CHAPTER – I

INTRODUCTION

Football is the most popular game in India. The British Army in India first played organized game in 1880. It can be said safely that Football was one of legacies left to us by the British with introduction of Football by the British regiments. It gained enough popularity throughout the country and found its way into the reputed educational institutions.

The governing body of the game in India nowadays is the All India Football Federation (AIFF), which came into existence in 1937.

But the story of organized football in India, is connected with the history of Indian football Association (IFA) which is today the governing body of the game in the state of West Bengal. IFA, Calcutta, the oldest state level football organization in the country, was formed in 1893. Two important football tournaments were organized one was the Durand Football Tournament and the other the 'Trader Cup' which is now known as the IFA shield. The Durand Cup tournament is the oldest football competition in India and only second in the world in seniority next to the famous FA Cup of England. The first football league to be run in India was in Calcutta in 1898.
India entered the international field in football as an independent nation in 1948, when the Indian team participated in the London Olympics. The team which was led by Dr. T. Aao, lost the first match to France 1-2, when S. Manna and Mahabir missed two penalty kicks at the time when the score was one-all, but the overall performance was noteworthy. The Indian team at the next Olympic at Helsinki in 1952 was issued a directive that in all official tournaments a player without boots would not be permitted to play. India's greatest performance in International football was in 1956 at the Melbourne Olympics when they finished fourth. India had to meet the Hungarians, winners of 1952 Olympic Games, in the first round in 1956. Luck smiled on Indian footballers as Hungary withdrew from the contest due to troubles in their country. India moved to the next round and outplayed hosts Australia by 4 goals to 2. The Indians were held to a 2-2 draw in the first half.

The Indian coach, the late S.A.Rahim, advised his players to keep the ball along the ground and make short passes. Adopting these tactics, the Indians did not allow the hefty Australians to play their normal robust game; Neville D'Souza earned the distinction of being the first Indian to score a beautiful hat-trick. In the semifinal, India played against Yugoslavia. Indians, who were in a positive mood, wanted to take revenge as Yugoslavia had defeated them by 10 goals to 1 in the 1952 Olympics in Helsinki. The Indians could hold them in the first half and took the lead in the second half through the solo efforts of Neville D'Souza. But Yugoslavia increased the pressure
and scored four goals in a row. In a playoff match for the bronze medal India lost to Bulgaria by 3 goals to 1. In this manner, India got fourth position after just winning one match.

However, India has won the Asian Games Soccer title twice, beating Iran 1-0 in the final at New Delhi in 1951 and South Korea 2-1 in the final at Jakarta.

Since 1964 India has not taken part in the Olympic Games-only sixteen teams are taken in the tournament. The hosts and winners of the previous competition automatically qualify and the remaining 14 teams are filled by pre-Olympic qualifying matches. Unfortunately, standard has gone down so badly that not once could India qualify after 1960.

The main trophies for football in India are Durand Cup, Delhi, IFA Shield, Calcutta, Santosh Trophy - (National Football Championship), Rovers Cup, Bombay, Delhi Cloth Mills, Delhi, Federation Cup, (India's club championship), Jawaharlal Nehru Gold Cup Invitation International Football, Dr. B.C. Roy Trophy (Junior National Football Tournament), Mir Iqbal Hussain Trophy (The Sub-junior National Football Championship), Sir Ashutosh Mukherjee Memorial Shield (All India Inter-University Football Tournament) and Dutta Roy Trophy (Under-21 National Football Championship)
PSYCHOLOGY is at once the oldest and the youngest of all the sciences. Even in the most primitive tribes there are some formulations about the nature of the self and the nature of the mind. In fact, folk tales, mythology, and proverbs, in all languages of the world, reveals the interest of man himself and his knowledge about his desires, frustrations, his achievements and failures. Primitive animism is itself an evidence of the interest in his relations to other persons and objects. The essence of animism is that every material body whether it is the sun or the star, the river or the mountain, the plant or the animal, contains a second being within it, which is of a substance different from the material body. Thus animism postulates some of the tribal man to understand the behavior of all the beings on earth and in the sky. Further the men of medicine of the ancient as well as the modern tribal groups are masters in the techniques of suggestion and hypnosis. The mantravadin of the village is a post-master in the technique of hypnosis though modern science has learnt about hypnosis only within the last hundred years. It is a familiar fact that when the daughter-in-law of the house behaves in a hysterical fashion and becomes violent, the mantravadin of the neighborhood is invited and with his chants and rituals he not only drive out the demon or the ghost, who is supposed to have been in possession of the woman, but also arranges skillfully some concrete evidence of the departure to the demon or ghost by a loud sound of a stone dropping in the tape or a well in the neighborhood.
Psychology may be broadly defined as the science of mind. The word is derived from the Greek and means the science of the soul. In ancient and medieval times psychology was regarded as a branch of philosophy dealing with the principle of life, sensation, intelligence and conation, especially in human beings. It was essentially speculative and static, in contrast to the modern practical and dynamic study of psychology. The chief psychological things of the scholastics included the unity and unifying power of the soul, its essential connection with the body, its spirituality and immortality, and freedom of the will, and the dependence of the intellect upon sense data. Modern psychology, is, however, regarded as a branch of experimental biology. The kind of definition now generally behaviour and thought. Its predominantly experimental character has led to a decline of interest in such purely speculative questions as that of the relation of mind to body. It is known that mental process are related to changes in the nervous system, but the experimental psychologist is inclined to be little interested in whether this relation is one of parallelism or mutual interaction. The tendency of physiological psychology has regard both psychical and physiological events as different aspects of the same series of events. On the other hand, there all still exponents of the integrationist’s view that psychical events act on the nervous system and are acted on by events in the nervous system. Generally the experimental psychologist is impatient of such problems, which affect little if at all his actual observation, and he is inclined to suspect that the
existence of such questions is merely due to the inadequacy of language to express relationships of an order so remote from the problems of practical life with which language was designed to deal.

The ritualism in all societies is also an evidence of the interest of man in psychology. Great significance is attached to the various stages in the growth of an individual and rituals are developed to demarcate the various steps in the growth of the human being. The modern Indus, like the ancient Hindus, practice many rituals before and after the brain of the child and later as the child grows up.

In a similar way literature abounds with examples of the insight of the poet, the dramatist and the novelist regarding the motives underlying human behaviour. The classics in different languages of behaviour. The classics in different languages portray vividly the motives, the achievement and the frustrations of the human beings.

Thus pre-occupation and concern regarding man his motives for action are to be found from the most primitive to the most modern forms of life and literature. However, a scientific study of these aspects is of a very recent origin. Still we must not overlook the fact that the ancient Indians as well as the ancient Greeks contributed quite a good deal which is a considerable value even today, with all the growth of nearly a hundred years of modern scientific psychology. A rapid survey of some of the basic findings in ancient
India and in ancient Greece will be useful to understand how problems of psychology have been of perennial interest.

Psychology may be defined as the study of behaviour and experience. Thus the scope of psychology extends to the whole dominion of living beings. In fact many laws of behaviour have been formulated on the basis of studies on animals. These laws have been found to be applicable to the behaviour of human beings also. We may define general psychology as the study of human behaviour and experience. It also takes into account the facts observed and the laws enunciated on the basis of experimental work with animals.

Behaviour is open to observation. It can be studied in the same way in which other phenomena in the universe can be studied. But among human beings there is also experience alongside with behaviour. The child who has learnt to speak will not only withdraw his hand when he is pricked with a pin; he also shouts that it is hurting him. The pinprick not only leads to withdrawal, which is an observable behaviour, it also leads to an experience, which is expressed in the statement that he is suffering pain. This experience is not open to observation by others; it is private, it is personal. Only the person experiencing can make an assertion about it. The ancient thinkers were generally concerned with the study and analysis of these experiences. These are the mental activities that we are conscious of. We not only experience them we are also aware of them. But every mental neuromuscular
system is involved in all mental activity. A decades ago one of the psychologist Watson tried to limit the scope of psychology to the near observation of human behaviour so that other persons concern it only with phenomena open to observation. In other words, it was his intention that psychology should be completely objective. Since experience is private, subjective, he said, that it should not be included in the scope of psychology. Thus there was a swing from almost exclusive pre-occupation with the analysis of experience to a almost exclusive pre-occupation with the analysis of experience to a campaign for the abandonment of experience.

As we have see, all mental activities involve the neuro-muscular system. The sense organs, the brain, the spinal cord, and the muscles are all very active whether the mental activity knows, feeling or doing. This is not the way we can neither accept the old notice that psychology deals with the mind or the mental activities; nor can we accept the position of psychologists like Watson who assert that the scope of psychology should be limited only to behaviour. Often behaviour cannot be understood without knowledge of the experience, which influenced the action. Our desires and our thoughts influence our activities. While psychology in its quest for general principles must observe and measures external behaviour, it must also get information from the grown up human beings by asking them to describe verbally their own experience.
In a broad way we may state that psychology deals with two aspects of the problems of behaviour. There is on the one hand the interest in the general laws of human behaviour and experience; the aim of psychology is to formulate general laws which hold good of all human beings irrespective of their sex, race etc. On the other hand it aims at the study of individual differences. While all human beings are capable of learning, it is a familiar fact that some learn faster and take less time and some take longer time to learn the same activity, poem or song. This is due to differences in memory, intelligence etc. There are also differences regarding personality, leadership, and so on. Some of these differences are tied with age. There are differences between the activities of children, adolescents, adults and old people. It is the aid of development psychology to study these differences between the various stages in the growth of human beings. Differential psychology studies the differences between individuals. When we study them we find that these differences themselves obey certain general laws. Thus, the aim of psychology is to study the individual differences as well as the general principles of behaviour.

**Meaning of Extraversion and its Significance in Sports:**

Sports performance has been found to be related to some personality variables. Extraversion and neuroticism are among the variables which influence sports performance in addition to many other personality variables.
Extraversion has been found to be highly related or supportive to dominance and sociability in athletes and sports participants by Sperling (1942), Tillman (1964), Ruffer (1965), Whiting & Stembridge (1965), Wernet and Gottheil (1966), Bruner (1969), Kane (1970) and Ikegami (1970). Extraversion, according to Alderman (1974), is a construct evolving out of Jung’s (1933) early designation of the two major attitudes of personality: the extroverted attitude, which orients the person to the external, objective world, and the introverted attitude, which orients one towards the inner, subjective world. Eysenck (1947) whose development of the two broad personality dimensions of neuroticism-stability and extraversion-introversion provides the major underlying theoretical structure of this trait. He describes extroverted individuals as:

“Outgoing, impulsive, uninhibited, involved in group activities, sociable, friendly, craving excitement, and having many social contacts. They stick their necks out and take chances, act on the spur of the moment, are optimistic, aggressive, lose their temper easily, laugh a great deal, and are unable to keep their feelings under control.”

According to Eysenck (1947), extraversion is at best a behavioural description of personality, but that it does possess biological causal source implication. He believes that extraversion can be explained at the neural level in that his extraversion-intraversion scale reflects the strength of the excitatory-inhibitory functions of the central (cortical) nervous system. He
(1967) also proposed that the extraversion associated reticular-cortical loop systems of the brain stem. It means that the dimension involves the reticular activating system. His proposal was founded in the belief that cortical excitation in response to external stimulation (such as the effects of competition) is higher in introverts than in extroverts.

It is through the linkage of the reticular formation and hypothalamus with personality dimension that Eysenck believes differing personalities will reflect their positions on a level of arousal continuum. For example, cortical excitation in response to external stimulation (e.g. a tension situation in sports) is postulated as being higher in introverts than in extroverts. This is because he saw introverts as having weaker nervous systems than extroverts. Conversely, he believed that inhibition will be higher in extroverts as they possess stronger inhibitory mechanisms because of their stronger nervous systems. The reason for this is that weaker nervous system is more sensitive and begins to respond at stimulus intensities which are ineffective for strong nervous systems. This results in the weaker system’s responses being closer to the maximum level of responding than those of a stronger system through the stimulus intensity continuum. Eysenck feels that this represents the cortical supremacy of introverts as producing a constraint of their behaviour in accordance with conditioned and learned patterns of response that lead to the emergence of those personality traits characterising introverts.
Conversely, the absence of such supremacy leads to an absence of such constraints and to the emergence of extraversion traits.

According to Alderman (1974) . “Eysenck’s view can be interpreted as indicating that extroverts are low on excitation and high on inhibition, which introverts being the opposite. Athletes, then, would react quite differently to a rise in arousal level from competitive circumstances depending on whether or not they are mainly extroverts or introverts. For example, an athlete, high on extroversion would have more trouble “getting up” for a game than one high on introversion, but would be better able to handle and channel arousal later in the game because of strong inhibitory mechanism”.

The dominance trait appears to be one of the important personality traits of sportsmen which has two interesting implications for sports performance. e.g. (1) Eysenck expects extroverts to have low tolerances for sensory deprivation and higher tolerances for physical pain because they have higher thresholds of arousal. It explains why athletes are, in fact, highly physically active and relatively tolerant of physical pain, which is required in many endurance events and in the hard physical training programmes required for skill perfection. (2) It is generally accepted that an optimal level of arousal, stimulation, or activation, exists in each person where his performance is maximal. It is usually represented by an inverted U-curve relationship which shows that a person’s level of arousal increases,
performance increases up to an optimal point, after which further increases in level of arousal result in a deterioration of performance.

As reported by Alderman (1974), “Eysenck has taken this basic premise, related it to his personality variables, and stated that if extroverts have stronger nervous systems, which have higher thresholds to stimulus intensities (i.e. arousal), then they should be able to handle higher levels of arousal before their performance deteriorates. This is undoubtedly true in outstanding athletes. The ability to withstand the extremely high levels of arousal caused by intense competition and the usually higher vociferous spectator reactions, without a consequent drop in performance, is the hallmark of a successful athlete. A partial explanation for this ability to withstand pressure may lie in Eysenck’s neural explanation of extraversion – a trait that continually crops up in athletes.”

Eysenck (1960) developed two broad personality dimensions, the E scale, which is a continuum between extraversion and introversion, and the N-scale, which is a continuum between neuroticism and stability. Though this is essentially a behaviour description of personality, he did attempt to link over personality characteristics with their causal biological sources. He believes that behavioural characteristics can be explained at the neural level, with the F scale reflecting the strength of both the excitatory and inhibitory functions of the central nervous system i.e. (the cortex) and the N-scale reflecting the excitation of the autonomic nervous system.
Meaning of Neuroticism and its Significance in Sports

In neuroticism, the individual reacts to some distressing stress situation with more than the usual amount of sadness and dejection. There is high level of anxiety and apprehensiveness, together with diminished activity, lowered self-confidence and a general loss of initiative. Eysenck (1967) has proposed that the neuroticism, stability dimension is more associated with the hypothalamus. His explanation revolves centrally around the hypothesised instability of the autonomic nervous system. He maintains that autonomic nervous system reactions are rooted in the person’s constitutional structure, which mediates the reaction of the sympathetic nervous system to incoming stimuli. Though people react differently to sympathetic stimulation and to the way the para-sympathetic system is controlled. Eysenck, nevertheless, feels that it is the autonomic nervous system that does, in fact, control emotionality. In this context, introverts are seen to be more chronically aroused than extroverts, and neurotic or unstable people then to become aroused more easily than the stable people.

However, Eysenck (1947) states that neuroticism (emotional instability) refers to “general emotional over-responsiveness and the liability to neurotic breakdown under stress”. He explains the bipolar dimension of neuroticism-stability in terms of the instability of the autonomic nervous system. He maintains that the autonomic reaction is basically dependent on an individual’s constitutional structure, which mediates the strength of the
sympathetic or voluntary reaction to incoming stimuli. Although there seem to be characteristic ways in which various individuals react to this sympathetic stimulation, and the way in which control is indicated by the para-sympathetic system. Eysenck nevertheless considers the autonomic nervous system to be the most likely basis for individual differences in emotionality. This is essentially an integration and conceptualization of earlier thoughts by Jung (1929), Pavlov (1934) and Hull (1943), who suggested that variations in the strength of the excitatory and inhibitory functions of the nervous system could account for temperamental differences in human personality.

Alderman (1974) is of the opinion that the level of emotionality in athletes to a considerable extent is “rooted at the constitutional, neural levels i.e. the inhibitory or excitability of the autonomic nervous system. This genetical and constitutional basis is reflected in the everyday behaviour of the individual. In the case of neuroticism, this appears as high emotionality or emotional instability”. Emotional instability is characterized by “a low ” tolerance of frustration immaturity, unstability, high excitability, evasiveness, worriedness, and neurotic fatigue ability: On the other hand, emotional stability in athletes is characterized by “maturity, stability, quiet realism’ the absence of neurotic fatigue’. It is generally felt that high emotionality is related to, or described best by Eysenk’s “general neuroticism” and that
emotional stability is grounded in what Kane (1964) calls personal integration or a mature control of one’s emotions.

One the basis of related evidence, high emotionality in athletes would appear to indicate three things: (i) neuroticism has virtually a zero relationship to intelligence, achievement by highly emotional athletes in sports is due to something other than intelligence (ii) neuroticism is probably related to successful athletic performance through its manifestation in persistence, l and (iii) high anxious subjects show high speed of learning, and superior performance in relatively simple tasks, or in complex tasks where faulty associations have not been present.

In terms of the interaction between arousal level difficulty of task, and performance as a function of Eysenk’s two personality dimensions, the following observations can be made:

i) People who score high on introversion and neuroticism will tend to perform better on easy or simple tasks than people high on extroversion and stability.

ii) On difficult tasks, the reverse tends to be true i.e. stable extraverts perform better than neurotic introverts.

iii) No predictions have been made on the intermediate personality types.
These predictions are based on the theory that higher arousal level (partially caused by external conditions as in competitive situations) will not cause as much disruption in the performance of people possessing strong nervous system (extroverts) simply because extroverts possess strong inhibitory potentials, i.e. they can shut out the negative or deleterious effects of high drive situations. Introverts, on the other hand, are more sensitive and respond more quickly to situations of low intensity as appears to be the case, in low arousal situations or with easy tasks.

NEED OF THE STUDY

The participation in modern sports is influenced by various physical, physiological, sociological and psychological factors. During training, besides good physique and physical fitness of the athlete, main emphasis is laid on the development of various types of motor skills involved in the game as well as on teaching the strategies, techniques and tactics of the game. Until recently, the coaches have been paying inadequate attention to the social and psychological factors which although have been proved to contribute to performance in events in the higher competitive sports. It is only recently that sports administrators and coaches have realized the importance of the psychological preparation and training of players to enable them to bear the strain and stresses inherent in sports participation. So, now the sports trainer and coaches have started giving more importance to the psychological
conditioning or the building the mental make-up of the players before their contests in the national and international competitions.

In modern competitive sports, psychological preparation of a team is as important as teaching them the different skills of a game with scientific methods. In these days, the teams are prepared not only to play, but to win the games. And for winning the games, it is not only the proficiency in the skills which matters but also the spirit and attitude of the players with which they play. The mental attitude of each individual player as well as of the team can help or hinder their performance. Most of the coaches agree that the physical characteristics, skills and training of the players are extremely important, but they also feel that good mental or psychological preparation for competition is a necessary component for success.

The aim of higher sports in this age of competition is to win in international meets or to attain peak performance in competition. And it is on this factor that the coaches try to concentrate. In order to reach the target and accomplish the social expectation, the players also work hard, ignoring their comforts in their daily lives and practice for many hours a day. Stress, both psychological and social inhibits the peak performance of players. Unless the players are prepared mentally and psychologically for the contest, they are not able to achieve the desired results. The psychological training has to be provided to the players by the coaches to face stressful situation occurring during the competition.
Sport has become a psycho-social activity, full of tension, anxiety, fear and stresses. In competitive sports, teams and individual players play to win and this spirit of winning the matches and individual events causes many psychological stresses. So the job of the coach is to prepare or train the individual athlete as well as teams in such a way that the players individually as well as, in their capacity, as members of the team are to bear all types of stresses and overcome the effect of over-stresses and strains which may deteriorate the sports performance. The players need to undergo such an arduous, training that they should be able to have physical load during practice schedules and can have psychic stress during the period of competition, because it is during competition that athletes as well as teams inevitably come under psychological stress.

In modern competitive sports, the role of anxiety in sports performance has attracted the attention of sports scientists. As the physical load during training of sportsmen for international competition is increasing day-by-day, the psychic stress during competition has been intensified. It has been realized that during their participation in competitive sports, the players and athletes are also anxiety-prone. Hence in these days, psychological training of the players and athletes has attracted a greater attention than in the past.
It is agreed by most of the sports scientists that besides developing the physical and physiological aspects of the players i.e. power, strength, endurance, agility and speed as well as providing the best type of the training, unit and unless the players and athletes are mentally prepared for contest, they cannot win in any competition or attain their peak performance which is considered the optimum objective of the modern sports.

Thus, it has become necessary to conduct research to know which psychological factors enhance sports performance. There is a need to conduct research on the national and international sportsmen with respect to some psychological characteristic. It is also essential to know what type of emotional problems like anxiety, fear, aggressiveness or stresses occur when they have to face some strong opponent and how to overcome these problems to achieve the optimum level of achievement performance. It may be possible if proper research on scientific lines is conducted on the top level sportsmen. In view of this, five psychological variables namely visual reaction time, auditory reaction time, extroversion, neuroticism and competitive anxiety were selected and the relationship of disjunctive reaction time, both visual and auditory with extroversion, neuroticism and competitive anxiety was examined in the present study.
The great majority of empirical research in sport personality has utilized assessment devices which embody the factor theory as their main premise. As expressed by Cattell (1973), the factor theory searches for consistencies in behavior. It is assumed that internal dispositions or traits are relatively stable and so enduring that they override environmental or situational influences. This infers that questions cold be asked in any situation and the responses to generalized to a sport situation. Thank for the example i.e. broad category of anxiety. It is knowing that a person low on an omnibus inventory of anxiety enough to conclude that he will never exhibit anxiety; are there no situations in which his heart rate may increase a little. The situation position as exemplified in Mischel’s [1969] social learning theory, appears to go too far to the other extreme, entering into open debate with personalize. This paradigm can be regarded as the antithesis of the factor theory and maintains that behavioral variation is primarily a function of the situation in which a person is placed.

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According to Alderman (1974), “Eysenck’s view can be interpreted as indicating that extroverts are low on excitation and high on inhibition, which introverts being the opposite. Athletes, then, would react quite differently to a rise in arousal level from competitive circumstances depending on weather or not they are mainly extroverts or introverts. For example, an athlete, high on extraversion would have more trouble “getting up” for a game than one high on introversion, but would be better able to handle and channel arousal later in the game because of strong inhibitory mechanism”.

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As reported by Alderman (1974), “Eysenck has taken this basic premise, related it to his personality variables, and stated that if extroverts have stronger nervous systems, which have higher thresholds to stimulus intensities (i.e. arousal), then they should be able to handle higher levels of arousal before their performance deteriorates. This is undoubtedly true in outstanding athletes. The ability to withstand the extremely high levels of arousal caused by intense competition and the usually higher vociferous spectator reactions, without a consequent drop in performance, is the hallmark of a successful athlete. A partial explanation for this ability to withstand pressure may lie in Eysenck’s neural explanation of extraversion – a trait that continually crops up in athletes.”.

Eysenck (1960) developed two broad personality dimensions, the E scale, which is a continuum between extraversion and introversion, and the N-scale, which is a continuum between neuroticism and stability. Though this is essentially a behavior description of personality, he did attempt to link overt personality characteristics with their causal biological sources. He believes that behavioral characteristics can be explained at the neural level, with the F scale reflecting the strength of both the excitatory and inhibitory functions of the central nervous system i.e. (the cortex) and the N-scale reflecting the excitation of the autonomic nervous system.
In neuroticism, the individual reacts to some distressing stress situation with more than the usual amount of sadness and dejection. There is high level of anxiety and apprehensiveness, together with diminished activity, lowered self-confidence and a general loss of initiative. Eysenck (1967) has proposed that the neuroticism, stability dimension is more associated with the hypothalamus. His explanation revolves centrally around the hypothesized instability of the autonomic nervous system. He maintains that autonomic nervous system reactions are rooted in the person’s constitutional structure, which mediates the reaction of the sympathetic nervous system to incoming stimuli. Though people react differently to sympathetic stimulation and to the way the para-sympathetic system is controlled. Eysenck, nevertheless, feels that it is the autonomic nervous system that does, in fact, control emotionality. In this context, introverts are seen to be more chronically aroused than extraverts, and neurotic or unstable people then to become aroused more easily than stable people.

However, Eysenck (1947) states that neuroticism (emotional instability) refers to “general emotional over-responsiveness and the liability to neurotic breakdown under stress”. He explains the bipolar dimension of neuroticism-stability in terms of the instability of the autonomic nervous system. He maintains that the autonomic reaction is basically dependent on an individual’s constitutional structure, which mediates the strength of the sympathetic or voluntary reaction to incoming stimuli. Although there seem
to be characteristic ways in which various individuals react to this sympathetic stimulation, and the way in which control is indicated by the para-sympathetic system. Eysenck nevertheless considers the autonomic nervous system to be the most likely basis for individual differences in emotionality. This is essentially an integration and conceptualization of earlier thoughts by Jung (1929), Pavlov (1934) and Hull (1943), who suggested that variations in the strength of the excitatory and inhibitory functions of the nervous system could account for temperamental differences in human personality.

Alderman (1974) is of the opinion that the level of emotionality in athletes to a considerable extent is “rooted at the constitutional, neural levels i.e. the inhibitory or excitability of the autonomic nervous system. This genetically and constitutional basis is reflected in the everyday behavior of the individual. In the case of neuroticism, this appears as high emotionality or emotional instability”. Emotional instability is characterized by “a low ” tolerance of frustration immaturity, instability, high excitability, evasiveness, worried ness, and neurotic fatigability’s. On the other hand, emotional stability in athletes is characterized by “maturity, stability, quiet realism’ the absence of neurotic fatigue’. It is generally felt that high emotionality is related to, or described best by Eysenk’s “general neuroticism” and that emotional stability is grounded in what Kane (1964) calls personal integration or a mature control of one’s emotions.
One the basis of related evidence, high emotionality in athletes would appear to indicate three things:

i) because neuroticism has virtually a zero relationship to intelligence, achievement by highly emotional athletes in sports is due to something other than intelligence

ii) neuroticism is probably related to successful athletic performance through its manifestation in persistence, l and

iii) high anxious subjects show high speed of learning, and superior performance in relatively simple tasks, or in complex tasks where faulty associations have not been present.

In terms of the interaction between arousal level difficulty of task, and performance as a function of Eysenck’s two personality dimensions, the following observations can be made:

iv) People who score high on introversion and neuroticism will tend to perform better on easy or simple tasks than people high on extraversion and stability.

v) On difficult tasks, the reverse tends to be true i.e. stable extraverts perform better than neurotic introverts.

vi) No predictions have been made on the intermediate personality types.

These predictions are based on the theory that higher arousal level (partially caused by external conditions as in competitive situations) will not cause as much disruption in the performance of people possessing strong
nervous system (extroverts) simply because extroverts possess strong inhibitory potentials, i.e. they can shut out the negative or deleterious effects of high drive situations. Introverts, on the other hand, are more sensitive and respond more quickly to situations of low intensity as appears to be the case, in low arousal situations or with easy tasks.

Anxiety is physiological response to a real or imagined threat. It is a complex emotional state characterized by a general fear or foreboding usually accompanied by tension. It is related to apprehension and fear and is frequently associated with failure, either real or anticipated. It often has to do with inter-personal relations and social situations. Feelings of rejection and insecurity are usually a part of anxiety. According to Frost (1971). Anxiety is “an uneasiness and feeling of foreboding often when a person is about to embark on a hazardous venture; it is often accompanied by a strong desire to excel”. Hence, anxiety state arises from faulty adaptations to the stresses and strains of life and is caused by over actions in an attempt to meet these difficulties.

A certain amount of anxiety is needed for peak performance. Our body’s autonomous nervous system prepares for competition with the “fight or flight” response which quickness reaction time, sharpens our senses and increases our strength. But excessive anxiety, however, is debilitating to performance. It physically inhibits performance by causing extreme muscle
tension, shortness of breath and nausea. For athletes, excessive anxiety would mean difficulty in acquiring necessary skills for their sports.

It is clear to most people involved in the various strata’s of competitive sport that intense competition creates varying levels of anxiety within performers. What is becoming more obvious is the fact that some performers react adversely to the competitive situation by reaching states of hyper-anxiousness which often results in the inability to achieve optimum levels of performance (Spielberger, 1966, Martens, 1977). Cratty (1973) also stated, “Research indicates that anxiety improves motor performance on simple tasks, but impedes complex motor behavior”.
STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

“A Comparative study of personality characteristics of footballers and non-footballers.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The findings of the present study would help the coaches, sports trainers, administrators and the physical educationists in their professional which are discussed below:

a) Once the causes of the psychological problems in the students are understood by the coach with the help of sports psychologist, various kinds of remedial techniques may be applied and help may be rendered to overcome the excessive emotional problems which affect their performance.

b) It would facilitate the coaches in providing appropriate training to know whether traits like extraversion and neuroticism are related with the sports performance. Whether personality traits undergo a change with the participation in sports or with the knowledge of the personality traits of the sportsmen, their achievement can be predicted.

c) It would also help the coaches to find out the level of personality of the top level sportsmen and then apply the different relaxation techniques to bring their anxiety/arousal to the optimum level.
d) With an improved understanding of the personality level sports psychologists would be facilitated in identifying the various sources of anxiety state and would evolve the mechanisms how to reduce the competitive anxiety.

e) The results of the study would add further knowledge to the existing literature of sports psychology; especially the role of reaction time, extraversion, neuroticism and psychoticism sports performance.

f) The findings of the study would provide a guideline to the future research investigators in sports psychology and sports sciences to conduct further research in this field.
DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The present study was delimited to only four psychological variables, as it was not possible to study all the psychological factors which help the sportsmen to become superior athletes or players and to train them for higher sports. The five variables which were selected for the present study are: (1) Anxiety, (2) Psychoticism, (3) Extraversion (Ext.), (4) Neuroticism (Neur.), and (5) Lie Scale.

Secondly, the study has been delimited to physical education and academic students only. Their age ranged between 16-25.

LIMITATIONS:

- The prior experience of the player is considered as a limitation of the study.
- Since the player was different thinking background as to be considered as a limitation of the study.
- Since the players were of different levels and age groups as to be considered as limitation of the study.
OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The aims of the present study were as follows:

1. To find out the sex differences in the extroversion, neuroticism and psychoticism of football players.
2. To find out differences between the footballers and nonfootballers with respect to psychoticism, lie scale, extroversion and neuroticism.
3. To find out inter-subject differences on extraversion, psychoticism, lie scale and neuroticism of the top level sportsmen.
DEFINITION AND EXPLANATION OF IMPORTANT TECHNICAL TERMS

Concept and Definition of Personality

Personality is defined as ‘distinctive patterns of behaviour (including thoughts and emotions) that characterize each individual’s adaptation to the situations of his or her life.

Personality is shaped by in born potential as modified by experiences common to the culture and sub-cultural group (such as sex roles) and by the unique experiences that affect the person as an individual.

Theories about personality can be grouped into those, which emphasize traits, motivation, learning and the self. The corresponding approaches to the understanding of personality are: trait, psychoanalytic, social learning and humanistic theories.

Personality theory has something important, impressive and provocative to say about the nature of human beings. They however, do not always agree due to the three important factors:

1. The complexity of the subject matter.
2. The differing historical and personal contexts in which each theory was formulated.
3. It is a young discipline compared to other science subjects.
The concept of personality gives an understanding of the entire human organism, its structure, nature and functioning. These are more than 50 definitions of personality. More precisely, personality was derived from the Latin word Persona, which refers to the masks, used by actors in Greek theatres. Why? It refers to the appearance or the outer manifestation of a person. The face that is revealed to the public. What you appear to be is what persona refers to. The word was borrowed by our Personality. Later personality was expanded to include all qualities that are uniquely present in the individual. Psychometrically sound tests were also developed to assess personality.

The personality theories have given diverse explanations to human behaviour. Therefore the concept can be understood only by going through the major theoretical approaches to the study of personality. The term personality has no standard meaning. The definition amount to more than fifty; generally including all characteristics of an individual, such as his temperament, abilities, values, interest, motivation etc. The concept of character is often used to explain personality.

Psychologists have developed many theories in attempting to explain human personality. Study of personality itself became the major subject matter of personality, since personality as defined by psychologists comprises
of all individual characteristics or qualities within itself. The major explanations of personality have been classified into four types, namely the probabilistic, the deductive, the teleological, and the genetic.

The Probabilistic approach is based on probable or predictive approach has resemblance to other physical sciences, is based on logical inference. From the information available on the particular quality, inferences are made.

The teleological or functional explanation emphasizes the events being the effect of certain causes or functions in adaptation. The genetic type and often the other branches of science. The term ‘genetic’ means ‘genesis’ or ‘beginning’ and has nothing to do with the mechanisms of heredity. The approach emphasizes the genesis of behaviour, the underlying factors or the root of such characteristics.

Psychologists have explained the nature of personality as the unique set of behaviour and enduring qualities that influence the way has adjust to his environment. However, the psychologists have also given importance to similarities among human nature. In general, it may be seen that psychologists, in attempting to understand personality have found that human beings are like all others in certain characteristics and only like some other in certain others and like no one in still other characteristics. Though the general qualities may be present in all human beings on the basis of heredity and environment, certain unique interactions take place resulting in individual differences.
Many psychologists have offered their own explanations, which are classified as type and trait theories. Some of the earliest personality theories were not really scientific. These were the sciences of Phrenology, Physiognomy and Graphology.

F.J. Gall put phrenology forward during the 18th century explaining human nature to be directly related to the physical formation of the skull. Physiognomy, another belief that personality characteristics could be interpreted through facial characteristics. Graphology also was popular during those days when people believed that reading the handwriting of the person could assess personality characteristics.

Almost a century later Sheldon proposed a body type theory in understanding human personality. Sheldon argued that body types are basically contributing to different personality patterns. He described it as somato types. The three basic somato types of personality are the Endomorph, the Mesomorph and the Ectomorph, known to have a Viscertonic, a Somatotonic and a Cerebrotonic personality. The visceratonic personality is associated with characteristics of being apprehensive, insecure, sleepy, amiable and conforming. The somatotonic is characterized by being adventurous, informal, tolerant and enthusiastic. The Cerebreratonic personality is one who is included, unamiable, non-adventurous, and intolerant.
There is no consensus among psychologists about the definition of the term, Personality’. Today, dozens of formal definitions exist. Some of the important are as follows.

G. Allport: The dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment.

H. Eysenck: The more or less stable and enduring organization of a person’s character, temperament, intellect and physique that determines his unique adjustment to his environment.

R.B. Cattell: Personality is that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation.

J.P. Guilford: A person’s unique pattern of traits.

D. Mc Clelland: The most adequate conceptualization of person’s behaviour in all its details.

L. Kolb: Each individual’s characteristically recurring pattern of behaviour.

S. Freud: Personality is an individual’s pattern of behaviour developed to resolve dynamic conflicts and events.

Each of the above definition emphasis on different points. All port’s emphasis is one dynamics, Eysenck’s on predisposition, Cattell’s on prediction, Guildford’s on individual differences, Mc Clelland’s on description, and Kolb’s on uniqueness. A complete definition of personality
would include many factors: intellectual abilities, motives acquired in the process of growing up, emotional reactivity, attitudes, beliefs, and moral values.

**Study of Personality (Trait, Type and Eclectic Approaches)**

Traits are underlying tendencies to behave in a consistent and distinctive style. Trait theories assume that a personality can be described by its position on a number of continuous dimensions or scales. We can pick the traits we study by (a) their theoretical or practical value, (b) seeing which traits people actually use to describe other, and (c) factor analysis. Two dimensions found fairly consistently in factor-analytic studies of personality are intraversion-extraversion and stability-instability.

Type theories seldom work, largely because different traits do not regularly go together. We can, however, find certain clusters of characteristics, which constitute “type”, even though the types do not include everyone.

Reliability and validity questions about trait measures are exceptionally complex for several reasons: (a) People’s behaviour tends to vary according to the demands of specific situations; (b) people differ in the areas which are “central” to their personalities and in which they show consistency, and (c) behaviour tends to vary according to the impression the individual seeks to make.
A ‘trait’ is a determining tendency or a predisposition to respond. In some respects every one is a trait theories, in that we note consistencies in other people’s behaviour and we label them accordingly as aggressive, lazy, shy or by one the other 18,000 words, which exist in English to describe human behaviour. Theories of Cattell and Eysenck have been usually quoted as examples of trait and type approach. These two contributions however could be understood only when the research method is understood, namely that of factor analysis.

a) Extraversion

The extraversion is a personality trait. The extravert person’s orientation is towards the external world. He deals people intelligently in social situation. He is conventional. Outgoing, social, friendly and free from worries. In Eysenck terms, extraversion stands for central excitatory/inhibitory level and sociability. According to Eysenck, “the typical extrovert is sociable, needs to have people to talk, craves excitement and is generally impulsive. He is carefree, easy going, optimist, likes to laugh and to be merry and his feelings are not under tight control” In the present study, E-score on EPI has been taken as a measure of extraversion.
b) Neuroticism

It is a minor mental disorder, characterized by inner struggles and discordant social relationship. It is precipitated by emotional stresses, conflicts and frustrations. Some of the more frequent psychological complaints in neuroticism are anxiety, depressed spirits inability to concentrate or make decisions, memory disturbances, heightened irritability, morbid bouts, obsessions, irrational fears, insomnia, compulsions and inability to enjoy social relations. According to Eysenck, “Neuroticism refers to emotionality. Initiated by the inherited differences in liability and excitability of autonomic nervous system”. In the present study, N-score on EPI has been taken as a measure of neuroticism.