CHAPTER-II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

For conducting any piece of research study, review and survey of literature related to the study being conducted, is of paramount, significance. Surveying of researches conducted in the field helps the investigator in understanding the problem from different perspectives. Such a review of the studies conducted by the other investigators in the field related to the problem in hand also helps the researcher in framing the objectives and the correspondence hypothesis of the study. However, the most significant contribution of such surveys helps the investigator in interpretation of the results of the study that the researcher investigates.

With the above objectives in view the investigator proposes to survey the literature related with the present study.

Before and during competition, the sportsmen are large fearful so some degree with eventful their performance. This is a nature phenomenon. No human being is free from anxiety. In the stressful setting provided by competitive sports; it is usual to observe to a rational appraisal of a real threatening situation and the team anxiety denotes an abnormal apprehension of such a situation.

Harre (1988), self-concept relates to the individual’s strength and weakness, and hence is concerned with abilities. Self-concept can include attitudes and beliefs and may extend to temperamental matters. Self concept is highly dependent on the kind of situation a person perceives him or herself to be acting in, “Knowing myself, then involves, not only knowing my dispositions and abilities but the situations and
conditions in which I may be able (or liable) to have them.” According to social constructionists, “Self” is a learned construct. They gorward the claim that gender is learned in the same way as learning about the other objects of the world, that is, a human attribute, through inductive process of categorization and classification, serves the function of acquiring social knowledge (Bigler & Liben, 19103; Das & Ghadially, 1988; Gupta, 1994; Heller, 1993; Liben & Signorella, 1980; Slaby & Frey, 1975). Miller (1990) also writes that even though in infancy both girls and boys are matched in a complex and “interacting” sense of self, ‘Girls are encouraged to augment their abilities to “feel as the others feel”, and to practice “learned about” the other (s)’. Self-concept is the some total of an individual’s belief about his or her own personal attributes. Thus, self-concept is the set of ideas that a person has about himself. These ideas run through all his emotional experiences, habits, memories, trades and values. It referees to an attitudinal structure, which tends to be self-sustaining. An individual’s evaluation of self-concept as dominant or submissive, emotional or calm, social or exclusive will be dependent to some extent upon the group with which consciously or unconsciously he/she compares himself/herself. No one is born with a fully framed self-concept. It develops as we experience approval and criticism, success and failure. It goes with our family, our friends, our place in society, and out perception of the world around us, it is modified as our bodies mature and we evaluate our physical, social and emotional characteristics.

Hopkins (1973) studied the self-perception of disabled persons and reported that handicapped children attribute their disability to themselves. Physical appearance serves as a critical variable in the process of personality development for the physically handicapped children. Dreikurs (1948) reported that nearly half of a sample of 40 severely crippled children deliberately used their abilities to appear inferior and more helpless than they really were. All of them showed poor self-
concept, their self-image was distorted and they blamed themselves. They experienced more fears and feelings of guilt than able-bodied children. All these exhibit their poor self-concepts. Shakespeare (1975) surveyed those studies of handicapped people where better-adjusted and poorly adjusted people were compared. He found that better adjusted people had positive self-concept, more self esteem and more readily saw themselves as making a worth while contribution to society. His findings also showed that better adjusted people are less anxious and have less need of social approval.

Goodenough and Karp, (1974) first introduced the concept of psychological differentiation in the course of studies of individual differences in cognitive style. “Differentiation” refers to the complexity of structure of a psychological system (Witkin, 1978). In another study of a similar kind Berry (1966) compared the Temne and the Eskimo groups and found that the Temne children who were severely disciplined and physically punished were more field dependent than Eskimo children who were given much freedom, were rarely punished and were encouraged to assume responsibility early in life. A number of studies have given similar results. Studies have shown that family experiences and socialization (Dyk. 1969; Dyk & Witkin, 1965; Witkin, 1965; and Witkin et al., 1974) are important determinants of psychological differentiation. Therefore, there are reasons to believe that children in these two types of families will differ in the extent of psychological differentiation. Families with greater parental involvement were likely to have field independent, children (Busse, 1969; Dawson, 1967; and Dreyer, 1975) and extended family structure was associated with field dependence while a nuclear family structure was associated with field independence (Witkin et. al., 1974; Holtzman, Diaz Guerrero & Swartz, 1975). The modes of adaptation (Berry & Kim, 1988) and support systems available to individuals (Caplan & Killilea, 1976; Cohen & Wills, 1985) have been
implicated as important factors in the experience of stress associated with changes in life style. It is evident that individuals, who adopt integratio, coexistence and assimilation strategies, experience less stress while those who adopt separatio or marginalization strategies experience greater stress (Berry, 1990; Berry & Kim, 1988; Mishra, Sinha & Berry, 1996). With regard to social support mechanisms, it was found that social isolation of individuals heightens the levels of stress (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Fondacora & Moos, 1987). Individuals own psychological make up is also an important variable in the experience of stress. For example, field-independent individuals, who happen to be cognitively controlled, experience stress to a lesser extent than field-dependent individuals, who seem to be less cognitively controlled (Berry & Annis, 1974; Mishra et al., 1996).

Mishra & Somani (1993) suggested that the coefficient of correlation between scores obtained on mental health and occupational stress of the supervisors turned to be negative.

Jagdish and Yadav (1999) indicated that home deprivation was negatively associated with positive self-evaluation, perception of reality, integratio of personality, authonomy, grouporiented attitude, environmental mastery and overall mental health.

Kothari (2000) expressed that there was significant mean difference between the T.B. patients, sex age, marital status and education and their overall mental hygiene whereas area, income and type of T.B. patients were non-significant.

Ojha (2002) found that social anxiety was significantly higher in orthopaedically handicapped group. Orthopaedically handicapped females were found to be more socially anxious as compared to orthopaedically handicapped males. However, few dimensions of mental health, viz. group oriented attitude, integratio of personality, and positive self evaluation were found to be significant on physically handicapped in
general. Latha (2002) revealed that higher Trait Anger scores (22) and high Hostility scores (< 9.29) significantly increases the risk for the coronary heart disease (CHD).

Khan (2003) said that without mentally healthy teachers we cannot aspire and expect a good society. Besides it, the teachers should be aware of and will informed about mental health care programmes and practices so that they may guide and direct the student’s guardian/parent properly and accordingly, whenever it is needed.

Akhani, Rathi & Nath (2003) showed that hostelers had more religious personal values than day scholars, and day scholars are significantly high on health personal values. There was no significant difference between mental healths of the two groups.

Subjective well-being (SWB) is an abstract super ordinate construct causing the affective reactions of individuals to their life experiences along a positive-negative continuum (Okun, 1987). Subjective well-being has been operationalized (Okun, Melichar & Hill, 1990) by indicators of happiness, moral and life satisfaction. Diener, Suh, Lucas & Smith (1999) stated that subjective well-being is a general area of scientific interest rather than a single specific construct and is abroad category of phenomena that include people’s emotional responses, domain satisfaction and global judgments of life satisfaction.

Diener, Sandvik, Seidlitz & Diener (1993) have found a positive correlation between income and subjective well-being but Clark & Oswald (1994) dis not find a statistically significant effect of income in a representative sample from Britain. Smith & Razzel (1975) found that the effects of income often led to an increased level of distress. Thus, even positive changes in income may result in more stress, mitigating the positive effects of wealth on well-being. Recently Dinear et. al. (1999) in a review article has reported that over the years there is a linear increase in the
income in America but did not find any increase in the well-being scores. Therefore, there appears to be a lack of consistency in the findings over the relationship between income and well-being. Bradley and Crowyn (2002) revealed that for children, SES influences well being at multiple levels including both family and neighborhood. Its effects are moderated by children’s own characteristics, family’s characteristics and external support system. Evans, Kantrowitz and Eshelman (2002) found that elderly residents of higher quality homes, independent of multiple demographic factors (e.g. income, gender), feel more attached to their home, which in turn, appears to account for the relation between housing quality and positive effect of well being. Gorden, Savage, Lahey, Goodman et al. (2003) highlighted ways in which match and mismatch between family and neighbourhood income may encourage positive and negative social comparisons and may influence youth’s ability to participate in social networks and enriching resources. Bookwalter and Delenberg (2004) found that important differences exist among groups based upon their economic status. For the poorest quartiles, transportation and housing play the most important role in determining well being while for richest quartiles sanitation, water, energy, education and health are relatively more important.

Hein (1954) found team sports participants to be more extraverted than those participating in individual sports. He also found that participants on individual and dual sports possessed less amount of self assurance.

Husman (1955) showed, in his study on boxers, wrestlers and cross-country, distinguished characteristics as far as aggressive tendencies were concerned. His findings were that the cross-country runner tended to be more extra punitive than the boxers and the boxers possessed less overall intensity of aggression and had more supergo.
Booth (1947) using MMPI investigated the differences in the personality of football players, athletics and non-athletics. His result revealed that the athletics from various sports groups and non-athletics differed significantly on several of the MMPI scale.

Niblok (1960) found that female athletics to be more energetic, enthusiastic, efficient, as possessing more leadership potential and were optimistic and more extraverted.

Slusher (1964) using MMPI found that personality differences existed even among athletes who athletes who participated in different sports.

In Carson & Study (1963) the less anxious group performed better on a stabilometer under stress than the highly anxious group early in the learning stages. The nature of the learner and more particular his anxiety level, is also important in determinig how much stress should be present in learning situation. The complexity of task and the anxiety level of the person interatct to produce interesting performance expectancies with a complex task (the kind athletics usually have to learn) the expectation would be that highly anxious people would end to perform less under stress than less anxious people. The phenomenon has been observed by a number of researches.

The result of Nelson & Langer’s (1963) study support the result of an earlier study on the effects of anxiety on learning. In an extensive review of literature on anxiety (1960) concluded that both high and low level of anxiety tended to disrupt the learning process, whereas moderate level of anxiety tended to create an ideal atmosphere for learning.

Behrman (1967) conducted study on personality differences between swimmers and non-swimmers. The investigation was made to determine whether there are personality differences between male college freshman swimmers and non-swimmers and to determine the relationship between personality traspits and swimmers
experiencing a common course of instruction in swimming. Subjects were compared on the basis of swimming performances, personality tests, biographic data forms and interviews with subjects who failed to learn how to swim. Comparison revealed significant difference between swimmers and non-swimmers and between learners and non-learners.

Peterson etal (1967) reported that women athletes who participated in individual sports, when compared to women competing in team sports were more dominant, adventures, sensitive, self sufficient and more forthright.

Rushall (1967) while comparing personality characteristics of male swimmers with female swimmers found that females were socially bold, noisy and unrestrained in their behaviour, whereas male 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.

Nearly every concern of human endeavour is thought to be effected somehow by anxiety (Lavitt 1967) number of theories exist concerning the effects of anxiety of performance, and while there seems to be an interaction effect between the amounts to anxiety necessary to maximally perform certain specific tasks, all theories seems to agree that maximum performance is reduced by too much anxiety ( Duffy, 1962, Null 1952, Wiener 1965 ) a number of specific management techniques have emerged including cybernetic training (Roman 1978) visual motor behavioral ( Sumn 1976) hypnoses (Morgan 1972) Cognitive behavioral training ( Horton and Shelton, 1978) and progressive relaxation (Tulko and Topsi, 1976 Dowen and Lanning, 1982)Additional techniques are being used by athletics include transcendental meditation, biofeedback, zen and yoga, autogenic training and sentic cycles (Beson, 1975) According to the well known hypothesis of Liebert and Morris (1967) and
Sarson (1975) the state of anxiety is characterized by the self focussing tendencies leading to self-preoccupation. This is associated with task-irrelevant cognitions, in particular “woory”. For example, an athlete being in a negative prestart tension in increasing concentrates his thoughts on self-concept problem instead of directing his attention to the demands of the task and competition. Therefore, the control of such tasks-irrelevant cognitions is a first essential approach to anxiety control. Furthermore, anxiety is accompanied by a higher level of activation. the athlete feels nervous, upset and overacted. This aspect is called “emotionality” by Liebert and Morris. In second approach to anxiety control is to reduce the activation level with the expectation than an improvement of concentration may follow too. Finally a pre start anxious athlete will tend to avoid the threatening competition in order to prevent failure and potential loss of a social appreciation. In this case, appropriate motivational techniques are required. This third approach to anxiety control is based on controlling behavioral tendencies expecting an additional feedback effect on cognition and emotion as well.

Mulumphy (1968) and Ogilvie (1968) Also conducted a related investigation, where four groups of female athletes i.e. athletes in team sports, in individual sports, team individual sports, subjectively judged sports and the non-athletes, differed on various factors. The athletes from individual sports were more extraverted than those from team individual groups. The seemed to be in disagreement with the findings of Peterson, Weber and Trousdale (1967). Malumphy also found that the team sports group as less extraverted than the non-athletes. However, he found individual female athletes to be more anxious, venturesome, tough-minded and extraverted while team athletes were lower in leadership, less venturesome extraverted learnes.

In the study made Malumphy (1968) the sport participants were found to be more conscientious and tough minded, but less imaginative and less venturesome than the
non-sports participants. Newman (1968) suggested that participation in high level athletic competition provides and adds a dimension to one’s personality. He found that athletes were found to be more conscientious and tough minded, but less imaginative and less venturesome than the non-sports participants.

He found that athletes were more sociable, more aggressive in their approach to problems, more self confident, more critical of themselves and more extraverted than non-athletes. Ogilvy (1968) also found that traits like emotional stability, tough madness, consciousness; self control, low energetic tension level, self assuredness and outgoingness consistently were associated with athletic achievement.

Gupta (1969) studied the personality characteristics of hockey champions and non athletes by administering the MMPI test. The result to this test revealed that hockey champions were highest on Ma scale while low on PF scale. Hockey champions were found to have greater ability to concentrate, self confidence, extraversion, tendency to worry less and less intelligence as compared with the group of non athletics.

Singer (1969) compared the basketball players and tennis players on EPPS norms and also the highest and lowest ranked athletes in both sports. The baseball team scored significantly lower than the other two groups, on the interception variable, lower than the tennis group of the achievement variable, lower than the norm group on autonomy and lower than the tennis group on dominance. Both the baseball and tennis groups scored significantly higher than the norm group on the aggression factor. No differences were noted between high and low rated baseball players.

Kane (1970) found a complex relationship between the second order personality variable “extraversuion” and performance of “track athletes” (sprinters) and they were found to be frequently more extraverted than middle distance runners. He claimed that as the distance increased, there was a trend towards introversion.
Slevin (1970) used the STAI to investigate the effects of anxiety upon the performance novel gross motor task. The results showed that overall high trait anxiety subject had significantly higher state anxiety scores and significantly lower performance scores than low trait subject.

Kennedy (1971) certificall analyzed the effects of sports participation on the modification of various personality traits possessed by an individual before starting his/her sports career. Here he emphasized on the most commonly found personality traits in the championship athletes as stated by the Ogilvy. These traits are:-

1. Emotional Stability  
2. Tough Mind ness  
3. Self-assurance  
4. Basic trust in people

Dorsey (1976) discovered that relaxation training did not load to change in state anxiety or an improvement in gymnastic performance. A study conducted by Blacksmith (1977) systematic desensitization failed to reduce state anxiety collegiate weightlifters.

Nideffer (1976) has concluded that flexibility of attentional style is also vital to athletic achievement. Mental errors, occurred, he contended, when an individual lost control over attentional direction and/or focus.

Martens has described CTA as “ a tendency to perceive competitive situation with feeling of apprehension of tension” (Marton, 1977 p.23) while state anxiety refers to stress “characterized by subjective consciously perceived feeling of apprehension and tension, accompanied by or associated with activation or arousal of the automatic nervous system (Spielberger, 1966, p.17). Therefore, trait anxiety is a relatively stable characteristic while state anxiety is predicated by more immediate factors that pose a threat to the individual.
French (1977) also found that biofeedback training significantly improved gross and find motor skills. Recently another construct has been receiving considerable attention within the area of athletic performance.

Methods to access both types of anxiety have been established the sport competition anxiety test (SCAT) (Marten, 1977), has produced reliable and valid measures of trait anxiety while Spielberger’s (1970) State Anxiety inventory (SAI) has been proven to be effective means of assessing state anxiety. Further more the STI has been revised into a competitive short form (CASI) (Marten, Burton, Rivkin and Simon, 1980) and utilized successfully by investigators in competitive situation (Gruber and Beauchamps, 1979. Scalan and Ragan 1978)

Gruber and Parkins (1978) found women who competed in inter collegiate championship to be significantly higher on the factor F (sober), and I (tough minded) when compare to non-artistipant group. William (1978) reported that selected personality traits are frequently associated with the elite female athletes and specifically that the successful female competitor generally tends to be more assertive, dominant, self-sufficxient, independent, aggressive, reserved.

Kirkcaldly (1982) found no significant differences regarding the personality dimension of team and individual athletes.

Mohan Et. Al. (1979) found that the players were more extraverted that non-players and low on neryotiucism implying more stability of emotionality. Thakur and Thakur (1980) studied personality characteristics of the athlete and non-athlete Indian College males using projective methods of personality assessment and found that the characteristics associated with athletes were happiness, cordial and affectionate, anxiety, achievement, dominance and superior organization capacity, whereas the
characteristics associated with non-athletes were guilt, acquisition, passivity, rejection, superior imagination.

Research has been completed showing that CTA is effective in predicting various level of state anxiety (Marten 1977, Marten, Rivkin, Burton 1979). However, the strength of these relationship is inconclusive for example Marten (1977, pp 67-68) found an increasing correlation between CTA and the latter measure Weinberg and Genuchis (note I ) investigation of male college golfers concluded that CTA was to correlate significantly with basal and pre-competitive state anxiety scores among youth male soccer players.

According to Mudra (1980) with almost half of the variance in the prediction of pre-game state anxiety being accounted for, there is still another 50% which remains, suggesting the need for the future research. In an effort to identify and gain further understanding of the components of the competitive stress, other possible sources such as coach.

Eysenek et. Al. (1982) reported that athletes tend to be high on psychoticism than the non-athletes. According to them, a high psychoticism sores may be discribed as being aggressive, troublesome, cruel and inhuman, lacking in feeling and sympathy.

Sharma and Shukla (1982) studied the personality characteristics of sportsmen of individual and team sports. They reported that individual sports athletes were higher on these traits: conscientiousness, outgoing, super ego-strenght, vigorous and tough mind ness.

PD. Tomporwski (1984) studied that the effect of seven month aerobic type exercise program on physical fitness and intelligence of institutionalized adult mentally retarded person were evaluated. Sixty-five subjects, matched on IQ, CA and sex, were
assigned randomly to exercise (PF), attention control (AC) and non intervention control (C) groups. PF and AC group participated in 139 training sessions, three hours per day, five days per week. The exercise consisted of running/jogging, calisthenics and circuit training those in the AC groups received a special education program: the C group continued their normal institutional training programs. Cardiovascular efficiency improved in the PF group. The IQ and adaptive behaviour did not improve as a result of any treatment. Even though standardized test reflected little change in adaptive behaviour of participants, subjective reports suggest PF training may serve as an effective habitation program for many institutionalized mentally retarded adults.

P.D. Tomporowski (1985) studied that institutionalized severally and profoundly mentally retarded adults participated in seven month program to regorous aerobic type exercises. The effect of treatment on the physical fitness, intelligence and behaviour of subjects were assessed. Fifty men and women were matched in pairs based on IQ, CA and sex and assigned randomly to an experimental (E) or control (C) group. Those in the E group met three hour training per day, five days per week and received a treatment that consisted of an exercise program that included jogging, running, dance aerobatics and circuit training. The C group continued their institutional training programs. The treatment produced significant improvements in cardiovascular efficiency of the subjects: however, no change in their intelligence of adaptive behavior was obtained. Although standardized tests reflected little improvement in psychological or behavioral variables due to treatment, subjective reports suggest that exercise training may serve as a more practical habilitation program for severely and profoundly mentally retarded individuals that those typically employed in institutional setting.

Kumar and Thakur (1986) found that athletes were not anxious, tender minded and worrying persons, but had out going personality in comoparison to non athletes.
These results supports tea finding of Eysenck who reported that athletes tend to be low and neuroticism or anxiety and tend too be extraverted than the non athletes.

Kamlesh et. Al (1986) studied the personality traits of :Genera” and “Reserved”category physical education majors. Eysenck personality inventory was administered on 38 males (28 general and 10 reserved) and 38 female (28 general and 10 reserved) physical education majors. They reported that male and female education majors, within their category groups differed significantly on extraversion and neuroticism.

Sharma and Shukla (1986) found that individual sports athletes were higher on conscientiousness, outgoing, suerego, strength, vigorous, relaxed and tough mind ness. Singh (1986) found that the players of individual events and team games differed significantly on the extraversion and neuroticism traits of personality. In the case of both male and female, the athletic group was more extraverted and more neurotic than the hockey group.

Singh and Singh (1986) found that neuroticism tendency was significantly in the non sports groups of Cricket and HockeyPlayers, whereas , no significant difference was observed in extraversion scores between the two groups.

Sharma and Shukla (1986) also concluded that athletes in various sports specialties tends to be outgoing, socially confident, emotionally stable, happy go lucky, conscientious (rules bound), venturesome, self-reliant, vigorous, confident, self- sufficient, controlled and relaxed. On the other hand, the non-athletes are reserved less intelligent affected by feelings, weak super ego, shy, tender-mindedness, suspicious, doubting, indiscipline and tense.

89
Agyajit Singh (1986) compared the competitive anxiety traits of the top level Indian athletes and hockey players. He found that track and field players had more anxiety traits as compared to the Hockey players whether males or females.

N.S. Mann (1988) Conducted a study to assess the competitive anxiety level of team sports, Football, Basketball and volleyball 44 male Panjab university Blues: FB = 16, VB = 14, BB = 14 were investigated for the study. This differences in level of competitive anxiety on three main situations. Ego threat, physical/defeat threat and four main mode of responses Visceral, Muscular Cognitive and Anger of Football,Basketball and Volleyball Groups were compared anxiety based of Endler’s Model person X . situation X mode of response. The data were statistically analysed to find out the inter group differences Analysis of variance technique was applied. Footballers were found higher on all the three situations in comparison to other groups. In the first three mode of response, Visceral, Muscular and Congestive difference were not found statistical significant. However, in the fourth mode of resoonse i.e. Anger, Footballer were higher than other groups. The differences statistically significant.

G.S. Bawa and Monika Debnath (1989) studied the personality traits of female national badminton players, gymnasts and cyclists. All the three goups were found to be an average category on introversion extraversion scale. But when the mean scores were compared the badminton players were found significantly more introverts that other – two groups.

Davis & Mogk (1994) reported that elite athletes could be distinguished from other groups on Extraversion, Neuroticism, Tough-mindedness (Psychoticism). However, they have reported that recreational sports enthusiasts had higher scores than any
other groups on psychoticism scale and they were the only groups which has higher extraversion scores than non athletes.

Praparessis and Grove (1994) ub their study revealed that personality was not related to pre-competition mode state pattern, but the magnitude of various mood was influenced by trait sport confidence, neuroticism, the control and commitment component of hardness and self handicapping.

Peter et al. (1995) studied the personality of 312 Cricket and Hockey Players of 11th and 12th standard. They reported that sports participants had significantly different personal profiles from non-participants. The result showed the sports participants to be more extraverted and vigorous and less anxious, neurotic, depressed and confused. Elite athlete was found to have significantly greater ositive mental health than non-athletes. Positive mental health is characterized by less tension, depression, anger and confusion.

Richard et al (1996) Conducted investigation to test the hypothesis that the chinese athletes participating in the sports of track and field, fencing and gymnastics exhibited differential psychological profiles when compared with college level Chinese athletes. They have reported that elite Chinese athletes exhibited higher anxiety control and confidence scores than collegiate level athletes.

Conclusion: It appears that social relation integral to the exercise environment are significant determinants of the subjective well being in older adults. Findings are discussed in terms of how physical activity environment might be structured to maximize improvement in more global well being constructs as staisfaction with life.

According to A Pipe (2001), It is assumed that participation in sports will produce only an arry of health benefits. The adverse consequences of sports participations
particularly at the elite level are rarely explored. Evidence continues to accumulate of a variety of unfortunate consequences that may accompany elite sport participations. Sports involvement may exacerbate pre-existing health problems. Cause injury or even death. the sport environment may be hazardous in a variety of physical, emotional and social ways. The common training and competition practices of certain sport cultures may themselves be harmful. Athletes may sacrifice health, home, education and normal social development in the pursuit of sport “success”. Sport medicine professional and sport scientists have particular opportunities and responsibilities at act as an athlete’s advocate – and to protect their health and well being.

Mabass and WK Enachs studied (2002) response to life stressors are associated with negative behaviour that may increase risk for illness and injury. The effect of high intensity exercise in reducing reactivity to psychological stress has been well documented among older people. The purpose of their study was to as certain the effect of training versus aerobic dance on psychological stress in college Cricket and Hockey Players. 45 Cricket and Hockey Players participated in weight training course, 35 studeents participated in aerobic dance classes and 34 participated as control group. The survey of recent life experiences was used to appraise stressfulness of current experiences before and after exercise intervention. On immediate retest after 8 week of aerobic dance program, but there were no significant differences between the control and the weight training group or the aerobic dance group. These result suggest that a regular routine of low intensity exercise such as weight training may reduce perceived stress on an immediate rest.

Mukul Pant (2004) conducted a study to assess the competitive level of individual, team games, combative and non-combative games. Several attempts have been made to identify the differences, it any, between any, between the personality of the
athletic and the non athlete Rushall (1970), in an evaluation of physical performance & personality, concluded that “Personality is not a significant factor in sports performance “this conclusion was supported Ellison and Treschlog, who found that the pain tolerance, arousal and personality of made college athletes and non-athletes are substantially similar.

Using the Minesota Muliphasic personality Inventory (MMPI), Booth (1947) compared the personality traits of 141 athletes to those of 145 non-athletes. The non-athletes scored higher than athletes only on anxiety and depression.

Malumpy (1970) used the Cattle 16PF to compare the personality traits of 120 woman 77 athletes and 52 non athletes. In a further study, Malumphy found that athletes who played individual sports were more extrovert than who played team sports.

With the exception of Rushall and Ellison and Freischlog, researches have found that athletes differ from non athletes. Whether athletes are “better” or “Worse” than non-athletes depends on the values of the observer. It does seem that athletes traits are usually positive. For example, athletes have been described as estroverted outgoing and socially aggressive. There are positive attributes that would probably benefit athletes in any social situation. The athletes are highly competitive is generally accepted as fact. We assumed that an individual has to have a strong competitive drive to participate in sport. After all, competition is the name of the game. When athletes compete successfully, the competitive trait items to be strengthened. Intermittent failure can also increase competitive dirive. Physical Educatoin teachers working highly competitive athletes will have an easier task in preparing the team for an opponent, more time can be devoted to technical preparratio than to motivation. On the other hand, the coach must always be aware that a negative experience can blunt
that athletes urge to win and damage His or her performance. To the coach, psychological preparatio must be as important as technical preparatio.

Kistler (1970) compared 116 college varsity male athletes with 116 non varsity athletes be found that varsity players demonstrated poorer sportsmanship than the non varsity players his findings are supported by those of Richardesen (1962) in a study. Comparing who had not using 233 Cricket and HockeyPlayers, Richardson discovered not only that the latter winners record lower in sportsmanship, than there who had not won latter, but that subsidized athletes scored lower in sportsmanship than athletes who were not subsidised.

Seymour (1956) made on attempt in 1956 to evaluate the effects of single baseball season on the personality traits of little league participants. Various traits of 114 little league baseball players were compared with their of 114 non participants before and after the baseball season.

The subjects were rated by teachers by classmates and by themeselves. According to their teachers meetings the participants had higher leadership qualities and were work expected by their peers, But there were no significant differences between the participants and non-participants.

Kroll & Crenshaw (1970) used the cattle’ 16 PF to study 387 athletes. The group under study consisted of 81 football players 141 gymnast, 94 wrestlers, 71 karate participants. On the basis of certain traits the 4 groups seems to fall into 2 groups: the football players and wrestlers, were similar in their psychological profiles, both groups were significantly different from gymnast and karate participants the results are surprising because football is a team sport and wrestling on individual sport. The finding of kroll & Crenshaw are perhaps explained by the fact that football and wrestling are gymnastic combative activities requiring, strength, endurance, agility. It
is common in Cricket high school & High schools to find football player who are in the wrestling squad or vise-versa. On the other hand few gymnasts are also football players or wrestlers. In summary the result showed gymnast to be rather intelligent and relax, possessing weaker super age strength, and with a serious outlook toward life. Karate participants reflected on opposite set of characteristics being tense conscientious and rule bound and independent both groups were man well sufficient more reserved and detached than wrestlers and football player.

Singer (1969) administered the Edward present performance schedule (EPPS) to baseball and tennis players and a group of non athletes. He found that’ non athletes scored higher’ than baseball group in other autonomy. The tennis group was higher than the baseball group. The results also showed that tennis players were higher in dominance than baseball players. Baseball players scored higher than tennis players in abasement.

Other studies have also shown that athletes are higher in those straits associates higher in those traits associated with leadership, power prestige esteem and sociability. The hypothesis that athletes in a given sport posses traits specific to that sport inj supported by the evidence as Kroll’s study indicated certain sports attract certain types of athletes. For example, at is the performance of the individual tennis players that determined whether the match is won or lost because tennis is not a sport requiring group to operatio or effort, tennis players might not score on sociability or extroversion. On the other hand they might be expected to square high in dominance. Individual sport might attract participants who fit Alderman’s definition of dominance.

Researchers have attempted to differentiate between superior and inferior performance in various sports. Kroll & Carlson (1976) reported no difference
between participant of various levels of ability in wrestling and karate. Singer in a previously mention study comparing baseball and tennis players also found no difference between highly successful and less successful tennis players. Burton Merriman (April 1960), Merriam concluded that motor ability is related to personality traits the upper motor ability group scored significantly higher than the lower motor ability group on the measures of poise. Ascendancy and interest modes.

M.A. Davidson (March 1957) Davidson et al. investigated body built and temperament in group of 100, seven year old children, found symptoms of anxiety and emotional unrest associated with ectomorph. They also found a relationship between ectomorphy and meticulous, fussy and conscientious traits of personality. In general the correlations between some to to type and psychological attributes were of low order.

L.Rees (Feb 1950) concluded a study in title body build, personality and neurosis in women. He concluded that constitutional factors are responsible of mental abnormality and found a correlation between extroversion and ectomorphy body build. He also found relationship between psychopathy and criminality.

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M.L. Kamlesh (1986) conducted a study on 191 athlete who took part in the 41 st interuniversity athletic meet from fine tests namely, torrences’s torrence’s test of creative thinking (Non verbal fonn A, standard progressive matrices (adults) by Raven, IPAT (Form A) by Esyenck, and A.S, reaction study adopted by Dr. N.K. Dutt were administered. Results revealed by Dr. N.K. Dutt were administered. Result revealed no significant difference in the performance of various Athletic groups (high performing and low performing boys/girls) as the tests of these variables (leaves of creativity intelligence, anxiety, extroversion – introversion and neuroticism and ascendance submission) high performance did not show any marked trend, negative of positive from the low performers nor did men Athletes differ from women Athletes significantly of any of the variabales.
H. Yanade and H. Hirage (1970) administered the Tokyo university personality Inventory (TPI) to Athletes in sport club and Tokyo university, Cricket and Hockey Players who continued in their sports clubs were found to be less neurotic and depressive and more hypoxia than those Cricket and Hockey Players who discontinued. They assumed that it may be that low trait anxiety and neuroticiam are per requisites for success in the Athletic, and anxious on neurotic individuals simply avoid or drop out of Athletics.

Jr. E.G. Boath and O.E. Jr. BOTH (May 1947). Both used MMPI and to compare the personality rating of freshman and varsity athletes who participated in only team. Individual or team and individual sport. He concluded that no significant differences between the means to the scores in any of the MMPI variables among those who participated in individual sports.

JHON P. LA. Place (1954) Attempted to determine whether specific professional baseball. A successful group of 49 major league players were compared to a non successful group of 64 major league players. The Minnesota multi phasic personality inventory and biographical date sheet were employed result indicate that major league players are better able than minor league players too.

a) Apply their story desire towards a definite objective by exercising self discipline.

b) Adjust to occupation as professional baseball, requiring social contact or ability to get among well with other people.

c) Exercise initiative.

Michael J. Montomery (1977) administered the athletic motivation inventory and cattel’s 16 PF. Questionnaire to the top 13 inter collegiate basketball players at Boise State University during the spring of 1976 to determine if there are personality traits differences between men and women basketball players at the collegiate level. The
result showed that for the traits of drive, aggression, determination and self confidence on the AMI significant difference were found between men and women basketball players at the .05 level. No significant differences were found for the traits of guilt prover, leadership, emotional control mental toughness coach ability of truth on the AMI. The results on the 16 PF revealed significantly higher scores for men on factor E.

Shri L. Peterson, Jersomen Weber And William Trondale (Septmber 1967), Peterson and his associates determined if there were distinguished personality traits between the women competing in team sports and the women competing in individual sports. Form A of 16 PF questionnaire was administered to the subject. Test was employed to compute the difference between the groups. It was concluded that the women participating in individual sports, rated higher on the personality factors of dominance, adveturesses, sensitivity, extroversion, rediculism and self- sufficiency and lower on the factors sociability, intelligence, stability, sergeancy, consociation, supecting, high-self commitment or high ergic tension.

Edward C. Olson (1967) attempted to identify the personality differences among male tennis players, this study attempted to discern the personality difference among outstanding male tennis players in two categories established by tennis experts. ‘Champions’ were more inner directed, more pragmatic and more extrovert than mere great tennis players.

Jhon C. Miers (1973) administered the cattel’s 16 PF to 110 varsity athletes participating in 7 different sports, Results of the study indicate that the reserve athlets were more outgoing and warm hearted than first string athletes. Specific differences were reported for athletes, in swimming, volleyball, waterpolo, wrestling and track.
Gary L. Benningto (1973) adnubstered cattel’s Cricket Hockey high school personality. Questionnaire to 90 male high school subjects. Subjects were selected in such a manner that 30 were gymnasts, 30 were football players, and 30 did not participate in organized athletics, Aova was utilised to determine whether differences existed between scores for the groups on in each of 14 personality factors. The scores for gymnastics and football groups were higher than the scores for the non athletic group in intelligence. The groups were not different on 13 of the 14 personality factors.

Rjinder S. Ranu (1981) administered 16 PF questionnaires to 40 sportsmen. Sportsmen were from the sports football, volleyball, basketball, cricket, track and field gymnastics and wrestling. T-test was administered to determine the significance of difference between their personality characteristics. It was concluded that sportsmen and non-sportsmen differ in emotional stability and realism about life Cheerfulness and frankness, tender midedness and protability and grater control over emotion and greater regard for self respect and social reputation, by respect to the rest of the factors, no significant differences were found.

Byron Nelson Meclanney (1969) divided college men into high fitness groups on the basis of ‘APPHER’ youth fitness test battery. While comparing their personality characteristics, as measured by cattle’s 16 pf questionnaire, self concept and academic aptitudes, be concluded that high fitness group appeared to be more group dependent while low fitness groups were more self sufficient. Also the subject in high fitness group appeared to be more trusting and free of jealousy where as the low fitness group appeared to be more auspicious and self opinionated.

Kennneth Tilman (Dec. 1965) administered A. S. reaction study of all port, cattel’s 16 pf questionnaire and kuder preferece record from C and found that the upper physical
fitness group had a significantly higher ascendance rating on the A-S reaction study test than did the lower group. The upper physical fitness group appeared more surgent (f) social dependence (02) and less tense (04) than the lower physical fitness group in cattle’s 16 pf questionnaire. In kudar preference record form N the upper physical fitness group was found to have greater preference for activities, more of a social service interest and also ranked higher on the scientific and mechanical scores were as the lower physical fitness group scored higher on computational, musical and clerical scores.

Ever And Balchard (March 1946) devised a rating to appraise the character personality traits of Cricket and Hockey Players of physical education classes and concluded that desirable character and personality traits are affected by participation in physical education activities.

Scatta Clarke (1973) compared athletes versus non-participant fresh athletes Vs / Hockey athletes and fresh soph. Athletes Vs/ Cricket Hockey athletes by using cattel’s 16 pf questionnaire and revealed difference (p).05 Practical Vs/ imaginative, less super ego strength Vs/ conscientious and (.05) self assured Vs/ apprehensive respectively.

Dorothy V. Harris (1964) compared high and low fitness college women in psychological traits and found that there is a tendency for the, fit individual to appear more stable in certain psychological traits and to appear less anxious in other.

Wemer Alfred and Gotheil Edward (1966) compared athletes and non-athletes collegiate group using cattel’s 61 PF and found athletes group having significantly higher scores on a +, F+, H+ and 02 indicating extroversion pattern.
Behrman M. Robert (1967) Conducted study on personality differences between non-swimmers and swimmers. The investigation was made to determine whether there are personality difference between male college freshmen swimmers & non-swimmers and to determine the relationship between personality traits and swimmers experiencing a common course of instruction in swimming. Subjects were compared on the basis of swimming performances, personality test, biographical data forms, and interviews with subjects who failed to learn how to swim comparison revealed significant differences between swimmers and non-swimmers and between learners and nonlearners. The data indicated a need to investigate methods of teaching fearful non-swimmers based on indication of pertinent personality traits, fears and experiences in the water.

Newman, Earl N. (1968) suggested that participation in high level athletic competition provides and adds a dimension to once 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.

Williams, J.M. Hoepner, B.J. Moody, D.L. and Oglive, B.C. (1970) found that the female athlete like the male athletes tends to differ from the non-athlete on a number of personality factors. Also female athletes from different sub-groups tended to differ on various dimensions of personality.

Gooch, foster, Euie (1973) found variations in personality between successful and non successful women athletes. Evidence also indicated that their was relationship between personality and physical performance.

Thakur G.P., Thakur M. (1980) studied personality characteristics of the athlete and non-athlete Indian college males using protective method of personality assessment and found that the characteristics associated with the athletes were happiness, cordial
and affectionate anxiety, achievement, dominance and superior organization capacity, where as the characteristics associated with non-athletes were quiet, acquisition passivity, rejection superior imagination.

Ful, Frank, H., (1984). Studied the personality profiles of athletes and non-athletes in six developing countries by administering 16 PF (form A) from each country eighty subjects were selected out of which 40 were sports men who had participated up to inter collegiate level and 40 were non sports men of the same educational qualifications. Half in age category were male and other half female. Differences in personality profiles were observed from male and female S21dents from venezual, Nigeria, Hong- King and Taiwan, Similar differences were also found among athletes and non athletes from venezula and Nigeria. Further comparisions were also made with each ethnic group.

Shankar, G (1986) Found that the position winner gymnasts and non position winner gymnasts of various university of India were almost equally stable and extroverts in their psychological make-up of the personality scales, however the gymnasts differed from non athletes on both the dimensions of personality. Hence gymnast wore better equipped mentally for successful performance and achievement in sports than non athletes.

Sharma S.S. and shukla B.r.K. (1982) Concluded that athletes in various sports specialists tend to be outgoing, specially confident, emotionally stable, happy go-lucky, conscientious, venturesome, selfreliant, rigorous, confident, self-sufficient, controlled and relaxed. On the other hand, the non athletes and are reserved, less, intelligent, affected by feeling, weak super ego, shy tender-minuteness, auspicious, doubting in disciplined and tense.
Durcha O.K. (1987) Concluded that the sports men and non sports men differed in their personality characteristic 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.

Bawa, Gurdial Singh And Debnath Kalpana (1989). Studied the personality traits of Indian national women football and gymnastic team they found a significant difference in six of the personality traits between the two teams. Female gymnasts were found to be significantly more intelligent more controlled, having higher self concept control where as national footballs team was found more suspicious, more apprehensive and moody and more self sufficient than gymnastic team.

Singh A, Bar R.S. (1987) found that both male and female players were just ambivert. They however suggested that these studies need to the extend further to know the personality traits of the athletes in different sports events in Indian condition.

Clark Peter T (1987) studied the personality and attitudinal profiles of 250 applicants to sports related courses. He reported that successful group scored significantly higher than the successful group in the sub domain of vertigo and females where significantly higher in the such domain of aesthetic.

Kiran Saidu (1989) conducted a personality study on 200 collegiate sports women who participated in basketball, cricket, hockey, Cricket, Hockey, volleyball, badminton, cross country, chess, gymnastics, shooting, lawn-tennis, swimming, Table tennis, track and field. Another group of 200 non-sports women of matching age and educational level where also selected.
Bhushan and others (1978) conducted study to evaluate personality characteristics of high and low achievement Indian sports persons. They administered the cattel, S 16p F. Questionnaire to ten high achievement players who had represented India at international level and ten persons who had never achieved any distinction in their respective games.

The results of this study indicated that the high achiever scored significantly higher than low achievers on dominance and serjency.

David H. Hunt (Dec.1969) designed to investigate the difference in personality factor with athletes and non athletes with white athletes and Negroes. He said garden personality profiles as an criterion measures and total of III subjects were divided into 4 groups based upon their ethnic background and athletic ability. The result suggested that the varsity athletes were significantly differently and were ranked higher in ascendance responsibility and emotional stability, traits when compared to Nigro and white non athletes. They also suggested that Negro varsity athletes were significantly differently and were ranked higher in resopnsibility when campared to Negro nin athletes. No significant difference was measured when white varsity athletes Vs1 Negroes varsity athletes. Negro varsity athletes and Negro non athletes V s1 non athletes were compared.

Arthur N. Nelson (1965) administered the award personal programms schedule to 112 high school Cricket and Hockey categorized as football, drama dual participant and a batter winner in baseball, football, basketball, soccer and non participant to evaluate their personality traits among selected high school Cricket and HockeyPlayers. The result indicated that there was little difference among group in personality where difference occurred in drama and non participants groups tended to show similar differences in comparison with the football music and dual participants groups. The
nonparticipants scored significantly lower than group of affiliation. However, the subject reflected the similar manifest need in general.

In this chapter the study related to the problem selected are given below:

Gurber and Perkins (1978) found women who competed in intercollegiate competition to be significantly higher on the factor F (Sober) and I (tough Minded) when compared to the non-participant. Williams 1978 reported that selected personality traits are frequently associated with the elite female athletics and specifically that the successful female competitor generally tends to be more assuasive dominant self sufficient independent aggressive reserve achievement oriented and have average to low emotionality then the unsuccessful female competitor.

Evans & Quaterman (1983) found that the female basketball player (successful & unsuccessful) scored significantly lower then the non-athlete female group. Towards the tough-minded side of the scale on factor L the unsuccessful groups of basketball players are more training.

Nib lock (1983) found that female athletes to be more energetic, enthusiastic, efficient as possessing more leadership potential and were optimistic and more extroverted.

Chadwick (1972) found that male athletes were more tough-minded group dependent, subdued, and less intelligent then non-athletic male.

Ogilvey (1971) found male competitors to be facially emotional healthy person who tend towards extraversions. They were tough minded, self-assertive and self confident with high capacity to endure the stress involved in high-level competitions.
William and her associates (1970) found that the male competitive racecar drivers tended to be reserved self-sufficient. Autonomous, assertive and aggressive and scored below average on affiliation and nurturance.

Mustier (1972) found college lacrosse players to be significantly more reserved intelligent, assertive happy go luck and tough minded then non male athletes.

Dennis M. O’ Sullivan, Marvin Zuckerman and Michael Kraft Male’s members of two college team’s football were compared on the five scales of the Zuckerman-Kuhlman Personality Questionnaire (ZKPQ). All teams were significantly higher on the Activity and lower on the Neuroticism, Anxiety scales than the general college population of the University of Delaware. The hypothesis that body contact sports attract high sensation seeking and aggressive participants was not supported. Sensation seeking is more characteristic of participants in high risk sports offering unusual sensation and personal challenges.

Williams RL, Youssef ZI. Sports experts agree that different football position require different personality characteristics and a varied level of motor skill, e.g., quarterback position presumably demands a calm personality, a cerebral endowment, and great motor finesse. By contrast, some other positions may require sheer physical strength and a combative aggressive personality. This study investigated whether football Physical Educatoin teachers stereotype players according to their various positions and attempted to determine the profile, magnitude and consistency of such stereotyping on both personality traits and motor skill dimensions. This study also investigated the relationship between such stereotypes and the player’s scores on psychological tests.

Arno F. Wittig, K. Terry Schurr Relatively few studies have used standardized psychological instruments to describe personality characteristics of intercollegiate
athletes. Using members of intercollegiate teams from two Midwestern conferences as subjects, this study investigated relationship of the four psychological factors underlying the Million Behavioral Health Inventory with success of team, conference affiliation, occurrence of athletic injury, and, for players who had injuries, adherence to rehabilitation plans. The factor describing an assertive, self-assured, independent attitude distinguished one conference from the other, had higher values for successful than for unsuccessful teams, and was associated with higher injury rates. For players suffering moderate or severe injuries, this factor was also associated with adherence to rehabilitation plans. The relationship of this factor with the several variables is explained as resulting from risk taking and positive deviance.

Astrid Junge, PhD*, Jiri Dvorak, MD*, Dieter Rosch, MA, Toni Graf-Baumann, MD, Jiri Chomiak, MD and Lars Pererson, MD It is hypothesized that players of different levels of play might differ not only in their football skills but also in their way of playing football and with respect to psychological factors such as concentration, reaction time, or competitive anxiety. The psychological characteristics of a player might influence his way of playing football (in particular with respect to fair play) and also his risk of injury.

Roland A. Carlstedt, Ph.D., ABSP, LP. The theory of Critical Moments proposes that state induced relative activation of the left-brain hemisphere will facilitate pre-action preparatio phases (sport) or strategic planning prior to critical moments of competition or important situations and decisions. The likelihood of this occurrence is predicted to increase as a function of left-brain hemisphere localized repressive coping, a behavior associated neurophysiologically with the ability to functionally inhibit the interhemispheric transfer of negative affect from the right to the left hemisphere. Conversely, negative affect or neuroticism, a right brain hemisphere based trait, in the absence of high repressive coping, and in the presence of high
absorption or hypnotic susceptibility is predicted to disrupt performance during critical moments by allowing the interhemispheric transfer of negative affect from the right to the left hemisphere. In such a scenario negative intrusive thoughts access and remain in the ruminative left-brain hemisphere, thereby disrupting the seamless left-to-right shift that has been observed in numerous EEG studies of athletes, indicative of pre-action strategic planning prior to focusing on visuoperceptual demands of a sport-specific action.

Several attempts have been made to identify the differences, if any, between any, between the personality of the athletic and the non athlete Rushall (1970), in an evaluation of physical performance & personality, concluded that “Personality is not a significant factor in sports performance “ this conclusion was supported Ellison and Treschlog, who found that the pain tolerance, arousal and personality of made college athletes and non-athletes are substantially similar.

Using the Minnesota Muliphasic personality Inventory (MMPI), Booth (1947) compared the personality traits of 141 athletes to those of 145 non-athletes. The non-athletes scored higher than athletes only on anxiety and depression.

Malumpy (1970) used the Cattle 16PF to compare the personality traits of 120 woman 77 athletes and 52 non athletes. In a further study, Malumphy found that athletes who played individual sports were more extrovert than who played team sports.

With the exception of Rushall and Ellison and Freischlog, researches have found that athletes differ from non athletes. Whether athletes are “better” or “Worse” than non-athletes depends on the values of the observer. It does seem that athletes traits are usually positive. For example, athletes have been described as extroverted outgoing and socially aggressive. There are positive attributes that would probably benefit athletes in any social situation. The athletes are highly competitive is generally
accepted as fact. We assumed that an individual has to have a strong competitive
drive to participate in sport. After all, competition is the name of the game. When
athletes compete successfully, the competitive trait items to be strengthened.
Intermittent failure can also increase competitive drive. Physical Educatoin teachers
working highly competitive athletes will have an easier task in preparing the team for
an opponent, more time can be devoted to technical preparatio than to motivation. On
the other hand, the coach must always be aware that a negative experience can blunt
that athletes urge to win and damage His or her performance. To the coach,
psychological preparatio must be as important as technical preparatio.

Kistler (1970) compared 116 college varsity male athletes with 116 non varsity
athletes be found that varsity players demonstrated poorer sportsmanship than the non
varsity players his findings are supported by those of Richardesen (1962) in a study.
Comparing who had not using 233 Cricket and HockeyPlayers, Richardson
discovered not only that the latter winners record lower in sportsmanship, than there
who had not won latter, but that subsidized athletes scored lower in sportsmanship
than athletes who were not subsidized.

Seymour (1956) made on attempt in 1956 to evaluate the effects of single baseball
season on the personality traits of little league participants. Various traits of 114 little
league baseball players were compared with their of 114 non participants before and
after the baseball season.

The subjects were rated by teachers by classmates and by themeselves. According to
their teachers meetings the participants had higher leadership qualities and were work
expected by their peers, But there were no significant differences between the
participants and non-participants.
Kroll & Crenshaw (1970) used the cattle’ 16 PF to study 387 athletes. The group under study consisted of 81 football players 141 gymnast, 94 wrestlers, 71 karate participants. On the basis of certain traits the 4 groups seems to fall into 2 groups: the football players and wrestlers, were similar in their psychological profiles, both groups were significantly different from gymnast and karate participants the results are surprising because football is a team sport and wrestling on individual sport. The finding of kroll & Crenshaw are perhaps explained by the fact that football and wrestling are gymnastic combative activities requiring, strength, endurance, agility. It is common in Cricket high school & High schools to find football player who are in the wrestling squad or vise-versa. On the other hand few gymnasts are also football players or wrestlers. In summary the result showed gymnast to be rather intelligent and relax, possessing weaker super age strength, and with a serious outlook toward life. Karate participants reflected on opposite set of characteristics being tense conscientious and rule bound and independent both groups were man well sufficient more reserved and detached than wrestlers and football player.

Singer (1969) administered the Edward present performance schedule (EPPS) to baseball and tennis players and a group of non athletes. He found that’ non athletes scored higher’ than baseball group in other autonomy. The tennis group was higher than the baseball group. The results also showed that tennis players were higher in dominance than baseball players. Baseball players scored higher than tennis players in abasement.

Other studies have also shown that athletes are higher in those traits associates higher in those traits associated with leadership, power prestige esteem and sociability. The hypothesis that athletes in a given sport posses traits specific to that sport inj supported by the evidence as Kroll’s study indicated certain sports attract certain types of athletes. For example, at is the performance of the individual tennis players
that determined whether the match is won or lost because tennis is not a sport requiring group to operatio or effort, tennis players might not score on sociability or extroversion. On the other hand they might be expected to square high in dominance. Individual sport might attract participants who fit Alderman’s definition of dominance.

Researchers have attempted to differentiate between superior and inferior performance in various sports. Kroll & Carlson (1976) reported no difference between participant of various levels of ability in wrestling and karate. Singer in a previously mention study comparing baseball and tennis players also found no difference between highly successful and less successful tennis players. Burton Merriman (April 1960), Merriaman concluded that motor ability is related to personality traits the upper motor ability group scored singificantly higher than the lower motor ability group on the measures of poise. Ascendancy and interest modes.

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profiles of three groups of women engaged in competitive sports. However, there were significant differences at the 0.01 level between the women engaged in competitive sports and those engaged in non-competitive sports. The capacity for status was significantly lower for college women as compared to with adult women and young adult women. Sociability was significantly lower in the case of young adult college women athlete. Social presences and self-acceptance were not significantly different among the groups.

Harpreet Shergill (March 19103), conducted a study on personality differences between low and high anxiety female hockey players. The study was conducted to find the personality differences in female hockey players. Total sample of 49 players were taken in divided into two groups on the basis of their scores on state trait anxiety inventory by Spielberger 1970. Group one consisted of 28 players which had more state anxiety. Group two which consisted of 21 players had lower state anxiety than trait anxiety. 16 PF Cattell 1970 was used to measure their personality traits. Discriminate analysis was applied to analyze the personality difference. The results showed that players in Group two scored higher on six personality traits namely less intelligent V s I more intelligent, sober V s I happy go lucky, shy Vs I venturesome, forthright Vs I controlled while subjects in group one scored more on reserved V s I out going, affected by feeling Vs I emotionally stable, humble Vs I assertive, expedient Vs I conscientious, tough minded Vs I tender indeed, trusting Vs I anspcl OUS, practical Vs I imaginative, conservative Vs I experimenting group, dependent V s I self- sufficient and relaxed V S I tens.

M.L. Kamlesh (1986) conducted a study on 191 athlete who took part in the 41st interuniversity athletic meet from fine tests namely, torrances’s torrence’s test of creative thinking (Non verbal fonn A, standard progressive matrices (adults) by Ravent, IPAT (Form A) by Esyenck, and A,S, reaction study adopted by Dr. N.K.
Dutt were administered. Results revealed by Dr. N.K. Dutt were administered. Result revealed no significant difference in the performance of various Athletic groups (high performing and low performing boys/girls) as the tests of these variables (leaves of creativity intelligence, anxiety, extroversion – introversion and neuroticism and ascendance submission) high performance did not show any marked trend, negative of positive from the low performers nor did men Athletes differ from women Athletes significantly of any of the variables.

H. Yanade and H. Hirage (1970) administered the Tokyo university personality Inventory (TPI) to Athletes in soport club and Tokyo university, Cricket and HockeyPlayers who continued in their sports clubs were found to be lese neurotic and depressive and morehypoxia than those Cricket and HockeyPlayers who discontinued. They assumed that it may be that low trait anxiety and neuraoticism are per requisites for success in the Athletic, and anxious on neurotic individuals simply avoid or drop out of Athletics.

Jr. E.G. Boath and O.E. Jr. BOTH (May 1947). Both used MMPI and to compare the personality rating of fresh man and varsity athletes who participated in only team. Individual or team and individual sport. He concluded that no significant differences between the means to the scores in any of the MMPI variables among those who participated in individual sports.

JHON P. L.A. Place (1954) Attempted to determine whether specific professional baseball. A successful group of 49 major league players were compared to a non successful group of 64 major league players. The Minnesota multi phasic personality inventory and biographical date sheet were employed result indicate that major league players are batter able than minor league players too.

d) Apply their story desire towards a definite objective by exercising self discipline.
e) Adjust to occupation as professional baseball, requiring social contact or ability to get among well with other people.

f) Exercise initiative.

Michael J. Montyomery (1977) administered the athletic motivation inventory and cattel’s 16 PF. Questionnaire to the top 13 inter collegiate basketball players at Boise State University during the spring of 1976 to determine if there are personality traits differences between men and women basketball players at the collete level. The result showed that for the traits of drive, aggression, determination and self confidence on the AMI significant difference were found between men and women basketball players at the .05 level. No significant differences were found for the traits of guilt prover, leadership, emotional control mental toughness coach ability of truth on the AMI. The results on the 16 PF revealed significantly higher scores for men on factor E.

Shri L. Peterson, Jersomen Weber And William Trondale (Septmber 1967), Peterson and his associates determined if there were distinguished personality traits between the women competing in team sports and the women competing in individual sports. Form A of 16 PF questionnaire was administered to the subject. Test was employed to compute the difference between the groups. It was concluded that the women participating in individual sports, rated higher on the personality factors of dominance, adventurees, sensitivity, extroversion, rediculism and self- sufficiency and lower on the factors sociability, intelligence, stability, sergeancy, consociation, supecting, high-self commitment or high ergic tension.

Edward C. Olson (1967) attempted to identify the personality differences among male tennis players, this study attempted to discern the personality difference among outstanding male tennis players in two categories established by tennis experts.
‘Champions’ were more inner directed, more pragmatic and more extrovert than mere great tennis players.

Jhon C. Miers (1973) administered the cattel’s 16 PF to 110 varsity athletes participating in 7 different sports. Results of the study indicate that the reserve athletes were more outgoing and warm hearted than first string athletes. Specific differences were reported for athletes, in swimming, volleyball, waterpolo, wrestling and track.

Gary L. Benningto (1973) adnubstered cattel’s Cricket Hockey high school personality. Questionnaire to 90 male high school subjects. Subjects were selected in such a manner that 30 were gymnasts, 30 were football players, and 30 did not participate in organized athletics, Aova was utilised to determine whether differences existed between scores for the groups on in each of 14 personality factors. The scores for gymnastics and football groups were higher than the scores for the non athletic group in intelligence. The groups were not different on 13 of the 14 personality factors.

Rjinder S. Ranu (1981) administered 16 PF questionnaire to 40 sportsmen. Sportsmen were from the sports football, volleyball, basketball, cricket, track and field gymnastics and wrestling. T-test was administered to determine the significance of difference between their personality characteristics. It was concluded that sportsmen and non-sportsmen differ in emotional stability and realism about life Cheefulness and frankness, tender midedness and protability and grater control over emotion and greater regard for self respect and social reputation, by respect to the rest of the factors, no significant differences were found.

Byron Nelson Mcclanney (1969) divided college men into high fitness groups on the basis of ‘APPHER’ youth fitness test battery. While comparing their personality characteristics, as measured by cattle’s 16 pf questionnaire, self concept and academic
aptitudes, be concluded that high fitness group appeared to be more group dependent while low fitness groups were more self sufficient. Also the subject in high fitness group appeared to be more trusting and free of jealousy where as the low fitness group appeared to be more auspicious and self opinionated.

Kennneth Tilman (Dec. 1965) administered A. S. reaction study of all port, cattel’s 16 pf questionnaire and kuder preference record from C and found that the upper physical fitness group had a significantly higher ascendance rating on the A-S reaction study test than did the lower group. The upper physical fitness group appeared more surgent (f) social dependence (02) and less tense (04) than the lower physical fitness group in cattel’s 16 pf questionnaire. In kudar preference record form N the upper physical fitness group was found to have greater preference for activities, more of a social service interest and also ranked higher on the scientific and mechanical scores were as the lower physical fitness group scored higher on computational, musical and clerical scores.

Ever And Balchard (March 1946) devised a rating to appraise the character personality traits of Cricket and Hockey Players of physical education classes and concluded that desirable character and personality traits are affected by participation in physical education activities.

Scatta Clarke (1973) compared athletes versus non-participant fresh athletes Vs / Hockey athletes and fresh soph. Athletes Vs/ Cricket Hockey athletes by using cattel’s 16 pf questionnaire and revealed difference (p).05 Practical Vs/ imaginative, less super ego strength Vs/ conscientious and (.05) self assured Vs/ apprehensive respectively.
Dorothy V. Harris (1964) compared high and low fitness college women in psychological traits and found that there is a tendency for the, fit individual to appear more stable in certain psychological traits and to appear less anxious in other.

Wemer Alfred and Gotheil Edward (1966) compared athletes and non-athletes collegiate group using cattel’s 61 PF and found athletes group having significantly higher scores on a +, F+, H+ and 02 indicating extroversion pattern.

Behrman M. Robert (1967) Conducted study on personality differences between non-swimmers and swimmers. The investigation was made to determine whether there are personality difference between male college freshmen swimmers & non-swimmers and to determine the relationship between personality traits and swimmers experiencing a common course of instruction in swimming. Subjects were compared on the basis of swimming performances, personality test, biographical data forms, and interviews with subjects who failed to learn how to swim comparison revealed significant differences between swimmers and non-swimmers and between learners and nonlearners. The data indicated a need to investigate methods of teaching fearful non-swimmers based on indication of pertinent personality traits, fears and experiences in the water.

Newman, Earl N. (1968) suggested that participation in high level athletic competition provides and adds a dimension to once 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.

Williams, J.M. Hoepner, B.J. Moody, D.L. and Oglive, B.C. (1970) found that the female athletes like the male athletes tends to differ from the non-athlete on a number of personality factors. Also female athletes from different sub-groups tended to differ on various dimensions of personality.
Gooch, foster, Euie (1973) found variations in personality between successful and non successful women athletes. Evidence also indicated that their was relationship between personality and physical performance.

Thakur G.P., Thakur M. (1980) studied personality characteristics of the athlete and non-athlete Indian college males using protective method of personality assessment and found that the characteristics associated with the athletes were happiness, cordial and affectionate anxiety, achievement, dominance and suoperior organization capacity, where as the characteristics associated with non-athletes were quiet, acquisition passivity, rejection superior imagination.

Ful, Frank, H., (1984). Studied the personality profiles of athletes and non-athletes in six developing countries by administering 16 PF (form A) from each country eighty subjects were selected out of which 40 were sports men who had participated up to inter collegiate level and 40 were non sports men of the same educational qualifications. Half in age category were male and other half female. Differences in personality profiles were observed from male and female S21dents from venezual, Nigeria, Hong- King and Taiwan, Similar differences were also found among athletes and non athletes from venezula and Nigeria. Further comparisions were also made with each ethnic group.

Shankar, G (1986) Found that the position winner gymnasts and non position winner gymnasts of various university of India were almost equally stable and extroverts in their psychological make-up of the personality scales, however the gymnasts differed from non athletes on both the dimensions of personality. Hence gymnast wore better equipped mentally for successful performance and achievement in sports than non athletes.
Sharma S.S. and shukla B.r.K. (1982) Concluded that athletes in various sports specialists tend to be outgoing, specially confident, emotionally stable, happy go-lucky, conscientious, venturesome, selfreliant, rigorous, confident, self-sufficient, controlled and relaxed. On the other hand, the non athletes and are reserved, less, intelligent, affected by feeling, weak super ego, shy tender-minuteness, auspicious, doubting in disciplined and tense.

Durcha O.K. (1987) Concluded that the sports men and non sports men differed in their personality characteristic 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.

Bawa, Gurdial Singh And Debnath Kalpna (1989). Studied the personality traits of Indian national women football and gymnastic team they found a significant difference in six of the personality traits between the two teams. Female gymnasts were found to be significantly more intelligent more controlled, having higher self concept control where as national footballs team was found more suspicious, more apprehensive and moody and more self sufficient than gymnastic team.

Singh A, Bar R.S. (1987) found that both male and female players were just ambivert. They however suggested that these studies need to the extend further to know the personality traits of the athletes in different sports events in Indian condition.

Clark Peter T (1987) studied the personality and attitudinal profiles of 250 applicants to sports related courses. He reported that successful group scored significantly higher than the successful group in the sub domain of vertigo and females where significantly higher in the such domain of aesthetic.
Kiran Saidu (1989) conducted a personality study on 200 collegiate sports women who participated in basketball, cricket, hockey, 
Cricket, Hockey, volleyball, badminton, cross country, chess, gymnastics, shooting, lawn-tennis, swimming, Table tennis, track and field. Another group of 200 non-sports women of matching age and educational level where also selected.

Bhushan and others (1978) conducted study to evaluate personality characteristics of high and low achievement Indian sports persons. They administered the cattel, S 16p F. Questionnaire to ten high achievement players who had represented India at international level and ten persons who had never achieved any distinction in their respective games.

The results of this study indicated that the high achiever scored significantly higher than low achievers on dominance and serjency.

David H. Hunt (Dec.1969) designed to investigate the difference in personality factor with athletes and non athletes with white athletes and Negroes. He said garden personality profiles as an criterion measures and total of III subjects were divided into 4 groups based upon their ethnic background and athletic ability. The result suggested that the varsity athletes were significantly differently and were ranked higher in ascendance responsibility and emotional stability, traits when compared to Negro and white non athletes. They also suggested that Negro varsity athletes were significantly differently and were ranked higher in resopnsibility when campared to Negro nin athletes. No significant difference was measured when white varsity athletes Vs1 Negroes varsity athletes. Negro varsity athletes and Negro non athletes V s1 non athletes were compared.

Arthur N. Nelson (1965) administered the award personal programms schedule to 112 high school Cricket and Hockey categorized as football, drama dual participant and a
batter winner in baseball, football, basketball, soccer and non participant to evaluate their personality traits among selected high school Cricket and HockeyPlayers. The result indicated that there was little difference among group in personality where difference occurred in drama and non participants groups tended to show similar differences in comparison with the football music and dual participants groups. The no participants scored significantly lower than group of affiliation. However, the subject reflected the similar manifest need in general.