in skills and acquisition of physical process but also psychological attributes. It is, therefore, will document that performance in sports at high level is characterized by a strong reliance upon understanding the psychological make-up of the performer.

Recent increasing scientific investigations and keen observations by coaches and physical personals in the allied fields have brought to light a variety of physical, physiological, psychological, sociological, cultural and environmental factors that are taught to be responsible for success in sports. The involvement of psychology in sports has largely arisen from a traditional interest in areas such a personality, emotional state, motivation, self-concept, anxiety, creative thinking, aspiration etc. There are still numerous psychological dimensions which directly or indirectly influence results of competitive sports which are still lying unexplored.

The researcher has made an attempt to explore non-conventional or terms appropriate ones towards which to direct
aggression. It may also be caused by the fact that fans are frustrated because their teams or heroes are losing and the fans can do nothing about it.

ANXIETY

Anxiety is a central concept studied by various behavioural and medical specialists particularly by psychologist. The importance of anxiety in contemporary life is increasingly recognized. Nobody can escape from the bending sickle of these phenomena. It is still ambiguous to define the anxiety. An important source of ambiguity and confusion in the theory and research on anxiety is that the terms stresses and anxiety are used interchangeably.

In sports competitions, anxiety is one of the important psychological factor influencing sports performance. Anxiety is a complex emotional state characterised by general fear or forbidding usually accompanied by tension. It is related to apprehension and fear and is frequently associated with failure either real or anticipated.

Anxiety is an effect that occurs in all players, arises and diminishes at various times and various circumstances. Nearly every concern on human endeavour is thought to be affected, somehow, by anxiety (Lavitt, 1967). The hallmark of anxiety is a feeling of apprehension, accompanied by the idea that some noxious is about to happen.
Anxiety experience may include sweating, increased heartbeat rate, heightened blood pressure, rapid and shallow breathing, nausea, chest pain, frequent urination, choking sensation, dizziness, hot and cold flashes, paintness and trembling or shakiness (American Psychiatric Association, 1980).

During playing situation, either in individuals or team games, the players are by the large fearful to some degree which eventually affects their performances. The degree to which anxiety levels in an individual interfere with his performances, therefore, is probably related to the individual's feelings about success or failure and this overall need for achievement (Cratty, 1973).

In the behavioural and medical sciences, theoretical and empirical interest in anxiety parallels popular concern. Every citizen of our society realizes on the basis of his/her own experiences, as well as, his/her observation of those around that anxiety is a pervasive and profound phenomenon. It is regarded as a principal causative agent for such diverse behavioural consequences as in Somalia, immoral acts, debilitating psychological and psychosomatic symptoms, and idiosyncratic mannerisms of endless variety.
While fear and covert anxiety have always been a part of man’s lot, not until the twentieth century did they emerge as an explicit and pervasive problem. Freud is believed to be the first to present a comprehensive view of the nature of anxiety. Freud (1920) singled out anxiety as the crucial problem of emotional and behavioural disorders. Not only is in abnormality, but in the actions of normal people as well, it was recognized that anxiety was much more prevalent than was suspected several decades ago.

Empirical research on anxiety has been increased dramatically in the past five or six decades. Since 1950, five thousands articles and books on anxiety have been published (Spielberger, 1972). In the present age of competition, all round increase in life stress is a constant source of anxiety.

Anxiety influences behavioural across species, culture, races and civilizations. It knows no distinction of age, sex, status, language, religion, ideology, education or occupation. This phenomena is manifested at all levels- conscious, sub-conscious as well as unconscious, in dreams while we are fast asleep, as well as when we are awaking, in slips of tongue, increased rates of pulse and palpitation, in private whisper or public appearance, in overt expressions as well as covert
feelings. Every conscious endeavour to conceal anxiety results into still greater manifestation of anxiety. The clever ego, the cunning self, in an attempt to safeguard itself waves many defenses around the self.

Anxiety has been viewed in many different ways but no systematic theory or deep analysis of anxiety was made prior to Sigmund Freud – the father of psychoanalytic theory. After going through the psychoanalytic literature, it can be said that the concept of anxiety has gone through a constant evolution which leads to two distinct approaches to anxiety. First, the clinical applied perspective beginning with Freud’s psychoanalytic theory, and second, an experimental perspective emphasizing the role of learning.

Anxiety knows no gestation period, sometimes it is experienced spontaneously. At other times, it does into abeyance and may take a long time in manifestation. The influence of anxiety may range from minor to major disturbances in human behaviour, thought and personality development. It may adversely affect one’s performance from simple psychomotor to perceptual academic and even intellectual fields.

The conception and manipulation of anxiety as a research variable has taken place both within and without the framework of psychoanalytic theory. Anxiety has been viewed in many different ways but no
systematic theory or deep analysis of anxiety was made prior to Sigmund Freud.

Freud (1920) is believed to be the first to present a comprehensive view of the nature of anxiety. In his book, an emotional state or condition in which there was a specific un-pleasurable quality, and some motor discharge, and in which the individual perceived these two qualities. Freud initially believed that anxiety results from the inability of the ego to repress id impulses, but later he considered anxiety as a signal to the organism of impending danger. Freud indicated that this danger may be external or it may be the result of the ego’s anticipation that it will be overwhelmed by the expression of sexual and/or aggressive impulses.

Freud (1920) made a distinction among reality anxiety, Neurotic anxiety, and moral anxiety. Reality anxiety has an external source and is proportionate to the threat posed by the feared object or situation. Neurotic anxiety arises when the demands came from super ego. It arises from intrapsychic conflicts between id and ego. Moral anxiety is generated by the super ego as a struggle against immoral thoughts or acts, largely the origin of which is the idea. Freud explains further that defense mechanisms as denial, repression, reaction formation and displacement are used to reduce anxiety. The number of defence mechanisms varies
considerably. Though originally nine, as given by Freud, his followers have raised their number to more than two dozens.

Levitt (1968) argued that employment of defence mechanisms usually involves some distortions of reality. These distortions, for most of use, are not serious ones. However, when the intensity of anxiety rises sharply, the defence tend to rigidity and to extend their influence over the individual’s behaviour repertory.

Since Freud’s conceptualisation, there have been a number of theoretical accounts of anxiety (e.g. Epstein, 1973; Lader and Marks, 1971). The majority of these conceptualisations have arisen out of direct clinical applied settings. Representative positions on anxiety include those of Sullivan (1953; anxiety as a perceived negative evaluation by significant others), Goldstein (1939; anxiety as a catastrophic reaction), Rogers (1951; anxiety as a threat to existence). Mandler (1972) concludes that the majority of the theoretical attempts to conceptualize anxiety are modifications of classic analytic theory. Mandler himself preferred to use the term helplessness rather than anxiety.

In contrast to the clinical-applied perspective that viewed anxiety as resulting from perceived danger, the emphasis of the experimental perspective during this period was to conceptualize anxiety either as
classically conditioned (Mowerer, 1939; Powlov, 1927). Or as a drive state which motivates the organism to further behaviour (Dollard and Miller 1950; Spance and Taylor, 1953; Spance and Spance, 1966).

In addition to the clinical-applied and experimental perspectives, a third body of research was initiated during the 1960. This approach is called personality-research perspective, which emphasized the identification and measurement of: (i) personality dispositions of traits, (ii) factors that influence stress reactions, and (iii) particular anxiety states. Dollard and Miller also reinterpreted Freudian personality theory in terms of a drive reduction model of behaviour. In a new classic study of anxiety, Miller (1948) demonstrated that anxiety was learned because it had been associated with a previous neutral stimulus and has drive properties and because it motivated the learning of new instrumental behaviours to reduce the drive state. In their textbook “Personality and Psychotherapy”, Dollard and Miller (1950) applied drive reduction theory to higher mental processes, conflicts, and behaviour changes.

The emphasis on the acquired drive properties of anxiety reached its height during the period 1950-1965 with the work of Taylor and Spence. Taylor (1953) interpreted the general notion of drive state as incorporating “the level of internal anxiety or emotionality”.

For other, anxiety is conceived as drive and is defined as a ‘non-directive’ energizing friction assigned in “Hullian Theory”. In terms of this theory, it is stated that in simple situation, person with high anxiety would learn more rapidly than those with low anxiety. Anxiety is like fire, it is both useful and dangerous, depending upon its intensity, the form of expression and the way in which it is controlled.

According to Costello (1976), anxiety appears when the person perceives the anticipated and evaluated events or situations as impossible to master. These situations may be regarding his need to take decisions or even handle unknown problems considered as difficult. Becker (1981) links fear and anxiety with anticipation of personally meaningful situations of loss, misfortune or deficit. According to him, if individuals anticipate coping with the threat, the result is fear, but if they doubt this coping ability, or perceive themselves as helpless, it results into anxiety.

Cattell and Schiner (1971) made first systematic attempt to identify and measure two distinct anxiety constructs: state anxiety and trait anxiety in their book, “The Meaning and Measuring of Neuroticism and Anxiety”. They also indicated that during the period 1900-1945 psychologists were primarily interested in the definition and measurement of traits (e.g., Allport, 1966, 1937; Allport and Odert, 1936) to the
exclusion of states. Cattell’s first analysis of mood states was published in 1947 and his later book, “Personality and Mood by Questionnaire (Cattell, 1973) describes the 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire (16 PF) which he developed, in part, to measure anxiety state and trait.

Lazarus (1966) describes stress as a stimulus and as a response. As a stimulus, stress is defined as a circumstance external to the person that makes unusual or extraordinary demands (Lazarus, 1969). The second meaning of stress has its emphasis on response characteristics rather than on the conditions that produce stress. Lazarus (1966) indicated four main classes of reactions that have typically been used to indicate stress: (i) reports of disturbed affects, e.g. fear, anxiety, anger; (ii) motor behaviours, e.g. tremors, increased muscle tension, speech disturbances; (iii) changes in adequacy of cognitive functioning, e.g. thought interruption, perceptional distortions; and (iv) physiological changes such as in heart rate and respiration.

Lazarus studies the relationship between threat and anxiety and prefers the term ‘threat’. He also considers threat as an intervening variable in psychological stress and indicates two main properties of threat: (1) it is anticipatory, involving expectations of future harm, and (2) it is dependent on cognitive processes (Lazarus, 1966). Lazarus and
his colleagues placed heavy emphasis on the cognitive processes that mediate between threat producing environmental situations and the particular emotional reactions employed by individuals to counter threat. Great emphasis is placed on the manner in which an individual apprehends or interprets a given situation and how that interpretations relates to his mode of expressing specific copying responses. More work is discussed in considerable detail in seven major works: Lezarus (1966, 1967, 1969); Lazarus and Option (1966), Lazarus, Averill and Option (1968, 1970); and Lazarus and Averill (1972). Other individuals who have made major contributions to the understanding of the relationship among anxiety, stress, and copying include Epstein (1972), Eriksson (1966), Hodges (1968), Jones (1958), Levitt (1967), Schachter (1966) and Sarason (1960).

Another important perspective of anxiety emerged in the studies of Charles Spielberger. His book, “Anxiety and Behaviour” (Spielberger, 1966) represents his initial statement of state-trait anxiety theory. State anxiety (A-state) is conceptualized as a transitory emotional state of condition of the human organism that is characterized by subjective, consciously perceived feelings of tension and apprehension, and heightened autonomic nervous activity (Spielberger, 1970). Level of A-
state should be high in circumstances that are perceive by an individual to be threatening, irrespective of the objective danger. A-state intensity should be low in non-stressful situations of in circumstances or in circumstances in which an existing danger is not perceived as threatening. At various times, anxiety has been conceptualized as a response, a stimulus, a trait, a motive and a drive (Spielberger, 1972).

Spielberger (1972) has also delineated the differences between stress, threat, and anxiety. For him, the terms stress and threat are used to identify different aspect of a temporal sequence of events that result in a state anxiety reaction. Stress is identified in terms of an objective stimulus situation that may involve environmental conditions that occur naturally (e.g. Fire, disasters, personal traumas) or that are manipulated in some laboratory situation (e.g. electric shock in laboratory). Thus stress refers to some stimulus conditions external to the organism that is characterized by some degree of danger as defined by the individual himself, consensually validated by others, or established by some experiments. Threat refers to the individual idiosyncratic perception of a particular situation as physically or psychologically dangerous. The particular appraisal of a situation as dangerous or threatening will be determined by a number of characteristics (Spielberger, 1972; Lazarus,
1966) including one's belief system, skills, attitudes, aptitudes and previous reinforcement history.

Another concept that must be related to A-state, stress, and threat is anxiety as a personality trait. In contrast to the transitory fluctuating nature of A-state reactions, trait anxiety (A-trait) refers to relatively stable individual differences in anxiety proneness (Spielberger et. al., 1970; Spielberger, 1966). Trait anxiety can also be conceptualized in terms of specific tendency to perceive the world in a certain way. Trait anxiety can be defined (Spielberger et al., 1970) as follows.

Traits anxiety (A-trait) refers to the relatively stable individual differences between people in a tendency to respond to situations perceived as threatening with elevations in A-state anxiety. Trait anxiety... indicates differences in the strength of a latent disposition to manifest a certain type of reaction.

Spielberger indicates that whether a particular personality trait will be expressed in behaviour at a given moment to time will be depend on strength of the trait and the presence of appropriate stimuli (Spielberger, 1972). In general, however, it is expected that those who are higher in A-trait will tend to exhibit A-state elevations more frequently than low A-
trait individuals. Individual with very high levels of A-trait are often described as neurotically anxious.

Spielberger (1972) indicated two general ways in which A-state are reduced; specific behaviours and defence mechanisms. Such methods of reducing A-state are similar to those elaborated by Lazarus (direct and indirect expressions of copying). Spielberger's description also includes the role of sensory and cognitive feedback through which the individual is continually evaluating and re-evaluating the stimulus situation.

From the existing literature on anxiety it becomes apparent that it has been comprehensively studied in terms of four main trends.

1. A multifactorial rather than unidimensional view of anxiety.
2. The application of anxiety theory and measurement to new target populations.
3. A renewed interest in the development of self-control and self regulatory procedures to deal with anxiety.
4. An increased emphasis on the interaction of the person and the situation in anxiety research.

Historically, anxiety has been conceptualized as a unitary construct. More recent researches (Cattell, 1973; Spielberger, 1972) have suggested that anxiety is multi-dimensional. Recently research attempts
have been made to delineate different components of both the A-state and A-trait and to develop different measures to represent these components. Asserting the multidimensional approach, Endler (1975), have discussed the theoretical implications of multi-dimensional nature of aims and related these implications to their proposed ‘interaction model’ of anxiety. They have suggested that construct of trait anxiety is complex and involves several dimensions other than the disposition to respond with higher levels of A-state anxiety in a stressful social situation.

A second trend concerns the application of anxiety theory and measurement to new target populations. The medical population is one such target populations. The medical population is one such target population that has recently received considerable attention. The study of Auerbach (1973) is illustrative of this trend. Lazarus (1975) and Lazarus (1973) provide a comprehensive discussion of the relationship between stress and copying to medical illness and surgery. Their research suggest that recovery from surgery can be facilitated when individuals are provided with particular copying procedures.

The third trend of investigations has emphasized the individual’s use of self-control and self-regulatory procedures to deal with anxiety. Averill (1973) presents a review of the current status of the concept status
of the concept of personal control as it relates to stress. He found that
general assumption that control helps to reduce stress is not highly
generalizable and that there is a complex relationship between stress and
types of control. Types of control can sometime increase, sometime
reduce, and sometime have no effect on stress. In the context of their
cognitive behaviour modification approach to the management of anxiety
and other disruptive emotions, Meichenbaum (1975, 1974) and
Meichenbaum and Turk (1975) have also presented a cognitive theory of
self-control. This theory has recently been applied to the cognitive-
behavioural management of anxiety, danger and pain, as well as other
emotional reactions and behavioural problems.

In summarizing the growing emphasis on self-regulatory
procedures, Lazarus (1975) suggests that the best strategy for such
research is to study normally functioning individuals longitudinally from
one situation to another. This approach is exemplified in the works of
Endler (1975) and Ekenhammar et. al. (1974) who emphasize the
interaction of the person and situation in understanding anxiety and
stress. Rather than focusing exclusively on personality traits or situational
specificity, Endler (1975) incorporates both these categories of variables
in the interaction approach to anxiety. Three additional research efforts
that have emphasized both the situational and personal (trait) components of emotions and anxiety are those of Averill (1975), Epstein (1973, 74), and Sarason et al. (1976).

**Types of Anxiety**

Wolman (1979) emphasized that anxiety is a sign of the ego weakness, when the ego is hard pressed by external reality, it develops "reality anxiety." When is it pressed by the superego which creates a feeling of guilt and superiority, the so-called "moral anxiety" appears. When the pressures of the id threaten to disrupt the ego, a "neurotic anxiety" develops. On the bases of these aspects of personality, anxiety can be categorized into three topics as given below:

1. **Objective or reality anxiety:**

   It is a reaction to external danger, it is a reaction to an anticipated threat development is re-experienced as a signal of danger and the individual faces the danger by a proper action of flight, or the past danger is re-experienced in its totality with all its paralyzing effects leading to abutter failure in counteracting the present danger.

2. **Neurotic Anxiety:**

   It is experienced in three ways. One is the anxiety neurosis, it is usually felt some sort of general apprehensiveness, deadfall expectancy
and, uneasiness. The anxiety neurosis is usually caused by undiscouraged excitation and the unsatisfied libido energy, which is transformed into anxiety.

The other type of neurotic anxiety takes place in hysteria and some other severe neuroses. The ideas attached to libido become repressed and distorted, and the energy, whether libidinal or destructive, turns into anxiety.

3. **Moral Anxiety**

Moral anxiety is a reaction to pressure, which is exercised by the superego. It is experienced as feelings of guilt or shame or a feeling of one's inferiority and inadequacy.

The factual threat to an organism does not necessarily produce anxiety. Anxiety can be produced by an imaginary threat, by inner tension, or by any other factor that is experienced as a threat.

**Spielberger (1975) gives two types of anxiety**

(i) State anxiety

(ii) Trait anxiety

(i) **State Anxiety:** State anxiety is a transitory condition and may very greatly from individual to individual and from one condition to another, not all conditions are equally threatening to all individuals.
(ii) **Trait Anxiety:** Trait anxiety is a term used to define the personality of one who frequently experiences anxiety, often where the strength of the stimulus for evoking anxiety is relatively weak, it refers to the prosperity of the individual to feel anxiety. This train appeals to vary among persons on a continuum for highly infrequent to an almost constant level of anxiety.

**Anxiety can also be divided into two other types:**

(i) General Anxiety

(ii) Test Anxiety

(i) **General Anxiety:** General anxiety would be a part of a disorder such as an evident disorder, in which anxiety is part of a general response to social encounter. General anxiety such as social anxiety, anxiety related with home, sickness of family members, disease due to mental and physical discomforts etc. may be called as general anxiety.

(ii) **Test Anxiety:** It has a state of tension and mental conflicts related to the quality of performance in these situation. It has been pointed out that a too much anxious school child often becomes confused in examination and is unable to recall answers to test questions.
which he has learnt. Test anxious child may be found more anxious in every situation.

Variables are his interaction approach to anxiety. Three additional research efforts that have emphasized both the situational and personal (trait) components of emotion and anxiety are those of Averill (1975), Epstein (1973,1974), and Sarason et. al. (1976).

**Measurement of Anxiety:**

Anxiety is typically measured by three procedures: (1) self-report measures (2) physiological measures, and (3) behavioural measures.

Self-report measures assess the individual’s subjective feelings by mean of verbal or written reports. The most widely used self-report measures of anxiety include the STAI (Spielberger et. al. 1970), Test anxiety Questionnaire (TAQ) by Mandler and Sarason (1952), The Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale (Taylor, 1953), the MMPI (Welsh, 1952), Children Manifest Anxiety Scale (CMAS) by Castaneda et. al. (1956), Anxiety Scale Questionnaire (ASQ) by Cattell and Scheier (1957), the Multstiple Affect Adjective Checklist (Zuckerman, 1960), the neuroticism scale of the Maudsely Personality Inventory (Eysenck, 1959), S-R inventory of anxiousness by Endler et. al., (1962), the fear survey schedule (FSS) by Geer (1965). The Subjective Stress Scale (SSS) by
Kerle and Bailek (1958), Freeman Manifest Anxiety Test (AAT) by Alpert and Haber (1966), the 16 PF (Cattell et. al., 1970) and the Mood Adjective Checklist (Nowlis, 1965). A relatively new instrument the profile of mood states (POMS) has also been developed (McNair et. al., 1971). Projective techniques are most important and effective self-report instruments used by psychologists in clinical evaluations. The use of Rorschach in blots and other techniques for eliciting fantasy productions is usually based on the assumption that the subject projects characteristics and tendencies personally relevant and often convert into his description of a relatively ambiguous stimulus. Sarason and others (1960) conducted a study on ‘Rorschach’ behaviour and performance of high and low anxious children. They selected subjects differing in anxiety scores (32 each), and than compared these groups with reference to intellectual performance and Rorschach response. They found that the Rorschach Analysis resulted in significant discrimination between the two groups.

Although it is generally found that various self-report measures obtained in the same experimental situation tend to correlate substantially with one another, there is typically no strong between self-report and other measure of anxiety taken concurrently. Commonly used tests of anxiety in India are Indian version of Taylor’s Manifest Anxiety Scale
(Sinha, 1962). N-Scale of Moudsely Personality Inventory (Singh, 1964), Hindi version of State-Triat Anxiety Inventory (Spielberger et. al., 1973), Sharma Manifest Anxiety Scale (Sharma, 1970, 1972), Indian Adaptation of ASQ, Hindi and Punjabi version of Sarason’s Test anxiety Scale for Children (Nijhawan, 1972), Adaptation of GASC and TASC (Pandit, 1969), Hindi version of TAQ of Mandler and Sarason (1952). Some tests are of Indian origin, namely, Sinha Anxiety Scale (Sinha, 1961), Dutt’s (1964) Anxiety Questionnaire (DAQ), Children Manifest Anxiety Scale (Murlidharan and Sharma, 1971), Sinha’s Self Analysis Form (Anxiety Scale) in Hindi (Sinha, 1966), State Trait Anxiety Test (STAT) by Psycom (English version only), Sinha’ Comprehensive Anxiety Test (SCAT) (Sinha and Singh, 1968), and Job Anxiety Scale (JAS) by Srivastava (1978).

Although a number of researchers (Martin and Stroufe 1970; Krause, 1961) prefer the use of self-report measure, there are many difficulties with these measures also (Widle, 1972).

**Physiological Measures:**

Initially, began to be extensively used because the validity of a subjective report of feelings on anxiety is sometime doubtful because of the tendency of denial of the awareness of anxiety. Autonomic nervous
system reactions can seldom be controlled voluntarily and are thus immune from denial (Levitt, 1968). It is this consideration perhaps which promoted the use of many physiological reactions to measure anxiety states.

Physiological aspect of anxiety is generally assessed by such measures as heart rate, vascular responsiveness, Galvanic Skin response, and palmer sweating. Several authors (Maher, 1966; Malino, 1957) have found that physiological measures can discriminate between subjects designated as high-or low-anxious by self-report procedures when the subjects are placed under stressful situation. Yet it has been also found that physiological measures do not always differentiate between high and low-anxious subjects in either stressful (Katkin, 1965) or non-stressful conditions (Martin and Stroufe, 1970). Mehar (1966) indicates that although correlations between self-report and physiological measure tend to be high during period of stress, the relationship is not at great as when the measures are obtained during non-stressful circumstances. Other summaries of the assessment of anxiety through physiological measures are presented by Lader and Marks (1971), McReynolds (1968) and Levitt (1967).
The third approach to the measurement of anxiety involves the use of behavioural measures. In this approach, various behaviours indicative of anxiety are judged to be present or absent. One of the well known behavioural measures of anxiety is that developed by Paul (1966) to assess anxiety while giving a speech. Although behavioural measures of anxiety appear to be quite reliable internally, they have not always found to be related to other measures. Lamb (1973) for example, found no systematic relationship between behaviours associated with speech anxiety and scores on various self report and physiological measures of anxiety.

Other investigators have also found that the relationship among the three kinds of measures is generally not strong. Leitenberg et. al., (1971) report a lack of any relationship between physiological and behavioural measures, whereas Schroeder and Craine (1971) report generally low correlations between behavioural and self-report measures of specific fears. In addition, Lamb (1973), Katkin (1965) and Martin (1961) reported low correlations between their physiological and self-report measures of anxiety.

Spielberger (1966) has provided a portrait account of comparison of self-report measures of trait anxiety with physiological indices. Since
physiological measures typically reflect the intensity of A-state rather than A-trait, significant relationships between these state and trait measures would not be expected. Lacey et. al. (1953) have explained the lack of relationship between self-report and physiological measures of anxiety in terms of response specificity. The phenomena of response specificity suggests that it would be helpful to obtain multiple physiological measures in stress situation as well as to identify the autonomic channel that is most likely used by a particular individual in a stress situation.

Another possible explanation for the discrepancy among three kinds of measures of anxiety stems from a series of investigations that have delineated the various components of state anxiety. Luschene (1970) examined the relationship between three components of A-state in different kinds of stressful situations. The three components of A-state anxiety were ideational (items related to cognitive or thought processes and without obvious reference to either autonomic or motor activity), motoric (items related primarily to the muscular-skeletal system, and/or motor activity) and autonomic (items related to organ systems innervated by the autonomic nervous system). These three components are very similar to the self-report, behavioural, and physiological measure of
anxiety. Whereas, both physical and psychological stresses produced increase in all the components of A-state than in the ideational or motoric component. This approach of isolating the separate components of A-state is encouraging in that some of the components might interact with the type of stress situation, which the individual is placed.

In a similar line of research, Morris and Libert (1974) have distinguished between a worry component and an emotionality component of anxiety. These authors have defined worry as a cognitive concern about the outcome of a future event, whereas emotionality is defined as a physiological or affective arousal elicited primarily by the stressful cues present in a particular anxiety-provoking situation (Morris and Libert, 1974). These authors found that worry scores were aroused in a psychological stress situation (failure-threat), whereas emotionality scores were evaluated only in physical stress (shock-threat) situation.

Spielberger et. al. (1967, 1968, 1970) report a number of studies in which positive correlation between the A-trait Scale (STAI) with other standard A-trait Scale (STAI) with other standard A-trait measures such as the IPAT anxiety scale, the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale, and the Zuckerman Affective Adjective Checklist (AACI-general) has been found. There is also a variety of evidence (e.g., Auerback, 1973b;
Johnson, 1968; Lamb, 1973; Spielberger et. al., 1970). For the stability of A-trait measures across different experimental situations. Cattell (1973) has also observed that psychometric measures of anxiety show moderately high-correlation among themselves. He found a correlation of .70 between his anxiety scale and n-scale of Eysenck’s MPI. Similarly, Sharma (1978), in his exhaustive review of anxiety research in India, reports that coefficients of correlation among different measures of anxiety, for different samples, ranged between 0.56 to 0.76.

NEUROTICISM

The field of personality psychology is centrally concerned with the traits that characterize human species as well as the major ways in which individuals characteristically differ (Buss, 1962).

Eysenck (1947) proposed a three-dimensional model of Personality: Introversion-Extraversion (E), Neuroticism (N), and Psychoticism (P), and a psychobiological model to parallel the three dimensions (Eysenck, 1967, 1981; Eysenck and Eysenck, 1985). The model is a hierarchical one that conceptualizes each of the three broad dimensions subdivided into habits of reaction or aggregates of behavioural instances. The number of factors that one regards as basic depends on the level at which one chooses to describe personality.
Eysenck and Eysenck (1969) have chosen to concentrate on the highest level of analysis because the super traits are more replicable across sex, age, methods and different questionnaires. Eysenck and Long (1986) have recently shown remarkable similarity in the three factors found in the items of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ, adult and Junior versions) across sex and countries.

The P.E.N. model constitutes a paradigm in personality research (Eysenck, 1983), and fulfils the stringent criteria suggested for acceptance of a paradigm (Eysenck, 1991).

A neurotic is a person of imbalanced judgement, one who’s actions are promoted by emotions rather than by dictates of clam reasoning. Eysenk says that the lack of sociability must be regarded as an index of neuroticism.

The neurosis has, form the standpoint of classification, two connotations. In the first and historical connotation, its meaning is purely descriptive. It is a term referring to conditions characterised by certain mental and physical symptoms and sings according in various combinations.

And the other connotation is more fundamental since it is an etiological one. This is to the effect that the existence of a neurotic
reaction is an indication of mental conflict. Neurotic reactions are the commonest modes of faulty response to the stresses of life and especially to those inner tensions that come about from confused and unsatisfactory relationships with other people, whether they are a legacy from the past or from early childhood onwards, which remain in hinder future adaptations or arise in the present in relation to hopes, ambitions, jealousies and so forth.

Karan Horney was of the view that neurosis is a result not of inner conflict between id, ego and superego but of conflict between an individual and his environment. He shifts the focal point in a neurosis from within a person to out side world. Neurosis is a result of insecurity and it may develop in childhood as the boys and girls are deprived of acceptance at any stage, but are commonest in adolescence and in early adult life, women are more prone to them than man.

According to the dynamic model, neurosis is a special pattern of behaviour that is instigated and maintained for the purpose of contending with stress and avoiding anxiety.

Therefore, various theories have been advanced by psychologists regarding the causes of neurosis. For example, Charcot believed that the source of trouble in hysteria was to be found in an inherited weakness,
while Frued believed it to be a weakness of the ego over-powered by a stronger superego. Janet, on the other hand, believed hysteria to be a splitting of the psyche or mind. A person who suffer from neurosis is tense and feels unhappy but is generally able to adjust fairly will to normal life.

Persons high on Neuroticism are anxious, depressed, tense, irrational, shy, moody and emotional. They also show guilt feelings and low self esteem. Holdroyd and Coyne (1987) stated that neuroticism reflects "a biased style of perceiving physiological experiences". According to Larsen (1992) personality traits related to neuroticism are associated with heightened levels of self-reported illness symptoms. Moreover, persons high on neuroticism are more attentive to and vigilant for signs of impending trouble. They tend to be more ruminative, apprehensive, and negativistic, and will complain more about normal or unusual bodily sensations.

A person having a higher score on neuroticism is "an anxious, worrying individual, moody and frequently depressed. He is likely to sleep badly, and to suffer from various psychosomatic disorders. He is overly emotional, reacting too strongly to all sorts of stimuli, and finds it difficult to get back on an even keel after each emotionally arousing
experience. His strong emotional reactions interfere with his proper adjustment, making him to react in irrational and sometimes in rigid ways" (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1975).

A stable individual, on the other hand, “tends to respond emotionally only slowly and generally weekly, and to return to baseline quickly after emotional arousal; he is usually clam, even-tempered, controlled and unworried.” (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1975).

Regarding the causative side of the dimension of neuroticism, Eysenck points out that it is an inherited psychological disposition closely linked with the autonomic nervous system which governs a person’s emotional reactivity and may predispose him to the development of neurotic disorders under suitable circumstances (Eysenck, 1967, 1982, Eysenck and Eysenck, 1985).

Eysenck suggested that overall there are thee major types of concepts. Extraversion/introversion, neuroticism and psychoticism. He outlined the concepts of introversions extraversion (E) and neuroticism (N) in 1944. Those who were high on neuroticism were characterized by ‘badly’ organised personality, abnormality before illness, little energy, narrow interests. Those who were the extravert end of the E dimension
showed symptoms of hysteria and sex ‘anomalies’. Those at the introverts dimension showed depression, obsession and apathy.

Eysenck (1960) a persistent and versatile worker in this area proposed a definition of personality as “more or less, stable and enduring organisation of a person’s character and temperament, intellect and physique which determine his unique adjustment to the environment.

Eysenck’s descriptive system (1947) included four dimensions: Extraversion, Neuroticism, Psychoticism and intelligence. In terms of available evidence and fairly respectable data the first two dimensions emerge as most relevant. By dimensions Eysenck (1952) meant “focal points of frequently occurring groups of characteristic concentration of correlated traits which acts along a continue”. He has long argued that the explanatory concepts in personality should be as few as possible while still sufficiently numerous to do the predictive job. With this in mind, he states that the structure of the personality is dominated by a few types. In other words, types are at the pinnacle of the personality structure and therefore they exert the most commanding influence. ‘Type’s are composed of traits which, in turn, are comprised of numerous “habitual responses”. Which are the elements of habits.
Eysenck (1957) tried to link up personality dimensions with the main body of experimental and theoretical psychology and supported the view that the N factor (neuroticism) is closely related to the inherited degree of liability of the autonomic nervous system, while the E factor (extroversion) is closely related to the degree of excitation and inhibition prevalent in the central nervous system (Eysenck, 1960) this balance, too, is presumably largely inherited, and may be mediated by the ascending reticular formation (Eysenck, 1963). The strong influence of heredity on E and N has been shown in several studies, but clearest perhaps by Shields (1962), who found that identical twins brought up separately correlated very highly in both extraversion and neuroticism. Like it or not, say Eysenck the roots of personality are in neurophysiology and the hereditary forces that give it form. To a significant extent, differences in the personalities of individuals reflect differences in their neurophysiological make up.

Eysenck has extracted three types of super factors extraversion (E) neuroticism (N) and Psychoticism (P). He regards all three types as part of normal personality structure.
Diagram of Neuroticism

Neuroticism

Introversion

Super Ego

Psychoticism

Extraversion

Stability

Fig.1.1 EYSENCK’S THREE DIMENSIONAL SCHEME (Eysenck, 1947)
All three types are bipolar, with 'extraversion opposed to 'introversion' 'neuroticism' opposed to 'stability' and 'Psychoticism' opposed to super ego function as presented in Figure 1.1. The quantified description of these dimensions are as follows (1) extraversion dimension refer to a disposition to be sociable, out going carefree, optimistic, friendly, impulsive risk taking and unreliable, where as introversion to the disposition to be quiet, reserved, pessimistic, reliable, reflective and risk avoiding. Eysenck (1982) reported that the principal difference between extraversion and introversion are not behavioural but rather biological and genetic in nature. The primary causes of differences between extraverts and introverts is one of the cortical arousal level, a physiological condition that is largely inherited rather than learned. He has found evidence that extraverts are characterized by a lower level of cortical arousal than introverts consequently, they have higher sensory threshold and thus, lesser reactions to sensory stimulation. Introverts, conversely, are characterized by a higher level of arousal and as a result of a lower sensory threshold, they experience greater reactions to sensory stimulation (Eysenck 1967, Eysenck 1968, Eysenck 1981 and Eysenck and Eysenck 1969). These confirmatory evidence are originally derived from studies comparing introverts and extroverts on the EEG (Gale,
Coles and Blaydon 1969, Savage 1964) subsequent work has been reviewed by Gale (1973) who cited several experiments, findings indicate that introverts are indeed more highly aroused on E E G indices than are extraverts.

The second type extracted by Eysenck is neuroticism stability (N), like extraversion. Introversion, Neuroticism has a strong hereditary component (Eysenck 1967). People high on neuroticism tend to be emotionally labile and frequently complain of worry and anxiety as well as of bodily aches e.g. headaches, stomach difficulties dizzy shells etc. They are more irritable moody restless, excitable, changeable and unstable persons.

The most pervasive domain of personality scales contrasts adjustment or emotional stability with maladjustment or neuroticism. Although clinicians distinguish among many different kinds of emotional distress, from social phobia to agitated depression to borderline hostility, innumerable studies have shown that individuals prone to any one of these emotional states are also likely to experience others (Costa & McCrae, 1992). The general tendency to experience negative affects such as fear, sadness, embarrassment, anger, guilt, and disgust is the core of the N domain. However, N includes more than susceptibility to
psychological distress. Perhaps because disruptive emotions interfere with adaptation, men and women high in N are also prone to have irrational ideas, to be less able to control their impulses, and to cope more poorly than others with stress.

As the name suggest, patients traditionally diagnosed as suffering from neuroses generally score higher on measures of N (e.g., Eysenck and Eysenck, 1964). But the N scale of the NEO PI-R, like all its other scale, measures a dimension of normal personality. High scores may be at risk for some kinds of psychiatric problems, but the N scale should not be viewed as a measure of psychopathology. It is possible to obtain a high score on the N scale without having any diagnosable psychiatric disorder. Conversely, not all psychiatric categories imply high levels of N. For example, an individual may have an Antisocial Personality Disorder without having an elevated N score.

Individuals who score low on Neuroticism are emotionally stable. They are usually clam, even tempered, and relaxed and they are able to face stressful situations without becoming upset or rattled.

**Kinds of Neuroticism:**

There are three types of neurosis. They are:
1. **Anxiety Neurosis:**

These are the commonest of the neuroses and for tonally the most responsive to treatment. Anxiety may occur as a symptom in almost any psychiatric syndrome, here it is the leading and predominant feature. It goes beyond any normal reaction of fear and worry, it is more intense, more persistent and more disabling. It is however, always precipitated by some environmental situation or problem. A very similar syndrome may appear with no discoverable psychological cause and subside spontaneous in these causes anxiety has probably marked an underlying depression. In neurotic person his sleep may be broken or disturbed by unpleasant dreams or night-mares of pursuit perhaps or attack of falling or failure.

2. **Hysteria Neurosis:**

The study of neurotic symptoms was on the whole haphazard until Charcot, who was primarily a neurologist, began a systematic study of them, confining himself to be hysterical type of manifestation. Applying the methods of clinical observation which he had used for organic nervous diseases, he succeeded in formulating a group of clinical pictures of paralysis, contractors and convulsions which constituted a graded series of increasing complexity and all of which together he called hysteria; Its symptoms may be found as secondary features in both,
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functional and organic psychoses. One way, for example, find stuttering or an hysterical weakness of the legs in a psychotic depression or aphonic in the course of a schizophrenic illness. A brain tumour or other organic nervous system disease may release hysterical symptoms.

3. Obsessional Neurosis:

Aubrey Lewis defined obsessional neurosis that whenever a patient complains of some mental experience which is accompany by a feeling of subjective compulsion, so that he does not willingly entertain it, but on the contrary does his utmost to get rid of it, that is an obsession. It contains three essential elements viz., the feeling of subjective compulsion, the resistance to it and the retention of insight.

Obsessional symptoms may occur in many different kinds of nervous and mental illnesses, neurotic and psychotic, functional and organic illness. The patient’s peace mind is seriously disturbed by these symptoms and his daily life is to a lesser or greater extent hindered and disrupted by them. The term obsessional neurosis includes both obsessive ruminative and obsessive-compulsive states.

Factors of Neuroticism:

The behaviour that deviates from conventional ways of responding is called neurotic behaviour. It implies that something is wrong wither
with the functioning of person's nervous system or with his psyche. The deviant behaviour is not so acute as to cut off the individual from the realities of his environment. The individual remains in touch with his environment and is able to establish rapport with those around him.

Psychologists regarding the cause of neurosis have advanced various theories. For example, Charcot believed that the source of trouble in hysteria was to be found in an inherited weakness, while Freud believes it to be a weakness of the ego. Over-powered by a stronger superego. Janet on the other hand, believed hysteria to be a splitting of the psyche or min.

A person who suffers from neurosis is tense and feels unhappy but is generally able to adjust fairly well to normal life. The neurotic person tries to maintain balance of his personality and attempts to make adjustment by neurotic defence mechanisms. A neurosis is an unsuccessful "Solution" to a painful problem situation.

Clinical studies and some objective evidence point out that the cause of neurosis is the early relationship of the child with his parents. Parents, who are dominating, rejecting or critical of the actions of their child, create problem, which the child becomes seriously disturbed. As such child grows, he tends to generalize these feelings to other human
beings. He learns to see the world harsh and hostile and himself as incapable of dealing with it. He becomes an anxious adult.

**General Symptoms of Neuroticism:**

The general symptoms of neuroticism where it does operate, sums to facilitate the development of inner tension but this is less conspicuous than it is in the psychotic forms of illness, such as manic-depressive and schizophrenic conditions. The pathology of neurotic reactions, in other words, is essentially a pathology tally, a pathology of interpersonal relationships.

On this view the existence of mental conflict is the commonest reason for the existence of neurotic symptoms, but because the individual is unconscious either of the conflict within him, or at least of its connection with his symptoms, the neurotic symptoms appear in the ordinary sense to be irrational. Although they may consist for the most part of ideas, no rational explanation exists for them in terms of the rest of the patient's thoughts so far as he is able to give an account of them or if the mental conflict expresses itself as physical disturbances, such as blindness or paralysis or tremor, no physical disease can be found that can be regarded as causal.
A neurotic patient may be disconcerted by a morbid fear of travelling in a train or a bus or he may be unable to go more than a few yards from his own door, but he does not have the faintest notion why yet this fear may be so impelling that the attempt to walk a few yards in the open may prove utterly beyond him.

A complication must be considered here, in that neurotic reactions resulting from mental disturbances in earlier life may be perpetuated as habits of behaviour and attitude and so become part of the personality. Even single stresses, such as fatigue, may allow these characteristics to appear in such exaggerated form as to constitute an inadequacy of adaptation in the symptomatic form of a neurosis.

Disturbances of constitutional origin especially depression, may have a similar effect, and this probably accounts for some of the instances where symptoms of neurotic form cover an underlying depression.

**EXTROVERSION:**

Jung has divided human beings into two primary personality types—one is extrovert and the other is introvert. According to him, the extravert personality is interested in outward activities. He is usually cheerful self assured and talkative. He may be aggressive and demand approval. When in doubt or difficulty he turns to society for assurance and help. He has slow level of aspiration and shows no tendency to underestimate it. Extrovert finds the value of the life in objects he perceives.
FIG. 1.2 EYSENCK'S HIERARCHICAL MODEL OF PERSONALITY AS ILLUSTRATED BY EXTROVERSION
Eysenck and Eysenck (1985) have described the traits of Extraversion as sociable, lively, active, assertive, sensation seeking, carefree, dominant, urgent and venturesome. According to Schill et.al., (1987) subjects high on Extraversion tend to be aggressive and to lose their tempers quickly, while those low on this dimension seldom behave in an aggressive manner and rarely lose their tempers.

Eysenck used causative as well descriptive analysis of his personality dimensions. Eysenck and Eysenck, S.B.G. (1975) described the dimensions of extraversion introversion as measured by E.P.Q. as follows ‘High E Scores are indicative of extraversion. High E scoring individuals tend to be out going, impulsive and uninhabited, having many social contacts and frequently taking part in group activities.

The typical extravert is “Sociable, like parties, has many friends, needs to have people to talk to and does not like reading or studying by himself. He craves excitement, takes chances, often sticks his neck out, acts on the spur of the moment, and is generally an impulsive individual. He is fond of practical jokes, always has a ready answer, and generally likes change; he is carefree, easy-going, optimistic, and likes to ‘laugh and be merry’. He prefers to keep moving and doing things, tends to be aggressive and lose his temper quickly; altogether his feelings are not
Eysenck also provided causative explanations of his personality dimensions. According to him individual differences in extraversion – introversion are due to inherited differences in the functioning of the nervous system. He states that individuals in whom excitatory potential is generated and slowly in whom excitatory potential is relatively weak, are thereby predisposed to develop extraverted pattern of behaviour. Similarly, individuals in whom inhibition is developed quickly and is of a strong nature and dissipates slowly are predisposed to develop extraverted patterns of behaviour. Conversely individuals in whom reactive inhibitions dissipates quickly are thereby predisposed to introverted patterns of the behaviour (Eysenck, 1957) Eysenck in his book, “The Biological Basis of Personality” (1967) correlates extraversion – introversion to the amount of arousal in the cortex which is mediated by the reticular formation. The theory states that people in whom the arousal level is relatively low in the resting state will tend to behave in an extraverted fashion, whereas people in whom arousal level in the resting state is relatively high will behave in introverted manner. He states that the main activity of the cortex is the inhibition of the lower
centers so that the more aroused the cortex is the stranger the inhibitory function it plays (Eysenck, 1982; Eysenck and Eysenck, MW 1985).

Eysenck says, “The trait names inside the circle may serve to give an idea of the behaviour patterns characteristic of extroverts and introverts, labile and stabile people remembering always that extremes in either direction are rare and that most people are somewhere intermediate.”

McLaughlin and Eysenck (1967) considered by differential effects of extraversion of easy and complex tasks with in the frame work of the Yerkes – Dodson Law (Boradhurst, 1959). This law may be interpreted as stating that the optimal level of arousal is inversely related to task difficulty. They assumed that introverts were characteristically more highly aroused than extraverts (Gale, 1973) and that those high in neuroticism were more aroused than those low in neuroticism, subjects were tested on either an easy paired-associate list (Low response similarly). They found that extraverts are superior to introverts on both easy and difficulty paired-associate tasks. Confirmatory results have been found by Allsopp and Eysenck (1974) they reported that extraverts performed significantly better introverts on the competitive list.
Extraverts, of course, sociable, but sociability is only one of the traits that comprise the domain of Extraversion. In addition to linking people and preferring large groups and gatherings, extraverts are also assertive, active, and talkative. They like excitement and stimulation and tend to be cheerful in disposition. They are upbeat, energetic, and optimistic. Salespeople represent the prototypic extraverts in our culture, and the E domain scale is strongly correlated with interest in enterprising occupations (Costa, McCrae, & Holland, 1984).

While it is easy to convey the characteristics of the extravert, the introvert is less easy to portray. In some respects, introversion should be seen as the absence of extraversion rather than what might be assumed to be its opposite. Thus, introverts are reserved rather than unfriendly, independent rather than followers, even paced rather than sluggish. Introverts may say they are shy when they mean that they prefer to be alone: they do not necessarily suffer from social anxiety. Finally, although they are not given to the exuberant high spirits of extraverts, introverts are not unhappy of pessimistic. Curious as some of these distinctions may see, they are strongly supported by research and form one of the most important conceptual advances of research on the five-factor model (Costa & McCrae, 1980; McCrae & Costa, 1987). Break
"friendly-hostile," and "outgoing-shy" allows important new insights into personality.

Users familiar with Jungian psychology should note that the conceptualization of Extraversion embodied in the NEO PI-R introspection or reflection is not related to either pole of E, being instead a characteristic of individuals who are high on Openness McCrae and Costa (1989).

**Extraversion Facets:**

**E1: Warmth.** Warmth is the facet of Extraversion most relevant to issues of interpersonal intimacy. Warm people are affectionate and friendly. They genuinely like people and easily form close attachments to others. Low scorers are neither hostile nor necessarily lacking in compassion, but they are more formal, reserved, and distant in manner than high scorers. Warmth is the facet of E that is closest to Agreeableness in interpersonal space, but it is distinguished by a cordiality and heartiness that is not part of A.

**E2: Gregariousness.** A second aspect of E is Gregariousness—the preference for other people’s company. Gregarious people enjoy the company of others, and the more the merrier. Low scorers on this scale
tend to be loners who do not seek – or who even actively avoid-social stimulation.

**E3: Assertiveness.** High scorers on this scale are dominant, forceful, and socially ascendant. They speak without hesitation and often become group leaders. Low scorers prefer to keep in the background and let others do the talking.

**E4: Activity.** A high Activity score is seen in rapid tempo and vigorous movement, in a sense of energy, and in a need to keep busy. Active people lead fast-paced lives. Low scorers are more leisurely and relaxed in tempo, although they are not necessarily sluggish or lazy.

**E5: Excitemen-Seeking.** High scorers on this scale crave excitement and stimulation. They like bright colours and noisy environments. Excitement-Seeking is akin to some aspects of sensation seeking (Zuckerman, 1979). Low scorers feel little need for thrills and prefer a life that high scorers might find boring.

**E6: Positive Emotions.** The last facet of E assesses the tendency to experience positive emotions such as joy, happiness, love, and excitement. They are cheerful and optimistic. Low scorers are not necessarily unhappy; they are merely less exuberant and high-spirited. Research (Costa & McCrae, 1980) has shown that happiness the life
satisfaction are related to both N and E, and the Positive Emotions is the facet of E most relevant to the prediction of happiness.

**ADJUSTMENT:**

The problem of adjustment has become so vital in our complex and civilized society that psychologists have turned their deep interest in understanding it. Just as individuals may have different views on the nature of psychological adjustment, so also do psychologists. Some psychologists view adjustment as a process by which individuals are continually growing and meeting life's challenges. Other psychologists view adjustment as a fixed state or goal that involves certain desirable characteristics (such as satisfaction in social relationship, in marriage, in a career, or goal achievement) that must be achieved.

The systematic study of the whole man is undertaken in two inseparable fields, identified as the psychology of adjustment and the psychology of personality. Adjustment and personality are unifying concept because they includes the various subordinate process of motivation, emotion and cognition. For example, adjustment is accomplished through the exercise of cognitive activities such as perception and thought process by which the person has transactions with the world about him.
The concept of adjustment is originally biological as propounded in Darwin's (1959) theory of natural selection and adaptation. The concept of adaptation was borrowed by psychology and named as adjustment.

According to Webster’s Ninth New Collegiate dictionary (1987), Adjustment is “to adapt or conform oneself (as to climate food or new working hours)” or “to achieve mental and behavioural balance between one’s own needs and demands of others”. In other dictionaries adjustment is a means “to fit”, “to make correspondent”, “to adapt”, or “to accommodates”.

To a layman, "adjustment" is the balanced mutual satisfaction between needs and aspirations of an individual to the life situations or it was the better interpersonal relationships between his needs and expectations and situations. Boering et.al., (1960) defined adjustment as a process by which a living organism maintains balance between its needs and the circumstances that influence the satisfaction level of these needs.

Dunn & Lloyed (1953) “Adjustment is a continuous process of maintaining harmony among the attributes of the individual and the environmental conditions which surround him”.
It is clear that adjustment is a continuous process rather than a static goal; by which a living organism maintains a balance between its needs and the circumstances that influence the satisfaction of these needs.

Adjustment is another parameter, which is very useful for the sportsmen who are participating in sports activities. Physical Education teachers and coaches are frequently called upon to deal with people who have some physical disability lead to mal-adjustment. There are certain essential need motivation, conflict and emotions, which differ from individual to individual and causes adjustment problems.

The major issue in the present competitive world of sports is to investigate the role of psychological parameters, which influence the performance of athlete considerably. This influence is sometimes positive on some athletes and negative on other athletes. However, the present study is an attempt to discover the relationship of some of the important psychological parameters, may be positive or negative to the performance of team players. The study would be significance in the sense that it will provide a comprehensive knowledge to the coaches and trainers of psychological factors, which could be controlled to achieve optimum performance from their athletes.
If the individual is facing temporary and all psychological problems, he becomes adjusted. For such problems psychotherapy, physical-therapy are used to make the proper adjustment in the society through sports. Some of the psychological problems can be removed attitude towards life can be changed individual to get sustains self-confidence bear pain to remove frustration or improve self-image.

Psychologically, adjustment implies a constant interaction between the person and his environment. Although, most persons resemble the average of the group in many characteristics, there are those who divide widely from the average in certain traits. These deviations create certain problems of adjustment. “Sometime adjustment is accomplished when the person yields to person’s constructive activities. In most cases, adjustment is a compromise between the two extremes and mal-adjustment is failure to achieve a satisfactory compromise” – Robert W. Whites (1956).

Adjustment attempts to satisfy needs by over-coming both inner and outer obstructs and by adopting circumstances. The learning about adjustment means analysing two things: internal make-up and internal personal or social behaviour. Adjustment is dynamic process by which
organizers meet their needs. Physical Education and related activities satisfy many of these needs.

The behaviour of human beings is difficult to investigate because of the complexity of the subject matter. This complexity of human behaviour is best illustrated by the fact that the adjustment process involves a number of basic and applied fields of knowledge, such as Psychology, Genetics, Sociology, Anthropometry, Medicine and even Religion.

A well-adjusted person uses his knowledge and skill to act wisely on his environment. Excessive timidity or other faults of personality prevent him from making this contribution. Adjustment is a mean to the end of accomplishment.

The achievement of desirable life adjustment is dependent upon the recognition of the significance of inherited potential and environmental conditions as these affect one's life. Adjustment may be referred to as the continuous process of maintaining harmony among the attributes of individual and the environmental conditions, which surround him. The individual's potentials and characteristics are in born but are also modified through experience. The effective adjustment will involve both personal and social criteria and value judgements.
Kinds of Adjustment:

Since the birth of the child, it has to pass through different developmental stages. He grows in the environmental set up of the family and society. This set up is composed of different categories of human beings. It also possesses climatic stimulate and one has to adjust biologically according to the climatic conditions.

Even he has to adjust to his overself so this composition of environmental set up motivates us to know absent different kinds of adjustment as given below:

1. Biological Adjustment:

   Biological adjustment helps the individual to bear the changes in the physiological functioning of the body. It further adjusts according to the variations in the environment and food intake these adjustments are essential for the physical survival of the individual. Human biological adjustments are basic in the sense that without this kind of adjustment survival of the individual is at risk.

   A hungry person eats. A full bladder or a full colon leads to elimination. We breathe in air perhaps eighteen or twenty times a minute, usually with little or no awareness. We build shelters against are usually called adaptations.
2. **Social Adjustment:**

A significant aspect of psychological adjustment is adjustment to other people. These social adjustments that people make vary from situation to situation. Conversation and manner among a group of a girls may change abruptly when a male approach. Nevertheless, there does appear to be sufficient consistency to social adjustment patterns that we are able to characterise.

3. **Self Adjustment:**

Adjustment to ones self is certainly no less a challenge than is adjustment to other people. Personal news that we hold frequently are in consistent which lead to interval psychological conflict and strains perhaps the most difficult problem most of use face is adjusting to our shortcoming as we understand them.

4. **Emotional Adjustment:**

This adjustment refers to emotional stability of an individual.

5. **Home Adjustment:**

An individual who has a congenial relationship with the member of the family is said to have a good home adjustment.

6. **Professional Adjustment:**

If an individual is able to adjust himself to his per group, teacher and like in the professional institution is said to have good professional adjustment.
Factors of Adjustment:

There are a number of factors about an adjustment situation that have psychological significance. First, a want must exist. If there is no want there is no need for adjustment. Second, adjustment is the satisfaction of a want. When a want is satisfied and adjustment has been made. Even the sudden cessation of a want constitutes an adjustment. Third, difficulties that interfere with the satisfaction of wants constitute adjustment problems or maladjustment. If adjustments could be made easily, habits of adjustment would be relatively unimportant. These three fundamental factors in making adjustments are represented graphically in the following diagram.

2. Difficulties

1. Wants 3. Satisfaction

It must be recognized that the satisfaction of all human wants is impossible. The difficulties that stand in the way of satisfying some wants
are too great to be controlled. After all, human begins are mortal with all the limitations of mortality. When human wants are beyond human limitations they must be recognized as impossible to satisfy causing maladjustment. To continue to want the moon is to create a permanent adjustment problem. Human wants must be restricted to the limits of possible satisfaction.

**Adjustment from four perspectives:**

If a group of psychologists were to get to know a person quite well, or were provided sufficient information about a person’s behaviour, there would most likely be a general consensus among them about how well-adjusted or how poorly adjusted that person is. One’s thinking about adjustment is determined by one’s perspective (their psychological point of view); that is by one’s overall way of looking at social and psychological phenomena.

What do we actually mean by a perspective on adjustment? Essentialist it is an organized way of looking at people in the process of formulating their life goals and coping with and resolving their psychological problems. A perspective is comprehensive; that is, it usually take into account the total developments of the person, including emotional, cognitive, interpersonal, and social development, the
motivation that explain why we behave the way we do, and the criteria for successful adjustment, including a view about anxiety, a theory of a maladaptive (or unhealthy) behaviour and a system of psychotherapy which is derived from all preceding factors. There are four main perspectives: The psychoanalytic, the behavioural, the cognitive and the humanistic.

Table: 1.1 Adjustment from four perspective

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SELF</th>
<th>Psychoanalytic</th>
<th>Humanistic</th>
<th>Behavioural</th>
<th>Cognitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The self and self concept are largely results of early life ego developments especially the quality of maternal care during the first year of life.</td>
<td>The organized set of experiences, always in the process of growth, tending towards better life situations.</td>
<td>Behavioural psychologists, as a rule, do not recognize “self” as a useful concept. When they do, they see the self as an organized set of responses to stimuli.</td>
<td>The self is the way we think about the world. Our feelings and emotions are intimately bound up in what we have learned and in the connections we have taught exist between different things.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SELF</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIEWS OF MENTAL HEALTH</td>
<td>The healthy person is able to sublimate primitive unconscious impulses into socially constructive and personality satisfying activities.</td>
<td>The healthy person is self-actualizing, tending to grow and to fulfill all of his or her potentials in life. Healthy living is creative living.</td>
<td>Mental health is characterized primarily by appropriate responses to stimuli. When we react to stimuli free of undue anxiety and with appropriate behaviors, we demonstrate mental health.</td>
<td>A combination of the behavioural and psychodynamic views. Health is where our thinking about the world and our relations with others are logical and unencumbered by anxiety.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How Choices are Made</td>
<td>Largely determined by unconscious factors beyond our control. As we have better understanding of our unconscious, we are able to make better choices of life.</td>
<td>Choices are part of our natural self-actualizing tendencies. Our choices are a reflection of our inner nature.</td>
<td>Choices are the results of the way we have been conditioned to respond to the world, and to behaviours we have learned through the processes of modelling.</td>
<td>Our choices reflect our logical and illogical thinking. As a healthy person we feel positive about our choices and they are ultimately beneficial for us.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>View of conflicts</td>
<td>Conflict results from unconscious forces in the psyche, especially between different needs and expectations of the id, ego, and superego.</td>
<td>Conflict results from inconsistencies between our fields of experience and the organizing self.</td>
<td>Conflict results from our having to choose between two positive contingencies, between two negative contingencies, or from a single choice that has both a positive and negative dimension.</td>
<td>Conflict occurs primarily our thinking and feelings are discordant. It can best be resolved when we honestly examine if our thoughts or logic are off base and the cause of the conflict.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Symptoms of Traits of well adjusted persons:

The most widely emphasized aspect of adjustment is achievement. This makes sense to a businessman who must hire personnel who will be most effective at the job, often under adverse circumstances; to a coach or Physical educator who must select men who can adjust to the stressful conditions of competition combat and to the psychological deprivations that are sometimes associated with competition as well as training to educator because educational opportunities can be wasted by a person who is failing to make a satisfactory school adjustment; to society in general, which must pay the cost of widespread maladjustment. In the form of neuroses, psychoses, and character disorders, defects of adjustment waste the manpower resources of the community and require huge custodial and therapeutic expenditures.

If we talk about adjustment in terms of achievement or achievement in sports, that is, how good or bad it is, then we must consider criteria to determine the quality of adjustment. Such criteria have been provided value system. We must recognize that in other cultures or in other generations other criteria are often utilized and some of the present indices of good adjustment might conceivably become signs of psychological illness in future generations.
Developing serviceable criteria of adequate adjustment requires value judgements which are not scientifically derived but which depend on our beliefs as members of a particular society.

We can identify four main classes of criteria for evaluating the adequacy of adjustment among sports men/athletes. We can consider how comfortable psychologically an athlete feels, the effectiveness of her functioning in terms of skilled performance, the presence or absence of physiological symptoms of tension, and the degree to which her behaviour is socially desirable or undesirable.

Space does not allow to examine each of those criteria in detail but let us discuss in short and consider how they are used in assessing the adequacy of adjustment of sportsmen non sportsmen.

(i) Psychological Comfort:

One of the most compelling signs of adjective failure is that a person is psychologically uncomfortable in some way. Examples of such discomfort include states of depression, chronic or actuate anxiety, obsessive thoughts of guilt or fear of losing defeating or dying. Experiencing this discomfort often implies some inadequacy of psychological adjustment, although Emotional adjustment is a process by
which athlete becomes able to cope with emotions in relation to one's psychological discomfort and mental make-up.

(ii) **Work efficiency**:

Another sign of adjective difficulties is impaired ability to make full use of occupational or social capacities or skills. A person may be failing in school, or ironically poor performance may result regularly in loss or depuration of performance achievement. Such an athlete may be perform consistently but only at a level far below his capabilities. He is sometimes unaware that he is functioning below par and may have difficulty to understand why he is failing occupationally. In actuality, reduced performance is often attributable to states of stress, which impair the ability of the athlete to perform up to his capacity. This can be cured by the process of psychological treatment improving educational adjustment by which athlete is able to cope with the failure in school and adjust in any social educational environment causes higher achievement.

(iii) **Physical Symptoms**:

Sometimes the only evidence of inadequate adjustment appears in the form of damage to body tissues. The field of psychosomatic medicine has developed because of increasing recognition that physiological damage can be brought about by psychological malfunctioning.
Disturbances of digestion, for example, one of the most common ways in which difficulties of adjustment and their consequent tension states manifest themselves. The formation of ulcers, impairment of appetite, and persistent diarrhea are some of the symptoms that frequently reflect disturbance in psychological economy. Some of these symptoms can have a psychological origin is often vehemently denied by the patients, who may not recognize the existence of adjective problems. That such physical symptoms have psychological origins, which may respond and cured by psychotherapy and results in Health adjustment i.e., the condition of an athlete’s organism, which measures the degree to which aggregate powers are able to function.

(iv) **Social acceptance:**

Some kind of socially acceptable and quite useful, that is, they are what other person want. The athlete whose mode of adjustment leads him to behave in way that are dangerous to himself or to others will ultimately be hospitalized or imprisoned by modern society. The person whose processes of adjustment lead to behaviour that is a public nuisance may be criticized or shunned at the very least. In other words, some adjustments are poor simply because family or society regards them as poor. This arbitrariness limits the scientific applicability of this criterion
in assessment of adjective adequacy which flexibly improved by Home and Social adjustment the process by which an athlete is able to keep pace with each and every changing situation in her family and able to cope with social demands to achieve her performance.

A well adjusted athlete uses his skills and tactics to perform wisely on his environment. Excessive timidity, aggressiveness or other faults of personality prevent him from making this contribution. Adjustment is a means to the end of accomplishment.

Krall and Carlson (1967) have reported a negative correlation between adjustment and sports performance. Sperling & Martin (1982) An athlete can adjust well for higher performance by certain objectives: Security and confidence, improving one’s own adjustments, maintain good physical health, do satisfying work, rest and recreation, participate in society, have a confidential relationship with another person, plan and do something about every problem, be objective, seek insight, Don’t take yourself too seriously and of coarsely, most important live in present.

The application of psychological factors to the improvement of performance in sports has received greater attention during these days. There are certain accepted psychological factors, which have to be applied, so that the sportsmen and non-sportsmen may be able to show
their best in their performance. Coaches, physical educationists and sports scientists have always expressed a greater need to know more about those psychological factors. Which are helpful in improving the motor skills of the sportsmen. It is important to know about the role of reaction time, movement time, emotional phenomena like competitive anxiety and some personality traits like extraversion and neuroticism of the player during training as well as competitive situations.

Anxiety, neuroticism, extraversion and adjustment, which are the psychological factors to be studied in the present investigation, play a significant role for the personality development of sportsmen and non-sportsmen. However, very less efforts have been done to see the significant development of these factors in the sportsmen and non-sportsmen. Even very less studies have been done to compare the effects of these factor sportsmen and non-sportsmen. The investigator has taken this hunch to make efforts for comparing the position or Anxiety characteristic of Neuroticism, Extraversion and Adjustment of the sportsmen and non-sportsmen of his state that in Haryana.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY:

Twenty first century is an age of anxiety and frustration because of scientific discoveries, knowledge explosion and knowledge obsolescence
and adolescence is the best period of human’s life because man reaches at the apex of his development during this period. His endowment blossom to the best possible degree. They creates disequilibrium in society, because society runs after modernization and development, being characterised by the things mentioned above. Man losses his peace of mind. So the present study aims at maintaining homeostatic between the rapid progress of society and man’s adjustment to it.

It is a matter of common observation that due to the advancement of technology and the education competition in every sphere has reached at its peak. The normal children possess anxiety because of the stressful situations in his surrounding.

The present study in hand is a psychological survey study of sportsmen and non-sportsmen of Haryana state, in which four psychological factors Anxiety, Neuroticism, Extraversion, and adjustment shall be studied. These factors influence a normal living condition of a person and normal living condition of sportsmen. The sports performances are most affected due to the development of these four factors arising during a practice session and during a match or a competition due to this session. These psychological factors play a significant role in the success and failure of a sports person during his
performances. Even these factors also affect the living condition and the behavioural pattern of a normal person or a non-sportsmen during his general activities and specific work to be done by him. The present study will tell us how the factors of Anxiety, Neuroticism, Extraversion and Adjustment play their role on the sportsmen and non-sportsmen during their performance and work. The study will have significance contribution to give direction to the sportsmen and non-sportsmen to control these factors for achieving their roles. The finding of the present investigation will also be a beneficial tool for the trainers for the coaches and the organiser of the sport programme, sports psychologist and sport medical professional to add to a significant contribution for the successful achievement of their sport person and players. The results of the study will also help the sportsmen and non-sportsmen in building their all round personality by the development of these psychological factors.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM:

The present study is proposes to find out the Anxiety, Neuroticism, Extraversion and adjustment present in the sportsmen and non-sportsmen of Haryana. The problem under investigation can be stated as follows:

“A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF ANXIETY, NEUROTICISM, EXTRAVERSION AND ADJUSTMENT AMONG SPORTSMEN AND NON-SPORTSMEN OF HARYANA”
OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

Anxiety:

(i) Anxiety is a complex emotional experience often unconscious in origin, with fear or dread as its most notable characteristic. Symptom in various nervous and mental disorders, where the term anxiety state may be used can be defined operationally as the autonomic response pattern characteristics of an individual organism after a noxious stimulus. (Terry Page and J.B. Thomas, 1977).

(ii) Anxiety may be defined as a reaction of apprehension ranging from uneasiness to complete panic preceded by a real or a symbolic condition of threat, which the subject perceives diffusely and to which he, reacts with an intensity that tends to be disproportionate (Julius and Kolle, ).

Neuroticism:

(i) Neuroticism is a state characterised by emotional instability, anxiety, law self respect and due to mental disorders. Neuroticism should not be identified with neurosis, since neurotic symptoms may be shown by healthy individuals too. Neuroticism is generally assessed by special scale or personality inventories (Carl & Jung, 1985).

(ii) Neuroticism (n) The most pervasive domain of personality scale contrast adjustment or emotional stability with maladjustment or
neuroticism. Although clinicians distinguish among many different kinds of emotional distress from social phobia to agitated depression to borderline hostility, innumerable studies have shown that individuals prone to any one of these emotional states are also likely to experience others. (Costa & Mc Crae, 1992).

**Extraversion:**

(i) Turning outward. Used primarily in personality theory to refer to the tendency to direct one’s energies outward, to be concerned with and qualification form the physical and social environment (Arthur S. Reber, 1985)

(ii) The concept extrovert was introduced by Carl Jung. The extroverted type directs his interests outward and surrounding objects attract his vital interests and vital energy like a magnet in sense, this leads to his alienation from himself to belittlement of the personal significance of his selective world. Extroverts are characterised by impulsiveness, initiative, flexibility of behaviour, sociability and social adaptability. (According to Carl Jung).
Adjustment:

(i) According to Lezarus (1976) “Adjustment consists of psychological process by means of which individual manage to cope with various demands and processes of life.”

(ii) Henry E. Adams (1972) is of the view that adjustment is a function of the efficiency with which an individual generate positive rewards and punishments.

Sportsmen:

The players in both the section who participated at Inter National, National, All India Inter-veracity, State Championship and State Championship, was considered a sports Men for the collection of data.

Non Sportsmen:

The men who were studying at the time of survey in the above mentioned region any where was considered Non-Sportsmen for the collection of data for this study.

OBJECTIVES OF THIS STUDY

The following are the main objectives of the present study:

1. To compare the Level of Anxiety among sportsmen and non-sportsmen
2. To compare the Level of Anxiety among sportsmen of Basketball, Hockey and Volley Ball games.

3. To compare the Level of Neuroticism among sportsmen and non-sportsmen.

4. To compare the Level of Neuroticism among sportsmen of Basketball, Hockey and Volley Ball games.

5. To compare the Level of Extraversion among sportsmen and non-sportsmen.

6. To compare the Level of Extraversion and sportsmen of Basketball, Hockey and Volley Ball games.

7. To compare the Level of Adjustment among sportsmen and non-sportsmen.

8. To compare the Level of Adjustment among sportsmen of Basketball, Hockey and Volley Ball games.

HYPOTHESIS OF THE STUDY:

On the basis of the related literature found the investigator does not have a particular direction to set the hypothesis for the present investigation. Due to this reason null-hypothesis will be set in the beginning of the study and hence shall be tested through this investigation. The null-hypothesis set in the beginning are stated below.
1. There is no significant difference in the Level of Anxiety among sportsmen and non-sportsmen.

2. There is no significant difference in the Level of Anxiety among sportsmen of Basketball, Hockey and Volley Ball games.

3. There is no significant difference in the Level of Neuroticism among sportsmen and non-sportsmen.

4. There is no significant difference in the Level of Neuroticism among sportsmen of Basketball, Hockey and Volley Ball games.

5. There is no significant difference in the Level of Extraversion among sportsmen and non-sportsmen.

6. There is no significant difference in the Level of Extraversion among sportsmen of Basketball, Hockey and Volley Ball games.

7. There is no significant difference in the Level of Adjustment among sportsmen and non-sportsmen.

8. There is no significant difference in the Level of Adjustment among sportsmen of Basketball, Hockey and Volley Ball games.

**DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY:**

The present study has the following delimitations:

1. This study was confined to Haryana state only.
2. Sportsmen and non-sportsmen in the age groups of 18 to 22 years were taken as the subjects for the present study.

3. Only four psychological factors viz. anxiety, neuroticism, extraversion and adjustment were studied in the present investigation.

4. For the purpose of the sportsmen to be taken as subjects only the players of Basketball, Hockey and Volleyball team games were selected.

5. Only the players who participated at least in a state level tournament or University level tournament of the above three games were the subjects for the present study.

6. Total 225 sportsmen (at least 75 each game) were tested for the collection of data.

7. Equal numbers of non-sportsmen 225 male were also the subjects in the present study for the comparison of sportsmen of Haryana.

8. The data was collected only from four districts i.e. Kurukshetra, Bhiwani, Hisar and Rohtak.
Chapter - 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The survey of related literature may provide guiding hypothesis, suggestive methods of investigations and comparative data for interpretive purposes

—C.V. Good