Chapter II

Review of Literature

Surprisingly not much work was done on different types of needs of common individuals. Most of the studies were done with the need for achievement. Even when the motivational pattern of the individuals was studied concentration was mostly on the personality characteristics or behavioral characteristics. Needless mention that in sports psychology some good studies were done. Here a few representative studies are given.

Kavussanu and Roberts (1996), explained the relationship between perceived motivational climate (PMC) and intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy (SE) and determined the role of dispositional goal orientation (DGO) and PMC in predicting intrinsic motivation, and SE. 147 male and 119 female University students enrolled in tennis classes completed questionnaires assessing PMC, DGO, intrinsic motivation. SE; and perceived ability. Perceptions of mastery climate were positively associated with enjoyment, effort, perceived competence, and SE and were inversely related to tension. In males, DGO and PMC emerged as equally important predictors of intrinsic motivation, while mastery motivational climate was the only significant predictor of SE. In females PMC was the strongest predictor of intrinsic motivation and SE. Perceived normative ability accounted for a substantial amount of unique variance in intrinsic motivation and SE in both male and females.
Mohan, Bhandari and Khan (1997) studied empathy, personality and hostility among sport men. They selected 100 sport men from National Institute of Sport Patiala, using random sampling technique, of these 100 sport men 62 were athletes who participated in individual games like Boxing, Weight lifting, Gymnastic etc. The remaining 38 sport men were participated in team games like Volley ball, Hand ball, and Foot ball. On these subjects three scales were administered, they were the Interpersonal Relativity Index by Devies, Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI) revised scale, and BUSS Durbec, Hostility Guilt Inventory. The data were treated by Mean, Standard Deviation and ‘t’ test. Results show that no significant differences emerged between individual and team sport men on all dimensions of empathy. However, the mean value suggests that team sport men were higher on personal distress and perspective taking. Individual sport men were higher on Fantasy Scale and empathetic concern. On the dimensions measured by E.P.I, no significant differences were observed.

Shaw, Singh and Pathak (1997) studied personality and anxiety level of marathon runners. The 21 marathons were clubbed under two groups comprising of successful athletes and unsuccessful athletes. Successful athletes were those who obtained position under first ten and unsuccessful athletes were those who obtained position above ten. Successful athletes were nine and unsuccessful athletes were twelve. The average of successful athletes was 33 years and unsuccessful athlete it was 29.6 years. The subjects were administered Eysenck Personality Inventory and Competitive State Anxiety Inventory. The result
revealed that there were no statistically significant differences between successful and unsuccessful marathon runners in all the personality dimensions.

Trafton, Meyers & Skelly (1997) administered a battery of psychometric inventories to determine mood status, motivation, precompetitive anxiety, locus of control, personality traits, and psychological skills in order to quantify psychological characteristics prevalent among telemark skiers across skill level and gender, and to compare results with prior research established on traditional athletes. Ss were 22 male and 21 female telemark skiers (mean age 28.8 years). Measures included the Profile of Mood States, the Sports Attitudes Inventory, the Sport Competition Anxiety Test, the Controlled Repression Sensitization Scale, Levenson’s Locus of Control, the Eysenck Personality Inventory and the Psychological Skill Inventory for Sport. Data indicate no significant skill effects in mood state, locus of control or personality characteristics. Male Ss exhibited significantly less anxiety management, but greater self-confidence than females across psychological skill. Ss displayed lower tension, depression, anger, confusion, total mood disturbance and higher vigor compared to normatives. Telemark skiers displayed similar mood states and psychological skills associated with athletes in other sports.

Rascl, Coulomb and Pfister (1998) examined the relationship of motivational goal orientation with aggression in male adolescent handball players across 3 institutional sport contexts: Physical Education, Interscholastic, and League (clubs). 30 hand ball games were videotaped (10 per context) and observed on monitor by means of grid allowing the distinction between
instrumental (nonemotional and task-oriented), and Hostile (an emotional response which is an end in itself) aggression. 240 players (aged 14-18) also completed a French version of the perception of Success Questionnaire (G.C.Robertz and G.Balague, 1991). A main effort of context emerged from 2 separate 1-way multivariate ANOVA for goal orientation and aggression. Results indicate that Ego-goal orientation and instrumental aggression were significantly higher in the League content than in the other two. Statistically significant, positive correlations between measures of Ego-goal orientation and aggression were observed. Discriminate function analysis indicates that strongly Ego-goal classified players displayed more instrumental aggression than low Ego-goal classified players.

Ntoumanis and Jones (1998) investigated differences in the cognitive labelling of competitive anxiety symptoms generally experienced prior to an important competition as a function of locus of control beliefs. 83 University and country sport performers (aged 18-36) including 45 males and 38 females responded to the modified Competitive Trait Anxiety Inventory-2 (G.Jones and A.BJ.Swain, 1995) which measures the intensity of precompetition anxiety symptoms generally experienced, as well as how they are generally interpreted on a debilitative-facilitative continuum. The performers also responded to the internal-external Locus of Control Scale. Results show that although there were no significant differences between those having an internal and those having an external locus of control on the intensity of their cognitive and somatic anxiety symptoms, the internal viewed their trait anxiety as significantly more
facilitative and less debilitating than the externals. Discriminant function analysis corroborated these findings by showing that the best predictors for distinguishing between the 2 locus of control groups were the direction scores for cognitive and somatic trait anxiety.

Several different motivational factors have been suggested to influence exercise participation and adherence; among these are the type A behaviour pattern. In the present study, 155 participants completed questionnaire in order to survey both their attitudes toward athletic participation and their actual exercise behaviour. Type As reported themselves to be more positive towards athletic engagement, especially at competition and elite levels of participation than did either the Type B or Type A groups. Among the 3 groups, non-significant differences were found in relation to their reported participation in physical activity. Significantly more Type As did, however engage in physical exercise. The more positive attitudes held by the Type As towards competitive and elite sports, and their greater engagement in physical exercise, do offer an explanation to earlier findings, in particular that Type A individuals dominate among athletes as higher levels, and especially among elite athletes. (Koivula, Nithalia and Hassmet

Paravessis and Grove (1998), examined the potential mediating effect of self esteem on the relationship between the trait of self-handicapping and impediments to competitive performance (potential self-handicaps) in 109 male golfers (mean age 28.38 years). Ss completed the Self-handicapping Scale (E.E.)
Jones and F.Rhodewalt, 1982), the Rosenberg Scale and listed events that were disruptive to preparation for their next golf tournament. Results showed that self-esteem served as a potent negative mediator. These findings provide support for the suggestion, that one reason, individuals with a disposition to self-handicap perceive more impediments to performance (potential self-handicaps) is because they have less self-esteem.

Fickova (1999) analysed the relationships between personality dimensions (NEO-FFI, STAI) and self-esteem indicators (Rosenberg's Self Esteem Scale; Self Concept Clarity Scale, J.D. Campbells et al 1996) State Self Esteem Scale (T.F. Heatherton and J.RPolivy, 1991) in 242,14-17 years old high school students. In adolescents with high scores in self esteem indicators under study, the author found significantly higher extraversion and conscientiousness. Low self esteem correlated significantly with high neuroticism, high state and high trait anxiety. A comparison Of the rultitlu\liipi between agrccnbloncau and opw\i?rs9nnlity dimensions and self esteem indicators in girls and boys indicated significant variability and intersexual differences. Results indicate that neurocitism, extraversion, conscientiousness, state and trait anxiety are reliable predictors of self-esteem.

Dietz; Beth and Murrell (1999) examined the role of social identity and contextual components of the sporting events (expectations, outcome and media attention) on fans' perceptions of a football team. Over the course of a University football season (14 wks) data were collected on 74 undergraduate participants about their perceptions of the team following each game. Consistent with
predictions, fans with a strong university identity rated the team more favourably over the course of the season than did fans with a week university identity. Fans with a strong university identity also evaluated the team more favourably after wins than losses, following game outcome that were expected rather than unexpected, and after positive game events (e.g. media coverage) than negative team events. Fans with weak university identification did not show any differences in their evaluations of the item.

Frederic, Christina an Morrison (1999) initiated the project to describe and distinguish motivational styles of National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), Division I and II, male and female coaches, and to create a measure that identifies such styles. The scale developed draws upon Self-De-termination Theory (E.L.Deci and R.M.Ryan. 1985) differentiating between intrinsic and extrinsic coaching motives. Ss were 139 division I and II head coaches (mean age 45 years) of 8 different sports. Reliability and validity estimates for the scale developed are provided. Coaching motives fell iiHu 5 UlMluU uitegui tes: liiriisle, exlrlnsie, Social motives, growth and education and professional relations. Using the intrinsic and extrinsic motives 4 motivational coaching styles were created. These 4 coaching motivation styles were then related to autonomous, control and impersonal decision making style of coaches and used to distinguish between personality characteristics of the coaches. Results indicated that coaching style is related to decision making style, as well as certain personality characteristics.
Kashima and Yanaguchi (1999), discussed the special issue of the Asian Journal of Social Psychology and explored the contributions of Asian Social Psychology to the research on self. Self is a central concept in social psychology. Although it is conventional to speak of the self, it seems at once too definite and too concrete. The article explored the experience of oneself, or selfhood, as a human universal with its varying symbolic constructions across time and space. In the 1980's social psychological research on self nourished in North America. Triandis (1989J and Markus and Katiyama's (1991) seminal papers brought home the message that self-processes may differ on pending on cultural contexts. In the 1990's research activities turned in culture around the world and particularity in Asia. The topic of culture and self is likely to continue as one central focus.

Wann, Schrader and Wilson (1999) administered the Sport Fan Motivation Scale (SFMS), an instrument designed to measure 8 different motives of sport fans, (eustress, self-esteem, escape, entertainment, economic, aesthetic, group affiliation and family on a group of Ss. Wann (1995) presented preliminary evidence that the SFMS is a reliable and valid tool. The current studies expand on that research. Exp. I (96 Ss aged 18-84 years) tested the factor structure of the SFMS using a sample that was more heterogeneous than previous samples. Confirmatory factor analysis indicates that the integrity of the faUor structure remained. KXp.2 (86 Ss 19-52 years) investigated the relationship between preference for a specific type of sport (i.e. individual vs team, and aggressive nonaggressive) and scores on the SFMS subscales. As
expected, Ss with a preference for an individual sport reported higher levels of aesthetic motivation, while a preference for a team sport had higher scores on the eustress and self-esteem subscale. Exp 3 (115 Ss aged 18-49 years) tested and supported the hypothesis that Ss with intrinsic athletic motivation tend to be intrinsically motivated as fans, while Ss with extrinsic athletic motivation tend to be extrinsically motivated as fans.

Physical and psychological health have both been shown to benefit from regular participation in physical activities. Health reasons are, however, not the only motives individuals have for taking part in sports. Motives related to appearance and excitement, fun and enhanced competence are a few other reasons. It also has been suggested that the motives for participation influence sport participation time and adherence. The present study investigated the possible effects of gender typing, as measured by the Bern Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) on motives given explicitity for sport participation in physical exercise. The relationship between motives for participation and the time spent participating in sports was also studied. Participants were 202 female (mean age 26 years) and 208 male (mean age 24.9 years) college students. Several differences between groups of individuals were found regarding motives for participating, actual participation, and the relationship between the motives given and the actual participating time. Some of these differences might possibly be explained by the social construction of male female relations that work to maintain, strengthen and naturalize gender differences (Koivuaal, Nathalie. 1999)
Intrinsic motivation in leisure activities have typically been viewed as being determined by factor in the social situation. However, it has been proposed that individual differences exist that make some people more likely to experience intrinsic motivation in their leisure regardless of the situation. 105 undergraduates engaged in a leisure activity (puzzle game) under condition that have been shown to foster (autonomy-supportive ) or inhibit (controlling) intrinsic motivation. The Intrinsic T.pisnrp Motivation (ILM ) Personal 1131 Stale way given Ihe ILM orientation was found to interact with the types of situation, and facilitation suppression hypothesis was supported, suggesting that both personal and situation factors need to be taken into account to understand a persons intrinsic motivation in a leisure activity. In the autonomy-supportive condition, the stronger the Ss ILM orientation, the higher their intrinsic motivation. Structural equation modelling suggesting that Ss cognitions or competence and playfiilness-leisurliness during the game mediated the joint influence of ILM orientation and social situation on intrinsic motivation. The findings also provide' for the predictive and construct validity of the ILM scale (Iwasaki and Mannell, 1999).

Parkes, Schneider and Bochner (1999) investigated the extent to which spontaneous social and contextual self-concepts were connected to each other and to individual-level individualism and collectivism (1-C) measures in a cross-cultural sample. The cultural constructs of 1-C have been closely identified with different conceptions of the self. In contrast to autonomous, abstract self concepts, it has been argued that collectivists have concepts of self which are
interdependent with others and connected with particular contexts. Questionnaires were administered to 581 adult employees in Australia and South-East Asia. Although closely intertwined, social and contextual statements were able to be independently tested in relation to I.C.I.C. was primarily related to the social autonomous dimension of self. Controlling for social self-responses, contextual self concepts were not independently related to any of the measures of I-C.

Joan L. Duda and Nikos Ntoumanis (2003): Achievement goal theory suggests that the motivational processes operating in achievement settings such as PE are dependent on the achievement goals manifested in that setting. In this paper, research is reviewed examining the motivation-related correlates of task and ego (approach) goal orientations in physical education, namely (a) achievement-related beliefs (i.e., beliefs about the causes of success in and the purposes of PE, beliefs about the nature of physical ability), (b) affective responses (e.g., enjoyment), (c) self-determination (i.e., PE students' level of intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and a motivation), (d) behavioral strategies and skill development, and (e) level of physical activity engagement.

Anne Marte Pensgaard and Glyn C. Roberts (2003): To examine the relationship between task and ego orientations and the use of stress-coping strategies among athletes participating in the 1994 Winter Olympic Games. We expected that athletes who were high on task and low on ego orientation would employ more problem-solving strategies than athletes with other ego and task profiles. We also expected that athletes high in ego and low in task orientation
would employ more emotion-focused strategies than other athletes with other
ego and task profiles. Gender differences were also investigated.

S. Byrne, Rose A. Mueller-Hanson, Joe M. Cardador, George C.
Thornton, Heinz (2004): We examined the measurement equivalency of the
Achievement Motivation Inventory (AMI), a recently developed multi-faceted
measure of achievement motivation, across three countries; Germany (n=1433),
Israel (n=688), and the US (n=745). Two a priori models ranging from least
restrictive (i.e., same number of constructs, same factor pattern, non-equivalent
values) to most restrictive (i.e., equivalence of factor loadings) were tested using
EQS multi-group analysis to determine the level of measurement equivalency.
Results show that achievement motivation as measured by the AMI is a multi-
faceted construct with three first-order factors. The factor structure and pattern
of factor loadings were nearly equal across the three samples, indicating a cross-
cultural equivalency. Discussion includes implications for using the AMI and
recommendations for future research. Christopher. A. Wolters (2004): The
objective of this study was to investigate how different components of
achievement goal theory were associated with motivation, cognitive engagement, and achievement in mathematics. Junior high school
students (N = 525) completed a self-report survey that assessed their perceived
classroom goal structures; personal goal orientations; and a collection of
outcomes that included persistence, procrastination, choice, their use of
cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies, and mathematics grade. Results
indicate that mastery structure and mastery orientation were related to adaptive
outcomes in all areas. The patterns of relations for performance-approach goal structure, and for performance-approach and performance-avoidance goal orientations were less uniform across outcomes. Implications for achievement goal theory and future research are discussed.

Jozsef Halasz, Mate Toth, Imre Kullu, Zsolt Liposits and Jozsef Haller (2006): Violence is associated with prefrontal deficits in humans, suggesting that this brain area inhibits aggressiveness. Its role, however, remains controversial, as certain subdivisions of the prefrontal cortex become activated by fights in rodents. Disparate human findings also show that this area is acutely activated by aggression under certain conditions. We explored prefrontal neuronal activation patterns in resident rats exposed to psychosocial (sensory contact with the intruder) and aggressive encounters. Both psychosocial and aggressive encounters increased c-Fos activation in the prelimbic (PrL), anterior cingular (Cgl), agranular insular (AI), ventral (VO) and lateral orbital (LO) cortices. The infralimbic (IL) and medial orbital (MO) cortices were activated significantly by aggressive encounters only. No other prefrontal regions were activated by psychosocial or aggressive encounters. Thf lviiYvihmihH mainrhi nf intivntiii

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cells in the Cgl, IL, PrL, MO, and VO, whereas interneuron and pyramidal cell activation was similar in AT and T,O. When rats showed violent aggression, the activation of GABAergic inhibitory cells decreased in these two, and two other areas (IL and MO). Notably, the latter two areas appeared to be specifically involved in aggressive behavior. The change occurred in a recently developed
model of violent aggression. In this model, pyramidal cell activation in the above mentioned four areas (IL, MO, AI, and LO) predicted over 95% of variation in attack counts in general and violent attacks in particular. Based on these data, we present a tentative hypothesis on the involvement of the prefrontal cortex in the control of aggression.

Jozsef Haller, Miite Toth and Jozsef Halasz (2006): The serotonergic system is well known for its aggression lowering effects. It has been shown repeatedly, however, that the serotonergic system is activated during fights, and recent data suggested that it is necessary for the expression of aggressive behavior. We investigated the interaction between serotonergic activation and aggressive behavior by assessing the co-localization of the c-Fos signal (marker of neuronal activation) with tryptophan-hydroxylase activity (marker of serotonin secretion) in the raphe. Control rats were compared with rats exposed to visual and olfactory (but not physical) The contacts with opponents (psychosocial stimulation) as well as with rats exposed to aggressive encounters. Fights were accompanied by the activation of the raphe; however, the effect was not aggression-specific, as a similar activation was induced by psychosocial contacts. The lack of behavioral specificity in activation suggests that it was related to social arousal rather than to the execution of fights. The activation of serotonergic raphe neurons showed a negative correlation with aggressive behavior, which is in line with the widespread view that serotonin neurotransmission downregulates aggressive behavior. The activation of serotonergic neurons did not show a correlation with measures of hypoarousal-
driven abnormal aggression, which indicates that factors other than the ranhe control this! behavior. The latter finding may explain the low efficacy of serotonergic! treatments in conduct and antisocial personality disorders, in which violence correlates with hypoarousal.

Anne Cambell(2007): The peptide hormones oxytocin and vasopressin have been implicated in a range of mammalian social behaviors including maternal care, pair bonding and affiliation. Oxytocin is of special relevance to female behavior because its effects are strongly modulated by estrogen. This article reviews animal and human research and is organised in terms of two research perspectives. The specific attachment model identifies oxytocin as orchestrating special bonds with offspring and mates, including the use of aggression in the protection of these relationships. The trait affiliation model considers oxytocin in relation to the trait of general social motivation that varies between and within species. Implications for understanding and researching the role of oxytocin in women's attachment, affiliation and aggression are discussed.

Scan P. Gumming, Ronald £. Smith (2007): The objective was to develop and validate an achievement goal scale for young athletes that was aligned with the 2 (mastery/ego)x2 (approach/avoidance) achievement goal framework. Method, A total of 1675 male and female athletes ranging in age from 9 to 14 years participated in the AGSYS scale development and validation phases. Items having a readability level of grade 4 (age 9) or below were written and evaluated in a series of studies to assess the reliability, factorial validity, and construct validity of the Mastery and Ego scales. Both co relational and experimental
methods were used to assess reliability and validity. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses demonstrated factorial validity in samples of 9-10-, 11-12-, and 13-14-year-old athletes, and the subscales correlated in a predicted fashion with one another, with other sport and academic goal orientation measures and with several other theoretically relevant variables, including coach-initiated motivational climate, competitive trait anxiety, sport enjoyment, motivation, and self-esteem. Scores also changed significantly in response to a motivational climate coach intervention.

The Achievement Goal Scale for Youth Sports (AGSYS) appears to be a reliable and valid measure of achievement goal approach orientations in children between the ages of 9 and 14 years. We were not successful in developing corresponding avoidance goal orientation scales that were not highly correlated, raising the possibility that children do not cognitively differentiate between mastery-avoidance and ego-avoidance orientations.

Lionel Page, Louis Levy Garboua and Claude Montmarquette (2007): The explanation of social inequalities in education is still a debated issue in economics. Recent empirical studies tend to downplay the potential role of credit constraint. This article tests a different potential explanation of social inequalities in education, specifically that social differences in aspiration level result in different educational choices. Having existed for a long time in the sociology of education, this explanation can be justified if aspiration levels are seen as reference points in a prospect theory framework. In order to test this explanation, this article applies the method of experimental economics to the
issue of education choice and behavior. One hundred and twenty-nine individuals participated in an experiment in which they had to perform a task over 15 stages grouped in three blocks or levels. In order to continue through the experiment, a minimum level of success was required at the end of each level. Rewards were dependent on the final level successfully reached. At the end of each level, participants could either choose to stop and take their reward or to pay a cost to continue further in order to possibly receive higher rewards. To test the Impact of aspiration levels, outcomes were either presented as gains or losses relative to an initial sum. In accordance with the theoretical predictions, participants in the loss framing group choose to go further in the experiment. There was also a significant and interesting gender effect in the loss framing treatment, such that males performed better and reached higher levels.

Yohsuke Ohtsubo and Charles E. Miller(2007): Test of a Level of Aspiration model of group decision making: Non-obvious group preference reversal due to an irrelevant alternative. We conducted two experiments that investigated a non-obvious prediction of a Level of Aspiration (LOA) model of group decision making. In both experiments, groups chose among three alternatives, A, B, and C, with C always being least preferred by all of the; group members. In each experiment, by manipulating the nature of alternative C, we created two conditions differing in whether only A or only B was acceptable to all members. In support of the LOA model, groups tended to choose the alternative acceptable to all members, even when (Experiment 2) a majority of
members most preferred a different alternative. Implications of the results for the LOA model are discussed in the context of social choice theory.

Hugh Schwa rtz(2 007): The explanation of bounded rationality in terms of satisfying has been received with skepticism, but Simon's claim that satisfying reflects aspirations and their adaptation could help resolve the matter, particularly taking account of the amplifications introduced by Selten to include motivational factors. Experimental investigations by Guth and his colleagues provide some support. Open-ended, in-depth interviews by Bewley and Schwartz help explain the factors that influence aspirations (which may differ for different tasks), giving attention to affective influences and also to context. They suggest a positive but more complicated relationship between the relative success in realizing profits aspirations and the adaptation of those aspirations, and also in the consequences that aspiration levels have for bounded rationality.

J.P. Maxwell and O.L. Siu(2007): The intensity of angry emotions, frequency ;of vengeful cognitions, and propensity for aggressive behaviors are likely influenced by the types of coping strategies adopted by the individual. There is a paucity of research in Chinese populations examining the strength of; the relationships amongst these variables. Therefore, a cross-sectional survey of Chinese adults was conducted. Participants (∼=630) completed several questionnaires related to anger, aggression, rumination, and coping strategies. Results suggest that an active coping strategy is moderately effective for the control of anger (r = -.20), aggression (r = -.13 to -.23), and vengeful thinking (r = -.22). In addition, males scored lower than females for measures of active
coping (Cohen's $d = -0.3Q$) and social support ($d = -0.43$), but higher for measures of physical aggression ($d = -0.3Q$), and anger rumination ($d = 0.31 - 0.57$). Active coping appears to be the best strategy to adopt for the control of anger and aggression, but is contrary to some common philosophical traditions used in Chinese populations.

Sarah M. Conklin and Matthew S. Stanford (2007): , Relationships between aggressive subtypes and lipids were explored in 18 adult males undergoing treatment for substance dependence. A positive association was observed between a measure of premittated aggression and total cholesterol. This was in contrast to an inverse association between lower cholesterol and higher impulsivity and anxiety.

S. Jeanne Horst, Sara J. Finney and Kenneth E. Dai i uii (2007), The uuieiiit lejicaiulii expluied tliu thuury uf yuulal goal orientation. More specifically, we conducted three studies utilizing six-independent university student samples to evaluate the construct validity of the Social Achievement Goal Orientation Scale (SAGOS; Ryan & Hopkins, 2003), a measure representing the construct of social goal orientation. The purpose of Study 1 was to: (1) compare the three-dimensional (mastery, performance-approach, and performance-avoidance) model of social goal orientation to three theoretically based competing models, (2) examine item functioning, and (3) assess generalizability of the factor structure. The fit of the proposed three-factor model was promising; however, areas of misfit and problematic items were identified. Stronger support for the three-factor structure of goal orientation was found
using scores from an abbreviated 13-item SAGOS. In Study 2, item wording was altered slightly to evaluate a revised Social Achievement Goal Scale (SAGS), yet resulted in similar findings. Study 3 examined external validity evidence for the SAGS, garnering some support for the meaning of the scores. Although continued refinement of the SAGOS and SAGS is recommended, the findings help contribute to our general understanding and conceptualization of social goal theory and the role that social goals may play in academic contexts. J.P. Maxwell and E. Moore (2007): The study of aggression and anger in competitive sport relies on accurate and economical measurement via observation, interview and questionnaire. Unfortunately, extant questionnaires have been criticized for having poor validity, are not sport specific, or reflect mood states rather than trait qualities. Therefore, a measure of trait anger and representing aggressiveness and anger was generated and distributed to competitive athletes from diverse sports. Exploratory and confirmatory analyses were used to verify the theoretically predicted factor structure. Correlations with an extant measure of aggression and anger were used to ascertain concurrent validity. Discriminate validity was tested by comparing males with females, and aggressive with non-aggressive footballers. A 12-item scale (Competitive Aggressiveness and Anger Scale, CAAS) consisting of two subscales was derived using principal component factor analysis with obliging rotation. Confirmatory factor analysis using structural equation modeling confirmed I the overall structure. Test-retest correlation, construct and discriminate validities were good, supporting the utility of the scale as a measure of athlete trait aggressiveness and anger. The CAAS appears to be a useful measure of athletic anger and aggressiveness. Its
brevity and ability to discriminate aggressive from non-aggressive athletes should prove useful for future research concerning aggressive behavior in competitive athletes. Ken Hodge, Jus tine B. Alien and Liz Smellie (2007): The participants were 373 (184 females; 189 males) Masters athletes from six sports. Ages ranged from 29 years to 77 years (mean=48 years). Cluster analysis was employed Lu identity 'goal profiles' ofiwo achievement goals (task and ego) and three social goals (affiliation, recognition, status). MANOVA was employed to examine the goal profiles for differences on self-perceptionS, affect, and motivation. Five goal profiles were identified and labeled as j follows: Cluster 1 (Lo-Aff) low affiliation, moderate task, ego, status, and recognition; Cluster 2 (Lo-Val) low ego, status, and recognition, moderate task and affiliation; Cluster 3 (Hi-Social) high affiliation and status, moderate recognition and task, and low ego; Cluster 4 (Lo-Ach) low task and ego, moderate affiliation, status, and recognition; and Cluster 5 (Hi-Ach) high task, ego, and recognition, moderate affiliation and status. MANOVA revealed that Cluster 3 (Hi-Social) was highest on enjoyment and perceived belonging, while Clusters 3 and 5 (Hi-Ach) were highest on intrinsic motivation, commitment, and perceived ability. Clusters 1 (Lo-Aff) and 4 (Lo-Ach) had lower level's of enjoyment and commitment. In general, these Masters athletes enjoyed th^rir participation, they were committed, they had high perceptions of ability and belonging, and they were predominantly intrinsically motivated. The implications of these motivational profiles for Masters Athletes are discussed from both theoretical and applied perspectives.
Dena A. Pastor, Kenneth E. Barron, B.J. Miller an Susan L. Davis
(2007): Achievement goal research has grown increasingly complex with the
number of proposed goal orientations that motivate students. As the number of
proposed goal constructs proliferates, a variety of data analytic challenges have
emerged, such as profiling students on different types of goal pursuit as well as
evaluating the relationships of multiple goal pursuit with different educational
outcomes. The purpose of the current article is to showcase the advantages of
using latent profile analysis (LPA) over other traditional techniques (such as
multiple regression and cluster analysis) when analyzing multidimensional data
like achievement goals. Specifically, we review the advantages of LPA over
traditional person- and variable-centered analyses and then provide a critical
look at three different conceptualizations of goal orientation (2-, 3-, and 4-factor)
using LPA.

Xiaoling Shu and Margaret Mooney Marini (2008): Young people in
the United States are driven by an ideology of high achievement and hold
ambitious occupational aspirations, yet little is known about the process by
which they negotiate social conditions to come to terms with life’s limitations.
We use a life-course perspective to examine change in prestige, education,
earning potential, and sex type dimensions in occupational aspirations, in the
U.S., using longitudinal data on cohorts of young people ages 14-29 during the
period between 1966 and 1980. After their initial formation in childhood and
adolescence, occupational aspirations are regulated by experiences in the
educational system, the labor market, and for women, the adult family. The Civil
Rights and the Women's Movements contributed to age-, cohort-, and period-related increases in women and black men's occupational aspirations. The economic downturn after 1973 also played a role, reducing young men's occupational aspirations and reverting black men's aspirations to the same level as that prior to the 1970s, negating the positive influences of the Civil Rights Movement. There is no evidence that the Vietnam War produced a net change in young people's aspirations. These findings show that after their initial formation under inscriptive influences, occupational aspirations continue to evolve as new life experiences associated with changed societal values and opportunity structure provide impetus for change. Despite these perturbations, socioeconomic background, race, and gender retain a pervasive impact on the regulation of young people's aspirations in adolescent and young adulthood in the United States.

**John H. Kerr (2008):** In order to really understand aggression in sports, it is important that psychological research on the topic remains well founded, valid and grounded in reality. The Competitive Aggressiveness and Anger Scale (CAAS) [Maxwell, J. P., & Moores, E. (2007). The development of a short scale for measuring aggressiveness and anger in competitive athletes. Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 8, 179-193], which purports to measure aggressiveness and anger in competitive athletes, has recently been developed. The present critique highlights a number of shortcomings in the rationale behind the scale and its development.
This critique will focus on three major problem areas. These are: (1) The definition of aggression in sports adopted by the scale's developers;

(2) The "one size fits all" element in the thinking behind the scale's development;

(3) The nature of the CAAS Anger and Aggressiveness items.

The approach taken in the development of CAAS means that the scale, as it is currently formulated, can offer only an incomplete understanding and measurement of anger and aggressiveness in sports. Among other things, the measure ignores a whole range of frequently occurring legal, sanctioned aggressive, and violent behavior in sports. In addition, it ignores sources of motivation beyond anger which underpin other types of aggressive and violent behavior in sports.