REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The research scholar had made sincere efforts to locate and collect the literature relevant to the study. The related literatures collected from different source have been presented as an abstract from in this chapter.

**Personality**

Karad and Wahid (2011) studied the aim of the present study was to find out the differences in the Personality traits between Kabaddi and Kho-Kho players; with regard to neuroticism psychosticism and extraversions. In this study 50 Kabaddi and 50 Kho-Kho players selected as subjects. Their age ranged between 17-25 years, who were participating in Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar Marathwada University inter-collegiate Kabaddi and Kho-Kho tournaments.held at Vaidyanath College Parli-Vaidyanath and M.I.T. College, Aurangabad 2010. The Esyenck Personality Inventory (E.P.I.) was administered to find out the Personality traits of the Kho-Kho and Kabaddi players, with regards to neuroticism extraversion, psychosticism and Lie-Scale. Means Scores for neuroticism, psychoticism extraversion and Lie-Scale for these two types of players were computed. ttest was used to compare the significance difference between Kabaddi and Kho-Kho players, t-ratios for extraversion, psychoficism are ( 3.17, P < .01), (t=2.63, P<.05) respectively indicating that Kabaddi players are less extrovert and more psychotic than Kho-Kho players.
Eagleton et al. (2007) Scores on Extraversion and on Neuroticism as measured by the Eysenck Personality Inventory were compared for 90 undergraduate team sport participants, individual sport participants, and nonparticipants (43 men, 47 women, M age = 20.3 yr.). From past research and Eysenck's biological theory of personality, it was hypothesized that sport participants would score higher on Extraversion and lower on Neuroticism than nonparticipants, and that team participants would score higher on Extraversion and perhaps higher on Neuroticism than individual sport participants. By comparing scores for students in first year and final year, it was also investigated whether pre-existing personality differences drew people to sport (the gravitational hypothesis) or whether personality changed as a function of sport participation (the developmental hypothesis). The main findings were that team participants scored higher on Extraversion than both individual sport participants and nonparticipants, and that test scores did not change over time, supporting the gravitational hypothesis for Extraversion.

McKelvie et al. (2003) Two groups (n = 86) of university athletes (contact, no contact) and two matched groups (n = 86) of non-athletes completed the Eysenck Personality Inventory (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1968). Extraversion did not vary significantly between athletes and non-athletes or between contact and no contact athletes, but it was higher for athletes compared to American college norms. For neuroticism, athletes scored
significantly lower than non-athletes. Because neither extraversion or neuroticism changed over time (four years of study), these results are consistent with the gravitational hypothesis that people higher in extraversion and lower in neuroticism are attracted to university sports.

Ingledew et al. (2004) There is extensive evidence that personality traits are associated with health-related behaviours, but less evidence regarding the underlying mechanisms. In this study, we examined the relationships between personality and self-determination of exercise behaviour. Users of a sports centre completed personality scales (the NEO Five Factor Inventory supplemented with the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Psychoticism scale) and exercise self-determination scales (Behavioural Regulation in Exercise Questionnaire which measures extrinsic, introjected, identified and intrinsic forms of regulation). Analyses were restricted to 182 individuals in the maintenance stage of exercise participation. Partial correlation analysis was used to examine the relationships between each personality scale and the self-determination scales, controlling for other personality scales, gender and age. Neuroticism was associated with more introjected regulation, extraversion with more identified and intrinsic regulation, openness with less external regulation, conscientiousness with less external regulation and more intrinsic regulation, and psychoticism with more external regulation. Relating these findings to self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000), it is speculated that
extraverted individuals are able to feel self-determined because exercise can satisfy the need for relatedness, conscientious individuals because exercise can satisfy the need for competence. Furthermore, conscientious individuals may have greater wherewithal to advance along the continuum of behavioural regulation.

Karad (2010) studied the aim of the study was to find out the gender difference in Personality traits of Inter collegiate male and Female Kabaddi players with regard to psychoticism, neuroticism, extraversion and Lie score. For this present study, 50 male and 50 female Kabaddi players were selected as a subject. The Eysenck Personality Inventory (E.P.I.) was used to measure Psychoticism, extraversion and neuroticism of Kabaddi players, t-ratios has been used to compare the significantly gender difference between male and female Kabaddi players who were participated in Inter collegiate Kabaddi tournament held at Vaidyanath College Parli-Vaidyanath and D.D College Waluj Aurangabad. Gender differences on Psychoticism was found between male and female Kabaddi players (t = 2.87; P < .05) where female players more psychotic than male. While analyzing the differences of Personality characteristic of male and female Kabaddi players, gender differences on neuroticism was found between male and female Inter collegiate Kabaddi players (t = 3.52, P < .01), where the male Kabaddi players was found to have less score on neuroticism. So, far extraversion was concerned, significant gender difference was found to the male and female Inter-
Collegiate Kabaddi players (t=2.56, P<.05), male Kabaddi players has lower extraversion. Hence, female Kabaddi players were more extravert.

Aluja (2003) study was designed to examine the relationships among Extraversion, Openness to Experience (and their facets), measured through the NEO-PI-R, and the Sensation Seeking construct and its sub-scales, measured through the Sensation Seeking Scale, form V (SSS-V). The sample comprised 1006 non-psychology undergraduates doing different degrees. In general, relationships among the SSS total scale and the four sub-scales (TAS, ES, Dis, BS) are mainly accounted for by the E5-Excitement Seeking facet of the NEOPI-R. The other Extraversion facets as well as those of Openness, except O4-Actions, explain little variance. Taking together E5, O4 and O1, 85% of the higher and lower scorers on SSS-V are classified properly.

Lin (2007) In this study the relationship between extroversion and leisure motivation in Taiwanese fitness center members was examined. A systematic sampling (one out of ten entering the fitness center) produced 424 usable questionnaires for the final data analysis. The findings reveal that extroversion is positively correlated with the four leisure motivation dimensions: Intellectual, Social, Competence-mastery and Stimulus-avoidance. We therefore conclude that extroverts will be highly motivated to attend fitness centers.
Watson & Pulford (2004) investigates the personality differences of 21 amateurs and 20 instructors who participated in the high risk sports of skydiving, hang-gliding, paragliding, scuba diving, microlighting, and rock climbing, versus those who did not. 38 men and 28 women (M age = 32.6 yr., SD = 10.0) were assessed using the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire-Revised, the General Health Questionnaire, the Generalised Self-Efficacy Scale, and a Type A/B personality measure. Instructors and Amateurs scored significantly higher on Extroversion and lower in Neuroticism than Nonparticipants, however they differed from each other on the GHQ and Type A/B personality scores. Amateurs scored significantly higher on Psychoticism and Self-efficacy than Instructors and Nonparticipants. In conclusion, these test scores suggest that people who are attracted to high risk sports tend to be at the extroverted and emotionally stable end of the scale, with a tendency to exhibit Type A characteristics; however, Instructors’ scores on Psychoticism and Self-efficacy are more akin to those of Nonparticipants.

Rhodes and Smith (2006) this review aimed to combine the literature on major personality traits and physical activity alongside providing some meta-analytic summaries of the findings. Overall, 33 studies containing 35 independent samples, ranging from 1969 to 2006, met the inclusion criteria. Extraversion (r=0.23), neuroticism (r=0.11) and conscientiousness (r=0.20) were identified as correlates of physical activity using random effects meta-
analytic procedures correcting for sampling bias and attenuation of measurement error. The five-factor model trait of openness to experience/intellect and agreeableness, as well as Eysenck’s psychoticism trait, were not associated with physical activity. Potential moderators of personality and physical activity relationship such as sex, age, culture/country, design and instrumentation were inconclusive given the small number of studies. Still, the existing evidence was suggestive that personality and physical activity relationships are relatively invariant to these factors. Studies examining personality and different physical activity modes suggested differences by traits such as extraversion, but more research is needed to make any conclusions. Future research using multivariate analyses, personality-channelled physical activity interventions, longitudinal designs and objective physical activity measurement is recommended.

Lane (2005) investigated the influence of personality on exercise-induced mood changes. It was hypothesised that (a) exercise would be associated with significant mood enhancement across all personality types, (b) extroversion would be associated with positive mood and neuroticism with negative mood both pre- and post-exercise, and (c) personality measures would interact with exercise-induced mood changes. Participants were 90 female exercisers (M = 25.8 yr, SD = 9.0 yr) who completed the Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI) once and the Brunel Mood Scale (BRUMS) before and after a 60-minute exercise session. Median splits were
used to group participants into four personality types: stable introverts (n = 25), stable extroverts (n = 20), neurotic introverts (n = 26), and neurotic extroverts (n = 19). Repeated measures MANOVA showed significant mood enhancement following exercise across all personality types. Neuroticism was associated with negative mood scores pre- and post-exercise but the effect of extroversion on reported mood was relatively weak. There was no significant interaction effect between exercise-induced mood enhancement and personality. In conclusion, findings lend support to the notion that exercise is associated with improved mood. However, findings show that personality did not influence this effect, although neuroticism was associated with negative mood.

**Sports Aggression**

Reza (2012) studied to compare the rate of aggression among student athletes in judo, taekwondo, volleyball indoor soccer at the University of Tiran. For compelling this study, 90 subjects with age ranged 19-23 years old were selected. The subjects of this study were selected among student athlete male subjects. In this study, four groups of athletes in the judo, taekwondo, volleyball and indoor soccer attended and individual athletes from 25 sports as a simple random sample selection for investigation and were used in analysis of descriptive and inferential statistics. The descriptive statistics used for the Evaluation of central tendency Index such as (mean, median, thumb) and the size of the dispersion (range, variance, standard
deviation). In the inferential statistical test, one way ANOVA was used. Obtained results from the statistical analysis show that there is no significant difference between student athlete’s aggression in judo, taekwondo, volleyball and indoor soccer ($p \geq 0.05$); in the other hand the trend of sportsmen with violent behavior is not only related to the sport.

Donahue et al. (2009) examine the interplay between harmonious and obsessive passion and aggressive behavior in sports. It was hypothesized that players who are obsessively-passionate about basketball should report higher levels of aggressive behaviors than harmoniously-passionate players in general, and especially under self threat. Using the Dualistic Model of Passion (Vallerand et al. (2003), Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 85, 756–767) as a guiding framework, basketball players indicated their level of passion and aggression during typical basketball situations using a self-reported questionnaire. Results: In Study 1, results demonstrated that athletes with a predominant obsessive passion for basketball reported higher levels of aggression on an aggression scale than athletes with a harmonious passion. In Study 2, harmoniously-passionate and obsessively-passionate athletes were randomly assigned to one of two conditions: self-threat and self-affirmation. We predicted that under self-threat, obsessively-passionate players should report higher levels of aggressive behavior than harmoniously passionate players. However, no differences were expected between obsessively and harmoniously passionate
players in the self-affirmation condition. These hypotheses were supported. The present findings reveal that having an obsessive passion is associated with aggressive behavior, especially under identity threat. Thus, the love for one’s sport may lead to some maladaptive interpersonal behavior, especially if such love is rooted in a sense of identity that is contingent on doing well in that sport.

Palmer (1993) examines patterns of anger, aggression, and humor during 95 floor hockey games in a small fishing village in Newfoundland. The observed behaviors meet the prediction, based on evolutionary theory, that anger and aggression will be more frequent among males at the age when mate competition is most intense. Aggression was also found to be combined with humor most frequently in interactions among players attempting to form social relationships. This last finding is consistent with the hypothesis that combining humor (smiling and laughing) with what would otherwise be interpreted as aggressive behavior is a means of establishing trusting relationships between individuals. The potential contribution of an evolutionary approach to studies of anger and aggression is discussed.

Ramirez (2008) reviews the results of two decades of research on moral approval of aggressive acts conducted in several countries with different religious and cultural backgrounds. A nationally-adapted version of the Lagerspetz and Westman questionnaire was administered to university
students in Finland, Poland, Spain, Japan, Iran and India. Respondents had to indicate levels of justification of several aggressive acts of different quality and intensity in the context of different social justifications. Although slight method variations preclude the possibility of direct comparison, the pattern of effects in the different countries leads to interesting conclusions. In all countries: more drastic forms of aggression (e.g., killing, torture) are less accepted than non-dangerous forms of such behavior (e.g., hindering, being ironic); and aggressive acts that are socially justified (in terms of protection of self or other) are clearly more accepted than ones with no such justification (problems of communication). However, there are also some striking differences among the samples studied. Thus, patterns of moral approval of various kinds of aggressive acts are only to some extent common to most cultures, while there are some culturally bound differences in these attitudes.

Slabbert and Ukpere (2010) Rugby and football (soccer) are both international sports, and economic entities in their own right, as evidenced by the growth in attendance and television viewership at the respective World Cups. The issue of sport as catharsis, or conversely, as aggression-generating event, has always been controversial. In order to assess the orientation of rugby and football spectators towards violence, 404 spectators were surveyed. Results indicate significant differences between rugby and football spectators, with football spectators exhibiting higher levels of
aggression towards the referee and opposing players. It emerged that the concept of sport as catharsis is not a reality when the spectators’ side loses a match. A call is made for extensive education of all role players in football if the sport is not to be negatively affected.

**Self-Esteem**

Sari et al. (2011) considering the relevant literature, it could be proposed that psychological commitment to team could contribute to life satisfaction and self-esteem. The aim of this research is to find out the relationship between psychological commitment to team, life satisfaction and self-esteem in sports fans of Turkey. 903 sports fans from 32 different departments of 8 universities participated in the study. The Psychological Commitment to Team (PCT) Scale, Life Satisfaction Scale and Life Satisfaction Scale were used. Resistance to changing team, loyalty to team and questioning loyalty which are the three subscales of overall commitment to team explained approximately 9% variance of self-esteem. This is the first study dealing with the mentioned topic in Turkey.

Karademir et al. (2011) determine self esteem levels of the young people who are in search of identity in adolescence period according to some socio-demographic variables. Determination of factors which affect the psychological condition of adolescents in such a critical period of life is both important for the individual and society. Furthermore, necessary support and
assistance should be provided for the young people in order to create a positive frame of mind. The present study administered Rosenberg’s Self Esteem Scale (RSES) to 124 males and 46 females, a total of 170 people all of whom participated in the special ability examinations in order to attend physical education and sport teaching departments at university. It was found that there were statistically significant differences in levels of self esteem according to age, graduation degree, hometown, self-description and description of family, participation in social activities, attitudes and behaviors of the families towards the adolescent. However, there was no significant difference according to gender, alma mater, income level of the family. The levels of self esteem are found highly in other variations except for variations of fragmented and indifferent family.

Hein and Hagger (2007) examined a theoretical model of global self-esteem that incorporated constructs from achievement goal and self determination theories. The model hypothesized that self-determined or autonomous motives would mediate the influence of achievement goal orientation on global self-esteem. The adapted version of the Behavioural Regulation in Exercise Questionnaire (Mullan et al., 1997), the Perception of Success Questionnaire (Roberts & Balague, 1991), and Rosenberg’s (1965) self-esteem scales were administered to 634 high school students aged 11 – 15 years. A structural equation model supported the hypotheses and
demonstrated that autonomous motives mediated the effect of goal orientations on global self-esteem. The results suggest that generalized motivational orientations influence self-esteem by affecting autonomous motivation and is consistent with theory that suggests that experiences relating to intrinsic motivation are the mechanism by which global motivational orientations are translated into adaptive outcomes like self-esteem. The findings suggest that physical activity interventions that target autonomous motives in physical activity contexts are likely to enhance young people’s general self-esteem.

Muthu et al. (2011) studied conducted in Tamil Nadu state, India with the objective of studying self-esteem of women sports participant in different games. Exploratory research design was adopted for the study. The total sample comprised of 90 playing women in which 30 were Kho - Kho / Kabaddi players, 30 were Badminton / Ball Badminton / Volley Ball players and 30 were Squash Rackets / Table Tennis / Fencing / Tennis players. Self esteem scale developed by Verma and Kapadia was used to collect the data. The investigators personally met the respondents by going to their place and administered the tests and collected the data. Among all the three categories of women sports participants, the Squash Rackets / Table Tennis / Fencing / Tennis were having high level of self esteem followed by Badminton / Ball Badminton and Kho - Kho / Kabaddi players. Collectively as one group,
most of them were having high and medium level of self esteem reflecting that sports performance of women promotes esteem of women. Through correlation it was found that education and playing experience were significantly and positively related to self esteem of women sports participants. Hence women with higher education and higher playing experience had higher self esteem and self-enhancement than self-esteem. Whereas self-esteem entails evaluating oneself positively and often involves the need to be special and above average, self-compassion does not entail self evaluation or comparisons with others. Rather, it is a kind, connected, and clear-sighted way of relating to ourselves even in instances of failure, perceived inadequacy, and imperfection.

Devonport and Horrell (2004) investigated self-efficacy to use research methods skills in samples of sport students. Two studies were conducted. Study 1 was a quantitative study that investigated the extent to which self-esteem influenced changes in self-efficacy following the receipt of grades for an assignment from a research methods module. Ninety-seven Level 2 students completed a self-esteem scale and a self-efficacy scale at the start of a research methods module with additional self-efficacy measures being taken a week before coursework submission, and a week after the assignment was returned. Self-esteem and assignment grades were dichotomised into high and low groups using a median split. Repeated measures analysis of variance indicated a significant interaction effect,
whereby individuals high in self-esteem protect self-efficacy more than individuals low in self-esteem following poor performance. Study 2 involved focus group interviews with undergraduate (n = 4) and postgraduate (n= 6) students. Seven key themes emerged from the data: difficulty of research methods; enthusiasm for learning research methods; teaching and learning in research methods; curriculum design; independent learning; importance of the dissertation, and coping with dissertation stress. The findings show that students experience difficulty internalising key research methods skills from Level 1 and 2 modules, and that this contributes towards making the dissertation an extremely challenging module. The emphasis on independent learning within the dissertation module exacerbates the importance of knowing how to use research skills, and a perceived inability to do this appears to cause stress. Collectively, both studies show that developing confidence in the ability to perform key research skills is important for success. Lecturers should be encouraged to design research methods modules that enable all students to experience mastery of research skills. Students

Hosogi et al. (2012) Self-esteem is the “feeling of self-appreciation” and is an indispensable emotion for people to adapt to society and live their lives. For children, in particular, the environment in which they are raised contributes profoundly to the development of their self-esteem, which in turn helps them to adapt better to society. Various psychologists have provided
definitions of self-esteem, and examined methods of objectively evaluating self-esteem. Questionnaire style assessment methods for adult include Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale and Janis-Field Feeling of Inadequacy Scale, and these for children include Cooper smith Self-Esteem Inventory, Pope’s 5-Scale Test of Self-Esteem for children, and Kid- KINDL. Other methods include Ziller Social Self-Esteem Scale and Implicit Association Test. The development of children’s self-esteem is heavily influenced by their environment, that is, their homes, neighborhoods, and schools. Children with damaged self-esteem are at risk of developing psychological and social problems, which hinders recovery from low self-esteem. Thus, to recover low self-esteem, it is important for children to accumulate a series of successful experiences to create a positive concept of self. Evaluating children’s self-esteem can be an effective method for understanding their past and present circumstances, and useful to treat for children with psychosomatic disorders.

**Sports Achievement Motivation**

Zardoshtian et al. (2011) studied to predict self-determined motivation of elite female volleyball players from leadership styles of coaches. The sample composed of 12 volleyball teams in woman league (137 athletes) in Iran. Leadership styles were measured by Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980) and self-determined motivation was measured by Sport Motivation Scale (SMS) (Pelletier et al.,
The statistical procedure also was based on descriptive statistics and inferential statistics including multivariable regression. The results indicated that democratic behavior and autocratic behavior were related to self-determined motivation (intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and amotivation). Moreover, training and instruction was related to two dimensions of self-determined motivation (intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation). Social support was associated only with one dimension of self-determined motivation (amotivation). However, positive feedback had no relationship with self-determined motivation. It is suggested that coach regards his leadership style to increase self-determined motivation of athletes.

Rathee and Singh (2011) studied achievement in sports demands specific behavior from an athlete. The performer in such events must have ability to assess the situation, select the response, decide quickly and then implement it with determined efforts. This study was focused to examine the levels of achievement motivation, emotional and social adjustment among international and national players of basketball, hockey and handball games. Subjects (N = 240) were administered Achievement Motivation Test and Adjustment Inventory Analysis of variance (2×2 factorial design) was applied to find out the significance of differences and interaction of gender and performance. Descriptive values were worked to find out the direction of differences and t-test was used to find out significance of inter sport
differences. International players had higher levels of achievement motivation (M = 27.42, SD = 4.16) as compared to the National level players (M = 24.84, SD = 3.98), F = 27.33 (p<0.01). No significant gender differences were notices on this construct. On emotional adjustment, the international players were emotionally better adjusted as compared to the national level players (M = 12.25 and 13.46 respectively, F = 8.39, p<0.01: low scores indicated better level of adjustment). International players were better adjusted socially (M=7.19) than national players (M=7.80), F=6.30, p<0.01. Male players were better adjusted both emotionally and socially as compared to female players. Male basketball and hockey players were emotionally and socially better adjusted than handball players. Among female players, handball group was better than basketball group on achievement motivation; basketball and handball groups were better than hockey group on emotional adjustment; whereas on social adjustment, basketball group was better than hockey group. The results provide evidence that high achievement motivation is a vital factor that distinguishes high level performers. Emotional stability and social adjustment were also the critical factors that differentiated between high and low level performers. Implications of the results regarding inter sports differences are also discussed.

Badawy et al. (2011) The goal of the study is to establish an achievement motivation scale for the sport for all specialists. The researchers
have used descriptive method on a sample consisting of 78 specialist of the sports, all from youth centers in Egypt. The researchers concluded to establishing an achievement motivation scale for the sport for all specialists that is consisted of 30 statements divided to four dimensions (self-confidence – desire to succeed - level of ambition - tendency to compete). The researchers recommend taking advantage of the results of this research because of its importance in identifying the motivation achievement to the specialist of the sports for all.

Sarmento et al. (2008) studied to compare the achievement goal, self-determination and beliefs about the nature and determinants of sportive competence in function of competitive level in 3 groups of adult football players: Professionals (n=105), Semi-Professionals (n=156) and Amateurs (n=78). There were no significant differences in motivational orientations as a function of a competitive level. Amateur players, when compared with Professionals, presented significantly higher levels of a motivation and strongly believed that their sports competence was stable; nevertheless, they reported lower levels of identified regulation. On the other hand, Professionals and Semi-Professionals when compared with Amateurs revealed significantly higher levels of introjected regulation and strongly believed that their competence for the practice of football was due to learning and able to be improved.
Krishnappa et al. (2011) the purpose of research work is to call attention to the motivation and performance of sports of various groups in Hassan district. In present study we could able to understand the relation between motivation and performance of sports and to study the impacts of motivation techniques. This study is also revealed difference in the performance of the urban and rural sports of the district. In this study the sample was consists of 50 students athletes were selected from the district. An attempt was made to categorize the sample quality on domicile 25 rural and 25 urban backgrounds. On these athletes the motivational techniques- Rewards(RD), Recognition (REC), Goal settings(GS) ,Punishment(PUN) and the Presence of others (PO). The performance of athletes in 100,200,400meters sprint was measured before motivation and after motivational techniques was applied. In the present study an attempt was made to probe the effect of motivational techniques on the performance of sportsmen’s.

Din (2005) A study was conducted to determine whether participating in sport activities had any impact on students’ academic achievement in rural high schools. The participating students (N=225) were selected from four rural high school districts. The participants’ immediate pre-season grades in English, math, science and social science were compared with their immediate postseason grades in the same courses. The independent variable was participating in school-sponsored sport activities and the dependent
variable was the participants’ postseason grades. The comparisons were conducted on a course-by-course and team-by-team basis. Results of data analyses indicated that no significant differences were found between the students’ pre-season and postseason grades, which suggest that participating in school-sponsored sports activities did not affect the academic achievement for the participating rural high school students.

Sisodiya and Purashwani (2011) investigate the relationship between achievement motivation and anxiety of inter-university level male and female shuttlers i.e. badminton players. For this purpose, 30 (15 males and 15 female) shuttlers were randomly selected as subjects, who participated in west zone Inter-University Badminton Tournament. Sports Achievement Motivation Test by M. L. Kamlesh and Sports Competition Anxiety Test constructed by Rainer Marten were administered to collect the data. Pearson’s Product Moment correlation was employed to find out the relationship between achievement motivation and anxiety. Findings showed no significant relationship between Achievement Motivation and Anxiety of male and female badminton players of Inter-University level.

Meece et al. (2006) studied achievement motivation has a long history in psychological and educational research. In this review, gender differences in motivation are examined using four contemporary theories of achievement motivation, including attribution, expectancy-value, selfefficacy, and achievement goal perspectives. Across all theories, findings
indicate girls’ and boys’ motivation-related beliefs and behaviors continue to follow gender role stereotypes. Boys report stronger ability and interest beliefs in mathematics and science, whereas girls have more confidence and interest in language arts and writing. Gender effects are moderated by ability, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and classroom context. Additionally, developmental research indicates that gender differences in motivation are evident early in school, and increase for reading and language arts over the course of school. The role of the home and school environment in the development of these gender patterns is examined. Important implications for school professionals are highlighted.

Bhagirathi (2008) The present investigation has been conducted with the aim to find out the relationship of Anxiety and Achievement motivation to goal keeping among Secondary School level girl hockey players. The study was conducted on ten girl hockey goalkeepers from different schools of Madhya Pradesh, India. Their age ranged between 14-19 years. The Sports Achievement motivation test standardized by Kamlesh and the State and Trait Anxiety inventory of Speilberger was selected for this study. To determine the relationship of anxiety and achievement motivation to goal keeping among girl hockey players, Pearson’s product moment method of correlation was used. The level of significance was set at 0.05 level in order to check the significance of calculated correlation. On the basis of findings of the study, significant relationship of state anxiety and trait anxiety to
goalkeeping performance was observed for state (0.904) and trait anxiety (0.844) while no significant association with achievement motivation was found.

Gencer and Ilhan (2012) studied to determine the goal orientation and motivational climate of badminton athletes and research the relationship between these concepts. The research was carried out in Badminton Turkey Clubs Championship where 12 clubs and 87 athletes participated in 2009. 56 badminton athletes that participated in Badminton Turkey Clubs Championship in 2009 whose mean age 18.78±3.46 constitute our research sample. The Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ) and The Perceived Motivational Climate Questionnaire (PMCSQ) were used to gather the data. The data were analyzed by using the techniques such as descriptive statistics and bivariate correlation. Results showed that badminton athletes ego orientation scores $X= 3.67$, task orientation scores $X= 4.04$, mastery climate scores $X= 4.05$, performance climate scores $X= 3.08$ and there is positive and significant relationship between ego orientation and task orientation ($r=0.455$, $p<0.01$), ego orientation and performance climate ($r=0.320$, $p<0.05$), ego orientation and mastery climate ($r=0.365$, $p<0.01$), task orientation and mastery climate ($r=0.482$, $p<0.01$). There is no significant relationship between task orientation and performance climate ($r=0.143$, $p>0.05$). As conclusion it may be said that badminton athletes are
task oriented, perceive the motivational climate as mastery climate and there are relationships between goal orientation and motivational climate.

Ryska (2001) sport psychology research has revealed differences in motivational orientation among athletes from various ethnic groups (Duda, 1985, 1986a; Whitehead, 1986), no work has addressed the impact of within-group variation in acculturation on motivational goal perspectives. Multiple regression analyses were conducted on data generated from young Mexican-American male \( (n = 83) \) and female \( (n = 80) \) athletes. Among males, the acculturation dimensions of media use \( (f^3 = .265, P < .001) \) and ethnic social relations \( (f^3 = .188, P < .001) \) significantly predicted a task goal perspective, explaining 32\% of the variance, whereas increased ego involvement among female athletes was significantly predicted by language use \( (f^3 = .336, P < .01) \) and ethnic social relations \( (f^3 = -.259, P < .05) \), accounting for 29\% of the variance. 80th statistical and theoretical explanations are offered for the observed gender differences. These preliminary results suggest that acculturation differentially impacts how Mexican-American male and female athletes derive their perceptions of competence within the competitive sport setting.

Bal et al. (2001) studied to find out the significant differences among the players of individual and team sports, on the variable achievement motivation and locus of control. A group of three hundred and fifty \( (N=350) \) male players of individual and team sports, aged between 20 to 25 years
were purposively selected for this study. They were further divided into two groups: A (individual game) and B (team game). It was hypothesized that there may not be significant differences with regard to achievement motivation and locus of control among individual and team game players. The significance between group differences were assessed using the student’s t-test for dependent data. The level of $p < .05$ was considered significant. Significance between group differences were found among the players of individual and team sports on the variable achievement motivation whereas no significance between group differences were found among the players of individual and team sports on the variable locus of control. Considering the various parameters as applied on different sets of subjects the results prove to be variant in nature and scope in relation to achievement motivation whereas results prove to be identical in respect to locus of control.

Weigand et al. (2001). The purpose of this paper is to review research that has considered the interaction of dispositional (goal orientations) and situational (motivational climates) factors of achievement motivation. The paper begins with a review of achievement goal and motivational climate theories. Next, research is highlighted that focuses on the relative influence of significant others such as parents, coaches, teachers, sport heroes, and sportscientists on the development of achievement motivation in sport and physical education.
Self-Confidence

Rattanakoses et al. (2009) examines the relationship between imagery and confidence in athletes. The Sport Imagery Questionnaire and a Self-Confidence questionnaire were used to collect data. The samples consisted of athletes who are from the Khon Kaen Sport School in Thailand and who regularly participate in sports training (5 days a week). All subjects (n=120) were selected by purposive sampling and consisted of 71 (59.2 %) male and 49 (40.8 %) female athletes. Our analysis considered two parameters, imagery and self-confidence, which were evaluated with regards to the physical fitness level and experience of the athletes. The data was analyzed using a t-test to determine the difference of the means between imagery and self-confidence measures in males and females. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) (P<0.05) was used to evaluate differences across the groups, and linear regression and correlation analyses (r =0.71) were used to compare between genders, physical fitness, and experience levels. The results show that there are significant correlations between males and females in terms of imagery and self-confidence. This result suggests that imagery and self-confidence in male and female athletes are associated with high levels of physical fitness and more experience in sports situations.

Dureja and Singh (2011) studied to compare the self-confidence and decision making abilities between psychology and physical education
students. A total of eighty (N = 80) male subjects participated; forty (N = 40) psychology students and forty (N = 40) physical education students from various affiliated colleges of Panjab University, Chandigarh were randomly selected for the collection of data. The age of the subjects ranged between 19 to 25 years. Self-confidence was measured by applying self-confidence questionnaire and decision making was measured by applying decision making questionnaire. The “t” test was applied to find out the difference between mean scores of psychology and physical education students. The level of significance was set at 0.05. The results revealed significant difference with regard to variable self-confidence between psychology and physical education students. However, the results with regard to the variable decision making were found statistically significant between psychology and physical education students. Physical education students have better self-confidence and decision making level as compared to their counterpart psychology students.

Laura and Jean (1992) examined coaching behaviour of a male head coach of a collegiate women’s basketball team (n = 11 players). The data supported competitive trait anxiety as an individual different variable that mediated athlete’s perception and evaluation of coaching behaviours. There also support for adding athletes state cognitive anxiety. State self-confidence and perception of the coach’s cognitive anxiety to the model as individual
difference variables. Athletes who scored high in trait anxiety and state cognitive anxiety and low in state self-confidence and athletes, who perceived the coach as high in state cognitive anxiety, evaluated coaching behaviour more negatively. Game outcome may influence the effect of self-confidence in mediating athlete’s perception and evaluation of coaching behaviour overall, the results suggest that coaches should be more supportive and less negative with high anxious and low self-confident athletes.

Lirgg (1991) conducted a meta-analysis to examine the magnitude of gender differences in self-confidence in physical activity according to lenney’s assertions. An over all non-homogeneous effect size of 0.40 favoring males was found. Although masculine tasks produced larger effect-size differences than neutral tasks, it was also not homogeneous. Only one study employed a feminine task, resulting in a large effect size-favoring females, however, the results of a regression analysis. Which found that sex type of task contributed to gender differences in self-confidence did support lenney’s contention. Whether or not the task took place in a competitive situation did not differentially affect the magnitude of the gender differences. Age of subject and type of confidence measure employed are also discussed as possible variables contributing to gender difference in self-confidence.
Bagherpour et al. (2012) investigated the psychometric properties of Malaysian and Iranian trait sports confidence inventory scale. The questionnaire was administered to 267 Malaysian participants with the mean age = 13.33 and 261 Taekwondo athletes participants with the mean age = 12.47 from different level of experience. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and Cronbach’s alpha were used to determine the factorial validity and internal consistency of the questionnaire respectively. Factor analysis of results on the 13 items suggested that 13 items in one factor were most interpretable in Malay and Persian versions. Alpha coefficient was 0.91 for Malay and 0.94 for Persian. In conclusion, the results of the current study indicated that the one-factor with 13 items model each and are scored on a 9-point scale ranging from low confidence (score of 1) to high confidence (score of 9) of the TSCI possessed a more satisfactory factorial validity in Malaysian and Iranian Taekwondo players and can be used as a scale instrument of trait sport confidence.

Gold (1990) carried out a study to investigate the achievement orientation, self-confidence and attribution of five female collegiate varsity tennis players ages 18-22. Changes in these constructs were described and their inter-relationship were explored over a single competitive tennis season. Quantitative and qualitative measures, including questionnaires, interview and journals were use to ages achievement orientation, self-confidence and
attribution. The results were integrated to develop player’s motivation profiles. Results indicated that; (a) the players were stable in their levels of achievement orientation from match to match, irrespective of confidence level, (b) each player’s achievement orientation had different characteristics, (c) athlete’s pre-match expectation were higher for events they won, (d) following matches which they won, athletes tended to have lower expectations for winning the next match, and (e) substantial increases and decreases in expectancy to win and play well were observed between matches. Finally, the advantages to using a idiographic design to study fluctuations in athlete’s motivations was under scored.

George (1994) investigated the relationship between self-confidence and performance. Male inter collegiate and high school base ball players (N = 53) completed self-report measures over a nine game period during their respective seasons. Perception of self-efficacy (confidence in hitting performance). Competitive state anxiety, effort expenditure and performance were assessed, as well as an objective measure of performance (contact percentage). It was hypothesized that previous performance and anxiety would significantly predict self-efficacy, and that self-efficacy would mediate the effects of previous performance and anxiety on effort expenditure and hitting performance. Moderate support for Bandura’s model was found in that higher contact percentages were predictive of stronger
percepts of efficacy of five games, and lower levels of somatic and cognitive anxiety were associated with stronger self-efficacy beliefs in seven games. In turn, self-efficacy was a predictor of efforts and hitting performance in six of the nine games. In all cases, higher percepts of efficacy were associated with increased effort expenditure and greater hitting performance. Results are discussed in relation to the ecological validity of previous casual examinations of self-efficacy theory, as well as the utility of self-efficacy theory as a framework for investigating the self-confidence performance relationship.

Martin and Bill (1991) examined the relationships among trait and state psychological variables and performance in male high school distance runner using the sport orientation questionnaire, the competitive orientation inventory, the trait sport-confidence inventory. The state sport-confidence inventory, the competitive state anxiety inventory-2, and separate self-efficacy scales for performance (time) and outcome (place). As hypothesized, trait sport-confidence predicted state sport-confidence and outcome self-efficacy. However, competitive orientation did not contribute to the prediction of state measure. State sport confidence and self-efficacy predicted performance, as hypothesized. Surprisingly, outcome self-efficacy was a stronger predictor than performance self-efficacy, which did not contribute to the prediction of performance time to place. The runner’s youth
and lack of competitive track experience may have prevented them from forming accurate performance self-efficacy judgments. In contrast, the familiar and small competitive field may have allowed these athletes to form accurate outcome self-efficacy judgments.

Clifton et al. (1994) studied gender differences in self-confidence on a feminine typed task. The present study answered Irig’s call for confidence studies employing a feminine typed task by assessing self-confidence and gender appropriateness in college cheerleading. Questionnaires assessing self-confidence and the gender appropriateness of cheerleading and its five subtasks (cheers and motions, partner stunts, jumps, tumbling, and cheerleading dance) were administered to college cheerleaders and to non-cheerleaders college undergraduates. It was hypothesized that females would possess more self-confidence in their ability at cheerleading and it’s various subtasks than would males, and that cheerleaders would rate their sport as less gender-stereotyped than would non-cheerleaders. MANOVA results supported these hypotheses. On only two subtasks, partner stunts and tumbling, males possessed as much confidence as females did. Females reported more self-confidence on cheerleading and all other subtasks. Further more, cheerleaders of both sexes were aware of the stereotypes held by other, but viewed cheerleading and the tasks with in it as more gender neutral than did non-cheerleaders.
Social Adjustment

Yeow et al. (2011) examine differences of social adjustment factors between youths living in residential care setting and the non residential care youths. Out of 468 youths who participated in this study, 127 were living in residential homes (Mean age = 15.46 years, SD= 1.54) and 341 youths were not (Mean age= 13.76, SD=0.63). They were surveyed on social adjustment factors of family support, peer support, teacher support sense of belonging and student’s motivation to learn. Focus group discussions were also held. A two way between multivariate analysis of variance was performed to investigate age and group differences in social adjustment factors. Results showed that residential care youths had a more negative perception of teachers compared to non residential care youths; residential care youths had a more positive perception of family bonding compared to non residential care youths. For residential care youths, there was also an increase in self-initiated learning behaviors as age increased. Results indicated that residential care youths were not as maladjusted as initially thought and lent support to the strengths based approach to working with youths.

Chan (2003) 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.

Mousavi (2012) Due to the role of sports in youth social adjustment and social skills in their interpersonal relationships and social skills associated with academic achievement and their role in reducing mental and psychological problems, we conducted this study to examine the role of physical activity in different sport fields. In order to compare the social skills of male students participating in the team and individual sports in Islamic Azad University of Zanjan, we chose 30 randomly as the sample size. In order to gather information, two questionnaires-i-e-demographic
questionnaire and social skills questionnaire (social adjustment section) Albert J. Petitpas F (2004) with a reliability of 0.90 were used. For data analysis, descriptive statistics and T-test were used. Results showed significant differences between team and individual sports athletes with the soccer ranking higher than the rest of the field. Gymnastics athletes would have better social adjustment than the rest of athletes and the rowing athletes had less social adjustment, but this difference was not statistically significant and the results showed no significant relationship between age and marital status with the Social Adjustment. The results of this study confirm a considerable effect of team sports on levels of social adjustment compared with individual sports.

Reddy et al. (2011) examine social adjustment as a socio-psychological differential among sports achievers, non achievers, and non-participants female tribal’s. For the purpose of the study, 450 female tribal’s (150 sports achievers, 150 non achievers & 150 non participants) were randomly selected as the subjects for the study. The variable selected for the purpose of this study was: Social Adjustment. Social adjustment was assessed by the total scores in Deva’s Social Adjustment Inventory (SAI) constructed by Dr. R.C. Deva. With the help of the questionnaire related to social adjustment as a socio-psychological variable necessary data were collected. Data were collected with regard to social adjustment variable from 450 female tribal’s
in two consecutive days at their respective institutions. The data was analyzed by applying Descriptive Statistic i.e. Mean, Standard Deviation, Standard Error and Range & Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The level of significance was set at 0.05. The findings of the study revealed that significantly higher level of social adjustment was found in sports achievers in comparison to non achievers, and non participants female tribal’s. On the basis of the findings of the study, the following conclusions are drawn: Sports achievers are highly social adjustable in terms of emotional adjustment and social maturity as compared to non achievers and non participants.

**Locus of Control**

Khan et al. (2011) compare the psychological variable upon health beliefs (Health Locus of Control) among female University level athletes. A total numbers of 100 athletes (50 track athletes and 50 field athletes) were selected from all India University athletics championship completed the Multidimensional health locus of control questionnaire containing measures of study variables, validated inside the country. After distributing and collecting the questionnaires among the athletes, independent sample t-test was used to find out the significance of difference among the high and low performers female athletes on above mentioned psychological variables. The findings of the statistical analysis revealed that high and low performance
female athletes show significance difference ($P< 0.05$) on internal health locus of control. It has been observed that there was no difference between powerful health locus of control and chance health locus of control among high and low performers’ female athletes.

Kaliba et al. (2011) High external locus of control and readiness to conjure and believe in mystical powers has a potential in disrupting the growing small and medium enterprises in Uganda. If small business operators abdicate their responsibilities to mystical powers, it will worsen the current low survival rate of start-up businesses. In this study, we use a multilevel Rasch Rating Scale models to estimate a latent scale for locus of control and a composite scale that combine three domains: altitude towards wealth acquisition; paranormal beliefs; and readiness to seek wealth from mystical powers. Correlation analysis was also conducted to determine the association between the two latent scales. The data was collected from a random sample of 60 business operators in Entebbe, Uganda. Results indicate that low education and religion affiliations were determining factor for high external locus of control and readiness to conjure and believe in mystical powers. Public education through religious organization is therefore important in addressing these negative issues that may affect immersing entrepreneurship in Uganda.
Wolfe (2011) Past studies have shown that internal locus of control is closely linked to positive outcomes in life, such as sport performance, job performance, happiness, and socio-economic status. To understand the relationship between locus of control and academic success at the college level, freshmen psychology students at the University of Minnesota Duluth (UMD) were first tested using Rotter’s Locus of Control Inventory Scale, then performed a task, and finally completed a follow-up survey. The hypothesis for this study was that locus of control orientation will change over time from pre-test locus of control scores to post-test locus of control scores depending on the quality of feedback received on the post-test. Reactions to the feedback quality (positive, negative, or neutral) will be distinguished to determine whether positive and negative feedback has differential effects on locus of control. Results indicate that locus of control orientation did not change based on the quality of post-test feedback.

**Self-Concept**

Scarpa (2011) investigate the role of physical activity and sports participation on physical self-concept and self-esteem in adolescents and young adults with and without physical disability. The participants were 1149 individuals aged between 13 and 28 (578 boys and 571 girls). They were divided into four groups: (A) without disability who practiced sport (n = 742), (B) without disability who did not practice sport (n = 264), (C) physical disabled who practiced sport (n = 109), (D) physical disabled who
did not practice sport (n = 34). The participants completed the Physical Self-Description Questionnaire (PSDQ; Marsh, Richards, Johnson, Roche, & Tremayne, 1994) in a cross-sectional design. The results highlighted that individuals with physical disability who practiced sport obtained similar results to the people without disability who practiced sport in a ten of the eleven PSDQ scales. Finally it seems possible to assert that persons with physical disability who practice sport present a positive physical self-concept and good self-esteem.

Cheng et al. (2005) Positive self concept, asthmatic schoolchildren are likely to accomplish self-management behaviors. The purpose of this study was, therefore, to investigate the self concept of school age children with and without asthma, and probe related factors. The subjects, 150 fourth to sixth graders of whom 50 were asthmatic and 100 were healthy, were purposively selected from a pediatric allergy outpatient clinic in a medical center in northern Taiwan. The research tools included a structured questionnaire, the “Self Concept Scale” and the “Parenting Style Scale”. Data were analyzed by descriptive and inferential statistics using SPSS for Windows/PC10.0 software and StatXact-5 statistical software. There was a significant difference between the self concept of asthmatic and healthy schoolchildren. Asthmatic children’s overall self concept (p<0.001), self concept family subscale (p<0.05), and self concept physical subscale (p<0.001) were lower than those of healthy children. Asthmatic children’s
limits in physical education class were significantly correlated with overall self concept, whereas the overall self concept was highest for children with full class attendance (p<0.05) and no shortness of breath after exercise (p<0.01). After modifying for the group effect, the parenting style and overall self concept were positively correlated (p<0.001). These research results can serve as guidelines for medical care professionals, parents, and teachers, in caring for and teaching asthmatic and healthy schoolchildren.

Shapiro and Martin (2010) investigation were first to predict reported PA (physical activity) behavior and self-esteem using a multidimensional physical self-concept model and second to describe perceptions of multidimensional physical self-concept (e.g., strength, endurance, sport competence) among athletes with physical disabilities. Athletes (N = 36, M age = 16.11, SD age = 2.8) completed the Physical Self- Description Questionnaire. Participants reported mostly positive perceptions of self-esteem, global physical self-concept, endurance, body fat, sport competence, strength, flexibility, and physical activity (Ms ranging from 3.9 to 5.6 out of 6). Correlations indicated a number of significant relationships among self-esteem and reported PA and various dimensions of physical self-concept. Using physical self-concept, strength, endurance, and flexibility in the first regression equation and sport competence and endurance simultaneously in the second equation, 47 and 31% of the variance was accounted for in self-esteem and reported PA, respectively. The findings support the value of
examining multidimensional physical self-concept as different aspects of the physical self appear to have different influences on reported PA engagement versus self-esteem.

Cobb (1993) conducted a study to determine whether or not significant interaction exists between self-concept and anxiety tolerance for high school males. Self concept was measured by total scores obtained 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. 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. A 3 X 2 (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.
Mintah (2003) this study are to (a) describe and analyze the extent and type of authentic assessment use in public school physical education, and (b) investigate physical education teachers’ perceptions about the impact of authentic assessment on students’ self-concept, motivation, and skill achievement. Public school physical education teachers \( (N = 210) \) completed the Mintah Physical Education Authentic Assessment Inventory. Authentic assessment was found to be used extensively in public school physical education. Teacher observation, self-observation, checklists, peer observation, and event task were the most commonly used forms of authentic assessment; portfolio and essay were the least commonly used techniques. Public school physical education teachers in this study perceived that authentic assessment use enhanced positively the self-concept, motivation, and skill achievement of their students. In this study, male and female physical education teachers from 3 grade levels did not differ on the perceived impact of authentic assessment use on students’ self-concept, motivation, and skill achievement.