2.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of a literature review is to, as the name suggests, “review” the literature surrounding a certain topic area. The word “literature” means “sources of information” or “research.” The literature will inform you about the research that has already been conducted on your chosen subject. If you are going to propose your own study, as when writing a thesis, dissertation, or research proposal, your literature review must be relevant to the work you plan to do. A literature review is NOT an annotated bibliography. You will not start a new section each time you talk about a new work. Several works can and probably will be mentioned in the same paragraph. While an annotated bibliography only demonstrates how particular sources will be used in a study, a literature review also shows how the sources interact with each other.

A literature review is an evaluative report of studies found in the literature related to your selected area. The review should describe, summarize, evaluate and clarify this literature. It should give a theoretical basis for the research and help you determine the nature of your own research. Select a limited number of works that are central to your area rather than trying to collect a large number of works that are not as closely connected to your topic area. A literature review goes beyond the search for information and includes the identification and articulation of relationships between the literature and your field of research. While the form of the literature review may vary with different types of studies, the basic

In this chapter the study related to the problem selected are given below.

The review literature gives us a clear understanding of the term used, the methodological issues involved and the developments in historical perspectives. It also brings to light the unexplored aspect and in a way it helps in providing guidelines for carrying out the research. Achievement Motivation: Achievement motivation is described as a multidimensional construct characterized by the need to demonstrate high ability and to define success and failure in terms of goal attainment.
The goal perspective approach to the study of achievement motivation in sport psychology has been primarily based on the theoretical perspective of Nicholls (1984). Specifically, Nicholls proposed the study of achievement motivation via task and ego goals. Researchers have examined components of Nicholls' theory (1989) in the sport setting. With regard to the concept of ability, Roberts and Duda (1984) found that the demonstration of own ability was strongly related to perceptions of success and failure. Results revealed gender differences in that outcome, task difficulty attributions, and attributions to strategy.

**Gurber and Perkins (1978)**

Found women who completed in intercollegiate competition to be significantly higher on the factor F (sober) and I (though Minded) when compared to the non-participant. Williams 1978 reported that selected personality traits are frequently associated with the elite female athletics and specifically that the successful female competitor generally tends to be more assuasive dominant self sufficient independent aggressive reserve achievement oriented and have average to low emotionality then the unsuccessful female competitor.

**Evans and Quaterman (1983)**

Found that the female basketball player (Successful and Unsuccessful) scored significantly lower than the non – athlete female group. Toward the tough – minded side of the scale on factor L the unsuccessful groups of basketball players are more training.

**Nib Look (1983)**

Found that female athletes to be more energetic, enthusiastic, efficient as possessing more leadership potential and were optimistic and more extroverted.

**Chadwick (1972)**

Found that female athlete were more tough – minded dependent, subdued, and less intelligent then non – athletic females.

**Ogilvey (1971)**
Found male competitors to be facially emotional healthy person who tend towards extraversions. They were though minded, self – assertive and self confident with high capacity to endure the stress involved in high – level competitions.

**William and her associates (1970)**

Found that the male competitive racecar drivers tended to be reserved self – sufficient. Autonomous, assertive and aggressive and scored below average on affiliation and nurturance.

**Mustier (1972)**

Found college lacrosse players to significantly more reserved intelligent, assertive happy to luck and tough minded then non female athlete.

Review of Related Literature emerged as predictors of demonstrated ability for men; predictors for women involved attributions to skill and luck rather than competitive outcomes. **Ergene (2011)** studied the relationships among study habits, test anxiety, achievement motivation, and academic success in a Turkish tenth grade high school, sample consisting of 510 participants, 267 (52.4%) of whom were females and 243 (47.6%) were males. A positive relationship between study habits scores and achievement motivation level was found. No correlation was observed between achievement motivation and academic success. Test anxiety and study habits were associated positively with academic success and there was no association with achievement motivation.

**Maleki, Mohammadzadeh, SeyedAmeri & Sani (2011)**

Investigated the relationship between self-esteem and achievement motivation among successful and unsuccessful athletes in West Azerbaijan Province. Two hundred athletes were divided into two groups of successful athletes (n=100, 50 males and 50 females) and unsuccessful athletes (n=100, 50 males and 50 females). The results showed that there is a significant correlation between self-esteem and achievement motivation in both studied groups. Moreover, successful and unsuccessful athletes 30. Significantly differed in terms of self-esteem and achievement motivation so that self-esteem and achievement motivation were significantly higher in successful athletes compared to unsuccessful athletes. **Shafizadeh & Gray (2011)**
Investigated to develop the behavioral instrument for measuring the achievement motivation in sport matches. According to 5-stage behavioral measurement system, the instrument was established and was applied for Iran national soccer team among three matches. The results revealed the good validity, intra-rater, and inter-rater reliabilities for measuring motivational behaviors in sport contexts. In addition, the repeated measure analysis of variance has shown the applicability of new instrument for studying the association of achievement behaviors with successful performance, through significant differences between achievement behaviors in different matches with varied outcomes.

Sisodiya & Purashwani (2011)

Studied the relationship between achievement motivation and anxiety of inter-university level male and female shutters i.e. badminton players. For this purpose, 30 (15 males and 15 female) shutters were randomly selected as subjects, who participated in west zone inter-university badminton tournament. Findings showed no significant relationship between achievement motivations and anxiety of male and female badminton players of interuniversity level.

Yusuf (2011)

Investigated firstly, the relationship between self-efficacy, achievement motivation, and self-regulated learning strategies of undergraduate students. Secondly, educational research that investigate the relationship between self-efficacy, achievement motivation, and self regulated learning strategies applying the structural equation modeling (SEM) in Malaysia seems to be very limited. Three hundred undergraduate students participated in the study using the Confirmatory Factor Analysis to answer the research Question: Is there any correlation between self-efficacy beliefs, achievement motivation, and self-regulated learning strategies of the UKM undergraduate students? Empirically, the CFA results indicated that there was a considerable correlation between self-efficacy beliefs, achievement motivation, and self-regulated learning strategies.

Rathee & Singh (2011)

Focused to examine the levels of achievement motivation, emotional and social adjustment among international and national players of basketball, hockey and
handball games. International players had higher levels of achievement motivation as compared to the National level. No significant gender differences were noticed on this construct. Among female players, handball group was better than basketball group on achievement motivation.

**Kumar & Deepla (2011)**

Studied to find out the level of achievement motivation among individual game sportsperson and team game sportsperson. The sample for the study consists of 100 individual game player and 100 team game players those who have participated in the inter college tournaments of Osmania University, Hyderabad. It was found the individual game players were having more achievement motivation than team game players.

**Kumar & Kalidasan (2011)**

Studied to compare the sports achievement motivation level between Tamil Nadu and Karnataka fresher and experienced ball badminton players. For the study eighty ball badminton players from Tamil Nadu state and eighty ball badminton players from Karnataka state were randomly selected as subjects. Among eighty ball badminton players, forty fresher’s each from Tamil Nadu and Karnataka state were selected. The age of the selected subjects ranged from 18 to 24 years. Result revealed a significant difference between Tamil Nadu and Karnataka ball badminton players on sports achievement motivation and also found significant difference between fresher’s and experienced ball badminton players on sports achievement motivation. Further it revealed 33 Review of Related Literature that there was no significant difference between Tamil Nadu and Karnataka fresher’s and experienced ball badminton players on sports achievement motivation.

**Conroy & Pincus (2011)**

Conducted two studies to evaluate relations between different forms of achievement motivation and transactional interpersonal impact messages during a dyadic puzzle-solving task. In Study 1, 400 college students received no formal competence feedback during the task. In Study 2, competence feedback was manipulated for 600 college students and used to create high-, low-, and mixed-status dyads. Expectancies of success had robust actor and partner effects on submission in
both studies. Competence valuation was linked with communal partner effects in Study 1 and a generalized interpersonal sensitivity in Study 2. When competence was ambiguous, approach and avoidance achievement motives exhibited affectively driven actor and partner effects consistent with their roots in pride and shame, respectively; however, when competence was established formally, motives had more cognitively driven effects on person perception and behavior (e.g., rejection sensitivity). Collectively, these findings highlight the importance of the achievement motivation system for organizing interpersonal impact messages during competence pursuits.

**Khan, Haider & Ahmed (2011)**

Investigated the effects of gender differences on achievement motivation of university badminton players. The study was based on interuniversity level players who participated in north zone interuniversity badminton tournament held at Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh India. The result of the study showed that there was no significant difference between male and female badminton players on achievement motivation.

**Khan, Haider, Ahmed & Khan (2011)**

Explored the relationship of sports achievement motivation and sports competition anxiety among intervarsity badminton players. The total sample consisted of twenty players age ranged from 17 to 25 years for the study. They found that there was a negative relationship between achievement motivation and sports competition anxiety among badminton players.

**Reddy & Singh (2010)**

Studied the sports achievement motivation as a psychological differential among sports achievers, non achievers and non participants female tribal. They selected 450 female tribal as a subject for the study. Their findings of the study revealed that sports achievers were high in sports achievement motivation in comparison to non achievers and non participants. Non achievers were moderate and non participants were low in sports achievement motivation.

**Singh, Ahmed & Hussain (2010)**
Investigated the sports achievement motivation of male and female badminton players, for the purpose of the study they recruited 140 (70 male & 70 female) badminton players from north zone intervarsity badminton championship. Their results of the study showed no significant difference between male and female badminton players in their level of sports achievement motivation.

Ali (2010)
Examined the relationship of sports achievement motivation with the performance of the badminton players, they selected 80 male badminton players (40 high performers & 40 low performers) for the purpose of their study from north zone intervarsity badminton championship. They found insignificant difference between high and low performers in relation to the sports achievement motivation.

Ali, Hussain, & Rahaman (2010)
Compared the level of aggression and sports achievement motivation between junior and senior Manipur national hockey players. The subject of their study was 50 male hockey players from Manipur state. They found insignificant difference between junior and senior national hockey players of Manipur in regard to sports achievement motivation and sports aggression.

Khan, Khan & Ahmed (2010)
Investigated the level of achievement motivation of Asian players, they used twenty one Asian players as a subject for their study. The results of their study revealed that 57.14% Asian players had high level, 9.52% had moderate level and 33.33% players had low level of achievement motivation.

Badawy, Al-Anani & El-Sayed (2010)
Established an achievement motivation scale for the sport for all specialists. The researchers have used descriptive method on a sample consisting of 78 specialists 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.

**Kannur, Reddy & Reddy (2010)**

Investigated to compare the academic achievement motivation and aggression among M. P. Ed and M. Ed students. 60 men and women of M. P. Ed and M. Ed students were constituted as the sample. The Results revealed that achievement motivation was more developed amongst M. P. Ed students as compared to M. Ed students.

**Mishra (2010)**

Conducted a study on anxiety, aggression and achievement motivation of university kho-kho players. The study was delimited to the male Kho-Kho players of three universities (B.H.U., V.B.S.P.U., Jaunpur and M.G.K.V.P., Varanasi with age ranging from 18-25years and was further delimited to three psychological variables i.e. anxiety, aggression and achievement motivation. In relation to achievement motivation the sequence of performance of all the three universities was M.G.K.V.P., Varanasi, V.B.S.P.U., Jaunpur, B.H.U., Varanasi. Mudimela (2010) studied the impact of level of participation on psychological factors such as aggression, anxiety, achievement 38 motivations and performance. Six hundred and twenty-five soccer players representing three different levels that is, inter-university, inter-district, inter-collegiate, constituted the sample of the study. Significant differences were found among three levels of participation with regard to aggression achievement motivation and performance only. Aggression and achievement motivation contributed significantly to performance whereas anxiety is found to have negative impact on the performance.

**Dureha, Singh, Yaduvanshi & Mishra (2010)**

Studied to compare the status of national and international hockey players on the selected psychological variables. Sixty male hockey players of India divided into two groups national (n=30) and international (n=30). The age range of the subjects was 17–25 years. They found insignificant difference in incentive motivation, achievement motivation, state anxiety and trait anxiety between national and
international hockey players and significant difference was found in sports competition anxiety.

**Hotaman & Yuksel-Sahin (2010)**

`Analyzed university students’ level of achievement motivation in terms of instructors’ enthusiasm and some variables such as gender, grade level, academic achievement, course attendance, and the dependence of students’ course attendance upon the instructor’s enthusiasm.

The study was conducted with 334 university students. The results of their study revealed that the students who perceived high instructor enthusiasm had a significantly higher level of achievement motivation when compared to the students who perceived low instructor enthusiasm. The level of achievement motivation was significantly higher among female students than males. The students who regularly attended classes had significantly higher levels of achievement motivation than the absentees. The students who stated their regular attendance depended on the instructors’ enthusiasm had significantly had higher levels of achievement motivation when compared to the students stating that their regular attendance did not depend on the instructors’ enthusiasm. The achievement motivation levels were significantly higher among the students with high academic achievement than those with low achievement. The students with higher grade levels had significantly higher levels of achievement motivations than those lower grade levels.

**Kumar & Chandrappa (2010)**

Studied the effect of socio-cultural deprivation on achievement motivation among sportsmen and non sportsmen. There are 100 students out of which 50 are sportsmen and 50 are non-sportsmen. The non-sportsmen were selected from other general education students. Socio-cultural deprivation was the major variable of the study. The sample was administered deprivation scale and categorized in to two groups of deprivation on whom the achievement motivation inventory was administered to assess the level of achievement motivation. The sample was also divided equally in to two groups of domicile-urban and rural. The following standardized scale/inventories were used: (a) Personal data Schedule (Bio data) (b) Socio-cultural Deprivation scale and (c) Achievement Motivation inventory. The following statistical methods were used in the following study: The mean, Standard
Deviation and t-test. There is a significant difference in the achievement motivation level between the high and low deprived groups: Low deprived sample has higher achievement motivation level than the high deprived. Achievement motivation level is significantly higher in the sample of sportsmen than the non-sportsmen. Urban Students have significantly higher achievement motivation than the rural students.

**Schorer, Baker, Lotz & Busch (2010)**

Examined relationships among achievement motivation, relative age and size of one's early developmental environment (i.e., as reflected in population) in predicting attainment in a national talent program (i.e., being nominated for advancement in the program). Results indicated no consistent differences in achievement motivation among athletes who were nominated and those who were not.

**Khan, Haider & Ahmed (2010)**

Explored the difference of achievement motivation between university level male and female basketball players. Their study consisted of 24 basketball players from Aligarh Muslim University who participated in the interuniversity basketball tournament. They divided the sample into two groups namely, male (12) and female (12). They found insignificant difference between male and female players on the variable of achievement motivation.

**Singh & Khan (2010)**

Compared sports achievement motivation between male and female of physical education. For the purpose of the study 20 students (Male =10 and Female =10) were recruited as subjects. The age of the subjects ranged between 20 to 25 years. Results indicated insignificant difference between male and female on their sports achievement motivation.

**Ahmadi, Namazizadeh, Abdoli, & Seyed (2009)**

Studied achievement motivation and its subscales (competitiveness, win orientation and goal orientation) between soccer players of high and low ranking teams in super league of Iran. Participants were 115 players that divided in two groups; 57 players from first to third final ranking as high teams and 58 players from
last three ranking position as low teams. The results revealed that there were no significant differences between soccer players of high and low ranking teams on achievement motivation, competitiveness, and goal orientation, but there was significant difference between players of high and low ranking teams on win orientation.

**Mansour & Martin (2009)**

Investigated the achievement motivation of high school students, in the context of parental and home factors such as home resources, in-and out-of-home parental assistance, parenting style, and parental involvement in the school. Results demonstrated that over and above demographic factors such as age, gender and ethnicity, home and parental factors do indeed play a critical function in predicting student motivation and engagement. Specifically, the study revealed that home resources and parenting style were the most salient home and parental factors associated with key aspects of achievement motivation and engagement (planning, task management, teacher-student relationships-positively, and self-handicapping- negatively).

**Murcia, Villodre, Galindo, Gimeno & Perez (2008)**

Studied on “Motivation, disciplined behavior, equal treatment and dispositional flow in physical education students” and analyzed the possible relations between dispositional goal orientations, perceived motivational climate, discipline, coeducation and the flow state in physical education students. The sample consists of 1,103 students with an average age of 14.

The results show that task orientation is related to discipline, the perception of equal treatment, the task-involving motivational climate, ego orientation and the flow state in a positive and significant manner, while it is related to indiscipline and the ego-involving motivational climate in a negative manner. They obtained a relation between the different dispositional goal orientations and the different motivational climates perceived by students in physical education classes, so that task orientation is related positively and significantly with the perception of a task-involving motivational climate and, in contrast, ego orientation is related positively and significantly with the perception of an ego-involving motivational climate.
Thakur & Mohan (2008)

Assessed the personality traits, anxiety and achievement motivation level of volleyball players and non-sportsmen. The study conducted on 360 samples, consisting of 120 inter-college level volleyball players, 120 inter-varsity level of volleyball players and 120 non-sportsmen of different colleges and universities of north India. The result of the study indicated that achievement motivation level of high performance groups was better than non-sportsmen.

Kaur, Sharma & Dureha (2007)

Studied to find out the relationship between achievement motivation and pre-competition anxiety among inter university hockey players. 50 male hockey players who participated in the All India Interuniversity Hockey Championship 2007 held at Banaras Hindu University, Varanasi were randomly selected for this study. Their age ranged between 18 years to 25 years. Finding of the study revealed that there was a significant relationship between achievement motivation and pre-competition anxiety of interuniversity level male hockey players and there was a significant difference in the level of achievement motivation of high pre-competition anxiety group and low pre-competition anxiety group of interuniversity level male hockey players.

Yadav, Tripathi & Dutt (2007)

Studied to analyze and determine the level of achievement motivation and factors influencing sports career of badminton. 96 male university badminton players representing their university teams qualifying from different zonal badminton tournaments to participate in the All India Inter-Zonal University Badminton Tournament held at Nagarjuna University, Guntur (A.P.) were selected to serve as subjects for this study. The age of the subjects ranged from 18 to 25 years. To identify factors as perceived to influencing the sports career of subjects, inventory of factors influencing sports career by Kamlesh and Sharma was used consisting of 20 statements covering internal and external factors in such a manners that the response to one statement relating to a particular factor is substantiated by the responses to a similar statement elsewhere and to determine the need of achievement motivation in performance the sports achievement motivation questionnaire by Kamlesh was
administered consisting of 20 items and each item has two answers. Each statement has a maximum 2 points as the responses value. Analysis of descriptive data on achievement motivation and factors influencing sports career indicate that All India Inter University male badminton players have moderate achievement motivation level (27.9), showed moderate dependence on internal factors on internal factors (27.53) and poor dependence on external factors (17.067) influencing sports career. The comparison between the means of internal (27.53) and external (17.067) factors indicate that All India University badminton players are more internally controlled than the external factors influencing sports career as perceived by male university badminton players.

**Unierzyski (2003)**

Investigated the level of achievement motivation of young tennis players and their future progress and examine the influence of achievement motivation on tennis performance he has taken the 185 tennis players for the study and divided the players into two groups: (Group A), players who eventually reached international level at the age of 18-20 years, and (Group B) players who never reached international. He found in his study that the players who later reached international level in tennis possessed significantly higher level of achievement motivation than the players who never reached international level.

**Morgan & Carpenter (2002)**

Task orientation is associated with the use of an equivalent conception of ability, where effort is seen to equal the term ability. In contrast, ego orientation is associated with the use of a differentiated conception of ability, where effort is not associated with and a focus where little effort to enhance social status are combined.

**Andrew & Thrash (2002)**

Examined the role of approach and avoidance motivation in models of personality. Specifically, it examined the hypothesis that approach and avoidance temperaments represent the foundation of several basic dimensions espoused in the trait adjective, affective disposition, and motivational system approaches to personality. In the study they focused exclusively on the achievement domain in linking temperaments to goals. Achievement and affiliation arguably represent the two most central domains in which daily life is experienced, and subsequent empirical
efforts would do well to additionally examine the link between approach and avoidance temperaments and approach and avoidance affiliation goals.

**Tod & Hodge (2001)**

Examined the relationship between moral reasoning and achievement motivation in sport. Eight male under-21 year old rugby union players were interviewed three times across a six-month rugby season. During these interviews individuals were presented with a series of four moral dilemmas and were asked open-ended questions with regard to their moral reasoning and achievement goals in each dilemma. Results revealed that an individual achievement goal orientation profile appeared to influence the level of moral reasoning used.

**Fontayne, Sarrazin & Famose (2001)**

Studied culture and achievement motivation in sports between maghrebian and European French adolescents in their qualitative comparative study they composed 202 samples (142 European students and 60 maghrebian) and observed that sport is the most important social domain of achievement for their sample of French teenagers. They chose to situate their essays more within the framework of sport activities than in school or in other social domains such as leisure activities, music, or painting.

Alderman (1999) added to the achievement theories, “Ability and effort have typically been found to be the most frequent reasons for success and failure in achievement contexts”. “Ability and self-worth are often seen by students as synonymous. It is ability, often in the absence of accomplishment that defines self-worth for them. For students who believe success is unlikely, the main priority is to avoid failure that is linked or attributed to ability through the use of failure-avoiding strategies”. He continues, “Personal experience is one of the most influential sources of efficacy information. It follows then that successes tend to raise efficacy expectations – whereas failures tend to lower them” Atkinson (1999) showed a percentage of students will work hard to achieve a task they do not enjoy, solely to maintain their high grade point average or high class rank. This reflects back on the student’s attitude toward success. Those students who hold a high attitude of success work hard to achieve success, regardless of the task. High achievement motivation and high achievement may be associated with normal perfectionism.
Elliot & Sheldon (1997)

Investigated one antecedent and various consequences of pursuing avoidance personal achievement goals over the course of a semester. They highlight the need to attend to avoidance, as well as approach, forms of self-regulation and the need to consider both motive disposition and goal constructs in accounting for competence-related behavior. They consisted of 135 participants (51 men and 85 women) of University of Rochester undergraduates in a personality psychology class in return for extra credit. The mean age of participants was 20, with a range of 17 to 48. After the study they found that avoidance achievement goals was associated with low perceptions of competence during the semester, and this low perceived competence had negative implications for achievement-relevant and general well-being outcomes at the end of the semester.

Hayashi (1996)

Approached achievement motivation from a cross-cultural perspective and found that Hawaiian and Anglo-American weightlifters defined positive experiences in physical activity through task and ego goal orientations. Participants displaying a task goal orientation experienced feelings of success and pleasure based on individual improvement, mastery of weight training skills, and personal achievement. Success for ego-involved subjects was related to winning and a positive perception of oneself in public. Results of the study also revealed additional components of achievement motivation such as an interdependent perspective for members of the Anglo American and Hawaiian cultures. In this perspective, participants desired to be connected to others and to conform to group norms and portrayed commitment to others. Specifically,

Hayashi (1996)

Reported that 50 members of the Hawaiian culture defined positive experiences as "the demonstration of pride and harmony within a specific in group (family, weight training partners)". Keefe & Jenkins (1993) found that extrinsically motivated individuals are those who participate to receive a reward or avoid a punishment, they typically do not want to do the task and believe that it is out of their control on whether they succeed or not. If they do the
task, they expect some sort of gain other than knowledge, such as praise, rewards, or avoiding punishment. Duda & Nicholls (1992) examined achievement motivation

**Duda & Nicholls (1992)**

Examined achievement motivation characteristics across schoolwork and sport. They found that in both domains ego-involved goals were related to the belief that success requires high ability, while task orientations were related to beliefs about the importance of interest, effort, and peer collaboration for success. Differences occurred in relationships involving satisfaction and boredom. In the classroom, satisfaction and boredom were related to personal goal orientations, while in sport they were related to perceptions of ability.

**Slade & Rush (1991)**

Investigated the Achievement Motivation and the Dynamics of Task Difficulty Choices they collected their data from 162 subjects and divided them into two groups positively motivated and 51 negatively motivated. They found that positively motivated subjects and negatively motivated subjects did not differ in initial task difficulty choices. Both groups shifted to more difficult tasks over time, but this linear trend interacted with achievement motive group, with positively motivated subjects shifting faster. Quadratic and cubic trends in task difficulty choices were also observed. Periodic interruptions attenuated achievement group differences in average task difficulty choices.

**Parker & Johnson (1981)**

Described that an individuals’ achievement motive may be seen as a personality trait. Each person has different degrees of achievement motivation. High achievers may be classified as driven, striving for success, competitive, or taking charge. Low achievers may be seen as quitters, non-participants, or failures. Each person approaches each situation with a unique combination of several achievement motives. These achievement motives are shaped by significant interactions in a child’s early developmental years. They are learned motives, shaped by play, experience, and rewards or consequences for actions or behaviors. It is at this time when parents, role
models, and teachers can have the greatest impact on the child’s habits and values about achievement motivation.

**Haasen & Shea (1979)**

Stated “If we accept the notion of intrinsic motivation, it implies that there is a powerful potential for self – actualization within each of us”. This potential is based on the intensity of our need to achieve, as well as our enjoyment of achieving. Students who are intrinsically motivated participate in learning activities for their own sake; they desire the outcome. They do not need rewards or praise; they find satisfaction in knowing that what they are learning will be beneficial later. They want to master the task, and they believe it is under their control to achieve mastery.

**Butler & Parasuraman (1977)**

Studied on “Degree of uniformity of achievement motivation levels of team members: its effect on team performance in a simulation game” the study consisted of 85 undergraduate students enrolled in a junior-level management course at Indiana University. They were divided into 16 teams (each having either 5 or 6 members) for participating in a management simulation game called INTOP [5], which was a major component of the course. The study results seem to indicate that the differences in team composition, based on the achievement motivation levels of team members, do not contribute much to the dynamics of team behavior that may have a bearing on team performance. 53 Review of Related Literature

**Latta (1974)** postulated that the intended effort of the task also plays a part in achievement motivation. If the individual has related experiences or abilities in doing the task, the amount of intended effort to complete the task will be low, and the chances for a positive outcome are increased. Latta continues that if the individual has no experiences or ability, then the intended effort is great, and the chances for a positive outcome are decreased.

**Atkinson & Feather (1966)** stated that a person’s achievement oriented behavior is based on three parts: the first part being the individual’s predisposition to achievement, the second part being the probability of success, and third, the individual’s perception of value of the task. They state, “The strength of motivation to perform some act is assumed to be a multiplicative function of the strength of the
motive, the expectancy (subjective probability) that the act will have as a consequence the attainment of incentive, and the value of the incentive. Emotional Intelligence:

Kajbafnezhad, Ahadi, Heidarie, Askari & Enayati (2011) investigated the difference between team and individual sports with respect to psychological skills, overall emotional intelligence and athletic success motivation in Shiraz city athletes. 400 male athletes (247 individual and 54 Review of Related Literature 153 team sports) were selected for the study. The findings of their study showed that there was significant difference between the two groups (individual and team sports) in terms of psychological skills and motivation of athletic success but there wasn’t significant difference between the two groups (individual and team sports) with respect to overall emotional intelligence.

Akomolafe (2011) investigated the influence of emotional intelligence and gender on occupational stress among secondary school teachers. An ex-post facto design was used to gather 392 usable copies of the questionnaires from secondary school teachers working in Ondo state. They found significant difference between the occupational stress of secondary school teachers with low and those with high emotional intelligence. There was no significant difference between the occupational stress experienced by male and female secondary school teachers.

Lane, Devonport, Soos, Karsai, Leibinger & Hamar (2010) investigated relationships between self-report measures of emotional intelligence and memories of pre-competitive emotions before optimal and dysfunctional athletic performance. They found that pleasant emotions associated with optimal performance and unpleasant emotions associated with 55 Review of Related Literature dysfunctional performance. Emotional intelligence correlated with pleasant emotions in both performances with individuals reporting low scores on the self-report emotional intelligence scale appearing to experience intense unpleasant emotions before dysfunctional performance.

Narimani & Basharpoor (2009).
“Compared attachment styles and emotional intelligence between athlete women (collective and individual sports) and non-athlete women”. Statistical population of this study is comprised of all 250 athlete women (of both collective and individual sport who were exercising in the sport saloons of Ardabil city (Iran) within first 6 months of 2008. All non-athlete women of Ardabil in this age range were the normal population of this survey. Of this statistical population, 30 athletes of collective and 30 athletes of individual sports and 30 of non-athlete women were selected with simple random sampling. Emotional intelligence of collective sports’ athletes is higher than individual sports and it is higher in the individual sports than non-athlete persons.

Lane, Thelwell, Lowther, & Devonport (2009) investigated emotional intelligence and psychological skills. It was postulated that emotional intelligence and psychological skills could associate because they both 56 Review of Related Literature relate to successful performance and emotional regulation. A key finding of the investigation was that psychological skills were associated with appraisal of other emotions and the ability to regulate these emotions. For example, self-talk associated significantly with appraisal of own emotions. Therefore, results show that participants who utilize psychological skills also reported stronger perceptions of emotional intelligence. Thus, it is argued that strong perceptions of emotional intelligence lead participants to utilize psychological skills because they will recognize the importance of regulating and managing emotion.

Saklofske (2007) studied relationship between emotional intelligence, personality and exercise; they recruited 497 Canadian undergraduates as a sample for their study. The results of their study showed that there is significant difference between emotional intelligence of athlete and non-athlete persons. Also, results of this survey showed that level of interpersonal intelligence that is a component of emotional intelligence, is higher in the athletes of collective sport than individual ones.

Villanueva & Sanchez (2007) investigated the relationship of trait emotional intelligence, leadership self-efficacy and leader’s task self efficacy with collective task efficacy and group performance. They found that task self-efficacy was a mediator between leadership self-efficacy and collective task efficacy; the latter, in
turn, was the best predictor of group performance. No significant relationship was found between trait emotional intelligence and collective task efficacy although, unexpectedly, trait emotional intelligence was positively associated with leadership self-efficacy.

**Parveen & Iqbal (2007)** examined the differences between female and male athletes of Hyderabad city with respect to their emotional intelligence. For the purpose of the study they used 70 male and 70 female athletes as a sample. After the completion of the study they found that female athletes are more emotionally intelligent than the male part of the population.

**Brown & Schutte (2006)** examined the direct and indirect relationships between emotional intelligence and subjective fatigue. One hundred sixty seven university students were recruited for the purpose of study. They found that higher emotional intelligence was associated with less fatigue. The psychosocial variables depression, anxiety, optimism, internal health locus of control, amount of social support, and satisfaction with social support each partially mediated between emotional intelligence and fatigue. Additionally, sleep quality partially mediated between emotional intelligence and fatigue. 5 Sports psychology is relatively a younger field of enquiry and understanding. Although sports get their meaning and relevance only in a human environment, yet human understanding of sports remained casual and entertainment based. It is only in the recent past that people began to ask whether athletes, sportsmen, gymnasts, mountaineers, swimmers and others are born or made whether it is a gift of nature or a skill, trained and sharpened through an instructional modal.

Personality is a psychological question. Here we are not concerned with trainability or giftedness in sports, but how for sports condition personality dynamism. There is no personality except the one that expresses itself in a social milieu. In fact personality is largely a social phenomenon. Any and perhaps every social activity must be a personality activity as well. A relevant question can, therefore, be asked to what extent sports are related with the personality make up of the players, in other words is there any generalization possible to lay down a list of personality traits meaningfully, connected with sports in general.

[41]
A survey of related literature shows that personality question can be related with sports in a number of ways. There are traits specific to particular games. Sex variation has remained the research issue with many researchers. The scholars have attended classy-room achievements of sportsmen and yet others have investigated basic personality differences in sportsmen and non-sportsmen.

In this chapter an attempt has been made to have a brief mention of all these different modes of interest in the field. The following account will make our point clear.

**Debnath and Bawa (1986)**

Revealed that a significant difference exists in sports competitive anxiety between junior and senior cyclists as well as between junior and senior gymnasts.

**Uppal and Gill (1986)** revealed that highly skilled male badminton players were more suspicious, neither less intelligent nor more intelligent and neither tough-minded nor tender minded as compared to poorly skilled badminton players who were less intelligent, tough-minded and neither trusting nor suspicious. Singh (1986) found athletic group to be more extravert than the hockey group, Shrestha (1983) investigated long jumpers and basket ballers to compare their intellectual level revealed that basket ballers were better in immediate memory and discriminatory power, Giridhar & Usha (1981) found that the table tennis and badminton teams possess similar personality characteristics except on a few factors viz., B, I and O, as the 16 PF Questionnaire in which the differences were found to be significant.

**Williams (1978)** reported that the successful female competitor generally tended to be more assertive, dominant, self-sufficient, independent aggressive reserved and have average to emotionality than the unsuccessful female competitors. Singer (1969) revealed that non athletes scored higher than baseball group in autonomy, the tennis group was higher than baseball group on interaction. Further tennis players were higher in dominance than baseball players. Baseball players scored higher than tennis players in a basement.
**Kroll and Grenshaw (1968)** found that football players and wrestlers were similar in their psychological profiles; both the groups differ significantly from gymnasts and karate participants. Gymnasts were found to be rather intelligent and relaxed, possessing weaker super ego strength and with a serious outlook towards life. Slusher (1964) investigated that a number of significant differences were found among the various sports groups. The least neurotic group was the swimmers while football players and wrestlers were similar in displaying strongly neurotic profiles. Basketball players were easily depressed and showed the greatest deviation from the other groups. Husman (1955) showed in his study of boxers and cross country distinguishing characteristics as far as their aggressive tendencies are concerned. The cross country runners tended to be extra punitive than the boxers and the boxers possessed less overall intensity of aggression and had more super ego.

**Kumari et al (1988)** found that university players were low in extra-version but high in neuroticism, whereas low achievers were slightly higher in extraversion but generally higher in neuroticism. Kamlesh (1986) revealed that in intelligence there was no significant difference between high and low performing athletes. High performing male athletes were significantly higher on extroversion than the low performing male athletes. The male high performer were significantly extroverted than the high performing female athletes. No clear cut anxiety level seemed to be visible in high and low performing athletes. Anxiety was also found to be unrelated with sex. Sharma and Toor (1986) concluded that in intelligence no significant difference was found between high and low performing groups. No relationship was found between playing ability and intelligence in any of the groups. Singh (1986) revealed that the cricketers of the inter-University level were found to be less intelligent, affected by feeling serious and shrewed with respect to factors B, C, I and N respectively, whereas with respect to other factors cricketers were found to be an average on each profile, Evans and Quarter man (1983) found that female basketball athletes both successful and unsuccessful were found to be tough minded than the non-athletes. The unsuccessful basketball players were found to trust than the successful basketball players. Williams and Perkins (1980) revealed that international players had significantly different profiles than the club players. The third group who had represented their province was not significantly distinguishable from either of the other two groups. They appeared to be more similar to the players at the highest level.
Nangia (1980) revealed that high performers in sports were more intelligent, emotionally stable, dominant, suspicious, shrewd, self-sufficient and have high aggression and need for achievement than low performers in sports. Bushan and Agarwal (1978) came to the conclusion that high achievers were significantly higher in dominance and surgency than the low achievers, on the second order factors outstanding sportmen and sportswomen were significantly more extraverted than their low achieving counterparts. No significant difference was found between high and low achieving sports persons in intelligence, ego strength tenseness and anxiety. Foster (1977) revealed that no significant differences were found between successful and unsuccessful football, handball and baseball athletes on their personality characteristics. The only difference was found between successful and unsuccessful track players.

Kane (1970), Singer (1969), Brunner (1969), Werner and Gotthell (1966), Johnson (1966), Tillman (1964), Merriman (1960) and Booth (1958) found outstanding sportmen to be more extravert, dominating, sociable, self esteemed and tough minded. Hardman (1973) concluded that intelligence, dominance, surgency, and sociability were associated with sports participation. The relationship between athletic participation and extraversion introversions showed greater intersport differences and with the exception of intelligence the personality trait scores showed greater deviation from the mean of 5.5 for less able athletes and game players than internationals. Havel (1958) on the study of low and high performing basketballers Kroll (1967) on Wrestlers, Kroll and Carlson (1967) on karate participants; Ogilvie and Tutko (1966) and Yound et al (1976) on swimmers found significant personality trait differences. Cooper (1969) found that personality factors to participation in competitive sports may well be different from general psychological needs related to ordinary physical activity. Murugesan and Rajamaniokam (1986) revealed that active vigorous and emotionally stable dimensions were essential to sports success.

Shanker (1986) concluded that position holder and non position holder differ significantly from non sportmen. Lo were found to be neurotic as well as introverted. Daine (1985) found that tennis players scored higher in extraversion and will to win and lower on neuroticism, psychoticism, anxiety, obsession and depression than son-
sports group. Shasi (1985) revealed that athletes were superior than non athletes in their social intelligence. Researchers like Sharma and Shukla, (1986), Singh (1986), Mahamood (1981), Verma (1980), Gupta and Sharma (1976) Bhullar (1974), Malumphy (1971), Ogilvie (1968), Peterson et al (1967), Werner and (Gottheil (1966) found that sportsmen were found to be outgoing, happy-go-lucky, aggressive, extrovert, emotionally stable, conscientious, experimenting group dependent and relaxed than the non-sportsmen. Thakur and Thakur (1980) studied personality characteristics of the athlete and non-athlete Indian College males using projective method of personality assessment and found that the characteristics associated with the athletes were happiness, cordial and affectionate relations, anxiety, achievement, dominance and superior organization capacity. Kroll and Peterson (1965) using 16 PF ascertained personality characteristics of winning and losing football teams and found that the functions which significantly discriminated of winning teams were, B, F, H, O and Q Rushall (1968) however, in a similar study was unable to find support for the findings of the study reported Kroll and Peterson (1965).

The male athlete is characterized by extroversion and emotional stability and scores high on trait measures of dominance, social aggression, leadership, tough-mindedness, stability and confidence (Kane 1972).

He operates at a very low level of anxiety (Ogilvie, Jonsgard and Tutko (1971), Sportsmen Show more masculinity of interest on the MMPI Scale and older athletes score lower on the anxiety and social responsibility scale (Booth 1958). High school athletes show more socially desirable traits than non-athletes, but college comparison have yielded the opposite results Schendel,1965), Sportsmen of contact sports were found to be outgoing, warm-hearted, easy-going, participating and less intelligent as compared to sportsmen of non-contact sports, who were found to be reserved, detached, more intelligent and free thinking (Verma,1977). College female athlete and monathete show significant difference in intelligence, radicalism, self sufficiency and control (O Connor and Webb, 1976). Female athletes also tended to be emotionally more aloof and serious than average female (Peterson, Webb and Trousdale 1967).

Kane (1964), Hardman (1968), Mischel (1968) Vaughan (1970), Carr (1971), Tattersfield (1975) and Cohen (1973) found certain traits to be predominantly
present in sportsmen than in non-sportsmen. Most of these studies have been conducted on athletes vs non-athletes and high achievers vs low achievers.

**Shaffer (1931)** found athletes to be superior to non-athletes in motor ability and alertness but inferior to the latter in arithmetic ability, precision in language and general information. Carter and Shannon (1940) found athletes slightly superior in adjustment and significantly superior in personality traits to non-athletes. Coffer and Johnson (1960), Kane and Warburton (1966), Olsen (1966) and Gupta and Sharma (1976) also sided with these findings. Ogilvie (1968), Davidson (1970), Mc Donald (1970), Bhullar (1974) and Menoff (1975) supported the premise that high and low performers in sports significantly differ from each other as a group, significant personality differences also seem to have been found by Ismail (1972) & Elsayed (1976).


**Niblock (1960)** found that female athletes to be more energetic, enthusiastic, efficient, possess more leadership potential and were optimistic and more extroverted. In addition, the individual and team sport participants scored higher on ascendency than
the non-participants (Niblock, 1960). In a study of women field hockey players at the high school, college and club level (Aoampora 1971) found that the higher the level of competition the more favourable the score on traits such as self confidence, determination, emotional control, conscientious, trust and leadership.

Kane (1972) found that women physical education majors to be more anxious and to possess less confidence than a norm group as well as male physical education teachers. The same review revealed that the women majors scored lower on emotional stability, were significantly more tense as compared to male physical education majors and a norm group, Duggan (1935) found women physical education majors to be less neurotic more dominating and extraverted than non majors. When comparing female athletes with physical education majors, it was found that the athletes were more relaxed, scored higher on ascendency and had lower feelings of inferiority (Ibrahim, 1967). In a more recent study (Widdop and Widdop 1975) it was found that female physical education teachers differed from other female education teachers on a number of traits. The physical education majors scored higher on traits of warm heartedness, mental capacity, enthusiasm, perservence, venturesomeness, imagination, shrewdness, self-sufficiency, self-image, exhibitionism and dominance.

Researchers like Seegers and Postpichal (1936), Digiovanna (1337), Ray (1940), Hacfcensmith and Miller (1938), Yoder (1968) Budevari (1974) and G (1979) conducted studies on intellectual and non-intelleotual traits of athletes and found thick relationship between performance in sports and intelligence whereas Hall (1928), Keeler (1938), Amano (1938), Snoddy and Shannon (1939), Reels and Rees (1939) Fuck and Tinkelaan (1941), Johnson (1942) and Fahrueer (1960) found hardly any relationship between athletic performance and intelligence.

Cattell's theoretical views on ‘state’ and trait anxiety are well known all over the world. In the early stages of motor skill acquisition, athletes seem to be more anxious and tense but as the performance waxes, anxiety waxes. Cooper (1969), O’Conner and Webb (1976) found athletes to be less anxious than non-athletes. Harris (1963), Knapp (1965), Duthie and Roberts (1970) and Hammer (1975), found no relationship between athlete performance and anxiety. Most sports psychologists and researchers claim that athletes are extroverts, outgoing and uninhibited, whether the out-goingness’ in athletes is an inborn trait or is developed through participation in
sports still remains an unresolved tangle. Studies conducted by Sperling (1942),
Tillman (1964), Ruffer (1965), Whiting and Stembridge (1965) Werner and Gottheil
(1966), Brunner (1969), Kane (1970) Ikegami (1970) showed extraversion to be one
of the dominant and highly related traits of athletes. Heidhrader (1926), Bending and
Eigenbrode (1961), Ragsdale (1932), Morgan (1968), Burdeshaw (1971) and Mohd
(1975) supported the above findings. However, Vanek and Hosek (1974) contradict
the above claim, and draw researcher’s attention, above all, to the psychological
differences between outgoing athletes and minor ones, between men and women,
between younger and older sportsmen. They found high introversion in best athletes,
Merrimen (1960), Werner (1960), Tillman (1964), Johnson (1966), Brunner (1969),
Singer (1969), Tutko (1969) and Watts (1971) found strong relationship between
ascendancy (dominance) and athletic performance. Ciccokella (1978) found men
athletes to be more ascendant and aggressive than female athletes.