CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The study of related literature is of a great importance to research problems and many researchers in various fields established its great need for proper guidance and reliable conclusions. Scott Martheimer(1958) while discussing the significance of literature said that the review of related literature help to make progress towards the solution and successful completion of the research project.

Many researchers are showing great interest in the field of sports i.e., sports medicine, exercise physiology, bio-mechanics, kinesiology, anthropometry, sociology and sport psychology etc. The sole aim of all researchers in this field is creating excellence in sports. Out of all the psychological dimensions explored the area of personality is very frequently and thoroughly researched. The area of achievement orientation is of great importance because of its considerable impact on sports performance. Now the importance of values prevailing in sports population are also gradually emerging on an investigational domain of sports researchers.

The review of literature checks duplication and provides guidance for successful completion of the project. In the light of these facts it has been endeavoured to give comprehensive review of the literature related to the topic of this thesis.
2.1 REVIEW OF STUDIES PERTAINING TO PERSONALITY

The human personality in many aspects is the most complex phenomenon and the area of personality has so far been the most researched aspect in sports psychology. The research work done in this direction can be traced back to the pioneering work of Griffith (1926), who examined the personality profiles of successful athletes. From the past to the present, many efforts have been made to identify the characteristics associated with success in sports.

Massive literature has been published during the past two decades dealing with the personality structure of athletes and have mainly dealt with comparison of (1) Athletes and non-athletes; (2) Athletes of differing ability levels, and (3) Athletes from different sport groups. Booth (1958) concluded that differences in personality as measured by MMPI did exist between athletes and non athletes and the participants in individual and in team sports.

Cofer and Johnson (1960) found champion athletes as a 'special breed' in personality which discriminated them from ordinary athletes. Much in the same way, Parsons (1963), found champion swimmers having different personality characteristics than the average population.

Kane (1964) reviewed the literature pertaining to personality, physical ability and came to the conclusion that a positive relationship existed between athletic ability and stability as opposed to anxiety and extroversion as opposed to introversion.
Slusher (1964) also reported personality difference between athletic and non athletic groups. He found personality trait difference even within group of subjects participating in various events. Anxiety as personality trait was found more in poor performers by Nelson and Langer (1966).

Krol (1967) viewed that a set of personality factors which motivates individuals to become involved in physical activities and sports exists and that these factors persist for long, thus helping in becoming champion ultimately. In this sense the athletes of lower and upper levels would posses similar personality patterns, the only difference being the extent to which the patterns are present.

Ogilvie and Tutko (1967) in their study found distinction in personality traits between champion athletes and average athletes, the former having high need achievement, resistance to competition success, greater psychological endurance and self confidence.

Peterson et al (1967) made a comparison of personality traits of Olympic level female team sport and individual sport athletes and observed individual sport athletes were higher in dominance adventurousness, sensitivity, introversion, radicalism and self sufficiency and were lower in sophistication than the team sport athletes.

Kroll and Crenshaw (1968) used the Cattells 16 P.F. to study 387 athletes (81 Footballers, 141Gymnasts, 94Wrestlers and 71 Karate participants).
The Football players and Wrestlers were similar in their psychological profiles but were significantly different from the Gymnasts and Karate participants.

Ogilvie (1968) found outstanding athletes possessing greater abstract reasoning ability and tough-mindedness as compared to the ordinary sport participants.

Singer (1969) distinguished team game players from individual game athletes by using Edward Personality Preference Scale (EPPS) and reported that Tennis group scored significantly higher than Basketball players on achievement variable. Tennis group demonstrated more dominance than the Baseball group which in turn scored significantly higher on the abasement factor.

Brown (1970) observed varsity wrestler being generally more structured, less adventurous, more rigid and more content with status-quo than all of the other population groups like skiers, swimmers and non athletes.

Handry (1970) found that at the higher level performance team sport athletes tended to be stable-extroverts and individual sports athletes while retaining necessary resilience and urgency tended to be more introvert and anxious.

Successful athletes were found more relaxed, venturesome and imaginative and less intelligent as compared to non-athletes who were more happy-go-lucky and imaginative (Foster 1971).
Ogilvie (1971) finding the relationship between personality and athletic ability concluded that the competitor was basically an emotionally healthy person who tended towards extraversion and self-confidence with a high capacity to endure the stress of competition.

The studies on personality not only covered the aspects of gender, performance and event-wise difference but there have been some attempts to go at the micro-level also and to find out the position-wise personality comparisons in certain team games. One such attempt was made by Williams and Youssef (1972) who investigated the players of various Football positions and found them differing statistically on certain personality and motor skill parameters.

Tatum (1973) utilising Cattell's sixteen personality factor questionnaire compared athletes in inter-collegiate sports (Baseball, Basketball, Gymnastics, Swimming, Tennis and Wrestling) with physical education majors and non athletes. The only trait showing significant results was factor "M", the Baseball players were the most practical of all the groups. Significantly exceeding the Gymnasts and Wrestlers; the Basketballers were the next highest on this trait.

Kellay (1975) in his investigation compared the personality traits of 209 high school female athletes in four sports and with 206 non participants by using CPI. As a group, the athletes exceeded the non-participants on-eight of the CPI traits, for Poise, Ascendancy, Self-assurance, Dominance, Sense of
well-being, Socialisation, Sociability and Self acceptance, whereas non participants were superior on Intellectual and Interest Modes and Femininity.

King and Peter (1975) examined the relationship between personality factors and the smaller segments of athletic socio-cultural structure in a population of student athletes. The 16 P.F. was used to evaluate 48 male athletes and 45 male non-athletes. The athletes were divided into team sports (Basketball and Football) and non team sports (Track and swimming). Significant differences were found between athletes according to the segment of athletic social structure in which they participated. Many of these difference were associated with variation in individual-group orientation and the team structure of the sports.

Kirkcaldy (1982) administered the Eysenck personality questionnaire to various athletes. By comparing team and individual athletes using Univariate and Multiple Discriminate Function Analysis methods, no significant difference were found to exist along the personality dimensions. However, when team sports were considered separately and athletes categorised into one of their class (Offensive, Centre, Defensive players), it was found that males in attacking position were substantially higher on psychotism and extroversion as compared to midfield. The forward offensive players were easily differentiated from defensive players, the latter group exhibited a more emotionally stable than the offensive athletes. In females, the trend was somewhat reversed, i.e.,
attacking players were less extroverted and more neurotic than the players from other positions.

Adams (1983) studied the personality characteristics of highly skilled 31 male and 25 female amateur Racquetball players. The study revealed those four characteristics, (affiliation, endurance, nurturance and achievement) were found to be predominant in the male subject group. The same four traits along with 'order' were found to be predominant in female subject group also. The mean scores for the male and female Racquetball players were not found significantly different on any of the personality variables. There was also a substantial similarity between rank order comparisons of the means of the male and female players. The male players were found to be significantly higher than the general population on achievements, dominance, endurance and nurturance and significantly lower on aggression and social recognition.

Daino (1985) observed that in general, adolescent tennis players both male and female scored significantly higher in extraversion will to win and exhibited a lesser degree of neuroticism, anxiety, apprehension, obsession and depression.

Reeds (1985) indicated that there were some significant personality difference in the different grouping of athletes i.e. male/female and team and individual sports participants. Male athlete showed different personality trait than females and female athletes showed different personality traits than female
non athletes. Significant differences were also observed between the individual and team game athletes.

Frazier (1986) compared psychological characteristics of male and female elite and non elite marathoners. It was found that cognitive strategy of elite male marathoners was significantly different from that of non elite marathoners. Female marathoners were found significantly higher on the measure of confusion and neuroticism-stability than male marathoners.

Scilligo et al (1986) found that high standing teams, in comparison with middle and low standing ones showed a high degree of self and reciprocal acceptance and attention. Athletes in high standing teams were more attentive and playful and less inimical, less self-hurting, less self-neglecting and less-isolated.

Meyers et al (1988) found that inter-collegiate contestants scored significantly higher in vigour and extraversion and significantly lower in depression, fatigue, confusion, total mood disturbance and conformity than collegiate contestants. Female Radeo performers scored significantly higher in neuroticism than male counterparts in other events.

Frank (1989) studied the psychological profiles of University Athletes in developing countries. The findings supported the general consensus that male and female and athletes and non athletes possess different personality profile.

Furnham (1990) after reviewing the personality literature extensively presented a dark side of the field, concluding that because of both theoretical
and methodological reasons, it is difficult to evaluate the evidence for the relationship between sport and personality.

On the contrary, Maddi and Hess (1992) reported positive relationship between the general outlook factor, personality hardiness and Basketball performance. They conceived hardiness as composite of inter co-related view about self and world, categorised by a sense of commitment, control and challenge. Eight quantitative indices of basketball performance, showed sufficient inter correlation to form a composite score.

The work of Prapavessis and Grove (1994) has brought out the selected personality variable as antecedents of pre-competitive mood states. They concluded that personality factors are closely associated with pre-competitive mood states like fatigue, anger, vigour, tension, esteem relaxed, effect, confusion and depression.

Following their foreign counterparts, Indian researchers also paid considerable attention to the area of personality in sports. Way back in (1966) Gupta conducted a study on 60 selected Higher Secondary School sportsmen of different games and compared them with the same number of non-sportsmen. He found sportsmen to be more extroverted than their non-athletic counterparts.

Gupta and Sharma (1976) observed intense individual difference with the help of 16 PF existing among Track and Field athletes, Football players and non-athletes.
Bhushan and Aggarwal (1978) tried to differentiate the high achievers from the low achievers in Table-Tennis and Badminton. The result indicated that the high achievers were significantly higher on the characteristics of dominance and insurgency when compared to the low achievers. The scores of outstanding players were found to be towards extraversion.

Kamlesh (1982) administered EPI on the participants of 41st All India Inter University athletic meet. The study did not reveal any significant difference between the high and low performance on the variables of extraversion-introversion and emotional stability and neuroticism. On the whole all the athletes were out-going and extroverts and registered a higher mean score on the variable of neuroticism as compared to the mean score of normal population. However, female athletes in almost all the event were less neurotic than male athletes.

Somalingam (1982) investigated personality factors of Indian Junior (Boys) hockey team by administering 16PF questionnaire. The finding revealed that they were warm-hearted, slow learners, bold and sociable, self-reliant, self-sufficient, conscientious and analytical. The players were high on extraversion factor showing a level of inter-personal communication.

A comprehensive study conducted by Kaur (1984) examined the personality profiles of Track athletes, Basketball, Volleyball, Hockey, Badminton and Tennis players. She also compared the athletes with non-athletes. Marked inter-game difference in the personality of players were found
and they sharply differed from the non-athletes. Much on the same line Sharma (1984) found out inter-sport (discipline) personality differences in the participants of Basketball, Hockey, Cricket, Football and Volleyball.

A large sample of 300 subjects divided into two categories of individual and team games was studied by Sharma and Shukla (1986). They concluded that athletes tended to be outgoing, socially confident, emotionally stable, happy-go-lucky, rule bound, venturesome, self-reliant vigorous, confident, self-sufficient, controlled and relaxed.

Singh and Singh (1986) carried out a study on 50 cricket players and 50 non-players. The cricketers were found to score low anxiety and neuroticism as compared to non-sportsmen. No significant differences were observed in extraversion score between two groups.

Singh (1986) investigated the personality traits of boxing champions (First, second, third position holders) and non-champions (losers in the first round) of All India Inter-University competition. It was concluded that champion Boxers were emotionally more stable, possessed stronger super-ego and self-reliance. They were practical, confident, experimental, self-sufficient, had high self-concept and were unfrustrated whereas non-champion boxers were found to be dependent, imaginative, depressive, emotionally less stable and humble. They had weaker super-ego and conservative and frustrated. Both champion and non-champion boxers were outgoing, happy-go-lucky and were
moderately intelligent. They were shy, trusting, sentimental, socially bold, suspicious and shrewed.

Studying male and female Badminton players, Uppal and Gill (1986) found highly skilled male Badminton players to be more suspicious and average in intelligence. Highly skilled female badminton players were tough minded, suspicious and hard to cool as compared to poorly skilled female badminton players.

The personality difference between athletes and non athletes were investigated by Bhatti (1987). He concluded that both groups shared nine factors in which athletes were found to be emotionally less stable, aggressive, enthusiastic, sentimental, confident, conservative and tense as compared to non athletes. It was also noticed that the Basketball group was aggressive, confident, liberal. Football group was more intelligent, enthusiastic, tough-minded, suspicious, imaginative and relaxed whereas Volleyball group was found to be having more concrete thinking, tough mindedness, imaginativeness, groups' dependence, and social preciseness as compared to non-athletes.

Sandhu (1987) compared extraversion-neuroticism and attention of team and individual athletes. the EPI and Tachistoscope were used respectively on 29 team athletes,14 wrestler and 24 track and field athletes. It was concluded that team players and wrestler were equally extrovert and team players and
wrestlers were found significantly better in span of attention as compared to track and field athletes.

Gautam (1988) found athletes to be more extrovert as compared to their non-athlete counterparts.

Sharma (1988) and Singh (1988) also came out with considerable personality difference in Cyclists, Chess players, Gymnasts, Swimmers, Basketballers, Hockey, Kabaddi & Kho-Kho players and Volleyballers.

Bawa and Debnath (1989) compared national female gymnasts, Cyclists and Badminton players. All the three groups were neither extrovert, nor introverts. It was also observed that Badminton players differed significantly from Gymnasts and Cyclists on introversion/extraversion scale. Gymnasts and Cyclists did not differ significantly from each other. However, Badminton players were found to be significantly more introverts than Gymnasts and Cyclists.

Sinha and Verma (1989) administered Eysenck personality questionnaire on 50 high achieving and 50 low achieving female athletes between the age 18-26 years and found that high achieving female athletes were more extrovert, dominant, helpful and aggressive in comparison to low achieving female athletes.

Bawa and Debnath (1990) also found sharp difference between the personality traits of women Gymnasts and Football players.
Singh (1990) compared the personality traits of top-level Indian individual and team game players. The findings revealed that individual game players were more extrovert than the team game players and team game players were less neurotic than the individual event players. However, no differences were found between male and female players, both in the case of individual and team game players.

Concentrating on female athletes, Bhullar (1991) compared five groups of sportswomen (n=90) specialising in hockey, handball, basketball, cricket and volleyball on personality characteristics by using 16 PF questionnaire. The results revealed that hockey group was characterised by being emotionally stable, assertive tough-minded, lively and venturesome. The handball group was venturesome like the hockey players. The traits observed in Volleyball groups were assertiveness, liveliness and venturesomeness. Cricket group excelled in outgoingness.

Dureha (1991) observed inter-university hockey players to be warm-hearted, easy-going, less intelligent, more emotionally stable, aggressive, happy-go-lucky, socially bold, tender-minded, vigorous, confident, self-disciplined, conscientious and relaxed and suggested that these factors might have contributed to playing ability and ultimately to winning performance.

Mathew and Mathew (1991) administered Cattell's 16 PF inventory on 42 players of indigenous games of kabaddi and Kho-Kho who belonged to the age of group of 18-20 years. The results of the study revealed that the women
Kho-Kho players were shy, conservative, group dependent and anxious whereas women Kabaddi players were venturesome, critical, self-sufficient, relaxed, independent, aggressive and less anxious.

Mohan et al (1992) found boredom, susceptibility, venturesomeness, extraversion and psychoticism as important personality variable which can differentiate sportsmen from the non-sportsmen.

Shergill (1992) studied personality differences between high and low performance female hockey players and found significant differences between the low performance group and high performance group.

Yadav (1992) studied selected personality variables, adjustment and socio-economic status of mass and class athletes of college and University levels. The results indicated that mass sports athletes were more venturesome and placid whereas, class athletes were more intelligent and experimenting.

Shukla and Sharma (1994) found difference between state level selected and non-selected hockey players. They revealed significant difference in 8 out of 16 factors.

The study of Singh and Shergill (1994) found weightlifters to be assertive, happy go lucky, venturesome, tough-minded, practical, placid and self-sufficient. They were also found average on the personality trait 'B' i.e. intelligent v/s less intelligent.

Singh, B. (1995) found that male athletes are more extrovert than female athletes and female athletes are more neurotic than their male counterparts.
There were no differences between male and female athletes on social desirability. Both male and female athletes belonging to rural and urban area were similar in their personality traits of extroversion, neuroticism and social desirability and further found that individual and team game male athletes are similar on all parameters of personality

The above review of literature is reflective of the progress made in personality investigations conducted in sports. 16PF questionnaire has been most frequently used for this purpose followed by the MMPI, EPI, and EPQ. Most of the studies were by and large aimed at finding out the personality difference existing among different groups of samples i.e. male athletes v/s female athletes, individual games athletes v/s Team game athletes, high performance v/s low performers etc. One major line of inquiry has been the comparison between the sportsmen and non sportsmen, which has yielded interesting results. When seen in the historical perspective, the researches in this area have gradually entered from macro to micro phase in which the efforts have been directed to pinpoint game to game difference and even playing position-wise difference existing in various team-games. Event-wise distinguishing factors of personality are also studied within swimming and track and field events. Some of the aspects seem fairly satisfactorily conclusive but some of them still need scientific attention because of their fluidity. The concept of 'athletic personality' is emerging to be a potential area of investigation in sports psychology.
2.2 REVIEW OF STUDIES PERTAINING TO ACHIEVEMENT ORIENTATION

Achievement behaviour and specially competitive achievement behaviour is one of the most prominent features of sport and physical activities. Furthermore, wide individual differences in competitive achievement behaviour are recognised. Some children in elementary physical education classes eagerly take on all competitive challenges while others dread any evaluation. One entrant in a community road race might set a personal time goal, another might challenge a college and still another might just run for fun and pay no attention to either time or other runners. Such differences in competitive behaviour reflect personality or individual differences in achievement motivation and more specifically in competitiveness.

The lack of attention from sport psychologist is particularly notable because general achievement motivation measures do not have demonstrated validity for sport situations. The thematic appreciation test (TAT) Murray, 1938) the projective measure used in much of the classic research of Atkinson, McClelland and their colleagues (Aktinson, 1964, 1974; McClelland et al, 1953) is time consuming to administer and score. More importantly, sport psychology has not found that either the TAT or more objective measures, such as the Meharbian (1968) scales, constantly relate to any sport achievement behaviour.
To quote Frost (1971) "The urge to run and play when young, to excell when competing, to struggle when hindered, to prove something when challenged, to escape when confined, to be aggressive when angered and to flee when frightened are typical instincts of man as he matures and develops and moves through life's many dangerous and competitive situations.

Individual difference in achievement orientation and competitiveness are quite obvious among sports participants and these differences logically relate to sports achievement behaviour and success. According to Atkinson's (1974) achievement motivation theory and more current cognitive approaches, highly achievement oriented individual approach achievement situations, try hard and strive for success against achievement standards, and persist in the face of failure. These same achievement behaviours should lead to success in athletics. Highly successful athletes are those who enter competitive sports and accept challenges, who set and strive for high performance standards and who persist in those efforts until they attain their goals. Thus, highly successful athletes should be characterized by achievement motivation.

Martens (1977), developed the sports competition Anxiety test (SCAT) and reported excellent reliability and validity for this sport-specific measure of competitive trait Anxiety. Further research by Marten and colleagues demonstrated that SCAT was better predictor of state Anxiety in sports competition than more general Anxiety measures, and the SCAT currently is one of our most widely used sport psychology measure. More recently, sport
Psychologists have developed other useful sport specific measures including Venley's (1986) sport confidence inventory and Casson Widmeyer and Grawley's (1985) group cohesive inventory questionnaire.

Bandura, (1977, 1986, 1997) and Deci's (1975) Achievement goal theory assumes that the primary goal of individuals in achievement context is the demonstration of ability. It is agreed that two conceptions of ability exist, and that these manifest themselves through two goal state of involvement namely task and ago, that operates in achievement contexts, within this theoretical perspective, individuals are assumed to hold different conceptions of ability when they adopt one state of involvement over the others.

Most notably, Helmreich and Spencer (1978) advocate a multidimensional achievement construct and developed the work and family orientation questionnaire (WOFO) which reported that both mastery and work were positively related to success (citation) for high achieving male and female academic scientists. Surprisingly, the most successful scientists were high on mastery and work but Low on competitiveness (Helmreich, Beane, Lueker and Spencer, 1978). Helmreich and Spencer have found that male and female athletes score high on competitiveness than their non-athletic peers and have noted that competitiveness may positively relate to success in athletics.

Ewing (1981) was the first to seek these multiple achievement orientation in sport and to demonstrate correlation with sports participation. She asked 452 Illinois high school subjects to record occasions on which they
had left successful in sport and to use a 5 point Likert scale (strongly agree to strongly disagree) to rate 15 reasons for feeling successful. Factors analyses of these ratings showed the three orientations proposed by Maehr and Nicholls (1980) and future intrinsic factor characterised by feeling of adventure. These orientations discriminated between competitors dropouts and non-participants with being competitors more social approval oriented and Less intrinsic and ability-oriented than the dropouts.

Ewing's (1981) study of high school sport in the United States, based on Maehr and Nicholls's (1980) approach to the cross-cultural study of achievement motivation, was parallel with and English sample and extended to include non school sports and middle schools. It was expected that similar achievement orientation would be find in each country but that their composition and behaviour correlates would differ. The data supported these predictions. There were age differences in factor composition, but there were also consistent, age dependent, cultural differences in loading on the ability and social approval factors. The great importance of the leadership item in the United States is not limited to Ewing's data.

Although evidence on sports-specific achievement orientation is limited, some literature suggests that athletes should be higher than non athletes on both general and specific achievement orientation. In their work with multidimensional WOFO, Spence and Helmreich (1983) reported that
athletes were higher than general college students on achievement scores, especially higher on competitiveness.

Roberts (1984) argued that sport is perhaps the most important achievement domain for adolescents to gain peer approval, cited Duda’s (1981, 1985b, 1986b) findings that both male and female high school subjects generally prefer to succeed in sports than in classroom. However, Whitehead, (1987) found the opposite perspective that success in academic work was perceived to be more important than in sports in a sample of 413 subjects aged 13 to 16 years.

Nicholls (1984a, 1984b, 1989; Nicholls and Miller, 1984) considers that the ability orientation or ego-involved goal prospective is a conception based on social normative comparison, where the task involved perspective is self-referenced. Nicholls’s theory proposes a relationship between ego-oriented goals and lack of persistence when perceived ability is low. In these circumstances individual whose goal is to demonstrate superiority, and who conclude that they cannot do so, may eventually dropout to avoid exposing low ability.

Nicholls (1984a, 1984b, 1989) is concerned with the relationship between two implicit goal orientation, task orientation and ego orientation, and subsequently achievement beliefs and behaviours. The two orientation are theorised to reflect two distinct ways in which success and failure are subjectively defined and ways in which one judges demonstrated competence.
Task orientation operates when the individual’s actions are primarily motivated by personal improvement, personal mastery, or personal achievement of higher perceived ability. Success and failure are subjectively defined by the individual’s self-referenced perception of his or her performance. Ego orientation is characterised by actions that are primarily motivated to demonstrated normative competence. Success and failure are most generally judged by comparison with the performance of other.

Miller (1985) found a lack of persistence in achievement task among subjects who had the adult conception of ability as capacity, but not among younger subjects. If Nicholls' model generalizes to sport, children who have not developed the adult conception of ability should feel no need to dropout in order to avoid failure. There would be much more children in younger samples so behavioural correlates of achievement orientation should differ in samples of different ages. Specifically, there should be weaker relationship between ability-oriented comparative goals and alteration in middle school subjects than upper school subjects.

Vealey's (1986) COI is a sport-specific measure of competitive orientation. However, the two measures differ in many ways. Although the SOQ was conceptually based in the achievement orientation literature, particularly the work of Spence and Helmreich (1978,1983), the specific items and dimensions emerged through psychometric analysis. Vealey based her constructs and COI measure on Nicholls (1984) task-ego orientation
distinction and designed the COI to assess two specific competitive orientation. The orientation towards performing well and winning. Previous work also suggest gender difference, with male being more competitive and non oriented than females. Spance and Helmreich typically find males scoring higher than females on competitiveness, but do not find consistent gender difference on the other achievement dimensions. Previous work with the SOQ (Gill, 1986; Gill and Deeter) consistently yields strong gender differences, males scoring higher than females on competitiveness and win orientation but not on goal orientation.

An important sub question is weather athletes are particularly win or goal oriented as compared to non-athletes. Certainly popular wisdom suggests that successful athletes are highly win oriented, however, some sport psychology research and many of our applied interventions suggest that a performance orientation is more appropriate. In her initial work on sport confidence, Vealey (1986) proposed that performance orientation was associated with greater control and confidence and thus greater athletic success.

Duda (1986); Duda and Allison, (1982); Hayashi and Weiss, (1994) examined differences in definitions of success and failure, achievement goals, and perceived ability between Anglo-American and African American, Hispanic American and Navajo athletes. Anglo-American (especially males) were found to define success and failure through an ego goal orientation. In
contrast, African-American, Hispanic-American and Navajo athletes defined success and failure through a task goal orientation.

Gill and Deeter (1986) extended their approach by developing a sports specific measure of achievement orientation known as sports specific measure of achievement orientation known as sport orientation questionnaire (SOQ) in contrast to SCAT. The SOQ not only a sport specific but also approaches achievement orientation as a multidimensional construct. They reported that a series of exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis revealed of consistent, logical three-factor structure across three separate samples. Alpha reliability coefficients and test and retest correlation indicated that the three sub scales of competitiveness (The desire to enter and strive for success in sport competition), Win Orientation (a focus on interpersonal standard and winning), and goal orientation (a focus in personal standards) were internally consistent and stable over time. Finally, they reported evidence for the validity of the SOQ, as their competitiveness measure consistently differentiated student in competitive classes from those in non-competitive classes and competitive sport participants from non-participants. The task and ego orientation in sport questionnaire (TEOSO) for was developed to assess peoples proneness for task and ego involvement in the athletic contest

Duda (1989b, 1992) premise that individual can hold different orientations to achievement and focus on different goals in sport (and this such differences can be measured ) is not unique for example Vealey (1986)
developed the competitive orientation inventory (COI) to assess individual differences in the tendency to focus on planning well versus winning in sport.

Gill & Deeter's (1988) sports orientation questionnaire, achievement orientation or a person's degree of competitiveness, win orientation and goal orientation how some important conceptual distinctions. However, between these three instruments the constructs of Task and ego orientation as assessed by the TEOSQ, are not equivalent to the individual differences determined by the COI or the SOQ. Recent research has supported the relevance of differences in goal orientation to the investigation of behavioural variation in athletic settings. Further studies have found that individual differences in goal orientation have been formed to relate to attitude toward sportsmanship and aggression (Duda, Olson and Templin, 1991; Huston And Duda, 1992).

Hall and Byrne (1988) suggested that to more accurately assess the motivational effect of goals on performance, the potential for social comparison and competition needs to be reduced.

Vealey (1988) confirmed that athletes were more performance oriented than outcome oriented and also those females were more performance oriented than males. Vealey also compared high school, college, and elite athletes and observed that the difference between performance and outcome orientation increased with level. That is, elite athletes were the most performance oriented and least outcome oriented.
Gill and Dzewaltowski (1988) used both SOQ and COI with athletes and non-athletes. Athletes were higher than non-athletes on all three SOQ scores and slightly more performance oriented, with competitiveness being the major discriminator. They also reported considerable variation among different teams on competitive orientation. And Vealey (1988) reported that elite athletes were more performance oriented than college and high school athletes. Reference to the previous research of Gill, Vealey and their colleagues, expected gender differences, with males scoring higher on competitiveness and win/outcome orientation and female scoring higher on goal/performance orientation. Also expected athletes to score higher than non-athletes on all three-sport orientation questionnaire (SOQ) scores and on competitive orientation inventory (COI) performance orientation.

The task and ego orientation in sport questionnaire (TEOSO) was developed to assess people's proneness for task and ego involvement in the athletic contest.

Duda and Allison (1990) constructed a comparative analysis of achievement motivation characteristics in Anglo-American and Japanese marathon runners. Multivariate 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 on achievement motivation indicators among
competitive sport participants, leading support for the notion that cultural factors should be considered more frequently in sport motivation.

Kang, Gill, Acevede and Deeter (1990) found that Taiwanese male athletes and non-athletes were more competitive in their goal orientation than Taiwanese female athletes and non-athletes. Despite these initial efforts, it is imperative that socio-cultural factors be considered more frequently in future sport psychology research.

Smith, Smoll and Schultz (1990) revealed that sports participants higher in ego orientation than task orientation were more likely to experience concentration disruption prior to or during performance and believed that taking an illegal advantage, such as blood doping, would lead to success in sport. In general, women were more task oriented than men, and reported worrying and being somatically anxious prior to or during competition. The high school athletes were more ego oriented than inter collegiate athletes. Furthermore, compared to inter collegiate male and high school female athletes, college age recreational males believed that exerting efforts were essential for achieving sports success.

Markus and Kitayama (1991) amplified the need for more cross-cultural research. They identified the existence of cultural differences in an individual's perception or view of the self, of others, and the inter dependence of the two. Specifically, differences were found in the perceptions of the self among individuals from Western (Anglo) and Eastern (Japanese) cultural perspective.
The western perspective was identified as an independent view and the eastern perspective as an interdependent view of the self.

Byrne (1991) also found leadership to be the major ability-oriented item in a United States sample of 334 soccer players aged 8 to 17 years. The results were in accordance with Machr and Nicholls’s (1980) view that common classes of goals would be recognisable world-wide although with varying emphasis in different cultures. They indicate some differences in interpretation of the achievement orientation in Britain and United States.

A study by Duda, Olson and Templin (1991) gave more weight to the argument that motivation may influence sportsmanship orientation and that an emphasis on winning may lead to unsportsman conduct. These authors issued Nicholls’s (1984) perspective on achievement motivation to examine the relationship between attitudes towards sportsmanship and two motivational orientations, namely, task and ego orientation. Duda et al (1991) found that low task and high ego-oriented high school athletes more readily approved unsportsmanship conduct (e.g., cheating) in order to win.

A consensus has recently emerged on important role that school based physical education can play in promoting active lifestyles in children and adolescents (Sallis and Mckenzie, 1991). The positive effective experience derived from physical activity during childhood and adolescence may increase the likelihood of engagement in active lifestyles in adulthood (Haywood, 1991). Therefore, studying psychological factors that are likely to determine
youngster affective experiences, as well as the mechanisms that may underline this process, has the potential to assist in structuring physical activity programs to help children make physical activity part of their life style.

Vallerand (1991, 1994) has proposed a social-psychological approach to sportsmanship that make a number of propositions, including some that deal with the issues like sportsmanship orientations, the development of sportsmanship orientations, and display of sportsmanship behaviours. Sportsmanship orientation refers to the self perceptions internalised structures relevant to each of the sportsmanship dimensions, as well as the propensity to act in line with each orientation. Thus, athletes with a strong orientation on one-sportsmanship dimensions would generally tend to behave in the line with the relevant sportsmanship orientations. Sportsmanship development referred to the process through which the various sportsmanship orientations develop. Finally the display of sportsmanship behaviour concerns the manifestation of sportsmanship-related behaviour at one given point in time. Thus, during a game, an athlete may cheat deliberately or refuse to accept a decision made by one of the officials. Although sportsmanship orientation may influence sportsmanship behaviour, it is not only the determinant, as the social context and other type of orientations (for instance, motivational orientations) may also influence behaviour.

Hayashi and Weiss (1994) conducted a cross cultural analysis of achievement motivation among Anglo- American and Japanese marathon
runners and revealed that Anglo American reported higher level of competitiveness whereas Japanese runners possessed levels of win-orientation were defined as the desire to strive for success in sports strive achievement situations and desire to win in interpersonal competitions in sport.

Swain and Hardward (1996) examined the main and interactive effect of variety of individual and situational variables by means of moderate hierarchical regression analysis. Result of these analysis revealed by main effects as well as significant interaction between the individual situational predictors of the different goal types in this case social perceptions and race-specific criteria was the major predictor of age involvement. In contrast, the interaction of individual and situated variables predicted the intensity of task involvement.

Sarrazin et al (1996) have shown that a task goal orientation has been positively associated with the belief that athletic ability is incremental and determined by learning, and an ego orientation has been associated with the conception of ability as a "gift" (i.e., relatively stable). Hence, even after a perceived failure on a task, task oriented individuals would be more likely to attribute an outcome to personality controllable reasons because the belief predominates in such individuals that low level of perceived ability cannot prevent them from improving their skills in the long term, if high effort is applied consistently.
Kavussanu and Robert (1996) report that sample of college students enrolled in a beginning tennis class, specifically, they found that, for males, dispositional goal orientation and perceived motivational climate emerged as equally important predictors of intrinsic motivation, while mastery oriented motivational climate was the only significant predictors of self efficiency, in females performance oriented motivational climate was the strongest predictor of intrinsic motivation and self efficacy.

Hayashi (1996) examined the nature of individual differences and social contextual factors related to achievement motivation among Anglo-American and Hawaiian male physical activity participants. Semistructured interviews were conducted with Hawaiians (n = 5) and Anglo-American who resided in the mainland United States (n = 5) and in Hawaii (n = 5) results of content analyses revealed that all respondents defined positive and negative experiences in physical activity through task and age goal orientation and an interdependent perspective of the self. Participants perceived the weight room environment through competitive, individualistic, and cooperative goal/rewards structures. Cultural differences were also detected as Hawaiians defined positive activity experiences based on the demonstration pride and an interdependent perspective. These findings suggest the need for more cross-cultural research in sports psychology to validate theoretical constructs.

Treasure and Roberts (1998) examined the concomitants of mastery and performance oriented perceptions of the climate, and then assessed the
contribution of both type of variable in predicting 274 female adolescent athletes beliefs about the causes of success and sources of satisfaction following a week long residential basketball camp. Participants perceiving a mastery oriented climate had a stronger belief that success follows from one's own efforts and derived satisfaction from mastery experiences. Participants perceiving a performance oriented climate derived satisfaction from outperforming others, and attributed success to ability and deception. Moderated hierarchical regression analysis revealed separate main effects as well as significant interaction effects between goal orientation and perceptions of the motivational climate in predicting the participants' responses. Although, the results of the present study adds further support to the argument that mastery oriented contexts should be stressed, the findings also suggest that goal orientations, and the interaction of these two dimension of motivation must be taken into account when examining the youth sport experience.

2.3 REVIEW OF STUDIES PERTAINING TO VALUES

Values and attitudes are the guiding forces of one's behaviour. What an athlete does is not merely psycho-physical but there are various underlying social urges also which keep mobilising him in one or the other direction. It is the value system which guide him to choose a particular sports activity as his life time athletic pursuit. His preferences and priorities are based on his attitudinal learning which originate from the values prevailing in his close environment. In this sense the values function as foundations of athletic
motivation. It is interesting to note that the scientific interest in this area of research started quite lately as compared to other psycho-social aspects of athletic behaviour.

Broer and Holland (1954) found college women recognising the social values of physical activity. Examining the cross cultural influences on values Dennis (1957) found that out of American, Armenian, Arabian and Jew's children in Lebanon, the American children were rewarded with praise for performing in games and sports three times more frequently than the Arabs and Jews groups. This was mainly due to social values prevailing in the American society.

Kistler (1957) found that poorer sportsmanship attitudes were displayed by college students who had varsity experience than by non-athletes.

Cattle (1960) found physical abilities directly related to individual values, feelings and attitudes. In one of the studies carried out by Coleman (1961) he found athletic achievement as the main value orientation of American adolescents studying in high school. Keough (1962) brought out the linkage between social, physical and emotional values and physical activity.

Richardson (1962) found varsity letter winners possessing less favourable sportsmanship qualities than the non-letter winners.

The work of Cogen (1964) also reflected the influence of values as those elements which drive individuals to participate in sports. The modern Olympic
seems to have phenomenal impact on the values system of society, which has been clearly brought out in the study of Lenk (1964).

Conducting a multi-cross-national study, Kenyon (1968) reported that female adolescents perceive physical activity as an opportunity for social experience, physical fitness, aesthetic enjoyment and emotional release, while adolescents were interested in the ascetic dimension, physical challenge, the chance factor and risk-talking.

The dynamics of values in sports were studied by Webb (1969) who found the sports related value like sportsmanship getting transformed into 'win at all cost' attitude. Frost (1971) concluded that sports participation had positive influence on values of life. However, the impact was determined by the quality of leadership.

The studies of Petrie (1971), Grove and Dodder (1979) and Nixon (1979) showed that college age men were more attracted to competition and demonstration of physical skill within physical activities, while their female counterparts associated sport with social experience, fun and fair play. The different views about the personal functions of sport in reinforcing the basic values like self-discipline, fair play, respect for authority, good citizenship, individual excellence, promotion and well being of society.

After extensively reviewing the literature pertaining to values and its influence on behaviour, Gerber (1972) stated that the athletes do differ in their values from the non-athlete.
Sheehan and Alsop (1972) observed sports situations involving cooperation, competition and conflict changing attitudes and beliefs of the participants. According to their findings the sports situations not only reflected but replicated the society to which it was indigenous.

The environmental influences on values were analysed by Edwards (1973) in American set-up. He concluded that the core-value orientation in Americans is that of individual achievement through competition. This orientation gives American sports practicality, cohesion to specific values, activities and role relationship of the institutions.

As reported by Snyder (1973) the comparison between athletes and non-athletes done by several authors showed that athletes generally had better grades (Eidsmoe, 1963; Schafer and Armer, 1968), higher educational expectations and aspirations (Rehberg and Schafer, 1968; Snyder, 1969; Schafer and Rehberg, 1970; Spreitzer and Pugh, 1971) less delinquency (Schafer, 1969a; Schafer, 1969b), and greater conformity, conventionality and acceptance of school rules and traditions than non-athletes. These findings suggest that participation in inter-scholastic sports contribute to conformity with the standards of behaviour and achievement defined by authorities of school and community as important.

Spreitzer and Snyder (1975) while trying to identify the social dimension of sport in the context value orientations by asking people what they perceived the functions or consequences of sports; found that most people
perceived sports as having positive functions for both society and the individual participants.

Corbin (1976) concluded that no generalization can be made regarding the attitudes of all women in sports, but there remained clear indications that champion women basketball player were motivated to participate in physical activity for catharsis and ascetic reasons. These women had to participate in physical activity for catharsis and ascetic reasons. These women had an apparent desired for rigorous training and competition, which is much stronger than that of the women non-athletes. In addition, these women athletes sought emotional release from their participation in activity.

Uguccioni and Ballan-Tyne (1980) compared the adolescent's attitudes and sex roles for female athletic participants. The findings indicated that sex role orientation but not values were significantly different between those who participate in organised athletic programmes and those who had limited or no participation.

Maier and Lavrakas (1981) found correlation between male's attitudes about sports and various personality measures. The findings also revealed certain traditional, muscular role attitudes related to attitudes about 'winning at all costs', women in sports and physical contact sports.

Sidney et al (1983) found significant differences in the attitudes of males and females and youngster toward physical activity. Male subjects valued the aesthetic experience, health and fitness and released tension less than females.
Relative to previous studies of high school students, the elderly placed more value on the aesthetic experience, health and fitness and catharsis (female only) and less value on the pursuit of vertigo.

Spreitzer and Snyder (1983) compared the value orientations concerning sports among three sub-samples; persons randomly selected from the adult population, purposive sample of serious racquetball players and purposive sample of competitive runners. The runners and general population was found quite similarly on the aesthetic value of sports. The Racquetball players emphasise the social dimension of sports in the sense of affirming that the sports are way of getting together with friends and having a good time. They also emphasised the cathartic function of sport. The general population did not differ markedly from the active sports participants in terms of attitudes towards the general nature of sports.

After working on boarding school in England and United States. Armstrong (1984) found sports-educational setting having significant impact on the life long values that can be learning from sports. In one of the cross-cultural studies Foldesi (1984) pointed towards the existence of significant social values.

Merhautava et al (1984) analysed the social status and value orientation of Olympic sportsmen and found that top class sportsmen were conscious of the social role of sport. They ascribed the highest value to sport as to the factor
significantly contributing to the peaceful coexistence in the world and to the health education of citizens.

As reported in earlier studies Best (1985) also pointed towards sharp differences in the social values of athletes and non-athletes. The result of Onifade's (1985) study depicted that there was no relationship among attitudes, physical activity behaviour and physical activity beliefs of subjects. However, there was some relationship between some specific aspects of attitudes and physical activity behaviour and physical activity beliefs. Subjects also chose individual physical activities over dual and physical activity beliefs. Subjects also chose individual physical activities over dual and team activities.

Studying the values of college level sports, Stevenson (1985) noted the marked differences in the values of sportsmanship among junior and senior players. Usually the values and their positive impact on sports and vice-versa are reported by several authors. However, Bredemeir et al (1986) observed that involvement in sports characterised by relatively high degree of physical contact may be developmentally counter-production for most preadolescent children.

The study of Dubois (1986) revealed that the value orientation of young athletes does change temporarily and this orientation clearly differs between recreational and competitive athletes. Such values as competing, good sportsmanship, improving fitness and improving social status were highly valued by the competitive athletes than the recreational ones.
As found earlier the traditional notions of the suitability of particular sport for males and females were confirmed in the study of Colley et al (1987).

Exploring the influence of sports participation on values, Sohi (1987) concluded that the individuals irrespective of their sex and academic background perceived sports participation as developing various socially acceptable values except religiosity.

Fraleigh (1988) found values closely instrumental with physical activity experience. The influence of socio-cultural values on sports and vice-versa was clearly brought out by Depei (1990) and Ignico (1990).

In another study Sohi and Ikhoya (1990) found out the socio-cultural deterrents of female participation in sports. The prevalent cultural beliefs, values and attitudes made them hesitant to participate unlike their male counterparts.

The difference between social status value of boys and girls related to sports participation were determined by Chase and Dummer (1992).

Meek (1992) found differences in the social health and fitness areas of values between young boys and girls. Besides athletes the values maintained by coaches also (towards Olympic games) were studied by Sohi (1992). It was noted that the values did not differ between the coaches and athletes.

The study of Besevegis et al (1993) also came out with the conclusions that young peoples motives to engage in sports activities are mainly governed
by the values they maintained. The gender differences in needs and perfections related to physical activity were revealed in the study of Savage (1993).

As regards Indian research work on values there have been several attempts to investigate the values of Indian general population (Bhatnagar, 1963; Kalia, 1970; Kakkar, 1971; Desai, 1974; Dey, 1974 and Aggarwal, 1976). However, lately the behavioural scientists got interested in exploring this dimension of behaviour within the Indian athletic population also. In one of the investigations, Verma (1980) studied the values maintained by sportsmen taken from the various inter-college tournaments and camps of Inter-University competitions. The results indicated that sportsmen differed significantly from non-sportsmen in all the five values viz. economic, religious, theoretical, aesthetic and social.

Singh (1981) concluded that students who actively participated in competitive sports were doing so to achieve recognition at National and International levels. More girls than boys were found interested in adopting sports as a career. Further, differences were found between the attitudes of Rural and Urban sports participants.

Bhullar (1982) compared the attitudes of University male and female sports participants towards physical activity and found both male and female groups showed strength of attitude towards physical activity as a social experience. The only significant difference in attitudes of males and females.
towards physical activity was in the sub-domain of physical activity as a pursuit of vertigo.

Singh and Gupta (1983) concluded a study on higher secondary school students of both sexes and found male students having significantly favourable attitudes toward sports as compared to female students. The study further revealed Urban students possessing more favourable attitudes towards sports than Rural participants.

Bhullar (1984) found that students with specific personality factors were more inclined to some of the sub-domains of attitude towards physical activity.

The results of the study conducted by Gautam (1988) showed significant differences in life values between athletes and non-athletes. The findings indicated that athletes had significantly high social and aesthetic values and low religious, economic and political values as compared to their non-athletic counterparts.

Singh et al (1991) studied the modernism-traditionalism in female athletes and non-athletes. The findings revealed non-sportswomen being more modernised when compared to the sportswomen. However, urban and rural sportswomen did not differ from each other on any of the parameters of modernisation.

Mohini (1993) reported that players are significantly higher at economic, social, aesthetic, religious and theoretical values as compared to
their non-player counterparts. She also concluded that participation in sports is the significant determinant of values in life.

Sandhu and Nagi (1993) while studying cross-cultural influences on performance indicators in sports, supported the assumption that social psychological values do contribute towards the sports performance to some extent.

In another study, Singh et al (1993) investigated the social attitudes of Indian athletes and found that team game athletes desired the educational system to be more modernised. Urban and rural athletes differed significantly on the aspects of marriage and also showed differences in global attitudes. However, male and female athletes shared the same social attitudes.

Mohan et al (1994) found socio-economic status related to the value system of sports participants. The study by Singh et al (1994) revealed sharp differences between sportswomen and non-sportswomen in their value orientation.

Singh et al (1994) compared values of players and non-players and found no significant differences. However, male and femlae participants differed significantly in their value system.

Singh B. (1995) found that female athletes are more modern than male athletes on marriage, position of women and global values. Urban male athletes showing more modern outlook toward marriage, education and global values.
than rural athletes. Inter-sports differences are existed on marriage, education and global values.

The afore given review of literature on values is clearly indicative of the importance of this particular variable in the field of sports. The values seem to be different from sportsmen to non-sportsmen, male athletes/female athletes, recreational and competitive athletes and so on. The Indian research interest is gradually emerging in this area and the conclusions arrived at by the studies conducted so far in this aspect have important implications for the development of sports in this context.

The studies reviewed by the investigator in the areas of personality achievement orientation and values have amply reflected the importance, implications and directions of empirical researches being carried out in these socio-psychological aspects of sports participants. Most of the studies are of comparative nature and the results of the studies do encourage to initiate work on those lines. It is all the more required in the Indian setting as not much research work (especially on large sample and so many games and sport) has been carried out in India.