Chapter-II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE
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One cannot deny the importance of review of related literature. It really helps to solve the problems and also give us deep insight and understanding of the published research work in the related field. A review of the concerned literature helps to assure that the same has not been put to test before.

The review cited in this chapter is based on various sources i.e. journals, periodicals, encyclopedia, newspaper, unpublished thesis etc which were available in various libraries. The scholar consulted libraries of Delhi University, Indira Gandhi Institute of Physical Education, Delhi, Maharishi Dayanand University Rohtak and Punjab University Chandigarh. The relevant literature pertaining to the study has been abstracted in this chapter to provide background material to evaluate the significance of this study as well as to interpret its findings.

Review Related to participation Motivation

Gould (1979) stated that the youth sports institution at Michigan State University had identified participation motivation for joining and discontinuing involvement in youth sports as the highest priority research question. Gould also reported the results of a survey of 23 sports psychologists and 33 youth sports coaches and administrators, which indicated why young athletes participate in
youth sports and why young athletes stay participating in youth sports were rated within the most important of 29 youth sports issues. If we are to follow the philosophy (child first, winning second), which is a clear guideline of most youth sports programs (e.g., Martens and Seefeld, 1979), identification of the child's reasons for participation is a logical first step.

Dunleavy (1979) determined the effect of achievement motivation (in Ach) and previous sports exposure upon current sports involvement. Sports involvement was conceptualized as involvement in (a) either competitive or recreational sports, and (b) either individual or team sports. Sports involvement was assessed through combined measures increase in achievement motivation of the experimental group as compared to the control group.

Harter (1978, 1981) explained and predicted why people were motivated to participate in particular achievement areas. Individuals were motivated to be competent in achievement areas such as academics, sports, or peer relationships. In order to satisfy the urge towards competence, a person attempts mastery. When these attempts result in competent or successful performance, the person experiences positive effect. This in turn maintains or enhances competent motivation. Individuals who perceived themselves as competent in sports were more likely to continue their participation, while those low in perceived physical competence would likely discontinue participation in the particular sport.

Iso-AHOLA and ALLEN (1982) investigated the effects of outcome
of leisure participation on male and female subject’s leisure needs. Subjects were 438 players of 60 teams in the intramural basketball programs comprised of competitive and recreational leagues. Factor analysis produced seven need factors, of which three dealt with inter-personal relationships, two with competence and two with escape or diversion. ANOVA performed on the resultant factor scores showed that successful and unsuccessful leisure experiences strongly shaped subject’s needs for leisure participation, but these effects were often mediated by the sex of subjects and the competitive levels of leagues in which they played. Generally, winning and losing had just the opposite effect on males and females needs; winning increased females and decreased males needs. The effects of competitiveness of league types suggested that competitive and recreational leagues serve different psychological functions for males and females because the two leagues are expected to fulfill different leisure needs.

Weber (1983) took 559 runners participating in a people’s run that were selected randomly and asked about their motives and experiences and about the effects of running. The average age was 38. They had been running for more than five years. The average runner ran six hours a week. The most important results were that regular and intensive running brought profound changes, positively influences on one’s general mood, sense of self and social contracts, and effected vitally physical health and fitness and outward appearance. The motive spiritual
compensation has overwhelming significance for the regular runner. Fitness and health appear as ancillary motives.

Gill, Gross and Huddleston (1983) also conducted a recent investigation on participation motivation of young athletes. Specifically participation motives of 720 boys and 418 girls attending university of Iowa: summer sports schools, in basketball, baseball, golf, gymnastics, football, wrestling, tennis and track were examined. Results revealed that to improve skills, competition, fun, and learning new skills, being fit, and Challenge are the most important factors. Factor analysis on the important ratings were also calculated separately for boys and girls and the total sample which suggested that the factors of success, team atmosphere, friendship, fitness, energy release, skill development and fun were the basic participation motive dimensions of young athletes. Females, however, were found to be different from males in the importance they placed on the achievement, status factor, rating this factor as being of less importance.

Gill and their associates (1983) created a participation motivation inventory based on extensive pilot work in which 1500 participants in youth sports programs were interviewed and asked to rate the degree of importance he/she attached to each reason for participating in sports. Factor analysis of the data revealed eight general motivational factors: achievement or status motivation, team spirit, fitness-oriented reasons, energy release, skill
development, friendship, fun and miscellaneous reasons (e.g., parents or close friends want me to participate). A related study by Gould et al. (1985), using the participation motivation inventory, produced similar factors. Other factors like independence, power, aggression, and the influence of others (e.g., parents coaches), as well as the desire for enjoyment or fun, are cited often by youth as major reasons for their participation in sports.

Shephard (1985) examined whether personal factors influence participants decisions to begin and continue exercise programs. He summarized three surveys, the Canada Fitness Survey, Toronto Life Assurance Study and General Food Study. Results from the Canada Fitness Survey indicated that the 13,500 individuals preferred individual sports such as walking and cycling to other activities, especially structured exercise classes. Forty percent of the individuals indicated they would participate in physical activity if they had more time, because it makes them feel better and have fun. Females also “valued the benefit of weight control and improved flexibility. Workers in Toronto (N=1800) completed Kenyan’s Scale. Five groups of individuals high and low adherents, dropouts, non-participants and controls all reported the same four values for physical activity: Catharsis, Aesthetics, health and social contracts. Workers in General Food Study reported similar values for physical activity. The noted that exercise was valued for health, fun, socializing, enhanced physical appearance and the development of self-discipline. Shephard states. It may be
premature to draw conclusions about factors that would encourage recruitment to and persistence in an exercise program”. However, the author suggested that all participants would be more likely to join the exercise programme if a wide range of activities are offered and incentives are provided to join. Participants may be higher in an exercise programs if external incentives (e.g. money, T-Shirts) were given until the exerciser reaches fitness level at which intrinsic rewards of exercise were possible.

Singh and Sharma (1987) conducted a study to find out the motives for participating in sports wing and competitive sports activity of 100 male sports wing players representing five colleges and Punjab University Campus. The players belonged to handball, Table tennis, badminton, lawn tennis, athletic, basketball, cricket and wrestling. On the basis of importance rating they found that most of the players wanted to be physically fit, improve their skills, learn new skills, their last preference being to get out of the house. They developed nine factors on the basis of factor loading and clustering of motives into the factors; their first factor was identified as social factor, second career making, third team atmosphere, fourth-fitness, fifth-recognition, sixth, competition, ninth-facility. However, they failed to recognize seventh and eighth factors.

Duda (1988) examined the relationship between goal perspectives and selected motivation behaviours (i.e., persistence and intensity) among intramural league participants. Persistence was defined as the number of years of
participation in the sport and intensity was operationalized as the hours and weeks spent practicing the recreational sport in the student's free time. Results indicated that greater persistence and intensity corresponded to the student's emphasis on task involvement in sport.

**Gould and Pet Lich Koff (1988)** have identified the participative motives of children involved in physical activities so as to improve skills, fun and fitness while Meyers, Weizel and White have identified adult motives as to feel better, control weight and friendship.

**Whitehead and James Robert (1989)** investigated motivational outcomes consequent to participation in physical fitness testing procedures. Seventh and eighth grade school children (N=165) were administered on the intrinsic motivation inventory before and after participating in a fitness test where they received bogus positive, negative or no verbal feedback (control). MANOVA and casual modeling procedures revealed that positive feedback increased intrinsic motivation while negative feedback decreased it. Analysis showed that changes in intrinsic motivation were mediated by changes in perceived competence. In a second experiment seventh and eight graders (N= 370) participated in either the president's challenge or the FITNESS GRAM fitness tests. Because of their different evaluative procedures and incentive schemes, it was hypothesized that these tests would have different effects on intrinsic motivation, MANOVA and ANOVA revealed no significant differences between
fitness test groups on intrinsic motivation or physical self worth. However, there was a clear gender effect on the perceived competence aspect of intrinsic motivation and self worth. These results partially support the case for applying the tenets of cognitive evaluation theory and effectance motivation theory of fitness testing situations in order to provide threats to intrinsic motivation.

**Duda (1989)** examined the relationship between goal perspective and participation and persistence in sport among 871 high school students. In accord with recent cognitive motivation theories, two major goal perspectives were assessed i.e. a task involved or mastery goal orientation and an ego-involved or social comparative perspective. The subjects were divided in five groups based on their involvement in sport: (1) those involved in organized and recreational sport, (2) those involved in organized sport only, (3) those involved in recreational sport only, (4) those who dropped out of sport and (5) those never involved in sport. Each subject indicated his/her preference for sport success and failure, which was mastery/social, comparison-based and oriented to the individual/group. MANOVAS and discriminant analysis revealed significant participation group differences with the organized sport only and organized/recreational sport participants indicating greater preference for each goal perspective than dropouts and non-participants. Further, results indicated that dropouts, non-participants
and those subjects presently involved in organized sport only placed less emphasis on mastery-based success than social comparison-based success. Dropouts and organized sport only participants had the least preference for social comparison failure. These findings reveal how emphasis on social comparisons goals (and de-emphasis on mastery goals) might lead to a lack of persistence in athletic contexts.

 Havajnesh and Ahmed Ali(1989) determined the differences between American and Jordanians, in their reasons for participating in and dropping out of youth sports programs and examined factors in achievement motives that might discriminate between American and Jordanians in terms of perceived competence, perceived control, extrinsic/intrinsic, motivation and achievement goals. The samples consisted of two groups sixty-five American and Sixty-seven Jordanians.

 Both samples consisted of male and female sport participants and sports dropouts between the ages of 11 and 17 years. Questionnaires were administered to the American sample, while data for the Jordanian sample was utilized through systematic stratified selection process from an earlier study in 1986. The most important reasons that Americans had for sports participation liked to have fun, liking to improve skills and liking to learn new skills. For Jordanians, liking the team spirit, liking to be popular and liking to travel were the most important reasons for participation in sports. Both American and Jordanian dropouts listed
emphasis on winning and losing and the lack of fun as the most important reasons for dropping out of sport programs. There were no significant differences found between American and Jordanians in the factors of Achievement Motivation for sports participation however, one factor which emerged with regard to Maehr and Nicholls (1980) model is that the Americans were found to be more task and independence oriented while the Jordanians were found to be more ability and social approval oriented.

It was concluded that Americans and Jordanians had different reasons for participation and similar reasons for dropping out of sport programs. There were no significant differences found between the two groups in Harter’s (1978) achievement motives model, while some differences were found in terms of Maehr and Nicoll’s (1981) Model of achievement orientation. Americans were found to be more independent and task oriented while Jordanians were found to be more social and ability goal oriented.

An assessment of motivation for sports participation and performance of Punjabi athletes was done by Jagdish kaur (1994). The sample consisted of 700 (with the age group of 14 to 22 years) drawn from colleges affiliated to the universities of Punjab i.e. Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar, Punjabi University, Patiala and Punjab, University, Chandigarh. Two samples were taken in two different phases. The subjects taken in the first phase were 100 and for second phase were 600. The first phase data was used to construct the two-
motivation scale for Sports Participation Motivation scale and: motivation scale for sports performance, which was the second phase of the study, was aimed to construct the norms of the two motivation tests. Factor analysis (factorial design) was used to construct the participation motivation and sports performance motivation scales. Pearson’s Product Moment correlations were worked out to established validity, reliability and objectivity of the scales. Hull scale was used to develop the norms of two scales. The conclusions of the study was (i) 11 (eleven) factors with the rotated loading in the range of .36 and up to .87 for measuring of motivation for sports participation.(ii) 10 ten major factor with rotated loading in the range of .44 to .84 for measuring sports performance motivation.(iii) Batteries on both the scales of motivation developed test inventories of motivation meet the criterion of scientific authenticity, i.e. the test are reliable, objective and valid.

**Weinberg, R. Tenenbaum, G.McKenzie, A. Jackson, S. Anshel and M. Grove, (2000)** The purpose of investigation was to compare participation motives of youth in competitive sport versus physical activity using culture, self-reported physical activity levels, and gender as independent variables. Participants were 1,472 boys (n =822) and girls (n=650) from the united stated, Australia, and NewZealand. Three self-report inventories were administered to all participants to determine the amount and frequency of participation as well as participation motives for competitive sport and physical activity. Results from
principal component factor analyses revealed stability across cultures in the four factors describing competitive motives (i.e., competition, social/energy, fitness/fun, Teamwork) as well as from the four factors describing physical activity motives (i.e., intrinsic, extrinsic, fitness, energy release) accounting for 44% and 51% of the variance respectively. Results form the $3 \times 2 \times 3$ (Physical Activity Frequency x Gender x Culture) MANOVA'S on the competitive sport and physical activity questionnaires revealed significant multivariate main effects for all three independent variables of both questionnaires. Post hoc tests indicated that all four factors were related to these main effects across competitive and physical activity motives. Results were discussed in terms of the differing motives for sport and physical activity and the importance of understanding the particular social milieu in which this activity occurred.

Harmeeet(2003) conducted a comparative study on athletes of individual and team sports on some psychological variables. These were participation motivation, performance motivation, state and trait anxiety, aggression and cohesion. The sample consisted of one hundred and sixty five male players among which forty five subjects were drawn from individual sports and one hundred twenty from team sports. ANOVA statistical technique was used to find out the significance of the difference of various individual and team groups and “t” ratio has been computed to know level and direction of significance of the differences among athletes of individual and team supports. The results of the study indicated
the significant differences were observed among the athletes of various individual 
and team sports on all the sub-constructs as well as on overall motivation 
participation except independence and every dimension..

**Review Related to Achievement Motivation**

**Atkinson (1964)**, a leading person in sports achievement motivation 
divided this type of orientation into two sub components: 1) The need to achieve 
success (Ms), 2) The need to avoid failure (Maf). He used a projective test to 
evaluate these qualities and generally equated the need to avoid failure with task 
related anxiety. According to Atkinson, achievement motivation is represented 
by the need to achieve and the motive to avoid failure. He concluded that high 
achiever was an individual whose need for success was greater than the need to 
avoid failure, (Ms > Maf). While a low achiever displayed the reverse tendency, 
a need to avoid failure was greater than the need for success (Maf > Ms)

**Ryan and Lakie (1965)** found that the performance of individuals with 
high anxiety (which is often considered in research to be synonymous with fear 
of failure) and low need for achievement was most affected in non-competitive 
situations. On the other hand, individuals with the high need for achievement and 
low anxiety performed best under competitive conditions.

**Maehr (1974)** opined that certain situations might optimize sports 
achievement motivation in some groups more than others, the athletes are not 
more or less motivated in the same way, but are motivated in different contexts.
Bhushan and Aggarwal (1978) conducted a study on personality characteristics of high and low achieving Indian sports persons. Cattell's 16 PF questionnaires were administered to 10 high achieving Indian table tennis and badminton players who had represented India at Inter-National level and to 10 low achieving players who had never achieved any distinction in their respective games. The high achievers scored significantly higher than their low achieving counterparts on dominance and emotional stability amongst the primary factors. On the second order factors, outstanding sports persons were significantly more extroverted than the low achievers. Contrary to the expectations, there was no significant difference in intelligence, ego-strength, self-sufficiency, tenseness and anxiety between high and low achievers. High dominance was perhaps one of the chief proofs of the international sports persons, who must persist and master skills and techniques. Being more extroverted than low achievers, the outstanding sports persons had higher thresholds for arousal, and thus they were able to endure hard physical training programmes. They were also able to handle higher levels of arousal caused by intense competition and usually higher vociferous spectator reactions before their performance deteriorates. The outstanding sportswomen, compared to sportsmen in general, scored significantly higher on the primary factors of dominance, suspiciousness, and tenseness and lower on outgoingness, emotional stability and tender mindedness. On the second other factors, the sportswomen were significantly more anxious, alert, poised and independent. Perhaps the outstanding women players were more dominant.
and independent than the outstanding men players because they have to break
through the stronger barriers of customs and traditions to complete in the man's
world.

**Dunleavy and Rees (1979)** investigated the effect of achievement
motivation and sports exposure on the sports involvement of American collegiate
males. The purpose of this investigation was to determine the effects of
achievements (n. Ach.) and previous sports exposure upon current sports
involvement. Sports involvement was conceptualized as involvement in, (a)
either competitive or recreational sports, and (b) either individual or team sports.
Sports involvement was assessed through combined measures of preferences
for actual participation in sports. Two groups of male under graduate volunteers,
54 high n. Ach. And 80 low n. Ach. were categorized into high, moderate and
low exposure groups based on previous sports exposure. The high n. Ach. was
measured by the Mehrabian achievement scale (1969). Analysis of data indicated
that (a) high n. Ach. was related to competitive and individual sports involvement,
(b) previous sport exposure was related to competitive sports achievement, but
unrelated to individual sports involvement, and (c) n. Ach. and previous exposure
were independent rather than inter-active predictors of competitive sports
involvement. These results, thus found significant.

**Lefervre (1979)** conducted a study of achievement motivation and causal
attribution in male and female athletes. The subjects included 15 male and 15
female athletes who were candidates for the Montreal Olympic games 1976. The athletes were runners, swimmers and gymnasts. The first objective of the study was a search for item of achievement motivation in top class male and female athletes. The second objective of the study was to deal with the cognitive attribution of athletic performance to the underlying cause being ability, effort, task and luck. As predicted, ability and especially, effort were considered as the primary causes for good achievement, while the lack of effort and bad luck were important attributions for bad achievement means. The third objective of the study was to explore the possible links between the achievement motivation and the cognitive attribution process. Among other things high achievers, more than low achievers were found to attribute their success internally. The results further indicated that female athletes obtained higher score on intrinsic motivation while the opposite was true on the positive fear of failure.

**Hosek and Mall (1981)** conducted a study of achievement motivation training of physical education teachers in Czechoslovakia. There were four comparable homogeneous study groups (N=80) included in the experiment. Two experimental and two control groups were used. Motivation training was conducted on 37 students consisting of 12 training units, each lasting 19 minutes and carried out with one-week interval. The training was based on Lin Hart’s functional system of activity and the model of active social learning. McClelland’s (1953) and Hechhausan’s (1963) methods were used to test the
Achievement Motivation. ANOVA was computed. The results indicated significant increase in achievement motivation after the termination of motivational training in the experimental group. The experimental group while compared with the control group showed differences in person’s behaviour as well as factual significance of observed differences. A significant decrease in achievement motivation was observed in the experimental group after the termination of the training. The results may of interpreted as relative increase in achievement motivation of the experimental (1982) experimental group as compared to the control group.

**Blais (1982)** conducted a study of achievement motivation on basketball players. The purpose of the study was to verify the validity of the assumption that participants perceived winning and losing, as success and failure, and to identify the meaningful responses of the target population. Open questionnaire was administered to 216 male and female inter college basketball players in the Quebec Province. The results indicated that they exhibited wide variety and exceptions of success and failure, and that equating the winning and losing, with success and failure may represent an erroneous assumption. The most frequent responses to personal success and team success were, pride, while for personal failure and team failure, discouragement was most frequently evoked.

**Nault (1982)** investigated the effect of achievement motivation on risk taking behaviour and motor performance. The purpose of the study was to examine
the decision making process of individuals performing a motor task within the construct of an achievement motivation situation. The thesis advanced by the investigator was that the condition of the achievement setting created in task studies, were dissimilar to the conditions prevailing in sports related situations. Subjects were 60 male high school students. The SCAT was used in the study. The results revealed that high achievers obtained better performance than low achievers in preliminary phase, where the elements of risk taking and perceived ability were not involved. None of the effects were significant in the analysis where these last two factors were taken into account.

Duda and Allison (1982) compared the attributes of black and white males and females towards various classroom, sport, and general life situations. They found that the perceptions of what constitute success (achievement varied from one situation to another. Whereas according to the race and the sex of the respondents some of the more interesting similarities and differences found by Duda and Allison were that:

1. Blacks and whites held the same perceptions for success in sport but possessed quite different orientation for achievement in the classroom and life in general.

2. In classroom situation and life in general, Blacks tended to define success (achievement) according to external factors, such as how others perceived them (e.g. Popularity, membership in the most important...
groups, and having money) whereas whites tended to define success according to internal factors such as how they perceived themselves (e.g., possessing feelings of self-respect, having control over themselves).

3. Males and females held same perceptions for what constituted success in the classroom but differed on their definitions for success in sport and for life in general.

**Auvergne-Sarah (1983)** investigated motivation and casual attribution for high and low achieving athletes. The subjects of the study were 12 female and 33 male skiers (mean age being 15.3 years) who attended sports study high schools in France, 18 skiers obtained above average competition results, 15 France, 18 skiers obtained average competition result, and 12 skiers obtained below average results. The subjects responded to an achievement motivation questionnaire, constructed by qualified judges. The items, which were internally validated, included areas of achievement motivation (fear of success, fear of failure, risk performance, intrinsic motivation), which were assessed on a 5 point scale. By using split-half methods it was found that the test was reliable. The causal attribution was also recorded, both for success and failure. Results showed that athletes expressed similar degree of motivation despite their competition performance. However, a larger portion of the athlete who performed better mostly attributed success internally and failure externally than did the athletes, whose performance was poor. Low achieving were less consistent in their causal attribution for both success and failure.
Reeves (1983) investigated players with different playing positions in soccer. He found that soccer players who played different positions (goal, defensive, midfield and attack) did not differ significantly on specific personality characteristics including need for achievement, position played and success, ii) need for achievement, degrees of success and position preference, and iii) need for affiliation and position played. Finally, the more skilled and successful athletes, who played in a preferred position, the less were the need for achievement.

Tannenbaum and Furst (1985) studied the relationship between the sports achievement attribution and related situational variables. The study was constructed to delineate the relationship between enduring sports attribution and variables, such as sport outcome, gender, perceived ability and sport type. Athletes participating in team sports (N = 94) and individual sports (N = 44) were given the Wingate Sport Achievement. Responsibility Scale (WSARS) in neutral situations and the Causal's Dimentional scale (CDS) following the competition. They also rated their own ability levels. The results revealed that the individual athletes assigned unsuccessful sports events more internally than the team athletes, with a similar tendency also found in successful events. Following the competitions, individual sports athletes assigned the cause, more internally than team athletes. Team athletes rated the first cause as more controllable. Winners assigned the causes as more stable, controllable and
partially more internal than losers. The higher the perceived ability, the more internal the responsibility for both successful and unsuccessful sports events and more internal, stable and controllable following competition. Athletes in successful events, tended to rate the cause following a win more internally than their counterparts. Athletes in unsuccessful events, tended to assign the causes following loss more externally but the difference did not reach significance level. Further it was found that the athletes internal in achievement responsibility on successful events were not significantly more internal, following a win than their counterparts.

Deeter (1989) conducted a study regarding development of a model of achievement behaviour for physical activity. The purpose of the study was to evaluate the relationships among various individual difference variables and their roles in predicting achievement behaviours in a physical activity setting. Two samples of male and female university students consisting of 315 and 146 subjects enrolled in required physical education skills programmes were drawn. The results showed that a model including the behavioural commitment indices produce n.Ach. of determination but with substantial indices produce n.Ach. of determination but with substantial degrees of parsimony. Also this model accounted for a large percentage of variances of the performance indices.

Genova and Genova (1989) conducted the study of motive characteristics of the participants in the 1988 Seoul Olympic Games. A total
number of 252 competitors were examined through a theoretical model worked out for the motive structure of athletes. These athletes were from the disciplines of Basketball (women), wrestling (both styles), boxing, weight lifting, volleyball (men), gymnastics (men and women), athletes, swimming, shooting and rowing. One of the most important motives was the high sports achievement that enabled the athletes to represent their country. This motive was indicated by 73.7% of the athletes and the champion's title at the Olympics was a cherished dream of the participants. 32.31% were motivated for the silver and bronze medals and 35.37% aspired to do better than their teammates.

**Cratty (1989)** states that achievement oriented athletes may at times prove socially abrasive both to their teammates and coach. Their constant seeking of feedback to evaluate their own performance coup with their social rejection of less able team-mates may make them cases for special handling and concentration by those in charge of athletic teams.

**Sinha and Verma (1989)** found that high achieving female athletes were more extroverted, dominating, helpful and aggressive in comparison to low achieving female athletes.

**Rudisill (1990)** conducted a study on the influence of achievement goal orientation on children's perceived competence, expectations, persistence and performance for three motor tasks. The purpose of this investigation was to determine whether various types of goal setting orientation influenced children's
perceived competence, expectations, persistence and performance. Subjects were 40 male and female children in the age group of 9 to 11 years. The subjects were asked to perform four test trial blocks (in total 8 test trials) on three different motor tasks (throwing for accuracy, standing long jump, sit and reach). Each subject was randomly assigned with one of the four achievement goal setting orientation groups, (i) task mastery (ii) competitive (iii) self goal, or (iv) no goals group, significant results were found for expectancy, persistence and performance. The results related to expectations showed a goal-orientation group main effect for all three tasks. The mastery group had the highest expectations for all the three tasks. Significant results were also found for persistence for the jumping task. \( F (3,32) = 9.86, P < 0.001 \), and the flexibility task, \( F (3, 32) = 7.19, P < 0.001 \). Overall, all results of this investigation have provided support for mastery goal – setting for children. It appears that when an individual is provided mastery on achievement goals, cognitive and behavioural factors are positively affected. On the other hand, it appears that competitive ability achievement goals do not have the positive effects on achievement motivation when the goals are not achieved.

**Kaur, Nirmal Jit (1992)** studied psychological variables. One of the psychological variables studied by her was Sports Achievement Motivation. The sample consisted of 160 college level and 160 university level athletes selected randomly from these universities of North-West India: The events included
basketball, volleyball, hockey and handball. The Sports Achievement Motivation test developed by Kamlesh (1990) was used to measure achievement motivation.

**Havashi, T.C. (1996)** conducted the study of achievement motivation among Anglo-American and Hawaiian male’s physical activity. The purpose of the study was to examine the nature of individual differences and social contextual factors. Semi structured interviews were conducted with Hawaiian’s (N=5) and Anglo-American (N=5), who resided in the mainland of US and in Hawaii. Result of the context analysis revealed that all the respondents defined positive and negative experience in physical activity through task and inter-dependent perspective, individualistic and co-operative reward structure. Cultural differences were also detected as Hawaiian’s defined positive activity experiences based on the demonstration of pride. These findings suggest the need for more cross-cultural research in sports psychology to validate the theoretical constructs.

**Kanupriya Sachdeva, (2000)** evaluated the achievement motivation patterns in relation to the performance of female volleyball players. Sixty female volleyball players having three levels of participation (college, inter college and Inter university) were used for the study and collection of data. Three questionnaires were used for achievement, performance and participation motivation. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistical procedure was applied to compare the three groups. Test was applied to test the hypothesis at five percent
level of confidence. The results of achievement motivation indicated that university level players were found significantly superior than inter college level players. In case of performance in participation motivation, no significant result was found between these groups.

REVIEW RELATED TO BODY IMAGE

Broadsky (1954) et. al. Found that positive traits were attributed to mesomorphs, less positive to ectomorphs received a definitely negative rating. It may be pointed out here that self-image and body image have been found significantly to be related to one another.

Fisher (1958a, 1958b, 1961, 1964) has explained that some people focus more on the right than the left side, some on the back rather than the front and some on the upper half than the lower half. A great deal of work had been done to explain the effect of body type and other physical characteristics on the performance of sportsmen. The effect of morphological factors on sports performance had been well established by now.

Sloan (1963) found that college men having a positive body image had a higher level of motor ability than those who had a negative attribute towards their body.

Sugerman and Haronian (1964) explored the relationship between body type and sophistication of body concept as measured by human figure drawings.
They suggested that endomorphic or fat were related positively to a primitive body concept and mesomorphic were related positively to a highly sophisticated body concept.

Leahy (1966) had found low correlation (.08 to -.22) between self-image on the hand and gross motor task of stabilometer balancing in college men on the other hand.

Armstrong et al. (1968) tried to explore the relation of fitness to a dimension of body image for adolescent boys and girls. They found that the relationship between body image and physical fitness existed only for girls but not for boys.

Learner (1969a, 1969b) reported two related studies in which he found that both samples (50 male between the age of 10-12 years and 90 female students the age of 16-40 years) associated the male mesomorphic somatotype with socially ‘positive’ behaviour qualities and male endomorph and ectomorphic somatotypes with socially ‘negative’ qualities.

Thomas (1972) tried to find out whether or not the body image of college males was influenced by success and failure in physical activity. The following prediction were drawn from the reasoning that success and failure in physical activity are forms of social interaction, which may produce changes in body image. (i) Physical activity accompanied by success or by failure should produce
changes in body image. (ii) Success experiences in physical activity should produce positive change in body image and failure experience should produce negative changes. (iii) Physical activity with neither success nor failure will not produce any changes significantly different from non-activity.

Synder and Kirlin (1975) compared women athletes and non-athletes on measure of psychological well-being and body image and found that more positive self-attitudes among the women gymnasts and basketball players. Inconclusive evidence of difference among the two sports women on body image and psychological well-being was observed.

Hamachek (1978) suggested that each of us have a more or less clear idea of how we would like to look. If our actual body proportions came close to conforming to the dimensional and appearances of our ideal body image, we are more likely to think better of both our physical self and non-physical self.

Puretz (1978) investigated the effect of modern dance on the body image while using Secord and Jourard Body Cathexis Scale. He found that participation in either modern dance experiences of verbal discussions about the body did not change the body image.

Adame et. Al. (1989) conducted a study on physical fitness, body image, and locus of control in college freshmen and women. They examined the relationship among physical fitness, body image and locus of control. The Hall
Physical Fitness Test Profile, the Winstread and Cash Body Self Relations Questionnaire (BSRQ) and Nowickistrickland Locus of control Scale were administered to 243 freshmen.

David (1991) conducted a study on schoolboys ranging between 14 to 17 years of age to find out the relationship between physical fitness, heart rate/pulse rate. Negative significant relationship of physical to heart rate and pulse rate were found. Heart rate/pulse rate were observed highly related to performance in sports.

Sharma and Shukla (1991) took up a study on motor fitness test or rural and urban Indian sportsmen, 120 sportsmen (60 urban and 60 rural), hailing from U.P. and Bihar, made the sample.

Sports scientists have paid some attention to the measurement of body image (Fisher and Cleveland), 1958; Sugarman and Haronian 1964; Sullivan 1965; Sakers 1968 and Vincent and Dorsey 1968), but the relationship between these perception of the self, body; body in movement and level of performance has not been studied. Researchers took interest in exploring body image had analyzed the way in which people perceive their bodies.

Narinder Singh (1996) compared the high and low hockey player of Punjab University, Chandigarh on some psychological and sociological parameters. These were adjustment, self-concept, body image and socio-
economic status. Sample used for the study was seventy males and seventy females. Analysis of variance and ‘t’ test statistical technique were applied for the analysis of the data.

The results of the study indicated that

1. The adjustment of high and low male performers hockey players were found unsatisfactory in all of its dimensions including overall adjustment. Low performer male hockey players were found significantly better than the high performer players in all the dimensions of adjustment.

2. The adjustment of high and low performer hockey players were found poor and unsatisfactory in only dimensions of adjustment variable i.e. emotional adjustment, low performer female hockey players were significantly better than the high performers.

3. Low performer hockey players had significantly better body image than the low performer female basketball players.

4. No difference has been found in the body image variable in the high and low performer male and female hockey players.