Chapter – III
Review of Literature
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REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The review of literature with regard to study variables is made in this chapter. This would justify the need, relevance and justification of the study undertaken.

Goalie (1968) has stated that although there is not a definite hierarchy, certain personality traits, such as, emotional stability, tough mindedness, conscientiousness, controlled self-discipline, self-assurance trusting and a low-tension level should be emphasized. Those who retain their motivation for sport competition will exhibit the characteristics of ambition, organization, deference dominance, endurance and aggression. Booth (1958) reported that personality characteristics with different sports, since psychological requirements of a sports are specific. Kroll (1954) contends that there is a possibility that some discrete set of personality factors exist which is related to causing some people select and participate in sports. Rushall (1967) demonstrated that male swimmers (Individual sport) were to be more individualistic and self centered. He found that completive swimmers possessed the traits of emotional stability, aggression, urgency and confidence. Person (1967) studied the personality traits of National Representative Swimmers in Canada in 1962 by employing Cattel’s Sixteen Personality Factors Questionnaire. The result of the study showed that champion swimmers differed from average population in fifteen of sixteen
factor area. Champion swimmers apparently possessed marked extremes in personality factor scores.

Harris (1963) in a study of college women found the fitter women as being more stable and less anxious than the less fit women.

Werner’s (1966) study of 270 west point cadets, who were betterment in American football group using Chattel’s Sixteen Personality Factors Inventory, shows that the football players were found to be more sociable, dominant, enthusiastic, adventurous, tough and group dependent.

Schendael (1965) compared sportswomen’s and non-sportswomen’s in Ninth twelfth grades and in college using the California Inventory and found that ninth and twelfth grade sportswomen generally possessed more desirable personal, social and psychological characteristics than the non-sportswomen. However, at the college level, the non-sportswomen generally possessed more desirable characteristics the sportswomen.

Person and Roy (1967) reported that, women from individual sports were significantly more dominant and aggressive, adventurous, sensitive, imaginative, self-sufficient and resourceful then the team sport sportswomen. They have also found the female sportswomen to be more intelligent, conscientious and aggressive than female non-sportswomen.

According to Hilgard and others (1979) personality is the characteristic pattern of behaviour and modes of thinking that determine a person’s adjustment to the environment.
The 16 PF was administered to 38 female athletes who participated on the 1964 United States Olympic teams by Peterson, Weber and Trousdale (1967). This sample consisted of individual sports participants in swimming, diving, riding, fencing, canoeing, gymnastics and track and field. These subjects were compared to 59 team sport athletes who participated in either the 1964 Olympic Basketball Team or one of the top ten AAU basketball teams for 1964. The two groups were found to differ on 7 of the 16 factors. The athletes from the individual sports were more introverted than the team sport athletes and both groups were characterized by emotional stability. These female athletes were found to be more intelligent, conscientious, persevering, and aggressive than female non-athletes of similar age and educational background.

The findings of Peterson, Weber and Trousdale (1967) were corroborated by Ogilvie (1968) in part. He compared their results with the 16 PF profiles of female swimmers from San Jose College who were found to have profiles similar to the individual sport athletes in their study.

A related study was conducted by Malumphy (1968) who administered the 16 PF and personal information questionnaire to 77 female athletes and 43 randomly selected non-athletes from five state universities. Comparisons were made between athletes in team sports, individual sports, team-individual sports, subjectively judged sports and the non-athletes. The four groups of female athletes differed from the non-athletes on various factors, a result which is in agreement with the report of Peterson, Weber and
Trousdale (1967). Also, the participants in the various sports groups differed on a number of factors. Of major interest was the observation that team and team-individual groups. This seems to be in disagreement with the findings of Peterson, Weber and Trousdale (1967). However, they tested high level competitors whereas Malumphy’s sample only included one Olympic athlete. This might exactly explain the apparent contradiction. Malumphy also found that the team sport group was less extroverted than the non-athletes. If this infact is the case, it would represent a major distinction between the personality of male and female athletes; that is with the exception of distance runners male athletes tend to be extroverted.

Williams and her associates (1970) administered the 16 PF and the EPPS to 30 female fencers who participated in the 1968 national championships. Comparisons were made between high and low level achievers, and they were found to differ only on the measure of dominance. Since they did not differ on any of the other 38 variables, this one variation was probably due to chance. However, this group of female athletes was found to differ from national norms on a number of 16 PF factors and EPPS measures. The authors concluded a definite fencer’s personality emerged from their analysis and this profile was different from that of participants in other sports. In this respect it was reported that the “sport type” to which their profile was the most related was the male and female competitive race car driver”. In general, these athletes tended to be reserved, self sufficient,
autonomous, assertive, aggressive and they scored below average on affiliation and nurturance.

It was previously demonstrated that participants in psychologic investigations differ from both non-volunteers and pseudo volunteers. Morgan (1972) in the study by Williams and her associated (1970), 45 of the 60 participants in the tournament volunteered to complete the tests. Hence, there were 30 volunteers, 15 pseudo volunteers, and 15 non-volunteers. It is quite likely that these groups differed on certain features of 16 PF and EPPS. Therefore, it is suggested that the “fencer profile” identified by Williams and her associates be viewed with caution.

Darley, Glucksberg and Kincha (1986) have defined personality as individual complex and unique patterns of behaviour, motives and emotions.

Nesamony (1988) conducted a study on the personality traits of women inter collegiate players using Cattell’s 16 PF questionnaires. Significant differences were found in three of the primary factors, O Q1 AND Q2 between Kabaddi and Kho-Kho. Her study revealed that Kabaddi players were reserved, less intelligent, emotionally less stable, apprehensive, experimenting, critical, self sufficient and temperamentally independent. The Kho-Kho players were reserved, less intelligent, emotionally less stable, apprehensive and group dependent.

Williams (1970) employed 16 P.F. on 30 female athletes to compare high and low level achievers. It was found that except on the factor dominance, no significant difference was found on any other factor.
Uppal (1986) conducted a study on male and female badminton players who participated in National Games. A sample of 40 male and 40 female athletes –20 each was drawn for the study. The P.F. Scale was administered and the results indicated that the national participants were suspicious, tough minded and average intelligent as compared to the collegiate players, who also formed equal sample with the national participants. The results on female players of national participation and collegiate participation reveal that the national female players were more suspicious, tough minded and hard to fool than the collegiate players.

Peterson S. L. (1967) administered 16 P.F. test on a sample of 38 female athletes who participated in individual and team sports. The aim of the study was to bring out the comparative results of female athletes of individual and team games. The results revealed that the female athletes of individual sports were found to be more intelligent, cohesive, perceiving and aggressive than the females of team sports.

Mathew and Mathew (1991-93) made a comparative study of Kabaddi and Kho-Kho women players who were between 18-25 years. A sample of 40 each from the two games was drawn for the study. The study found that Kho-Kho players were shy, conservative and highly anxious. On the other hand, the Kabaddi players were venturesome, critical, self sufficient, relaxed and aggressive with low anxiety.

Peterson (1967) conducted a study on women athletes of individual events and team sports. The results indicate that women athletes who
participated in individual sports when compared to women athletes competing in team sports were more dominant, adventurous, sensitive, radical, imaginative, self-sufficient and more forthright. It was also found that team sport female participants were intellectually higher and more conscientious and aggressive than the normative group of equivalent age and education.

Suman Nangia (1991) in her work entitled “Personality Characteristics of Indian Sportsperson” intended to fulfill the predetermined goals like identifying the personality factors associated with high and low performing sportsmen and sportswomen in the games of Badminton and Table Tennis (i) identifying the need patterns of the extremely high performers from that of the low performers considering sex and game variables (ii) to find out the different variables, and also to find out the extremely high performers and low performers considering sex and game variables. The findings revealed that the high performers have obtained consistently high scores on intelligence, emotional stability, dominance, surgency and super-ego strength as compared to the low performers. The study clearly indicated that there are very few significant differences in the personality factors of male and female athletes; surprisingly girls had higher self esteem than the male athletes. Gruber and Perkins (1978) found in his study on women participation in inter-collegiate competitions and their personality traits. The conclusion drawn reveal that the players appear to be sober (F) and tough minded (I) as compared with non-athletes. On the other hand, Williams (1978) observed
that the successful female players were more assertive, dominant, self sufficient, independent, aggressive, reserved, achievement oriented and have average emotionality than the unsuccessful female players. But the findings of Evans and Quarterman (1983) were found to be contrary to the findings of Gruber and Perkins (1978) that both successful and unsuccessful players of badminton sport were tough-minded. However, the successful players were more trusting than the unsuccessful players.

Data put forth by Niblocks (1960) favoured that the female participation in sports were more efficient, energetic, enthusiastic, leadership oriented and extrovert. The findings of Ogilvie (1971) and Chadwick (1972) supplement the observations of Niblock (1960) that they found the female players to be emotionally stable, self-assertive, tough-minded, self-confident and practical and group dependent respectively.

Gooch (1973) made a comparative study of successful and unsuccessful women athletes and found that there was association between personality and physical performance of athletes.

Malumphy (1968) and Ogilvie (1968) conducted research studies on four groups of female athletes. The results revealed that the players of individual sports were more extroverted than those of team games.

Sports performance is a function of combination of several factors both psychological and social. It has been rather a difficult task to review all the studies related to relationship of psychological factors with sports performance. There is no doubt that sports excellence is geared-up by factors
like personality, motivation self-confidence, anxiety, aggression, adjustment and so on. It is true that there is a paucity of systematic research in this area. However, sincere attempts are made in this chapter to review certain earlier studies related to the variables selected.

A great deal of attention has been paid to the relationship of psychological factors especially personality variables with sports performance and delineating personality traits of athletes, differentiating among individuals by sport, level of success etc. In fact, a major dimension of the study of psychological aspects of sports is concerned with inquiries into the personality of sportsmen. There are numerous theories about the personality of athletes. But only a limited amount of research has been undertaken to support these theories. However there are certain studies related to the differences in the personality traits of athletes. In an attempt to study personality traits, Cooper (1969), found differences between athletes and non-athletes and described the athlete as: (i) more outgoing and socially confident; (ii) more socially aggressive, dominant, and leading; (iii) having higher social adjustment, prestige, social status and self-confidence; (iv) stronger competitors; (v) less compulsive; (vi) less impulsive; (vii) having greater tolerance to pain; (viii) having lower feminine and higher masculine interests. Speraling (1942), who used six assessment instruments to study college athletes and non-athletes, found results similar to those of Cooper (1969).
Using the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI), Booth (1958) found that the non-athletes scored higher than the athletes on anxiety and depression and scored lower on other areas of MMPI.

Malumphy (1968) used the Cattell’s 16PF to compare the personality traits of 120 women: (77 athletes and 43 non-athletes) and found that athletes who played individual sports were more extroverted than those who played team sports.

Niblock (1960) found female athletes to be more energetic, enthusiastic and efficient possessing more leadership potential and were optimistic and more extroverts.

Chadwick (1972) found that female athletes were significantly more tough minded, practical, group dependent, suffered and less intelligent than non-athletic females. On the other hand, Ogilvie (1971) found male competitors to be basically emotionally healthy persons who tend towards extraversion. They were tough minded, self-assertive and self-confident with a high capacity to ensure the stress involved in high level competition.

William and her associates (1970) found that the male and female competitive race car drivers tend to be reserved, self-sufficient and have scored below average on affiliation and nurturance.

Gruber and Pekins (1978) found women who competed in inter-collegiate competition to be significantly higher on the factors CF (sober) than non-participant group.
Williams (1978) reported that the successful female competitor generally tends to be more assertive, dominant, self-sufficient, independent, aggressive, reserved, achievement oriented and have an average low emotionality than the unsuccessfully female competitor.

Sperling (1942) Sclusher (1964) and Cooper (1969) have tried to find personality differences between sportsman and non-sportsman. Majority of the investigations have indicated that sportsmen differ from non-sportsmen on a number of personality traits.

Newmann (1968) suggested that participation in high level athletic competition provides and adds a dimension to one’s personality. He found that athletes were more sociable, more aggressive in their approach to problems, more self confident, more critical of themselves and more extroverted than non-athletes. Barger and Littlefield (1969) compared the personality of football players and non-athletes. They found insignificant differences between outstanding football players, non-outstanding athletes and non-athletes. Schendel (1965) found that the 9th grade athletes differed from the non-athletes on 8 of the CPI scales. Differences existed on 4 scores for the 12th grade sample and nine differences were observed for the colleague subjects. Hence he supported the view that athletes and non-athletes differ in personality structure.

In a study done by Malumphy (1968) the sports participants were found to be more conscientious and tough-minded but less imaginative and less venture-some than the non-sport participants.
Berhan and Kroll (1967) and Dardin (1972) have indicated that determination drive, nerve for aggressive instinct are the qualities that are expected to be found extra ordinarily in champion athletes. They have also shown that athletes of one sport differ from those of other sport and man athletes in their personality characteristics.

Yeatra (1977) showed that a group of Inter-Collegiate Basket-Ball players were more tough-minded and group dependent than non-athletes.

Mohan et al. (1979) found that the players were more extroverted than non-players and low on Neuroticism implying more stability of emotionality.

Golas (1971) found athletes to be significantly more extroverted than the non-athletes and the sport groups did not differ on E dimension and none of the groups differed on the Neuroticism stability dimension too.

Dureha (1987) concluded that the sportsmen and non-sportsmen differ in their personality characteristics in some factors like “emotional stability and realism about life, cheerfulness and frankness, tender mindedness and practicability and great control over emotions and greater regards for self-respect and social reputation.

Many other investigators have also reported that athletes could be differentiated from non-athletes with respect to their self-control (Bird, 1970), self-sufficient (Ogilive, 1968), extraversion (Peterson et al., 1967; Bushan and Aggrawal, 1978), Dominance (Ammodit et al., 1982), locus of control (Mckelvie and Hushand, 1980), death anxiety (Kumar et al., 1985), self esteem (Kumar et al., 1985) and mental health (Kumar et al., 1985).
Thakur and Thakur (1980) studied personality characteristics of athlete and non-athlete Indian college males using projective method of personality assessment and found that the characteristics associated with the athlete were happiness, cordiality and affectionate, anxiety, achievement, dominance and superior organization capacity whereas the characteristics associated with the non-athlete were guilt acquisition, passivity, rejection, superiority, imagination.

Singh and Singh (1986) found that the neuroticism tendency was significantly higher in the non-sports groups of students whereas no significant difference was observed in extraversion scores between the two groups. Little (1969) found that the athletic group was highly extroverted and sociable while the non-athletic group was characterized by introversion and lack of sociability.

According to Pierce (1969) athletes display fewer neurotic symptoms than non-athlete and concluded that athletes have constantly been found to differ from non-athletes on a number of personality traits.

Fletcher (1971) reviewed research on the personality characteristics of the participants and non-participants in sports. The findings were re-examined in a study with 950 males who were enrolled in a physical education course. A negative relationship was found between activity level and difference order, abasement and endurance.

Koanig (1969) found that personality differences existed between athletes and non-athletes. Similarly, Mc-Clanney (1969) got significant
difference between two groups of college men namely high fitness group and low fitness group in different personality factors. Kroll and Grandshaw (1968) investigated personality differences between sportsman and non-sportsman.

Effects of sex and group behavior on personality of athlete have been revealed in a number of studies (e.g. Peterson et al., 1967; Rushall, 1967; Meredith and Harris, 1969; Foster, 1972). Rushall (1967) while comparing personality characteristics of male swimmers with female swimmers found that females were socially bold, noisy and unrestrained in their behavior, whereas males appeared to be self-centered and individualistic. It was also found that novice female swimmers were, in general, more introverted than a control group of female athletes, not primarily engaged in swimming (Meredith and Harris, 1969).

Considerable data have been presented regarding personality traits of female athletes. The personality structure of women athletes has been studied in the various sports such as fencing (Williams et al., 1970), basketball and golf (Johnson, 1972), lacrosse (Mushier, 1970), swimming (Abraham, 1967; Kane; 1966; Ogilvie, 1968), track and field (Kane, 1968) and field hockey (Acampore, 1971; Johnson, 1972). These researches compared personality traits across sports groups as well as compared team with individual sport participants (Hein, 1954; Niblock, 1960; Malumphy, 1968); studied outstanding athletes (Neal, 1963) and compared the women athletes with non athletes (Foster, 1969; Kane, 1966). The results of these studies have generally shown that a few similar traits are being possessed by women athletes in

Mushier (1972) found that female athletes are significantly more reserved, intelligent, assertive, happy go-lucky and tough-minded than female non-athletes.

Gruber and Perkins (1978) found women who competed in intercollegiate competition to be significantly higher on the factors F (sober), and I (tough-minded) when compared to the non-participant group. Williams (1978) reported that certain personality traits are frequently associated with the elite female athletes, and specifically, the successful female competitor generally tends to be more assertive, dominant, self-sufficient, independent, aggressive reserved achievement oriented and have average emotionally than the unsuccessful female competitors. Evans and Quartersman (1983) found that the female basketball players (successful and unsuccessful) scored significantly lower on factor I than the non-athletic female group towards the tough-minded side of the scale. On factor L, the unsuccessful basketball players scored significantly lower than the successful players, indicating that unsuccessful players are more trusting group.
By considering team sports separately by categorizing athletes into one of three classes i.e., offensive, centre and defensive players, Kirkcaldy (1982) found that males in attacking positions (offensive players) were substantially higher in psychoticism (touch-minded, dominant, aggressive) and extraversion as compared to mid-field (centre), players, there being no difference between offensive and defensive participants. The attacking player was significantly more neurotic (emotionally unstable) than either centre or defensive player. The forward, offensive players were less easily differentiated from defensive players, the latter group exhibiting a more emotionally stable pattern than the offensive athlete. In females, the trend was somewhat reversed i.e., attacking players were less extraverted and more neurotic than players from other positions. No significant differences were found in the personality profiles of female athletes between different positions. Singh (1986) also found no sex difference in extraversion and neuroticism traits of personality in the athletic as well as hockey group.

Uppal and Gill (1986) found that highly skilled male badminton players were more suspicious, as compared to poorly skilled male badminton players who were less intelligent and tough-minded. On the other hand, highly skilled female badminton players were tough-minded, suspicious and hard to fool as compared with poorly skilled female badminton players.

There are several areas common to psychology and sports psychology. Both the discipline converses closely upon a common set of problems that it is sometimes neither possible nor desirable to isolate one from another.
Lazarus and Alfert (1964) pointed out those differences in defensive personality dispositions that might lead to differences in reactions to stressful conditions. In a study of personality differences between reactions to vicariously experienced threat and to direct threat, Alfert (1967) has obtained definite clusters of personality dimensions: self-confidence, introversion and inhibition, while the latter group was high on self-confidence, extroversion, dominance, sociability, impulse control and was highly active.

Griffin (1972) found differences in A-trait among athletes, while administering Spielberger’s Trait Anxiety Inventory (Spielberger, Gorsuch and Luschene, 1970) to 682 females engaged in eight competitive sports, representing three different age-groups. He found that the differences in A-trait for the three age-groups were significant with the 19 + group being lower in A-trait. For the various sports, A-trait scores also differed significantly and female gymnasts were the highest in A-trait and female basketball players were the lowest in A-trait.

Johnson and Hutton (1955) investigated changes in what they termed “neurotic signs” and suggested that wrestlers displayed increased “neurotic signs” right before the match and then returned to normal the day after the contest. Morgan (1970) reported that the anxiety levels of varsity wrestlers were lower prior to a match than at a pre-season measure. A subsequent study (Morgan and Hammer, 1974) however, indicated that the anxiety of wrestlers increased one hour before a match.
Oxendine (1970) suggested that football blocking and tackling and weightlifting require extremely high A-states, that basketball, boxing and soccer require moderate A-states and that archery, bowling and golf require low A-states for optimal performance. Participants in dangerous physical activity usually experience high levels of anxiousness and arousal. Recent research has shown that this phenomenon occurs, in the beginning of SCUBA students (Griffiths, Steel and Vaccaro, 1978). Oxendine (1968) noted that learning and performance are impaired when arousal levels are out of control. This syndrome has been reported as occurring among sky divers (Fenz and Epstein, 1969); Egstrom and Backrach (1971) have noted that overwhelming levels of anxiety among divers may lead to panic thus causing an increase in underwater accidents.

Mahoney and Avener’s (1977) study with male gymnasts revealed differences in arousal patterns as a function of skill level when asked to rate the levels of anxiety, they typically felt at various stages of competition. Olympic qualifiers reported slightly more anxiety than non-qualifiers prior to competition, but non-qualifiers reported higher anxiety during performance.

Singh (1986) found significant differences in the competitive anxiety between the athletes and hockey players, whether males or females or combined, the athletes were having more competitive anxiety than the hockey players. He also found players of the team games had less competitive anxiety. Verma (1987) found that as compared to athletics and non-sportswomen, sportswomen from team games such as basketball, ‘hockey and
volleyball had higher level of anxiety. Sportswomen from individual sports such as athletics, wrestling, cycling etc., which are of an independent nature tended to reduce anxiety level and inculcate the tendency of introversion.

Radha conducted a study on psychological factors and soccer performance of South Indian University players. Modern sports training give greater emphasis on preparing the athletes psychologically than physically though both play a significant role. Several investigators have revealed that apart from somatic and physiological variables, higher-level performance is dependent upon an athlete’s psychological make up. In this study, psychological factors namely competition anxiety and aggressiveness was studied in related to soccer playing ability. Accordingly, 100 South Indian Inter University Soccer players from the State of Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh and Kerala were selected. Sports Competition (AQ) developed by Rainer Martens and Smith to measure the anxiety and aggressiveness were adopted experts subjectively rated the soccer playing ability on the subjects (0 to 10 point scale).

A study of personality traits compared between men and women University players participating in inter-collegiate team or individual sports was completed by Anderson (1977) on 315 undergraduate students, using California Psychological Inventory (CPI). He concluded that: (1) Male and female athletes did not significantly differ from male and female non-athletes on the personality factors of pious ascendance, dominance capacity for status and sense of well-being, (2) Male and female athletes did not significantly
differ from male and female non-athletes on the personality factors of specialization, maturity, responsibility; self-control, tolerance and good impression, (3) Male and female did not significantly differ on the personality factors of achievement via performance, independence and intellectual efficiency, (4) Male and female athletes and non-athletes significantly differed on the personality factors of flexibility and femininity. These measures were also different for individual sports, team sports and non-participants. It was also concluded that the effects of type of activity were not same for two sexes nor were same for three types of activities.

The personality differences between the athlete and non-athlete college males were assessed by Thakur and Thakur (1980) using TAT. The results indicated that the characteristics associated with the athletes were happiness, cordial and affectionate relation, anxiety, achievement, dominance and superior organization capacity whereas the characteristics associated with the non-athletes were guilt, acquisition, passivity, rejection, superior imagination and sex.

A comparative study of personality profiles between sportsmen and non-sportsmen of university level, was conducted by Sahni, Sood and Mohan (1988). The result indicated that sportsmen scored significantly higher on Psychotism as compared to non-sportsmen. The results also clarified that sportsmen were higher on extroversion as compared to non-sportsmen.

The comparison of personality characteristics of 40 sportsmen and 40 non-sportsmen was done by Dureha (1988) using Sixteen Personality
Factor Questionnaire. The results indicated that the sportsmen and non-sportsmen differed significantly in their personality characteristics as emotional stability and realism about life, cheerfulness and frankness, tender mindedness and practicability, greater control over emotions and greater regards for self-respect and social reputation. These qualities could be attributed to the training received by the sportsmen and their active participation in sports competitions.

A study was conducted by Singer (1968) to assess the personality characteristics between the baseball and the tennis players and E.P.P.S. Norms. Comparison was made between the highest and lowest ranked athletes in both sports and the EPPS norms were also made. No differences were noted between high and low ranked baseball players and tennis players, only differed on one of the fifteen measures. The later investigation also found that high level performers were significantly more self-sufficient on the 16 personality factors than the normal population.

Selected personality characteristics of high school athletes and non-athletes were assessed by Flatcher and Dowell (1971) using EPPS and information checklist on 850 male college freshmen. Results indicated that athletes tended to score higher on the traits dominance and aggression than the non-athletes, while non-athletes scored higher in personality trait order than the athletes.

A study on personality traits of men in team sports V/s. individual sports, was completed by Peterson, Weber and Trousdale (1976)
administering 16 P.F.Q. to 156 women A.A.V. athletes and to the 1964 U.S. Olympics team. The individual sports athletes were higher in dominance adventurousness, sensitivity, introversion, radicalism and self-sufficiently and were lower in sophistication than the team sports athletes.

Personality and sex difference related to positions in team sports were examined by Kirkacaldy (1982) using Eysenck Personality Questionnaire. Results indicated no significant differences. However, when team sports were considered separately and by categorizing athletes into one of the three classes (offensive, center and defensive), it was found that males in attacking positions were substantially higher in Psychotism (tough minded, aggressive, dominant and extraversion) compared to mid-field players. The forward offensive players were less easily differentiated from defensive players, the later group exhibiting a more emotionally stable pattern than the offensive athletes. In female, the trend was somewhat reversed that the attacking players were less extraverted and more neurotic than players from other positions.

The personality differences between 24 successful and 24 non-successful female volleyball players were examined in the study of Shergill (1991) using 16 P.F.Q. and STAI. The results of this study indicated that non-successful players possessed the traits as humble nature, group dependent, reserved and having high results on state anxiety as compared to successful players. The successful players were trustworthy in nature, happy-go-lucky
type venturesome, tense, conscious, controlled, shrewd and intelligent persons.

An experimental study of personality and drive as determinants of effect of noise on performance was done by Malhotra (1974) administering EPI to the 160 subjects. Findings indicated that: (a) Neuroticism did not affect the performance on any of the tasks, (b) There was no impact of noise except the one condition where the noise impairs the pre-rest performance on the vigilance task in the case of the boys high on neuroticism and working under no noise condition, (c) Sex had no role in the performance of the tasks as an independent variable, (d) High score on neuroticism was detrimental to performance on the substitution task under noise condition, (e) Noise improved the post-rest performance on the substitution in the case of subjects low on neuroticism. (f) Introverts did better than extraverts on the post-rest performance of the vigilance and substitution tasks (i) similar trends were observed for pre-rest performance, (g) Verbally inducted drive as an independent variable did not affect the performance, (h) There was no impact of noise on performance as such on any of the two tasks, (i) Extroversion interacted with the drive and affected post-rest performance on the substitution task. With noise interacted to affect post-rest performance on the vigilance task.

A study on national personality characteristics on Canadian, American and British samples was organized by Skinner and Peters (1985) administering the EPI to 170 male and 251 Anglophone Canadian university
students. Results were compared with the scores of 347 British and 1003 undergraduates. Findings indicated higher extroversion and neuroticism scores among Canadian Ss than among British and American Ss, reinforcing the stereotype of Canadians as timed and cautious. Canadian females were more emotionally liable than their male counterparts; however, there were no sex differences in their extroversion scores. The personality and motor fitness differences between groups of 100 swimmers and 100 non-swimmers were investigated by Williams (1970) using the Junior E.P.I. Swimmers scored significantly higher on measures of extroversion and slightly higher in stability. It was concluded that extroversion was an important variable associated with learning to swim.

The study on the relationship between participation in sports and personality measures was conducted by Eysenck, Nias and Cox (1982). Athletes were tended to be extroverted, low in neuroticism and anxiety and high on the Psychotism super ego variable. Factors that had been used to explain this profile include assertiveness, sensation-seeking, competitiveness and a lack of control and inhibition of ongoing behaviour and immediate reactions. Evidence did not support the suggestion that sports activity may have a beneficial effect on them personally, particularly in reduction anxiety and depression. Automobile during and sexual activity shared characteristics of sports and showed correlations with many of the same personality variables.

Personality profiles of 62 sportsmen and 62 non-sportsmen were examined by Mahamood (1981). The results indicated that sportsmen in
comparison to non-sportsmen were warm–heated, outgoing and conservative in respects of established ideas. This was relatively incongruent with the aggression, stubborn, uninhibited, touch–minded and spontaneous behaviour of sportsmen as reflected in their high scores on E and H and Low score on I. However, these conflicting tendencies apparently made sportsmen self-assured, confident and relaxed in contrast to non-sportsmen who were found to be shy, timid, apprehensive and tense.

The differences between players of team and individual games with respect to extraversion & neuroticism traits of personality and sex differences were assessed by Singh (1990) on 264 male and 169 female top level sportsmen. Results clarified that (1) individuals were more extroverted than team players, (2) Team players were less neurotic than individuals, (3) No difference on extroversion between male and female players both in the case of individual and team games, (4) No difference between male and female players on neuroticism in case of individual games, (5) Male players of team games were less neurotic than the female players.

Multivariate personality profile analysis of four athletic groups as football players, wrestlers, gymnasts and karate athletes, was done by Kroll and Grandshaw (1968) using 16 P.F.Q. Football players and Wrestlers had some aggressive tendencies and this statement had been well supported. Perhaps participation in one sport strength and the desirable personality characteristics were the same for the other sports also where one was a team
sport and other as individual sport. Why karate, athlete and wrestler did not have similar personality profiles, was difficult to explain.

Personality traits of west zone Cricket players were assessed in the study of Bhati and Singh (1988), using 16 P.F. Questionnaire. They concluded that Cricketers were less intelligent, affected by feelings, serious and shrewd respectively, whereas, with respect to personality factors A, E, G, H, I, L, M, O, Q1, Q2, Q3 & Q4, Cricketers were found to be just average.

A study of personality differential of 32 selected and 32 non-selected university level soccer players was organized by Sidhu and Sidhu (1989) using 16 P.F.Q. The analysis indicated that in 10 out of 16 factors, the results were significant. It is further reported that as a player participated in more competitions and tournaments, his personality improved accordingly.

The study, on 221 male college students, in six physical education class, related to the games as fencing, basketball, boxing, swimming, volleyball and badminton, was conducted by Flanagan (1951) to measure personality traits and found that the fencers were more ascendant than the basketball players. Volleyball and badminton players were more extraverted. The basketball players were more masculine but the swimmers and the boxers scored higher in masculinity than the badminton and the volleyball players. The volleyball players were more masculine but the swimmers and the boxers scored higher in masculinity than the badminton and the volleyball players. The volleyball players were more submissive, more introverted and less emotionally stable than members of the other groups.
Thill-Edgar (1988) Studied the relationship between athletics and possible changes in personality traits. Human subjects: Normal male and female French adolescents and adults (aged 14-20 yrs) (sports participants). Nine groups of athletes (rowing, basketball, gymnastics, weight lifting, swimming, skiing, sailing, volleyball and judo) divided into 2 age ranges (14-17 yrs and 17-20 yrs) were tested every 9-mo during the 27-mo assessment period. Control Ss divided into 2 age ranges were tested every 9-mo during an 18-mo assessment period. Comparisons of averages, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) and principal components analysis were performed. Tests used: The Sport Personality Questionnaire (Thill and J. Brenot, 1982).

Aamodt-Michael-G.; Alexander et al. (1982). Two methodological problems in sports personality research have been the non-segmentation of athletic types and the lack of variety in the personality measures that have been used. The present study investigated the personality profiles in 51 non-athletes and 29 baseball, 36 football and 23 track team members using the Personal Profile System. Analysis indicated that baseball players did not differ from the non-athletes and the football players and track team members were more dominant and less patient than the non-athletes. The only significant difference between groups of athletes was in greater dominance of track-team members over baseball players.

Schurr,-K.-T.; Ashley,-M.-A.; Joy,-K.-L. (1977). Administered the 16 PF to 1,596 male college students and then categorized them by (a) involvement in athletics, (b) type of sport and (c) level of success. An unbalanced
hierarchical multivariate ANOVA using R. B. Cattell's (1970) 8 2nd-stratum factors was then performed. Results support the contention that moderator variables involving sport type are of primary importance in the development of theory involving sports-personality relationships.

Reiss, Steven; Wiltz, James; Sherman, Michael (2001). Two approaches for studying sports motivation-personality theory and motivation theory were combined in a novel way that permitted an assessment of individual differences in 15 motivational traits. The Reiss Profile of Fundamental Goals and Motivational Sensitivities was administered to 415 college students (aged 16-41 yrs) who had participated in 0, 1 or 2 or more varsity sports at high school or college levels. How many sports a student participated in, called athleticism, was found to be associated with motivational traits for physical exercise, social contact, family life/raising children, vengeance/competition, power/achievement, and with low curiosity. The results support the relevance of S. Reiss' motives for studying sports motivation.

Bandura, Albert (1990) Self-efficacy beliefs regulate human functioning through 4 major processes: cognitive, motivational, affective, and selection processes. Efficacy beliefs are the product of a complex process of self-persuasion that relies on cognitive processing of diverse sources of efficacy information. An analysis of the research on the 4 efficacy-activated processes and on the self-efficacy mechanism in athletic accomplishments indicates that the SE mechanism plays a central role in the exercise of personal agency. It is noted that the value of a psychological theory is judged not only by its
explanatory and predictive power, but also by its operational power to enhance the quality of human functioning. Social cognitive theory provides prescriptive specificity on how to empower people with the competencies, self-regulatory capabilities, and resilient self-belief of efficacy that enables them to enhance their psychological well-being and accomplishments.

Felsten,-Gary; Wilcox,-Kathy (1992). Argues that the approaches used by sports psychologists and stress researchers should be combined to evaluate more fully the relationships between stress and athletic performance. Most studies of stress and athletic performance ignore the influence of stress outside athletics. There is no reason to believe that athletes do not encounter the same range of psychosocial stressors that others experience or that response to stress is different for athletes. One would therefore expect athletic performance to be sensitive to the effects of general life stress as is somatic and psychological well-being. Interactions might be found among personality factors, life stress, athletic stress, and characteristics of the athletic event in the prediction of performance.

**Well-being or Psychological Well-being:**

Scand J. Caring (2010) examined the association among reduced psychological well-being, anxiety, sleep disturbances and HP by comparing people with HP and general population. A national survey of 12,166 individuals (hypertensive n = 2047; rest of population n = 10,119) was conducted using two-step multiple logistic regression with an odds ratio and a 95% confidence interval. The study was in accordance with Swedish
legislation pertaining to ethics. Reduced psychological well-being, anxiety and sleep disturbance were higher in the HP group and, in addition, reduced psychological well-being was, still higher in the presence of severe anxiety and serious sleep disturbances. These three factors are of major importance for HP, but it is difficult to know whether they are causes or consequences. In order to prevent HP, support for people who exhibit such risk factors should be a matter of high priority.

The study by Vishwakarma Harshita and Chengti S. (2010) examined the influence of stress on psychological well-being of the hypertensive patients and normal. The study consists of 200 samples out of the 100 were normal and 100 were hypertensive patients. Attempt was made to examine the influence of stress on psychological well-being in normal and hypertensive patients. The sample of 100 was chronic hypertension with >140/90 Hg mm (clinically measured) and 100 normal sample, on psychological well-being scale and Stress inventory were administered. It was hypothesized that there would be significant influence of stress on psychological well-being in normal and hypertensive patients.

Ruuskanen and Ruopilla (1995) investigated the relationships between physical activity and psychological well-being can be interpreted as reciprocal, physical activity may have positive effects on psychological well-being. Whatever the causal duration of the relationship, it is obvious that health and functional abilities affect daily living and activity levels of elderly people. These findings indicate that physical exercise may have a significant
role and meaning for elderly individuals, when performed in the course of their everyday life situations.

The study by Raff, Carol D. (1989) examined the psychological well-being have little theoretical grounding, despite an extensive literature on the contours of positive functioning. Aspects of well-being derived from this literature (i.e., self-acceptance, positive relations with others, autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose in life, and personal growth) were operationalized. Three hundred and twenty-one men and women, divided among young, middle-aged, and older adults, rated themselves on these measures along with six instruments prominent in earlier studies (i.e., affect balance, life satisfaction, self-esteem, morale, locus of control, depression). Results revealed that positive relations with others, autonomy, purpose in life, and personal growth were not strongly tied to prior assessment indexes, thereby supporting the claim that key aspects of positive functioning have not been represented in the empirical arena. Furthermore, age profiles revealed a more differentiated pattern of well-being than is evident in prior research.

Bryce et al. (2003) studied the psychological well-being of male and female office workers and examined how eight aspects of the work situation were associated with psychological well-being measured on several dimensions. The results of multiple regression analysis have indicated similarities and difference in the association of principal environmental influences with well-being in males and females. In the male sample, control work was significantly associated with all dimensions of work-related
mental health; but in the female sample, it was not associated with any dimension of mental health.

Jesus Ramirez-Valles et al. (2005) examined that the community involvement may buffer or may compensate the adverse effects of stigma on psychological well-being. In this article, the authors explore this thesis in a stigmatized and seldom studied group of HIV positive Latino gay men. Specifically, they examine the effects of community involvement in AIDS and gay related organizations (e.g., volunteerism and activism) and experienced homosexual stigma on three psychological well-being indicators (i.e., self-esteem, depression, and activism) and experienced homosexual stigma on three psychological well-being indicators (i.e., self-esteem, depression, and loneliness). The cross-sectional sample includes 155 HIV positive men living in New York City and Washington, DC. Results suggest that experienced stigma attributed to homosexuality is associated with psychological well-being. Community involvement, however, seems to compensate the association between stigma and depression and loneliness, while buffering the association with self-esteem. Furthermore, community involvement also appears to heighten the perception of stigma.

Rammohan A. et al. (2002) examined the use of religious coping and it’s relation to psychological well-being in careers of relatives with schizophrenia. Finding indicates that coping strategies of denial and problem solving, strength of religious belief and perceived burden were significant predictors of well-being. Strength of religious belief plays an important role in helping
family members to cope with the stress of caring for a mentally ill relative. In addition to psycho-education and problem solving coping, the role of religious coping well-being of careers needs to be considered in family intervention programmes.

Braces et al. (1999) examined the relationship between religious commitment, spiritual well-being and psychological well-being. The purpose of the study was to identify the relationship between religious commitment, spiritual well-being and psychological well-being in college students. A statistically significant relationship was found between religious/spiritual well-being and psychological well-being. First, participants who experience existential well-being tend to be self-accepting and to a lesser extent have mastery of their environment and a purpose in life. Second, participants who experience existential well-being and a lesser degree, religious well-being tend to accept themselves, have a purpose in life, possess mastery of their environment, positively towards others, feel they are growing personally and are autonyms. This study provided evidence of a relationship between religious/spiritual well-being and psychological well-being.

Maltby John, Lewis Christopher Alan; Day, Liza, (1999) examined the role of religious acts between measures of religious orientation and psychological well-being, and examines the theoretical view that religion can act as a coping mechanism. Though a number of significant correlations were found between measures of religiosity and psychological well-being, a
multiple regression analysis using identifiable religious components suggests that frequency of personal prayer is the dominant factor in the relationship between religiosity and psychological well-being. The results suggest two points; (1) that the correlations between a number of measures of religiosity and psychological well-being may be mediated by the relationship between frequency of personal prayer and psychological well-being; (2) that personal prayer may be an important variable to consider within the theory of religious coping.

Srivastava Sweta and Arvind K. Sinha (2005) investigated the relationship of resilience, happiness, and self-esteem with well-being explored, using a sample of undergraduate students (N=30) from a premier technological institute located in north India. Results showed that resilience and happiness were positive related to well-being. Happiness had positive association with resilience, but negative association with self-esteem. Self-esteem was negatively associated with resilience, and well-being. Experiential learning in a T-group type intervention seemed to cause an increase in the average magnitude of all core variables except self-esteem, which suffered a setback, as evidenced through data obtained at a second time-point. Results are discussed toward the importance of resilience, happiness, and experiential learning for increased well-being.

Lucas, Richard E.; Gohm, Carol (2000) investigated the effects of age and sex on subjective well-being (SWB) across cultures using 2 large international samples. The current chapter analyzes data from the World
Values Survey II, which includes approximately 57,000 respondents from 41 nations and International College Students from 39 nations around the world. Results indicate that on several measures of well-being, women showed a slight tendency to experience greater unpleasant affect than men. This sex difference was found both in measures of frequency and intensity of unpleasant effect and it tended to increase among older. When individual emotions were examined, sex differences were the largest in the internally focused emotions of fear and sadness. Women did report experiencing more anger than men, but the difference was not as large as it was for fear and sadness. Age had no effect on life satisfaction. Pleasant affect decreased steadily throughout the life-span and unpleasant affect showed a curvilinear relation with age, decreasing at first and then increasing among the elderly.

The literature on psychological well-being reveals a number of conceptual and methodological issues such as multiple definitions, non-theoretically based measures and neglect to study this concept in Muslim Arab cultures. Therefore, a study in this regard aims to provide base-line data on psychological health and well-being in a community sample of Bahraini adults and to examine moderating effects of positive between negative life events life events and depression. A survey method, using self administered questionnaires, was used in this descriptive co relational study and found these variables to be highly associated by (Mosalum, Lulwa D. Jassim, 1999).

Hao-Lingxin, Johnson, Richard W. (2000) examined the religious culture factors can enhance emotional well-being. Religious attention and
participation are important for both immigrant and native’s sample, but religious participation appears to be more beneficial for immigrants. The effects of several determinants of emotional health differed across immigrant groups. It was found that marriage education and the presence of economically stable are particularly important for the sample of natives.

Catz et al. (2002) conducted a study on the psychological distress among minority and low-income women living with HIV. Greater anxiety and depression symptoms were associated with women who reported higher stress, using fewer active coping strategies and perceiving less social support.

Surveys the literature on social support and cancer and reports results from an empirical investigation of the factors that led cancer patient to join social support groups. Questionnaire data from 21-89 year old cancer patients show that although most social support reviewed high level of social support following cancer, some experienced isolated instances of rejection or did not receive the type of support they wanted from family, friends, and medical caregivers. This appeared to be an impetus for joining cancer support groups, although social support reporting a lack of social support was not generally more likely to join support groups than were other social support. The profile of mood states suggested that attainers were somewhat less likely to be depressed than were non-attainers. In addition, cancer support group attainers were more likely to be white middle- class females, to report having more problems, and to use social support resources of all kinds than were non-attainers. Implications for outreach to cancer patients are
discussed and it is concluded that while support groups may be beneficial for many cancer patients, current programmes tend to be used largely by the same segment of the population that uses traditional mental health by (Taylor and et al., 1986).

Griffing-Gene-Arnall (2002) studied to determine whether the interaction between creativity and religious orientation would be a significant predictor of psychological well-being. Psychological well-being, in the current study, was defined as the linear composite of life satisfaction, meaning in life, and purpose in life. Results of the study suggested that creativity and religious orientation were both significant predictors of psychological wellbeing, the interaction of these variables was not found to be a significant predictor of psychological wellbeing.

Kaplan et al. (2002) examined the hypothesis that prevalence of hypertension among Asian immigrants differs by acculturation status. A multiple logistic regression was conducted to assess the independent effects of acculturation and other factors on hypertension. The results show a significant relation between Asian immigrants' length of residence in Canada and hypertension, after adjusting for socio-demographics, smoking, drinking, health status, access to health services, and psychological wellbeing.

Bermudez et al. (2003) studied relationship between Emotional Intelligence, Psychological Well-being and Emotional Stability in a sample of university students. The sample is composed of 65 people, men and women with ages between 18 and 33 years old. The results of the Pearson correlations
indicated that there are significant positive correlations between Emotional Intelligence, Psychological Well-being and Emotional Stability.

Kroese et al. (2002) examined the impact of social support networks of mothers of intellectual disabilities (N=15) on their psychological well-being and their views of parenting. As part of a semi-structured interview, mothers were asked about who helped them in their parenting role and how recent and how helpful this support had been. Adapted psychological questionnaires were presented which measured affect, assertiveness and self-esteem. Mothers were also asked about the benefits, burdens and future expectations of parenthood. It was hypothesized that the larger, more recent and more helpful the support network was reported to be, the better the psychological well-being and the more positive the views on parenthood. Data analysis included quantitative and qualitative methods. Results indicated that significant associations were found between the number of reported social contacts and positive affect, and the lack of self-esteem and reported burdens of parenting. The average number of social contacts reported was 6.8 persons, with only half of these being described as very helpful. Very few non-family members were part of the support networks.

Ben-Ari, Adital; Gil, Sharon (2004) explored the relationship between perceived social support and well-being among students in the two main populations living in Israel: Jew and Arabs. More specifically, it compared the well-being of Israeli Jewish students and Palestinian students
and examined the role of social support in their well-being. Findings showed that the Palestinian students are significantly made distressed than their Jewish counterparts, according to all measures of well-being.

Henly et al. (2005) assessed that the social support available from low-income networks serves primarily a coping function, rather than a leverage function. Social support and its relationship to material well-being were assessed. Multivariate findings demonstrate that perceived support is unrelated to employment quality, but it reduces the likelihood of living in poverty and is associated with three different measures of coping. These findings generally support the contention that informal aid is important for the everyday survival of low-income families, but is less able to assist with economic mobility.

Pollacheck-Judith-Barberio (2001) examined the relationships of hardiness, social support, and health promoting behaviours to well-being in a chronically ill population. This research tested the relationship between well-being, the dependent variable, and three independent variables, hardiness, social support, and health promoting behaviours. The findings of this study provide empirical support to the theorized individual relationships between well-being and the three explanatory variables: hardiness, social support and health promoting behaviours. However, when the relationship between well-being and the effect of all three independent variables are analysed, only individuals with hardiness report higher levels of well-being.
Brown,-Kelly-Ann (2001) studied the effects of social support on subjective well-being of mothers with children in early intervention. Results discussed in terms of the important implications of different etiological variable sets and social support variable sets on the subjective well-being of mothers with children enrolled in early intervention programs.

Pagano, - Mario- Elizabeth (2001) assessed to understand the relationship between social support from non-parental adults and the well-being of low-income, minority youth within the neighbourhood context. This study examined which non-parental adult was most important to youth well-being, whether social support/youth well-being linkages were more pronounced under conditions of low neighbourhood safety, whether positive support or social rejection was more predictive of youth well-being, and differences found in social support linkages using staff- and youth-report of psychosocial symptomatology. Results of this study provide an ecological understanding of the relationship between supportive non-parental adults and youth well-being and are discussed in relation to the design of after-school programs and policies that serve low-income, minority youth.

Saathoff-Wells,-Tara-Sue (2001) investigated roles of personal and professional social support and workplace fairness as factors in the subjective well-being of American expatriates. Results showed that satisfaction with social support resources, level of education, and perceptions of the daily work environment significantly affected perceptions of individual life satisfaction for American expatriates. Job satisfaction was found to be significantly
affected by level of education, positive perceptions of the daily work environment, and positive perceptions of organizational fairness.

Holley et al. (2000) studied the relationship between caregiver stress, social support, and well-being using the conceptual framework proposed by Pallett (1990). Data indicated that the caregiver's gender was significantly influenced by their perception of stress. Both male and female caregivers reported a high level of stress. In addition, male caregivers also reported having a significantly higher perception of tangible support and a more positive self-esteem than female caregivers. Another finding was that the caregiver's education level and socio-economic status were both found to be positively related to their perception of available help. Path analysis indicated several significant paths between variables. The strongest significant path was between social support and well-being. The path between intensity of care giving experience and caregiver stress was significant, as was the path between intensity of the care giving experience and social support.

Siddique and Carl D' Arcy (1984) examined the relationship between perceived stress in family, school, and peer-group situations and four measures of psychological well-being. The moderator effects of locus of control orientation (mastery) on stress-outcome relationships were also examined, as were the sex differences in health and the perception of stress. All three sources of stress were found to be related to the four measures of mental health, with family stress having the strongest negative health impact. The health-protective role of locus of control was limited for the large part to
the stresses emanating from school and peer groups. Substantial sex differences were found in the perception of family- and peer-related stresses as well as in levels of psychological distress. A tentative explanation of these differences was examined with reference to prevailing structural conditions and differences in locus of control orientation, with female adolescents showing greater externality. Implications of the results are drawn for the long-standing debate on the relative impact of stress and its sources on adolescents' psychosocial development and for a current controversy in adolescent theory between proponents of “classical” and proponents of empirical conceptions of adolescence.

Martin and Ickovice (1987) examined the relationships between marital and military-specific stress and the general psychological well-being of army wives. These data come from an on-going three-year longitudinal panel study. Study participants (N = 277) were assessed at two different times 12 to 15 months apart. It was predicted that current marital stress and military life stress would have significant negative (and independent) relationships to well-being, even when prior levels of stress and well-being were taken into consideration. A path model was utilized to analyse the data. These data support the view that both military life stress and marital stress have important independent relationships to the general psychological well-being of army wives. Furthermore, it appears that the relationship between marriage and well-being takes on added importance the longer one stays in the military system.
Nevill and Alpass (2002) examined the relationships between stress, social support and psychological well-being in men over the age of 65 years were investigated. A convenience sample of 217 men over the age of 65 years, living in a small New Zealand city took part in the study. A questionnaire was used to gather information on stress, social support and psychological well-being, as well as biographical data. Data were analysed quantitatively. Results showed that both the men who were satisfied with the social support they received and those who reported low stress levels experienced higher levels of psychological well-being ($p<.001$). The number of people available to provide social support was not significantly related to psychological well-being. There were no significant interaction effects between stress, social support variables and psychological well-being, with each variable operating independently in relation to psychological well-being. It appeared that the older the men were the fewer social supports available to them, suggesting the importance of the quality of those supports in maintaining psychological well-being.

Norval D. Glenn and Charles N. Weaver (1981) examined the effects of years of school completed on eight dimensions of psychological well-being for white men, white women, black men, and black women. Estimates are provided of total effects, effects net of socioeconomic variables, and effects net of socioeconomic variables, family situation, and frequency of attendance of religious services. There is little evidence for negative effects, the only statistically significant negative coefficient being that for satisfaction with
community among white men. There is some evidence that education has positive effects on psychological well-being in all subpopulations except black men, the strongest evidence being for white women. Dummy variable regression estimates of the effects of different increments of education indicate greater effects from four years of high school than from four years of college. There is tentative evidence that mothers' education may have an important positive effect on their offspring's psychological well-being.

Diener and F'uzlia and Perineum and Brook (1987 and 1990) studies indeed people report happy with being other people. Findings confirm the correlation between said supports and well-being for example; those who enjoy close relationship cope better with various stressors.

Haugh et al. (1986), Laukken et al. (1904), Rantanen (1994) and Era et al. (1993) examined the better health and functional status between men and women, men carried out physical exercise more intensively than did women. This sex difference is in accordance with earlier literature and can be explained by the fact that elderly men tend to have better health and functional status than do elderly women. In the 75-year-old population of three Nordic countries (Finland, Sweden, Denmark), men showed better function than women in maximal isometric strength, reaction and movement times in choice tests (both auditory and visual stimuli) and greater bone mineral density.

Richard Norris, Douglas Carroll and Raymond Cochrane (1990) studied to determine whether fitness alters psychological and physiological
indices of well-being, male police officers were assigned to either an aerobic or anaerobic training condition or to a no treatment control group. The training groups met three times per week in 45 min sessions aimed at improving either cardiovascular endurance or muscle strength. Aerobic fitness level, heart rate, blood pressure and self-report of stress and well-being were measured prior to and following 10 weeks of training. Post-training fitness measures confirmed the effectiveness of training and between group differences for physiological and self-report measures was found. Subjects undergoing aerobic training evinced larger changes on the self-report measures of well-being and stress than the anaerobic trainers and both groups showed significant improvement when compared to controls. This experiment provides support for the hypothesis that exercise, and in particular aerobic exercise, has positive effects of well-being.

Simonsen et al. (2000) Studied gender role conflict and psychological well-being among gay men. Results revealed that the gay men with less gender role conflict has more positive view of seeking psychological help and reported fewer symptoms of anger, anxiety, and depression.

Li, Hong and Chonge (2003) conducted study on college stress and Psychological well-being of Chinese college students and results showed that college stress negatively affected Psychological well-being. Academic hassle negatively affected psychological well-being, as did personal hassles and negative life events. It is concluded that college stress and its different aspects negatively affect Psychological well-being.
A study by Hoyer et al. (2003), found that both extremely high and extremely low self-reflection has been considered as risk factors for psychological maladjustment. Therefore, from an integrating perspective medium amounts of self-reflection may constitute healthy introspection. Results showed a regressive relationship with self-reflection as a quadratic predictor of well-being. No evidence for a curvilinear effect was detected in the total sample or in subgroups.

The review of studies indicated that the findings on study variables are inconclusive and insufficient. Especially the studies related to emotional maturity with regard to well-being are scarce or limited. This warrants that there shall be more studies in this area in the times to come.

**Research Questions:**

The following questions were raised and attempts were made to answer them:

1. What is the effect of emotional maturity and personality on well-being of the sample?
2. Is there any difference in well-being between sample subgroups?
3. Is there any relationship between independent and dependent variables?