Chapter II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Capitalizing on the reviews of expert researchers can be fruitful in providing helpful ideas and suggestions keeping this in mind the research scholar made an attempt to go through the related literatures available in the libraries of Lakshmibai National University of Physical Education, Gwalior and Department of Physical Education, Faculty of Arts, Banaras Hindu University, Varanasi.

The research scholar scanned the literature and research work, published so far here and abroad, on the allied field and physical education and sports. Extensive studies regarding socio-psychology and sports culture is available in research journals. But comparatively very few studies are reported regarding socio-psychological differentials among sports achievers, non achievers and non participants female tribals, the relative studies found from various sources, which the scholar has come across, are cited below:
PSYCHOLOGY

Balazs (1982)\(^1\) Twenty four female subjects were investigated. He administered Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) and PDQ Personal Data Questionnaire) to the subjects. The psychological dynamics revealed in the case histories were strong drive to excel, early goal setting and following through the original goals, positive self – image, well developed hetero- sexuality.

Barnett & Wright (1994)\(^2\) the purpose was to study the psychological considerations for women in sports. Barnett & Wright start with on overview of the socialization process and discuss how the expectations for women in the society may make participation in sports difficult for some; they then provide a psychological profile of the female athlete and highlight personality and mood differences that have been revealed between athletes and non athletes and between more successful counter parts. Finally, they discussed a number of psychological problem that women athletes may experience, including identity issues, eating


disorders, drug abuse, emotional responses to injuries, burn out and retirement.

Schendal (1965)\(^3\) compared the psychological characteristics of those participating and non-participating in athletes from grade nine, twelve-and college. In general he found the participants in high school possessed greater sense of personal worth were more conventional in response to social situation though there were some slight differences in other factors between ninth and twelfth grade. However, in the case of collegiate students, the non-participants were found more conscientious and responsible, had greater tolerance more capacity of independent achievement greater intellectual efficiency, more interested in the psychological needs of other people etc.

Grimmelt (1979)\(^4\) compiled psychological and physiological profile of female varsity volleyballers, basketballers and non-athletes. Three groups, each of 12 subjects, were measured on 21 physiological and 18 psychological components ANOVA of data recorded significant differences

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\(^3\) Jack Schendal, “Psychological Differences between Athletes and Non-participants in Athletics at Their Educational Level” Research quarterly 36 (March 1965):52-67.

\(^4\) Dixie Anne Grimmelt, “Psychological and Physiological Comparison between Female Athletes and Non-Athletes” Dissertation Abstracts International 40 (August 1979):738-A.
in following psychological traits between volleyball and basketball players: capacity for status, sociability, social presence and tolerance. The only physiological significant difference between them weight. Volleyball players significantly differed from non-athletes in pain tolerance, strength and heart rate.

**PERSONALITY**

**McDonald (1971)** Cattell’s High school Personality Questionnaire was administered on 19, 157 female students. It was found that varsity participants scored higher than non-participants on the traits of intelligence assertion, enthusiasm, conscientiousness and adventure; and they scored lower than non-participants on the traits of zestfulness and socially group dependent. No differences were found between successful and less successful varsity participants. Less successful participants scored higher on the traits of intelligence than did the successful ones.

**Singh and Saini (1993)** conducted a study, the purpose of which was to measure psychological characteristics i.e. intelligence, extroversion,

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neuroticism and adjustment patterns of hockey players playing at different levels of participation viz. school, district and state levels. The study was designed to know as to how the intelligence level, extroversion, neuroticism and adjustment differed among male and female school hockey players playing at three levels. With this aim in view, two hundred and forty male and female school hockey level, eighty inter zonal and eighty inter – district level players. They were administered Raven’s Progressive Matrices Test for intelligence. The EPI for extroversion and neuroticism and Sinha and Singh’s Adjustment inventory (for school students) for adjustment.

Clark ((1973)\(^7\) compared the athletes verses non participants, fresh athletes verses senior athletes by using Cattles to P.F. Questionnaire and revealed difference (K 7.05). Practical verses imagination less super aged strength verses more super aged strength K (7.05) self assured verses apprehensive repetitively.

Bhusan et al. (1978)\(^8\) conducted a study at evaluate personality characteristics of high and low achievement Indian sports persons. They administered the Cattell’s 16 personality factors questionnaires to ten high


achievement players, who have never achieved any distinction in their respective games. The results of this study indicated that the high achiever scored significantly higher than lower active on dominances and surgency.

Fletcher and Dowell (1971)\(^9\) conducted a study on high school athletes and compared them to non-athlete's. The Edward's Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) was administered to 950 male freshmen. These subjects were further subdivided into group who had participated in high school athletics and those who had not. The two groups found to differ on the dominance, aggression and order scales of the EPPS.

Newman (1968)\(^10\) studied that the personality traits of faster and slower competitive swimmers, the purpose of the study was to add to the knowledge of characteristics of swimmers by determining whether the factor which make a better swimmer, correlate significantly with measured personality traits, twenty one swimmers were trained, and rank of each swimmer was given the personality test. Statistical analysis of the ranking of their personality tests was made in the various strokes, and then rank differences were correlated and were found significant at 0.05 levels,


indicating a tendency for rank of swimmers performance to correspond with rank of personality variables.

Feigl (1974)\textsuperscript{11} investigated 175 college male gymnasts in South-Eastern United States administering Cattle’s 16 P.F. Test to assess personality and from 7 other teams of selected colleges of South-east. He concluded that college gymnasts differed in personality from general college male population. A distinct personality type did not exist for gymnastics events; Gymnastics performance level could not be differentiated by personality have similar personalities. Successful teams were not differentiated from unsuccessful teams by personality factors.

Singh (1982)\textsuperscript{12} conducted a comparative study of psychological characteristics and socio – economic status of badminton players of high and low levels of proficiency. He found high level badminton players were emotionally stable, more conservative, whereas low level players were unstable and suffers from neurotic break down under stress and pressure.


\textsuperscript{12} Tarun Singh, “Comparative Analysis of Personality Profiles of Highly and Poorly Skilled Male and Female Badminton Players” (Unpublished Master of Philosophy Dissertation, Jiwaji University, 1982).
Studies of personality traits showing significant differences between fit and unfit, and athletes and non-athletes, have been found reported in the literature.

O. Sullivan et. al. (1998)\textsuperscript{13} investigated that compares the participants of 4 college sports teams both within groups and with non-athlete, college controls on 5 basic dimension of personality. 12 males member of 2 college teams, baseball and football, and 64 female members of 2 team, field hockey and lacrosse (combined and Equestrians) were compared on the 5 scale of the Zuckerman kuhlman personality questionnaire (ZKPQ) All teams were significantly higher on the activity and lower on the neuroticism anxiety scales than the general college population of the university of Delaware. Lacrosse and field hockey athletes were higher on activity than equestrians and baseball players on this scale. Contrary to predictions, football players scored lower than the general university male population on impulsive sensation seeking and the lacrosse and field hockey players didn’t differ from the general college females on impulsive sensation seeking. The baseball players also scored lower on this scale. The hypothesis that body contact sports attract high sensation seeking and aggressive participants was

not supported. Sensation seeking is more characteristics of participants in high-risk sports offerings unusual sensation and personal challenges.

**Pedersen M. Darhl (1997)** made a study to describe the profile of personality traits for male and female athletes were obtained from 133 men and 71 women raters. Traits were rated using a 7-point semantic differential with 11 bipolar items. A profile analysis showed that the profile of the traits were distinct. There were no significant in the ratings by men and women raters. Male athletes were rated as more active, aggressive, competitive, dominating, controlling, instrumental and public. Female athletes were rated as more goal oriented, organized and rule governed.

**Oslov (1967)** attempted to discern the personality differences among outstanding male tennis players and concluded that (1) Champions appear to be more purposefully tense and serious (2) The champions seldom appear disturbed during a match and (3) The champions express “great exhilaration” after a win and deep depression after a loss. This is not evident in the near greats. The near greats tend to be more concerned with so called intellectual challenges or complex situations than are the champions. Champions were found to be extroverts while near greats were not.

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**Notes:**


Place (1954)\textsuperscript{16} attempted to determine whether specific personality traits were associated with success in professional baseball. A "success group" of forty nine major league players were compared to a non-success group of sixty four minor league players. The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory and a biographical data sheet were employed. Results indicated that major league players are better able than minor league players to: (a) apply their strong desire towards a definite objective by exercising self-discipline, (b) adjust to occupations as professional baseball, requiring social contact or the ability to get along well with other people and (c) exercise initiative.

Wallace (1982)\textsuperscript{17} conducted a study to find out the relationship of personality and motivational factors to free throw performance (FT) of senior high school and collegiate women varsity basketball players (N 65) were determined using the 16 PF and AMI indexes. Multiple regressions was used to select the most important psycho-social predictors to estimate F.T. using all variables, more self-confidence and less mental toughness were the best predictor of free throw performance rather than emotionally stability. For senior high school students, only leadership and emotional


control were the best predictors for non-starters. Practices FT under pressure situation were of no more benefit to game performance that practice Ft without pressure.

De and Jha (1978)\textsuperscript{18} investigated the relationship between achievement motivation, personality and intelligence. Two hypotheses were tested; (1) there is a relationship between achievement and personality. (2) Ss higher in achievement motivation will also be more intelligent than those lower in achievement motivation. Two groups of male undergraduates of Patna University (25 in each group) were compared. The groups were administered with the Mukherjee’s sentence completion test (to measure achievement motivation), the eysenck personality inventory (Hindi version of from A), and Raven’[s progressive matrices test. The personality traits of extraversion and neuroticism had a significant relationship with achievement motivation. The correlation between achievement motivation and intelligence was .49 9p=.01). Both Hypotheses were thus confirmed.

Mohan and Avtar (1986)\textsuperscript{19} studied personality and adjustment in 200 adolescents, 100 from science and 100 from arts groups of degree colleges in


\textsuperscript{19} Jitendra Mohan and Ram Avtar, “A Study of Personality and Adjustment of Adolescents” Journal of Personality and Clinical Studies, Vol. 2 (1); Mar 1986, 41-47.
Haryana, India. Equal numbers of males and females served as Ss. Eysenck’s personality questionnaire and the bell adjustment inventory were administered. Results indicate that extraversion was positively correlated with psychoticism and neuroticism was negatively correlated with home, health, social, emotional and total adjustment. Sex emerged as a significant determinant of extraversion, psychoticism and social and emotional adjustment.

**Kumar, Pathak and Thakur (1985)** conducted a study to ascertain differentiated personality correlates of Locus of control in individual, team and non-athletes. 50 individual, 50 team and 50 non athletes undergraduate male of Utter Pradesh constituted sample of the study. Their age was 18-25 years with a mean age of 22.66 years. Hindi adaptation of Rotter’s Locus of Control scale was administered to them individually. Non athlete’s scores on Locus of Control scale than the individual and team athletes. Team athletes were found to be more internally controlled than the individual athletes or non athletes.

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AGGRESSION

Thomas Vaughn Walker (1979)\textsuperscript{21} conducted a study on Aggression in sport, a study of fouling in University Basketball. The purpose of the study was to determine differences in the occurrence of aggressive actions (fouls) under several conditions. The intent was to examine the possibility of predicting aggressive actions throughout the game. Official’s play-by-play score and Official National Collegiate Athletic Association Box Score Sheets were used to gather the data. The findings of this investigation indicate that fouling is predictable when the range of scoring increases and during the first and last five minutes of the second half. The implications associated with the findings are the following:

The frustration of the game situation causes aggressive behavior.

No cathartic effect is a result of displaying aggressive actions.

Several factors contribute to the occurrence of fouling behavior in basketball games including accidents, international fouls, coach requested fouls, and over aggressiveness by players.

Tenenbaum Gershon et. al (2000)\textsuperscript{22} conducted a study on response to J.H.Kerr’s rejoinder to the International sriety in sport Psychology’s Position stand on aggression and violence in sport, this reply refutes Kerr’s to drastically reduce aggression among athletes and spectators. Specifically, this paper answers Kerr’s accusations that the PS fails to provide an understanding of the motivation behind aggression in sports, improper conclusions regarding the media’s influence, and incorrectly blames officials for inflaming aggressive acts. Support is offered to vindicate the PS.

Mattesich (1978)\textsuperscript{23} conducted a study to determine the relationship between social class and aggression in athletes and non-athletes and the different in aggression in athletes and non-athletes when social class is held constant. Ss were 50 male varsity athletes and 50 male non-athletes randomly selected at the University of Md. The Index of status characteristics was administered to measure the social class and the resulting scores placed the Ss scores into high, middle and low class groups. The Buss Durkee Hostility-Guilt Inventory was used was used to measure aggression with a high score indicating a high degree of aggression. I-way ANOVA


indicated there was no statistically significance difference in aggression scores between athletes and non-athletes (p>.05). However, Pearson r revealed a high relationship (r=.95) between social class and aggression scores for athletes in low social class group ANCOVA indicated there was a significance difference between the groups when social class was held constant, in favor of the athletes low s social class group (p<.05).

**Inversion (1981)**\(^{24}\) conducted a study on 36 athletes ages 18-31 volunteered as Ss, 18 (12 black and 6 white) completed on at least 1 team at the inter – collegiate level and 18 (4 black and 14 white) participated in at least 1 team sport at the recreational level. Aggressive response of the Ss in selecting pictures from the TAT test was scored according to the Aggression social; severity word rating scale. The score for frequency was the tally of the no. of aggressive word used in the S’s response to the picture. The score for intensity was the sum of the severity rating (1-5) in responding to the whole test. No significance difference in the frequency intensity of aggression between the female inter-collegiate athlete and the female recreational athlete or between the black female athlete and white female were found.

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Stephens and Bredemeier (1996)\textsuperscript{25} Conducted the study on recent sport psychology research addressing athletic aggression has tended to focus on the normal or the motivational dimensions of aggressive behavior. The current study utilized both moral and motivational constructs to investigate aggression in young soccer participation (n 212) from two different age-group leagues under 12 and 14. Stepwise multiple regression analyses revealed that players who described themselves as more likely to aggress against an opponent also were more likely to (a) identify a large number of teammates who would aggress in similar situation, (b) perceive their coach as placing greater importance on ego oriented goals, and (c) choose situations featuring pre conventional rather than conventional moral motives as more tempting for aggression action. These results suggests that young athlete’s aggressive behavior is related to their team’s “moral atmosphere”, including team aggressive norms, players perceptions of these team norms and coach characteristics and player’s moral motives for behavior.

Miller (1977)\textsuperscript{26} conducted a study Ss (N=56) were boys aged 9-12 who were participating in a youth soccer league of the 56 players 14 were


\textsuperscript{26} Peter. W. Miller, “The Influence of Winning or Losing a Soccer Game on Aggression Level” Completed Research in Health, Physical Education and Recreation Vol. 2 (1977) 63.
winners, 14 were losers, and 28 were accomplices. Players were tested prior to and following the game on their aggression level measured by their willingness to deliver an electrical shock to their opponents. Difference between the aggression levels of winners and losers were analyzed by the t-test which showed that the losers’ aggression level were significantly higher (P<.01) than the winner.

Bredemeier and Shields (1986)\textsuperscript{27} conducted a study on the relationship at sport involvement with children’s Moral Reasoning Aggression Tendencies. The relationship between sport involvements variables (participation and Interest) and facts of Children’s morality (reaching maturity and Aggression tendencies) were investigated for 106 girls and boys in grades 4 through 7 children responded to a sport involvement questionnaire, participated in amoral interview, and completed two self report instruments designed to assess aggression tendencies in sport-specific and daily life contexts. Analysis revealed that boys participation and interest in high contact sports and girls participation in medium contact sport 9. The highest level of contact sport experience they reported) were positively correlated with less mature moral reasoning and

greater tendencies to aggress. Regression analysis demonstrated that sport interest presented reasoning maturity and aggression tendencies better than sport participation. Results and implication are discussed from a structural development perspective.

Widmeyer and Birch (1984)\textsuperscript{28} examined the relationship between aggression and performance of 32 professional ice hockey teams of various times during 1176 games over a period of four seasons. Aggressive penalties were operationally defined as non-sanctioned aggressive acts in which a player will make the intent to do harm (i.e., slashing, spearing, and high sticking, cross checking etc.) were separated out from accidental penalties such as tripping or interference which are usually committed in order to prevent the opponent from scoring. The average number of points a team accumulated per game was correlated with a number of dependent measures, average penalty minutes per game in the first segment of the season. Result indicated no significant relationship between aggression and team performance. For all games combined, however, a significant positive relationship was obtained for aggression exhibited by teams in the first period of games and the average number of points they accumulated per game. The authors concluded that aggression is as effective strategy to

achieve success in an ice hockey game, provided it takes place early in the contest.

Graham (1978)\textsuperscript{29} conducted a study to find out the correlation of aggression and style of play among tennis players. 26 male tennis team members completed against the same player under match like conditions and were rated by rated by a tennis expert according to their style of play. The instrument used to rate the Ss was the expert’s Rating Scale, a 9-point scale indicating a tennis player’s aggressive intentions. A copy of form AA the PRF was completed by each S prior to the experts observation. Statistical analysis of the data consisted of determining a score for x score for S’s style of play and correlating that with the raw score for the aggression scale of the PRE. The analysis revealed no significance correlation between level of aggression and style of play of the tennis players.

**SELF-ESTEEM**

Blake and Rust (2002)\textsuperscript{30} the present study investigated the relationship between self – efficacy among college students with physical and learning disabilities. Collective Self – Esteem, membership Self –


Esteem, and public Self – Esteem were positively and significantly correlated with general and social self – efficacy. Scores were found to be similar to scores from the normative samples. Thus although Self – Esteem and self – efficacy were significantly related to each other, they were largely unrelated to disability status.

**Whitesell, Mitchell & Spicer (2009)** Latent growth curve modeling was used to estimate developmental trajectories of self-esteem and cultural identity among American Indian high school students and to explore the relationships of these trajectories to personal resources, problem behaviors, and academic performance at the end of high school. The sample included 1,611 participants from the Voices of Indian Teens project, a 3-year longitudinal study of adolescents from 3 diverse American Indian cultural groups in the western United States. Trajectories of self-esteem were clearly related to academic achievement; cultural identity, in contrast, was largely unrelated, with no direct effects and only very small indirect effects. The relationships between self-esteem and success were mediated by personal resources and problem behaviors.

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Costello (2000)\textsuperscript{32} conducted this study to determine the techniques of neutralization self – Esteem, Sykes and Malza argued that delinquents use techniques of neutralization to enable them to engage in behavior they believe is wrong under most circumstances. One function of using these techniques is that individual is able to protect his or her self – concept while committing delinquent acts. This implies that delinquent youth who use these techniques should have higher levels of Self – Esteem than delinquents who do not use them. Because Sykes and Matza hold that neutralization is necessary because of the delinquent’s lies to conventional society, this effect should be stronger among delinquent’s youth who are more strongly attached to their parents. In contrast, Hirschi social control theory predicts that delinquents who are able to maintain a bond to conventional society should be less likely to neutralize, but if they do neutralize, they should be unable to sufficiently convince themselves of the validity of the neutralizations to protect Self – Esteem. These hypotheses are using data from the Richmond Youth Survey. The results differed depending on whether general neutralizations regarding the police were analyzed. Children who are attached to their parents are less likely to use police – related

neutralizations, but delinquents who use these neutralization s have higher Self – Esteem, consistent with neutralization theory. Delinquents who are more strongly attached to their parents are also less likely to use general neutralizations, but this Self – Esteem, consistent with control theory.

Brown (1982) conducted a study to find out the relationship of androgyny, self-esteem and achievement motivation of female athletes. Subjects were 75 female athletes from varsity teams at LSU and 12 non-athletes selected from English classes on the basis of scores on two personality inventories, the Mehrabian test for achieving tendency for females and the short form of the PRF ANDRO Scale the 101 subjects were categorized into four sex role and three achievement groups. The self-esteem scores was role recorded for each subject. Regression ANOVA and dri-square were used in the analysis of data. Female athletes were more androgynous than the non-athletes. The non-athletes consisted largely of feminine sex types individuals. Subjects scored significantly, lower on self-esteem. There was no significant correlation between self-esteem and achievement motivation.

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ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Rademarker (1985)\textsuperscript{34} compared the achievement motivation profiles between successful and less successful, black and white, and male and female track and field athletes. Males were significantly higher on competitiveness than females, while females scored significantly higher on work, findings consistent with previous investigations. No significant interactions among the three independent variables were found. Two-way \textit{X}2 analysis between the various comparisons groups revealed that less successful while males were more strongly characterized by the PI profile then successful white male who were more strongly characterized by a profile high on competitiveness, but low on work mastery, Conversely Successful black males were characterized significantly more by the PI profile than successful white males. This finding won extended when these same black and white subjects of the middle social class were examined, but was then suppressed when the analysis controlled for foreign athletes. Correlation revealed a significant and positive relationship between scale scores from one situations to another, but dependent positive tests revealed a significant difference in competitiveness. Finally, comparison groups

\textsuperscript{34} Timothy Arnold Rademarker, "Comparison of Achievement Motivation Profiles between Successful and Less Successful, Black and White and Male and Female Track and Field Athletes" \textit{Dissertation Abstracts International} Vol.44:12 (1985): 3630-A.
showed changes in achievement profiles in the 40 % ranges. It was concluded that the efficiency of the PI profiles could not be extended to this group of athletes, that no support was found for Edward’s theory and that the technique of profiling athletes based upon scores in relation to medians for each scales subject to situational influence.

Hayashi and Weiss (1994)\textsuperscript{35} conducted a study in an absence of cross cultural research on achievement motivation in sports has been identify by Dudda and Allison (1990) as a void in the field of sport psychology. The purpose of this study was to conduct a comparative analysis of achievement motivation characteristics in Anglo-American and Japanese marathon runners. Subjects (N 358) completed measures assessing achievement goal orientation and need for analysis indicated that the Anglo-American runners reported higher level of competitiveness than the Japanese runners. Conversely, Japanese runners reported higher level of win orientation. However, no gender or interaction effects were found. These results suggest that cultural differences exists no achievement motivation indicators among competitive sports participants, leading support for the nation that cultural factors should be considered more frequently in sports motivation research.

Duda and Ntoumans (2004)\textsuperscript{36} conducted the study on achievement goal theory suggested that the motivational processes operating in achievement settings such as PE are dependent on the achievement goals manifested in that setting. In this paper, research is reviewed examining the motivation-related correlates of task and ego (approach) goal orientations in physical education, namely (a) achievement – related beliefs (i.e. beliefs about the causes of success in and the purpose of PE, beliefs about the nature of physical ability), (b) affective responses (e.g. enjoyment), (c) self-determination (i.e. PE student’s level of intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and motivation), (d) behavioral strategies and skill development, and (e) level of physical activities engagement.

Basu and Banerjee (2003)\textsuperscript{37} conducted a study on carried out on 127 tribal (61&66) school going boys. The same set of children was assessed at their 12 and 14 years of age from understanding their levels and sports achievement motivation and possible influence of socio-cultural factors on such motivation.


A low-moderate level of achievement was recorded; detailed analysis revealed that more or less 50% of the children passes low 25% recorded ‘moderate’ and less than 25% recorded ‘high level of motivation’. At 14 years of age most of the tribal children showed ‘moderate and high” level which was a good indication. Socio economical point of view no definite conclusion could be drawn: however better results of the tribalism indicated a strong ‘cultural demand’ of the tribal society where sports and games are always given a priority.

Maxson (1982)\(^{38}\) conducted a study to find the relationship between achievement motivation and performance in competitive swimming. The Mehrabian measure of achievement tendency and the survey of a swimming achievement instrument designed by investigator were given to 44 college swimmers (29 males and 15 females) from four universities. The results obtained were as follows: (1) there were significant positive ‘r’ between the scores of achievement motivation questionnaire and the swimming success survey. (2) College swimmers achieve significantly higher scores on Mehrabian measurement of achievement tendency than the norms for the college students in general. (3) Female swimmers obtained significantly higher level of achievement tendencies than the level of the male swimmers.

Chantal et al. (1996)\textsuperscript{39} conducted the present investigation was to proceed to a multi-dimensional analysis of sports motivation in relation with elite performance and gender. The sample was made up of 98 Bulgarian top athletes (35 females and 63 males). Participation athletic performances in national and international events over the last two years were documented. Participants also completed the Bulgarian version of the sport motivation scale. The SMS, which is based on the tenets of self determination theory (Deci and Ryan, 1985, 1991) assess; intrinsic motivation, self determined extrinsic motivation, non self determined extrinsic motivation and a motivation. Results indicated that, in comparison with less success athletes, title and medal holders displayed higher levels of non self determined extrinsic motivation and higher levels of motivation with respect to gender; the motivation of the female athletes was more strongly characterized by intrinsic motivation. Results and discussed in light of self determination theory and the cultural context which prevailed in Bulgaria at the time of the investigations. It is concluded that these highlight the role of motivation in elite sport performance.

Bujurke et al. (1993)\textsuperscript{40} conducted a study on 50 athletes participated in All India Intervarsity Athletic Meet in 1988, to investigate the relationship between achievement motivation and performance in track and field events. The findings were:

1. Achievement motivation is generally a contributing factor athletic performance.

2. Athletes may attribute their success in some events to ability, task difficulty, effort and luck but not others.

Weinberg (1976)\textsuperscript{41} compared the resultant achievement motivation of athletes and non-athletes. The study included male athletes and non-athletes from three small colleges and two large colleges. The instrument used to assess achievement motivation (N. Ach.) was the male form of Mehrabian Achievement Scale (MAS). The MAS was administered to all the subjects under relaxed condition. Subjects were classified as athlete if they earned a college varsity award or as non-athletes if they had failed to earn an athletic award in high school as well as college. Based on this criteria 857 athletes and 673 non-athletes were included in this study. The athletic sample


consisted of individual representing 13 different sports. The resultant N. Ach. Levels of athletes and non-athletes were analyzed by a two factor fixed effect analysis of variance. The results were (1) athletes demonstrated a high N.Ach. Level than non-athletes, (2) the individual sport athletes demonstrated a high N. Ach. Level than team sport athletes, (3) the large college athletes and small college athletes demonstrated similar resultant N.Ach. Levels.

**Weaver (1990)**\(^\text{42}\) studied the relationship of college student’s achievement motivation to family cohesion and aspiration: An analysis by race and gender. A disproportionate sample of 611 whites, black, Asian and Hispanic under-graduate students of the Mary land college park responded to a mailed questionnaire. Achievement motivation included orientation toward work, intellectual misty, competitiveness and fear of success. Aspiration assessed the amount of educational desire. The ideal number of children and the importance of marriage, family cohesion were measured by a sub scale from the family environment scale. Descriptive statistics, Chi Square test, Pearson Correlations. Analysis of Co-variance and multiple regression techniques were employed in the treatment of data. The major

finding included: Most black students lived on the campus. Asian and Hispanic students lived with their family, no consistent living arrangement emerge for the whites. Nearly all the students were attending the college for a degree. The majority of students had a strong desire to work had a moderate desire for intellectual challenge, and were moderately or highly fearful of success. Males tended to be more competitive than females. More black males and Asian females were completive. The desire to work hard was an important predictor of achievement motivation. Most students perceived their families as moderately cohesive which indicate a healthy relationship. In terms of specific aspiration most students wanted to marry and have two or three children. Marriage was relatively more important than a job. The analysis by race or gender revealed few significant differences.

**Conroy, Elliot & Pincus (2009)**
Achievement motivation influences self-regulatory strategies, affective processes, and achievement outcomes, but little is known about how individual differences in achievement motivation influence interpersonal behavior. Different forms of achievement motivation are likely to influence interpersonal behavior.

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because achievement motives are grounded in social emotions. Two studies were conducted to examine relations between achievement motives and dispositional interpersonal problems. These studies linked deficits in pride-based need for achievement with self-reported submission-related interpersonal problems, and shame-based fear of failure (FF) with both self- and peer-reported interpersonal distress. The achievement motives were largely not associated with individuals' perceptions of their peers' interpersonal problems. These findings reinforce propositions that FF represents the commingling of achievement and relational concerns and suggest new mechanisms by which achievement motives may influence productivity, social success, and well-being.

Jane (1987)\textsuperscript{44} examined whether differences exist between levels of achievement and affiliative motivation of male and female interscholastic and inter-collegiate basketball competitors. The differences were measured by the achievement and affiliation scale of the personality research form (Form E). The instrument was administered to 80 males and 92 females of these 47 females and 41 males were high school level, with 45 females and 39 males of college level. Results were analyzed through one way ANOVA.

\textsuperscript{44} Miner Mary Jane, "Gender and Level of Afiliative and Achievement Motivation Interscholastic and Inter-Collegiate Basketball Competitors" Dissertation Abstracts International, 44:10 (1987): 3697-A.
of group means by gender and competitive level. The following conclusions were drawn (1) Inter-collegiate male and female basketball competitors do not differ in their levels of achievement, (2) Interscholastic males have higher levels of achievement motivation than interscholastic females, (3) Interscholastic and Inter-collegiate competitors do not differ in their levels of achievement.

**Hayashi (1996)** the purpose of the study was to examine the nature of individual differences and social contextual factors related to achievement motivation among Anglo-American and Hawaiian male physical activity participants. Semi structured interviews were conducted with Hawaiian (N 5) and Anglo-Americans who resided in the mainland United States (N 5) and in Hawaii (N 5). Result of content analysis revealed that all respondents defined positive and negative experiences in physical activity through task and ego goal orientations and an interdependent prospective of the self. Participants perceived the weight room environment through competitive, individualistic and cooperative goal reward structures. Cultural differences were also detected as Hawaiians defined positive activity experiences based on the demonstration of pride and perceived the weight room as a sitting in

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which to express pride and an interdependent perspective. These findings suggest the need for more cross cultural research in sport psychology to validate theoretical constructs.

Kamlesh (1980) made an attempt to diagnose the incentive motivation of Indian athletes through wood’s Incentive Motivation Inventory and concluded that excellence, affiliation, success, and sensation are the major reasons for the athletes to participate in competitive sports, and male and female athletes to do not differ on the level of their incentive motivation. He also found that Indian athletes are average in their motivational profile.

Nesvig (1978) conducted a study to determine whether a relationship exists between an athlete’s level of achievement motivation and gymnastic meet performance. A secondary purpose was to determine if the level of achievement motivation differed between and among male and female gymnasts. The McCiell and Jhimaltic apperception Test (MTAT) was administered to measure the level of achievement motivation among male and female members of the SDSU inter-collegiate gymnastic team. Each Ss gymnastic meet Scores, served as the measure of proficiency in gymnastics.

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Using the Pearson ‘r’ it was found that no significant relationship existed between achievement motivation and gymnastic meet performance among the men and among the women (P.05).

Though the use of a t-test it was found that a significant difference exists between scores attained by men and women on the MATA (P.05) ANOVA demonstrated significant difference in MTAT scores among the men no among the women.

Vealey and Campbell (1988)\textsuperscript{48} determine what achievement goal orientations are present in adolescent figure skaters, (b) examine the relationship between the goal orientations conceptualized by Maehr and Nicholls (1980) and those conceptualized by Vealey (1986), and (c) investigate the influence of different goal orientations on the pre competitive self-confidence, pre competitive anxiety, and actual performance of adolescent skaters. Subjects included 106 youth figure skaters participating in regional competition. Skaters were found to have two achievement goal orientations which were termed extrinsic and task orientations. Some support was found for the relationship between the achievement orientations and the sport-confidence/competitive orientation constructs of Vealey. Also,

a multivariate relationship was supported between the sports-confidence/achievement orientation predictor constructions and the self-confidence, anxiety and performance of adolescent figure skaters in sport competition. Results were discussed based on development characteristics of adolescent athletes and the socially evaluative achievement context of sports for sports. The need to decrease the threatening nature of competitive sport for adolescent by emphasizing intrinsic enjoyment and the pursuit of personal performance goals is advocated.

Krishnan and Nageswaran (1999)\(^\text{49}\) studied to analyze the similarities and differences in achievement motivation, competitive trait and state anxieties, sports women ship and self concept among Inter University Kabaddi women players. For the purpose of the study, 80 kabaddi players from various universities who participated in All India Inter University Kabaddi Tournament for women held at Manomaniam Sundaranar University. The data collected was analyzed using “t” test: Study concluded that there was no significant difference between low and high achievers in sports achievement motivation, sports competition anxiety and competition state anxiety (somatic). There was significant difference between low and high achievers in competition state anxiety (self confidence and cognitive).

\(^{49}\) Krishnan and Nageswaran, “To Analyzes the Similarities and Differences in Achievement Motivation, Competitive Trait and State Anxiety, Sports Women ship and Self Concept among Inter University Kabaddi Women Players” 1999, pp. 48-49.
SELF-CONFIDENCE

Mellaliev and Hantons (2006)\textsuperscript{50} conducted a study to examine whether self-confidence mediated the relationship between competitive anxiety intensity and direction. Elite (N 102) and non elite (N 144) participants completed the self-confidence subscale of the competitive Trait Anxiety Inventory-2 and the worry and somatic subscale from the Sport Anxiety Scale. Consistent with procedures recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986), liner regression analyses were used. The findings for elite athletes revealed worry intensity to significantly predict self-confidence and worry direction. However, when self-confidence was controlled, worry intensity did not predict worry direction over that which was significantly predicted by self-confidence. Within the analysis for somatic symptoms, only self-confidence was found to predict somatic symptom direction. For the non elite athletes, worry and somatic symptom intensity predicted both self-confidence and direction, and direction when self-confidence was controlled. The findings for the elite athletes suggest self-confidence mediates the relationship between performers worry symptoms and subsequent directional interpretations. However, the findings suggest that

\textsuperscript{50} S. D. Mellaliev and Neil R. Hantons, "Self Confidence as a Mediator of the Relationship between Competitive Anxiety Intensity and Interpretation" Research on Exercise Sports, Vol. 77, No. 2 (June 2006), pp.70-263.
high levels of self-confidence and low symptom intensity are needed for non
elite athletes to demonstrate a less debilitating interpretation.

**Kjormo and Halvari (2002)**\(^{\text{51}}\) studied on model tested among 136
Norwegian Olympic-level athletes yielded two paths related to performance.
The first path indicated that self-confidence, modeled as an antecedent of
competitive anxiety, is negatively correlated with performance. The second
path indicated that group cohesion is positively correlated with group goal-
clarity, which in turn is positively correlated with performance. Competitive
anxiety mediated the relation between self-confidence and performance,
whereas group goal-clarity mediates the relation between group cohesion
and performance. Results from multiple regression analyses supported the
model in the total sample and among individual sport athletes organized in
training groups (n 100). Among team sport athletes (n 36), personality and
group measures are more strongly Inter co related than among individual
sport athletes, and the relation with performance is more complex for the
former group. The interaction of self-confidence and competitive anxiety is
related to performance among team sport athletes.

\(^{\text{51}}\) O. Kjormo, and H. Halvari, “Two Ways Related to Performance in Elite Sports the Path of Self-
Confidence and Competitive Anxiety and the Path of Group Cohesion and Group Goal Clarity” Pub Med.
Voight and Callaghan (2000)\textsuperscript{52} examined the multivariate relationship among ego orientation, task orientation, sports self – confidence and the 3 traits anxiety dimensions of worry / concern, concentration disruption and somatic anxiety. 196 mexian – American female volleyball players (aged 13-18 years) completed a task and ego orientation in sports questionnaire, a trait sports confidence inventory and a sports anxiety scale. Hierarchical multiple regression analyses show that self – confidence played mediating role in the goal orientation – trait anxiety relationship. Greater competitive trait anxiety was evidenced only among those highly ego-involved athletes reporting low self – confidence.

Reddy et al. (1999)\textsuperscript{53} studied the analysis of self confidence and achievement motivation of national volleyball players. The study was conducted on a total sample of forty subjects drawn from the 46\textsuperscript{th} senior national volleyball championship for men and women 97 held at Vizag. The subject were selected at random and divided into two groups’ men and women. For the purpose of data collection Robin’s Self Confidence and


Kamlesh Achievement Motivation Questionnaire was employed to evaluate these psychological factors of the players. The questionnaire was administered prior to their competition and data was collected. Mean and “t” value was used for comparison of the groups. The analysis of data presented reveals that self confidence, achievement motivation of men and women senior national players is highly determined. They are found to be presented that the calculated value are greater than the table value. The mean of men confidence and achievement motivation are not equal. They differ in the level of confidence and achievement motivation.

Richard, Stephan and Hanton (2006)\textsuperscript{54} in their study examined the intensity and direction of competitive anxiety symptoms and psychological skill usage in rugby union players of different skill levels. Elite (N 65) and non elite (N 50) participants completed measures of competitive anxiety, self-confidence, and psychological skills. The elite group reported more facilitative interpretations of competitive anxiety symptoms, higher level of self-confidence, lower relaxation usage, and greater imagery and self-talk use than their no elite counterparts. The findings suggest that no elite performers primarily use relaxation strategies to reduce anxiety intensity. In

contrast, elite athletes appear to maintain intensity levels and adopt a combination of skills to interpret symptoms as facilitative to performance. Potential mechanisms for this process include the use of imagery and verbal persuasion efficacy enhancement technique to protect against debilitating symptom interpretations.

**SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT**

Chan (2003)\(^5\) an 18-item inventory, the student Adjustment Problems Inventory (SAPI-1.8) was developed to assess the adjustment problems encountered by 290 Chinese secondary students who were nominated by their respective schools to join the Chinese University of Hong Kong gifted programs. The preliminary 32-item version of this inventory was constructed and then revised to reflect gifted students' adjustment problems in the school and at home, based on feedback from teachers, students, and parents. The result of item factor analysis of the 32-item version yielded 6 problem dimensions/domains: relationship/ability concerns, unchallenging schoolwork, intense involvement, concerns for being different, parental expectations, and perfectionism. Student’s self-report data indicated that strong feelings and involvement, unchallenging schoolwork, and high parental expectations could be common problems.

among gifted and talented students in Hong Kong. Implications of the findings for meeting the counseling needs of gifted students with adjustment difficulties, as well as suggestions for the refinement of the inventory and for cross-cultural investigations are discussed.

**Biddulph (1954)** in a study on the personal and social adjustment of high school boys of high athletic achievement was compared with the adjustment of boys of low athletic achievement. It was found that students ranking high in athletic achievement demonstrated a significantly greater degree of personal and social adjustment than did students ranking low in athletic achievement. Because of this significant relationship it was concluded that it is important for all boys, instead of a specialized few, to develop motor ability.

**LOCUS OF CONTROL**

**Kumar and Pathak (1986)** attempted to clarify the Locus of control issue with regard to female high level competitors. Sample consists of 50 athlete and 50 non athlete graduate female of Varanasi. These groups were matched on age and socio-economic status. Only skilled state level

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competitive athletes were taken in this study as female athletes. Non athletes were those who had never taken active part in sports since their childhood. Hindi adaptation Rotter's Locus of Control scale was administered to them individually and it was found that female athletes are internally controlled than the non-athletes. Findings are interpreted in the context of Indian socialization pattern of the middle socio-economic group.

Sylvia Lee (1981) examined whether any significant differences existed in locus of control orientation of college women who participated in various teams and individual sorts. A second consideration involved assessing the significant relationship existed between those attitudes and locus of control. The subjects were women state university teams field hockey, volleyball, basketball, and softball; N = 73, and fine individual gymnasts, swimming, track and field, tennis and golf N = 83 sports were contrasted. The Levenson internal, powerful others and chance (IPC) scale was utilized to assess locus of control. The multivariate analysis (MANOVA) was used to analysis the result at .05 significant levels.

It was concluded that (1) women inter-collegiate athletes are relatively internally oriented, believing that their skill and effort have a definite influence on their behavioral outcomes. (2) There are no significant

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difference in locus of control between inter-collegiate team and individual sport athletes. There was greater variability within group than between them, pointing out the importance of considering individual differences when working with athletic team. (3) Locus of control appears to have no relationship to athlete’s evaluation on their coaches.

Kumar, Pathak and Thakur (1985)\(^59\) conducted a study to ascertain differentiated personality correlates of Locus of control in individual, team and non-athletes. 50 individual, 50 team and 50 non athletes undergraduate male of Utter Pradesh constituted sample of the study. Their age was 18-25 years with a mean age of 22.66 years. Hindi adaptation of Rotter’s Locus of Control scale was administered to them individually. Non athlete’s scores on Locus of Control scale than the individual and team athletes. Team athletes were found to be more internally controlled than the individual athletes or non athletes.

Ntoumanis and Graham (1988)\(^60\) this study investigated differences in the cognitive labeling of competitive anxiety symptoms generally experienced prior to an important competition as a function of locus of

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control beliefs. Eighty three university and country sport performers, including 45 males and 38 females, responded to the modified Competitive Trait Anxiety Inventory-2 (Jones & Swain, 1995) which measures the intensity of pre-competition anxiety symptoms generally experienced, as well as how they are generally interpreted on a debilitative-facilitative continuum. The performers also responded to the Internal-External locus of Control Scale (Rotter, 1966). The results showed that although there were no significant differences between those having an internal and those having an external locus of control on the intensity of their cognitive and somatic anxiety symptoms, the internals viewed their trait anxiety as significantly more facilitative and less debilitating than the externals. Discriminant function analysis corroborated these findings by showing that the best predictors for distinguishing between the two locus of control group were the direction scores for cognitive and somatic trait anxiety. The results of the present study provide support for the need to assess the direction as well as the intensity of competitive trait anxiety. Furthermore, they corroborate finding of other studies which have shown that internal locus of control is associated with more emotional responses in sport.
Sinha (1987) conducted a study on “Need Achievement, Locus of control and task persistence as related to athletic success”. The sample for the present study comprised of fifty successful and fifty un-successful athletes studying in DLI, Dayalbagh, Agra. TAT measure as prepared by McClelland (1953) was used to measure level of need achievement. Rotter’s I-E Scale was used to measure locus of control. The scale consists of 29 items and 6 of them were the filler items and the remaining were the paved items. One is related to Internal and other is related to External locus of control. To measure task persistence five line-drawing figures as used by Glass, Singer and Friedman (1969) were used, which were actually insolvable. The results of the present study showed that successful athletes scored higher on need achievement than their unsuccessful counterparts. The mean for the two groups were 8.0 and 6.91 respectively. Locus of control variable successive blocks of trials and both attribution and expectancy data were collected. No differences were found between the motive groups for performance, attributions or expectancy. However, success/failure feedback did produce significant differences for attribution and expectancy evidences for a situational rather than dispositional effect.

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SELF CONCEPT

Vincent (1976)\(^{62}\) compared the self concept of college women athletes and physical majors. The Tennessee self concept score was administered in college women (N=460) athletes and non-athletes, physical education majors and general college students, and participants and non-participants in high school competitive athletic programmes to determine whether differences existed among these groups in self concept scores in women physical education major and participants in high school competitive athletic programme were found to have significantly higher self-concept scores. Than all other groups non-physical education majors, athletes non athletes and non high school participants only one significant differences was found between athletes and non athletes, with non athletes scoring higher in the category of family self. All groups scores highest for interval frames of references in identify followed by behavior and lowest in self satisfaction. Vincent for the external frames of reference, all groups scored highest in the category of family self. All groups highest for interval frames of references in identify followed by behavior and lowest in self-satisfaction. Vincent for

the external frames of reference, all groups scored highest family self and lowest in personal self.

**Darden’s (1973)**

Darden’s (1973) body image discrepancy test and scored and Jourard’s body and self cathexis scales were administered at the beginning of the full quarter, 1970, to the following sports groups at PSU team, sports football (N=65), basketball (N=12), baseball (N=26), individual sports weight lifting (N=15), swimming (N=18), gymnastics (N=9) multiple discriminate analysis and university analysis indicated PL.01 among the team sports and individual sports. But not between the combined team sports and the combined individual sports, Also noted was P<0.01 among the 6 sports for the body, and self-cathexia variables, but not for the body image variable of the group tested, basketball players and gymnasts were found to be the most different from each other.

**Johnson (1971)**

Johnson (1971) carried out the study to gain an understanding of the interrelationship between a student’s levels of physical fitness. He found out that Negro high school boys were superior to white boys in strength cardio-vascular endurance, state of health physical appearance skill and

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64 Joseph Benjamin Johnson, “A Comparison of Physical Fitness and Self-Concept between Junior High School Negro and White Students” *Dissertation abstracts International* (31 April 1971) 5180-A.
sexuality. A greater relationship between physical fitness and self-concept was found among white than of the Negro high school students.

Black (1965)\textsuperscript{65} categorized athlete and non-participant as high and low in physical skill. He found no significant difference in self concept between athlete and non-participant but significant differences (p<0.05) between there of high and low physical skill on physical self concept moral ethical self concept and family concept. In each of the athlete cases individuals of higher physical skill had the higher self concept as measured by Tennessee self concept scale.

Cobb (1993)\textsuperscript{66} conducted a study to determine whether or not significant interaction exists between self-concept and anxiety tolerance for high schools males. Self concept was measured by total scores obtain from the Tennessee Self-concept scale (TSCS). Anxiety tolerance was measured through performance of a complex motor skill under non-stress and stress conditions. One hundred nine high school varsity basketball players attending basketball compel Manchester College participated in the study.

\textsuperscript{65} Bsadley M. Black, “The Relationship of Self Concept to Physical Skill and Athletic Participation” Completed Research in Health, Physical Education and Recreation 19.

\textsuperscript{66} Steve Rovert Cobb, “The Interaction between Self-Concept and Anxiety Tolerance for High School Males during Complex Motor Skill Performance” Dissertation Abstracts International 54:3 (September 1993) 3859-A.
The subjects baseline, on non-stress, scores were obtained from records results from free throw practice periods, stress scores were obtained by the researcher during scores were obtained by the researcher during free throw tests administered with the presence of loud recorded crowd noise, presence of an audience, knowledge of financial incentives and knowledge of recognition rewards. A3 X2 (Self concept level x Stress Condition) ANOVA with in factor (Stress Conditions) performed no significant interaction between self concept and anxiety tolerance among the subject. No statistically, significant interaction was found among the high medium and low self-concept groups when stress and non-stress results were compared.