CHAPTER- II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Life is a mixture of necessity, freedom, chance and choice. No two individuals are alike. Some adapt themselves easily to new situations, while other face difficulties. We all know that this world does not belong to an individual alone. It is inhabited by a multitude of people and each one has his own place and sphere of influence in the scheme of things. Still we are not able to accept the reality that it is seldom possible for anyone to have everything just the way, he wants it to be. This keeps on coming in the way of happiness. The modern civilization with all its advancements and competitions has made the life more complex. The possession of money is considered by the majority of the people as something that brings real happiness. Money is like “Goddess” to innumerable of people on earth. Human mind has become mechanized in this material world.

No doubt, gaining material objects and their satisfaction is important but at the same time, it is also important that a person should be a mature, as well as balanced and should have a wholesome personality. We as individuals don’t have respect and care for what we have, but we run madly after what we do not have.

Self-Actualization

Self-actualization is a term that has been used in various psychological theories, often in slightly different ways. The term was originally introduced by the organismic theorist, Kurt Goldstein for the motive to realize one’s full potential. In his view, it is the organism’s master motive, the only real motive: ‘the tendency to actualize itself as fully as possible is the basic drive...the drive of self-actualization’. Carl Rogers similarly wrote of ‘the curative force in psychotherapy - man's tendency to actualize himself, to become his potentialities...to express and activate all the capacities of the organism’. However, the concept was brought most fully to prominence in Abraham Moslow’s hierarchy of needs theory as the final level of psychological development that can be achieved when all basic and mental needs are fulfilled and the "actualization" of the full personal potential takes place.

Bhagayathy (1983) found persons who perceived themselves as belonging to high level of self-actualization more in comparison with these who perceived
themselves as belonging to high level of self-actualization more flexible and less rigid in their behavior, more capable of accepting their own-self with all shortcomings and discrepancies and more capable of accepting the world around as it was than these belonging to a low level of self-actualization.

Krishanan (1985) directed that high self-actualization would be higher on the accuracy and approach measures of person’s perception than low self-actualization. Self-actualization was found to be significantly and negatively related with self-ratings based in accuracy. Other relationship and differences in this respect were not found to be significant.

Ivtozan (2008) examine the relationship between physical attractiveness and self-actualization. It was hypothesized that physical attractiveness leads to higher levels of self-actualization. To investigate this hypothesis eleven participants completed to personal orientation inventory (POI) questionnaire as a measure of self-actualization and six professional judges rated the participant’s level of physical attractiveness. The study revealed that participants in the high attractiveness group scored significantly higher on 7 of 12 POI scales in comparison to the participants in the law attractiveness group.

Maslow (1954) has postulated the concept of self-actualization which emphasizes the importance of maximal growth and development of human potential. Self-actualization has been equaled with such terms as self-actualization, optional functioning and psychological health and individual autonomy. All these imply the highest stage of personality development of the optimal personality functioning and positive mental health. Maslow’s basic position is that as one becomes more self-actualization and self-transcendent, one becomes more wise (develop wisdom) and automatically knows what to do in a wide variety of situations.

It is defined self-actualization as an ability to act in a particularly efficient and intensely enjoyable manner and also stage where a person is more integrated and less split. A self-actualization person is characterized by being able to use his own unique capabilities, lead a positive, healthy, highly evolved mature and more enriched life than an average man. Self-actualization has been described as an ongoing process of growth towards experiencing ones potential in terms of creative expression, interpersonal effectiveness and fulfillment in living Shostrom (1973).
Everyone has the potential to self-actualization and everyone has an intrinsic desire to become more and more the person that he or she is capable of being. Because self-actualization is so different, use a quality, it can appear in virtually as a king of behavior Maslow (1970).

When the first four basic needs have been satisfied, the need for self-actualization arises. A new discontent and restlessness will develop unless the individual is doing what he individually is fitted for. A musician must make music, an artist must paint, and a poet must write in short what people can be they must be. One of the important aspects of self-actualization is freedom from cultural and self-imposed restraints. Self-actualization person are not radicals or against their culture. They do not adopt any extreme movement nor do they unquestionably identify themselves with the culture. For self-actualization it is necessary that a person should not worry about his job. He should feel satisfied in his social relation in family, society and in his job. Maslow later differentiated the growth need of self-actualization, especially, norming two lower level growth needs prior to general level of self-actualization relation of one’s own inner essence that is essentially good.

Senol Celikten (2008) studied the relationship between health services students smoking behaviors and self-actualization, interpersonal support and stress management was explored. 372 students in the health and social programs of the Erinyes university vocational college participated in the research. Data were expressed as mean standard deviation (MISD) or median, with minimum-maximum values. It was determined that students who had a good perception of general health, who participated in sports and didn’t consume alcohol score much more than other groups. The mean of student’s self-actualization points were ±36.03, ±7.40. The means of the non-smoker students, self-actualization and interpersonal support points were found to be highly significant.

Teilhard de Chardin (1965) self-actualization knowledge may be the basis for social action what aids in the development of others, as well as in the development of the self. Characteristics of the self-actualization person the characteristics of the adequate self or personality as described by Combs and Snygg (1959) provide the basis for the description of a self-actualization person. Such a person can perceive himself in positive ways, has a positive self-concept accept their self and often, is
open to his experience and is able to accept into awareness all his perception, without distortion or rejection. He manifests more efficient behavior, lacks defensiveness and is capable of spontaneous and creative behavior. He is also independent in the sense that he feels his own feeling- beliefs and attitude are adequate guides to his behavior and can develop a close and ultimate relationship with others.

STUDIES RELATED TO PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT

Parent’s behavior can influence children’s sports participation in a number of ways. One way is through the pattern of reinforcement and level of encouragement parents give for engaging in athletic activities. Early encouragement of sports by the family is a critical factor in continued involvement. Most athletes acknowledge that their family stimulated their early interest and participation in sports (Brusted, 1992). Those who achieve elite status in athletics often began their participation as early as 5 to 6 years of age with interest generated by the family. Parental encouragement is also positively associated with continued participation in athletic activities. For example, Brusted (1993) found that parental encouragement to be physically active was related to children’s attraction to physical activity and perceived physical competence.

Parental encouragement appears to be especially important to counteract the negative effect of gender stereotypes on girls’ involvement in sport. Several studies have reported a positive correlation between parental encouragement and current sport participation for females (Greendorer, 1983; Higginson, 1985; wise & Knoppers, 1992). Social support from family members appears to be an important factoring girls’ participation. For example, Lewko and Ewing (1980) found that highly involved girls identified more support from fathers, mothers and siblings than did girls who were not as highly involved in athletics. In addition, Brown (1985) reported that social support from parents was positively related to female adolescent swimmers in participation status.

Parental encouragement refers to treatment originating from parents towards the child with a view to enhance the possibility of future occurrences of behavior by care, concern, approval and guidance (Sharma, 1988). Parental encouragement
refers to the treatment originated from the parents towards the child with a view to enhance the possibility of future occurrences of good behavior by the cure, concern, approval and guidance. It means making adolescents confidant by his parents. It is one of the aspects of parental treatment patterns. In encouragement the parent help the child, guide him or coax him, so that he may not feel disheartened at a particular point of difficulty. It may be in the form of approval or asking the child, that’s accounts to discouragement.

Parental encouragement is of great significance in developing psychological as well as academic behavior of a child. Parents should act as a living model. If parents adopt practical way of life and do the things themselves then the children will immediate by follow them. If father does not get bribe or bring any money above his salary then naturally, it will have a positive effect on his son or daughter. If father of a child is sincere, hardworking, dedicated or devoted to his parents naturally his offspring’s also imbibe the good spirit of his father. There can be exception also but exceptions do not disapprove the point. The stronger the backbone, the healthier will be our generation.

Parental encouragement is one of the aspects of parent’s treatment patterns. In encouragements the parents to help the child, guide him or coax him, so he may not feel dishearten at particular point of difficulty. It may be in the form of approval are asking the child to modify his behavior. In case, it creates avoidance behavior in the child that accounts to discouragement.

Parents also support children’s sports participation by providing a variety of opportunities and athletic experiences in and outside the home. For instance, it is typically the parent (usually the mother) who enrolls children in their first sports program (Howerd and Madrigal, 1990). Parents also support children’s involvement by purchasing the equipment and services and providing volunteer labor to maintain children’s sports programs (Green & Chalip, 1998). Spending time with children, helping them to develop their skills is another way parents can bolster children’s athletic involvement. Finally, parents can support children’s sports involvement by actively involved in coaching and the administration of youth sports program.
The importance of opportunities and experiences in the home for children’s continued athletic participation and skill development has been illustrated in qualitative research on talent development (Alfeld-Liro, Fredricks, Hruda, Patrick & Ryan, Bloom, 1985). In studies elite athletes, Bloom reported that parents introduced children to the activity, provided resources and equipment to encourage their children’s interest, and practiced skills with them. As children gained competence, parents played an important role in helping them to gain access to coaches and teams to help them to improve their skills.

Aggarwal (1986) found that “Effects of Parental Encouragement upon the Educational Development of Secondary School Students”. And found that high achieving groups had been getting higher parental encouragement. The high achiever girls got greater parental encouragement in urban areas but in rural areas the middle achieving group received more parental encouragement. The urban boys received more parental encouragement than the rural ones.

Aggarwal (1990) found “Educational Development of students at secondary stage, the effect of Parental Encouragement.” And found that the high achieving groups were normally to be of higher amount of parental encouragement in almost all the groups on sex, district and urban rural location.

Aggarwal, R., and Kapoor, M. (1998) studied on the topic “Parents participation in children academic activities in relation to their academic achievement” and found in their studies that parents’ participation in children’s academic achievement plays an important role in enhancing the child’s academic achievements at elementary school level.

Barnas and Michael (1992) studied the parental support and control as predictors of adolescents and related problem behavior. This study used a representative general population sample 699 adolescents and their families. It was found that parental support is an important predictor’s adolescent’s outcome.

Bhouraskar and Ahmend (1992) on the topic “Parental behavior in relation to caste and sex” and found that perceived parental behavior by children differs on the basis of cast and cultural norms. Acceptance and psychological autonomy differ in different cultures but rejection and psychological control do not reveal any
remarkable difference. It may be concluded that socio-cultural setting of the group affects parental behavior may be different from the educated parents.

Bloomfield and barber (2009) studied the relationship between Australian activities and their self-actualization was investigated. A total of 14 adolescents (56 percent females, mean age 13.8 years) completed measures of social self-actualization general support for extracurricular activities as a content facilitative of positive self-actualization and demonstrated the importance of a mixed participation profile and adolescents self-actualization.

Chambers (2006) investigated optimism and self-actualization in ethnic minority community college students between the ages of 18 to 24. Optimism was measured directly using the life orientation test (LOT). Self-actualization was assessed with the short-index of self-actualization. American males and females between the ages of 18 to 24 from Southern California community colleges were chosen for the study. It was hypnotized that a statistically significant relationship good exist between optimism and self-actualization in Latino-American and African-American students. The formation yielded from this study expends our understandings ethnic minority community college students with in a discrete developmental period as it relates level of optimism and self-actualization.

Dinkmayer (1965) as “it is the home in which the first experience to mean in of love. It is here that he comes to experience to give and take of family life. A child who cannot get along with his siblings may eventually have some difficulty in getting along with others. The family has most significant role to play in the development of personality. The customs and belief of our societies are first observed and then internalized. The value of parents, social, political and religious belief and custom transmitted via the family”.

Frederick and Arolyn (2005) examined the association between early emotional support provided by parents and child internalizing and eternalizing problems, using a nationally representative, longitudinal sample of 1361 children. Parental emotional supports was assessed using the Home Environment, incorporating both parent report and interviewer observation. The study found that less parental emotional support as early as age 2 years is associated with later
Hama (1987) undertook a research to determine if self-actualization, which is one of the goal of higher education and of the university of Utali, college of nursing, is being achieved or not, and to what extent. Psychological nursing, management of patient care, community nursing students were selected as sampling. On the subscale of self-regard, mean score of students registered in management of patient care were significant different ($c=4.820, P=.01$) from mean score of students registered in community nursing a comparison between and end of spring quarters. POI mean score of each group and total subjects showed that end of spring quarters scores were significantly higher than admissions score on several of POI scales.

Huchigngson (1990) investigate the relationship between the numbers of years a student is enrolled in a creative, artistic weld of curriculum, integrating academics with an art oriented approach and self-actualization as demonstrated by students score on the 12 subscale of the personality orientation inventory POI (shortorm 1966/1980). The sample of consisted of 156 weld of student between the ages of 14 and 19 from four Weld of high school in North America. Supplementary analysis using ANOVA reveled a significant relationship between the Welds of students with the greatest exposer those with the 13 years of Weld of education and the group reference profile for nominated, high function, self-actualized adult in shostorom’s (1966/1980) mantial. It was concluded that exposer of Weld of curriculum may develop self-actualization in students and that such students may be more effectively prepared for the needs required of people diving in these changing times.

Kanan and Karasneh (2009) investigate how parental social support promotes physical activity in children. A sample of 581 mothers and fathers participated in the study. A 43-items questionnaire was developed to determine level of parental social support, quantitatively. The results reveled that television and computers were present in the majority of homes for the purpose of recreation, while sports equipment was found much less frequently. Accordingly, it seems that there was a communication problem between parents and their children’s in Africa community.
Kaur D (2001) conducted “A study of emotional maturity of adolescents in relation to Parental Encouragement” and found that there is negative significant relationship between various factors of emotional maturity i.e. emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and parental encouragement found to be significant and negative in adolescents.

Kaur M (2002) in her study on the topic “Personality Traits of Adolescent in relation to Parental Encouragement” found that there is a significant positive correlation of personality factor C1, H1, Q1, Q2, C1, with parental encouragement and significant positive correlation of personality factor A1, E1, B1, I1, M1, Q1, with parental encouragement and there is an insignificant negative correlation of personality factors Q1, Q2, with parental encouragement and significant negative correlation of personality factors L.N. with parental encouragement.

Kaur, G. (2005) studied on the topic “Impact of Parental Encouragement on the mental health of adolescents” and found that there is no significant relationship among parental encouragement and mental health and adolescents of schools of urban areas but exists in the case of rural area. No significant relation was found in both male and female adolescents.

Kaur, H (2006) studied “Impact of Parental Encouragement on the moral judgment of B.Ed. students” and found that there is no significant relation among parental encouragement and moral judgment among B.Ed. students of urban area but exists in the case of rural area. Similarly, there is significant relationship among the male students but no significant relationship among female student.

Kaur, P (2004) carried out study on the topic “Attitude of the students towards school in relation to Parental Encouragement” and found that there is no significant difference in attitude of 10th class boys and girls, in schools. There is no significant difference in parental encouragement of 10th class boys and girls. There is significant positive relationship between attitude of 10th class students in school and their parental encouragement.

Knollmann (2007) investigated the relationship between parental support, students’ motivational orientations and student’s emotions during home work. In this study students (N=181) reported their motivation, the perceived quality of parental
support and their emotions after each of 21 homework sessions. It was found that 
intrinsically motivated students felt better where parents provided much learning 
autonomy, while extrinsically motivated students would experience more positive 
affect where directive parental support was given.

Lawrence and Wilson (2001) found out that satisfaction of the need to accrue 
objects and experiences, bond with others in long terms relationship of mutual care 
and commitment, learn and make sense of the word and ourselves; defend 
ourselves and are loved ones, collective lead self-actualization.

Lewis (1983) studied the self-actualization and self-concept of 368 
intellectually gifted students in grade of 4-12 years. The sample was from schools in 
Hattiesburg U.S.A. by using Maslow’s scale. It was found that the mean score of 
self-actualization are same at the high level than at either the elementary or junior 
level.

Nishat and Ranjana (2005) studied the self-actualization among the disable or 
handicap students. For this, they took a sample of 22 male students of high school 
with rural background and found that most of the subjects scored high on self-
actualization.

Pargagga M (2005) Studied “Self-confidence as related to Parental 
Encouragement” and found analytical picture of results suggested that scores 
distribution of the variables self-confidence and parental encouragement are closely 
proximate to normal distribution. Significant differences had been found in the self-
confidence of boys and girls. Boys are found to be more confident than girls. 
However, no significant relationship exists between adolescents in general.

Rani (1994) Her study on topic “Study of Achievement Motivation in 
relationship of Parental Aspiration and Parental Encouragement of high school 
students” and found that the level of parental encouragement would be different for 
different types of parents. The level of parental encouragement of uneducated 
parents may be different from the educated parents.
Rehm, R.S. (2002) studied “parental encouragement, protection and advocacy for Mexican-American children with chronic condition” in his study he guided that families face grade challenges in caring for a child with chronic condition, yet little is known about interfamilial relationships, especially among Mexican American. An interpretive study, using symbolic interaction, with 25 adults, information, representing 19 mostly Mexican American families, is reported. Finding includes description of the process, “keeping my child close to me” by which parents, particularly mothers provided protection, advocacy for their chronically ill children.

Rossi (1965) “when father and mother approve or appreciate any activity related to education or revoke any hurdle felt by the children in the guide them right and wrong. This entire spectrum comes with the preview of parental encouragement.” A father who is closely supervised, and who has little autonomy, decision making power or authority accumulates frustration leading to depression in the work place and conversely, a father who can exercise authority and who has autonomy and freedom on the job will be less frustrated and thus more likely to emphasize independence and mastery to his son.

Sulab (2003) Studied “Scientific attitude in adolescents in relation to Parental Encouragement” and found that there is no significant difference in scientific attitude among 10th class boys and girls. And there are no significant differences in parental encouragement among 10th class boys and girls. There is no significance difference in parental encouragement and scientific attitude among adolescents.

Sumer and Settanni (2009) studied a relationship between parental support and depression and between optimism and depression in a community sample of an urban area Northern Italy was studied. It was found that effect of lack of optimism was mediated by parental support, which in term negatively affected depression. Implications for practice as the possibility to work with parents in order to improve the psychological condition of pessimistic early adolescents were discussed.

Symonds writes in his studies adolescents who become good citizens, eminent scholars, good social workers, affectionate husband/wife or parents come from
families, where parental love follows freely. Parent child relationship is fundamentally a question from the previous times. Parents differ in their attitudes towards these children. There are six typical attitudes.

- Attitude of over protection
- Rejection
- Submission
- Permissiveness
- Acceptance
- Dominance

Witmer and Kotinske bring about the importance of home of the child’s personality as follows:

It is in and through family that the main components of child’s personality develop. The struggle between feelings of trust and mistrust is first worked out in relation to parents and it is by family members that autonomy and initiative characteristics of our society are encouraged or denied. The family members play an important role in relation to later personality components also. Parental encouragement is one of the aspects of parent treatment patterns. In encouragement the parents help the child, guide him or coax him, so that he may not feel disheartened at a particular point of difficulty. It may be in the form of approval or asking the child to modify his behavior. In case, it creates avoidance behavior in the child, which accounts to discouragement.

**RISK-TAKING BEHAVIOR**

Risk taking behavior has been regarded as the actions taken in a situation in which parameters of distribution of future events are fully known. Risk taking has been an important area of research for the psychologists as well as education for the last three decades. It is part of broader aspect of decision making where one has to take risk for solution of his problem. Generally, the term ‘risk’ means dangerous element or factor where an individual is put willingly or unwillingly in the situation. The concept of risk taking has dealt with extensively in recent theoretical and experimental literature. Risk has been regarded as a “situation in which parameters of future event are fully known and mathematical expectation can be computed. Risk is intimately limited with almost all activities of an individual and to the process of individualism and identity in adolescents and youths, in particular without risk; the
young shall never progress emotionally beyond adolescence. There are also substantial subjective components involved in it. The nature of risk varies with situational ranging from risk for physical survival, material gain and achievement to obsess for ethical risk. The dictionary meaning of risk is “exposer to chance of injury or less; a hazard or danger chance.”

Researchers have found that only sociability but not impulsivity, was strongly related to positive mental health, whereas impulsivity tended to correlate more with negative mental health. Extroversion and related trait activity (sociability) influence positive family environment whereas neurotics related to strain influence negative mental health which directly effects the family environment of the person. A person may be well adjusted whose personal levels are not too far away from possibilities of achievement, who has no problem that provoke him or has under emotional disturbance and who finds no circumstance that can threatens his activity too seriously, i.e., having potential to take risks. The person who has strong attitude towards achievement tries every effort and does things as he wants, though it will not be a 'bed or roses', but it will help to improve his family environment.

Risk-taking behaviors have been the subject of much speculation, from Sigmund Freud's belief that dare-devil stunts arise out of humans' innate "death drive," to some modern psychologists' view that dangerous activities can make us feel more alive. In general, we think of risky behavior as encompassing activities only a handful of courageous, or "crazy," people would attempt, including skydiving, rock climbing, cliff jumping, or other dramatic exploits. In reality, though, risk-taking behaviors also include more mundane acts, like having unprotected sex, gambling, robbing banks, and taking drugs. The reasons for these behaviors are complex, although not mysterious, and can mean different things to different people. In general, though, as poet Robert Browning wrote, "Our interest's on the dangerous edge of things."

One commonly accepted theory about why people do risky things has to do with evolution. This theory holds that in one of the deep, dark, old parts of our brains, where the control centres for survival and reproduction are located, there are pre-programmed impulses in some people that stimulate them to take risks. These individuals are known in psychological terms as "risk seekers," whereas their more conservative counterparts are labelled "risk avoiders." (In attempting to delineate the
characteristics of human risk taking, however, it is important to note that we cannot reasonably divide the population into risk takers and risk avoiders. All people will both seek risk and avoid risk at different points in their lives.) Sociologists and other experts believe that these very basic personality types evolved eons ago, and that despite the easier, more protected world most Western people now enjoy, they are not likely to change any time soon.

One of the reasons that risk-taking might have become such a cross-cultural and widespread human characteristic is endorphins. This word has come to be synonymous with the whole range of natural opiates (painkillers and relaxants) that the brain releases in response to imminent physical danger. Discovered by neurobiologist Candace Pert, endorphins enable us to balance the tremendous rush of adrenaline that flows into our bloodstreams during dangerous moments (producing the famous “fight-or-flight” response) with cool, calm thinking and an ability to give undivided attention to crucial matters despite the surrounding chaos. Pert believes that greater sensitivity to endorphins gave certain early humans a survival advantage, which meant that more of these individuals survived to transmit their genes to succeeding generations. Thus, humans who took risks and responded well to the chemicals released by their brains during the ensuing danger lived to take other risks and pass on their tendencies to their offspring. According to biologist Charles Darwin’s theory, these well-equipped individuals survived because they were the fittest of their species.

Early human risk takers were probably more likely to wander off established trails, possibly finding a new source of water or game. Such individuals might also have risked being seen as different in order to invent a new kind of weapon or animal trap, or to try eating a new plant or other potential food item. These acts would have triggered a pleasurable excitement in the risk taker, but might also have profoundly benefited his or her group--not only because the group would reap the rewards of the risk taker’s discoveries, but because a single person took the experiment upon him- or herself, saving the rest from the potential danger involved in the risk.

Humans continue to take what are, in most modern cases, unnecessary risks. Despite the virtual elimination of physical risk from our daily lives, the craving for action still runs strong in our genetic makeup. This basic trait maybe enhanced and even strengthened by the fact that many societies give risk takers positive behavioral
reinforcement. Everyone has seen how admired the race car drivers, the astronauts, the deep-sea explorers are. They risk their lives—sometimes for fun, sometimes to broaden the entire species’ horizons. This positive reinforcement is a powerful force that, if it continues, will virtually guarantee the continuation of the genetic characteristics that predispose individuals to taking risks.

Besides bare survival, nature offers its own rewards for risk taking. The endorphins and adrenaline act on the nervous system to produce an exhilarating high that many people have compared to sex. Being in danger, whether willingly or not, causes the heart to speed up and the breathing to quicken as we approach a peak of anticipation and excitement, after which comes a feeling of release and relaxation. Over the millennia, our bodies have grown accustomed to this phenomenon and have even come to crave it, although this is true in some individuals more than others. For instance, some experts attribute the perennial popularity of running and similar exercise to our bodies’ age-old conditioning to hunt prey and escape predators. The calm, relaxed, yet exhilarating feeling during and after such exercise is what keeps many runners "addicted" to the strenuous sport.

The motivation that the body offers as incentive for taking risks is strong, but the mind offers an equally compelling reason for why people do risky things. Ask any mountain biker, race car driver, high-board diver, or extreme skateboarder why they take part in their respective sports, and most of them will mention the word "fun." Humans are one of only a small number of species that do things for fun, and we are forever inventing new ways to enjoy ourselves. However, some people get a special thrill from engaging in activities that could hurt or even kill them. For these people, the thought of leading a boring existence might be even more frightening than the idea of jumping out of an airplane at 15,000 feet. Author Jack London expressed this phenomenon concisely when he wrote, "The adventurer gambles with life to heighten sensation—to make it glow for a moment."

There have been many studies on what kind of people take risks. Scientists generally agree that the genetic makeup of the typical risk-taking person is exhibited in certain characteristics. For instance, there seems to be strong evidence that men are more likely to enjoy taking risks than women. This makes sense from an evolutionary standpoint, since men have almost always been the hunters and explorers and women have usually stayed close to the children and cared for them
and the men in less adventurous, but no less important, ways. However, there are many women today who enjoy taking risks as well—among them many distinguished aerobatic pilots, rock climbers, skiers, hang gliders and others. (It may be that cultural conditioning and lack of opportunity account for the large gender difference in such activities.) In addition, risk takers seem to have in common an enhanced ability for dopamine reuptake, i.e., their brains respond more strongly to the chemicals released during stress. One Israeli study claimed in 1996 to have found what it called the "risk gene," labeling it D4DR, for "fourth dopamine receptor gene." They even located it on the 11th chromosome and pinpointed its function in the limbic portion of the brain. However, the study also said the gene would be responsible for only 10 percent of human risk-taking behavior.

In terms of actual personality traits, a targeted personality test (adapted in Israel from a U.S. template) has shown that risk takers tend to be fickle, hot-tempered, exploratory, extravagant, and excitable, while their risk-avoiding counterparts tend to be more stoic, thoughtful, frugal, even-tempered, and loyal. Also, risk takers frequently experience arousal similar to that associated with sex. Many skydivers, race car drivers, and other risk takers often compare their favorite activity with sex, calling it "orgasmic" or even branding it "better than sex."

Another reason that some people like to take risks is that it unites them with others who participate in the same sport or activity, producing an intense camaraderie cantered on cheating death, injury, or other mishap. To the outsider, these people, when questioned, will stress the numerous safety precautions they take and their desire to pursue their chosen hobbies in a judicious manner. Yet when a group of skydivers, for instance, assemble after a day of jumping, the talk is almost always about close calls and near disasters. This discourse creates and emphasizes the adventurers' corps despite and serves to prove their mettle to each other. Most studies agree that risk takers are likely to be extremely individualistic, often to the point of being loners. Paradoxically, this is true despite their enjoyment of interacting with others who participate in their chosen activity. Most often, however, the intense friendships engendered by participating in the chosen risk will end if that shared activity also ends.

Many people who love to take risks are also characterized by a consuming desire to control their own destiny. Far from succumbing to Freud's presumed death wish,
they are avid proponents of living life to its fullest, and only fear descending into the
grey, shadowless world of the mundane. By taking part in activities in which they
could be injured or killed, and by repeatedly drawing back from the brink through
their use of skill and disciplined preparation, risk takers achieve the sense that they
can elude death at will and are, even if momentarily, omnipotent. Thus, it is important
to note that such risk takers as "extreme" athletes are not interested in dangerous
activities, per se, but in experiencing danger that they can control and master to the
utmost degree. Author Michael Apter describes this as the "the tiger in the cage"
phenomenon, wherein risk seekers want the danger of the tiger, but also the safety
of knowing the beast can be contained. Risk seekers have a strong need for control
in most or all areas of their lives. Indeed, some experts have suggested that taking
risks, ironically, may bring periods of welcome abandon to individuals who have
trouble letting life "just happen."

Risk taking can occur in much more ordinary forms than the spectacular outdoor
exploits that most of us just watch with awe, horror, or disbelief. For instance, some
surgeons have reported getting the same adrenaline surge that mountaineers and
other athletes have experienced, although their "rush" is the product of standing in
one place for 13 hours to save patients from cancer or other serious illness. Again,
though, the surgeon counteracts the possibly dire consequences of failure, i.e., the
tiger, with the "cage" created by his or her intense concentration and skill. Even such
personal acts as giving up a dull but secure job to take an exciting new position can
produce the rejuvenating exhilaration of excitement and risk. Indeed, some people
might consider this riskier than parachuting or mountain climbing, depending on their
priorities.

Taking risks is a form of what we might collectively call "gambling"—whether with
one's life or one's professional status. The pursuit of gambling itself, for instance, can
and does lead to financial losses, and, like many of the other risk-taking behaviors, it
also breaks up marriages and other relationships, can lead to addiction, and may
cause personal ruin. However, to the risk-taking personality, gambling, with its threat
of financial ruin and promise of easy riches, is just as seductive as deep-sea
exploration is to the diver.

Some scientists embody another variation on the risk-taker personality. Exposing
themselves to professional and public embarrassment, they nevertheless persist in
searching for clues to the cure for AIDS, to the smallest unit of matter, to whether God exists. All of these might be considered adventurous exploits of the mind, and are no less risky to the individuals involved. Sociobiology's E. O. Wilson has commented, "Scientists ... spend their productive lives struggling to reach the edge of knowledge in order to make discoveries." Just as the mountaineer risks death or injury to reach the summit of a difficult climb, these scientists risk ridicule and failure to discover answers to life's most perplexing riddles.

But what of the individuals who take risks like having sex with a stranger without a condom, shoplifting, committing an act of aggression or violence, or taking drugs? What motivates them? In short, the impetus for such individuals is partially the same as for those who participate in such risks as paragliding or cliff jumping—they get gratification from the danger involved in these activities. However, there is an important difference between the paraglider and the casual shoplifter: the latter is engaging in antisocial behavior, i.e., in behavior inconsiderate of the needs of others. One activity might be considered life affirming, the other a manifestation of anger and alienation.

Antisocial risk takers generally have a socially negative outlook and repeatedly engage in activities that society perceives as abnormal. Granted, the tele skier might be perceived by some as "abnormal" in the sense that most people would never attempt such a dangerous exploit, but society will simultaneously reward him or her in various ways for "pushing the envelope" of human experience and endurance. Conversely, the antisocial risk taker will usually receive only imprisonment, disease, divorce, or condemnation in response to his or her activities. Gambling, unsafe sex, crime, drug use: these rarely offer any sort of benefit to either the person who does them or to anyone else. Instead, they frequently lead to misery and destruction, whereas the more positive risk-taking behaviors could be regarded as having a spiritual aspect and an element of joy.

Yet as with most attempts to define the human character, it is impossible to ignore the dichotomies present in a single act. While we may not condone or reward negative risk-taking activities, they can still serve a purpose. For instance, the scientist who arrogantly suggests that the accepted treatment fora disease is not the best method or the artist who deliberately ridicules the revered works of the previous generation are taking risks that they themselves will be shunned professionally for
their views. There might even be an argument that the drug user is experimenting with accepted mental limitations. However, this type of behaviors represents negative risk taking in its best light: it manifests our refusal to limit ourselves to the norm and our stubborn commitment to self-determination and free will.

Just as the astronaut extends the horizons of mankind, the rebel helps to point out areas where we can expand. Thus, while some negative risk taking might be perceived as trouble making, raising hell, or just "stirring the pot," it generally serves the same purpose, to various degrees, as the more socially rewarded (and rewarding) risk-taking behaviors. Historian A. J. P. Taylor summed up this idea when he wrote, "All change in history, all advance, and comes from nonconformity. If there had been no troublemakers, no dissenters, we should still be living in caves."

Dofttha, C.N., Sinha, Chandrapurva and Dafther, Lucky, C. (2000) tried to find-out the relationship of risk-taking with academic achievement in students coming from different habitation backgrounds. They found non-tribal urban high achievers had greater risk-taking tendency than their counter parts low achievers. Also, rural students showed greater risk-taking tendency than their counter parts low achievers. Also, rural students showed greater risk-taking than urban students.

In the study of “decision making under risk” by Dougal MC, Yamey Black (1991) indicated no significant differences in information search between risk-seeking and risk-average individuals for safest information for any goal level. Also. Both groups searched for safest information more than any other information for all goal levels. The two groups were more different in information for all goal levels.

Kogan and Wallach (1964), described the risk taking behavior on the basis of kind situations in which it is likely to be elicited. They stated that behavior reflective of risk taking disposition occurs in situations where there is a desirable goal and lack of certainty that can be attained. Risk and option is related to its outcomes. In addition to its variance other properties of the option's components, the maximum loss or reset the range of outcomes or some combinations of these parameters. Risk is essential to human development, in general and to the process of individuation and identity in adolescents and youths. In general, all human activities involve an elements of risk or uncertainly. The nature of risk varies with the situation, ranging
from risk for physical survival, material gain and achievement to obsession for ethical risk.

Krishmegowra (1991) tried to find-out the relationship between hemispherical dominance, personality types and risk taking behavior and their creativity of B.Ed. students. The results showed that there was no significant differences among male students. Male students were also found to possess a greater magnitude of risk-taking. Than their counter part female students pertaining to hills, space, police and intelligence services, professional trends and military services.

Krishna (1973) ‘Risk’ has been regarded as a “situation in which parameters of the distributions of future event are fully known. Risk taking has significance not only in research but practical utility of real life situation also. A perusal of studies revels that research conducted in this area has mainly focused on personal dimensions such as extraversion, rigidity, emotional stability, dependent cognitive dissonance, self-esteem etc. Risk-taking, infect has been a very fertile domain of research. A plethora of research studies have been constructed as risk-taking behavior in past few years. In India also some investigations have been carried out in this field. Attempts have been made by researchers to relate risk-taking behavior with intelligence, sex, socio-economic status and academics achievement.

Singh (1992) studied the relationship between the scientific creativity, problem solving and risk-taking in tribal and urban students. He found that urban students were significantly better than the tribal in the fluency, flexibility and originality. Boys were superior to girls in risk-taking behavior. He also found significant relationship between scientific creativity and risk-taking, scientific creativity and problem solving and risk-taking.

Stern, Camille Payne (1987) in his study found the relationship between self-concept and lotus of control to risk-tanking behavior in faulty women. He explained that statistically significant results were obtained for subgroups of married subjects and subjects having and not having children. Results were not significant for a simple bivariate regression with risk-taking and locus of control. Years of teaching services were found to be a strong predictor of risk-taking than age, educational preparation or highest level of educational preparation.
Washington (1988) conducted a risk taking behavior study on college women. He found that there was no relationship found between age, year, in school, distance to school from house town, race and physical, risk-taking behavior. There is greater difference in mean scores. The greater difference occurred in thrill and adventure seeking subscale between those who jumped and those who did not jump. It was concluded that women who enroll in women studies courses tend to score higher on the SSS than women for general population. Sexual selection theory predicts that males will tend to behave in the ways that are more risky than females. We explored this in humans by studying two everyday situations (catching a bus and crossing a busy road). We show that humans are competent optimizers on such tasks, adjusting their arrival times at a bus stop so as to minimize waiting time. Nonetheless, single males pursue a more risky strategy than single females by cutting waiting times much finer. Males are also more likely than females to cross busy roads when it is risky to do so. More importantly, males are more likely to initiate a crossing in high risk conditions when there are females present in the immediate vicinity, but females do not show a comparable effect in relation to the number of males present. These results support the suggestion that risk-taking is a form of “showing off” used as mate advertisement.