CHAPTER – 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE
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The necessary background for formulating the problem, objectives and hypotheses of the study has been provided in previous chapter. Further, to put the problem in a proper perspective the review of related literature is presented in this chapter. This will not only provide the state of the art in the area under investigation but will also point out the gap that exists and the direction, it should take along with providing the necessary background in the light of which the results of the present study are to be interpreted.

According to Carter Good (1963) 1- “the key to the vast store house of published literature may open doors to sources of significant problems and explanatory hypothesis and provide helpful orientation for definition of the problem, background for selection of procedure and comparative data for interpretation of results. In order to be creative and original, one must read extensively and critically as a stimulus to thinking.”

“Since effective research is based upon past knowledge, this steps helps to eliminate the duplication of what has been done and provide useful for hypothesis and helpful suggestions for significant investigation citing studies that so substantial arrangement and those that seem to present conflicting conclusion, helps to sharpen and define under-standing of existing knowledge, icon the problem are, provides a back-ground for the research projects and makes the reader aware of the status of the issue”
Best & Kahn (1986) 2: thus, the review of related studies provides a basis for designing the study and quantifying the variable involved. The review is also concerned with questions such as; what has been done in the field of personality, attribution style and sports achievement? What are the limitations of the work accomplished? What are the directions along which further efforts should be made? The review of study in the present context, pertains to the studies related to personality, attribution style and sports achievement, the variable used in the study. The related literature will be reviewed here in two parts. In the first part, the studies pertaining to personality and performance in sports will be given. The second part will deal with the review of the studies in attribution and sport performance. With a view to gather comprehension information the review of related studies has been divided into two parts.

1. STUDIES CONDUCTED ABROAD

2. STUDIES CONDUCTED IN INDIA

2.1. STUDIES RELATED TO PERSONALITY AND SPORTS ACHIEVEMENTS:

Substantially large amount of research has been done to find relationship between sports activity and personality development. The major amount of research has compared either sportsmen with controls or categories within sports with respect to their personality characteristics. Although it is very difficult to conclude that sports give rise to particular kind of personality characteristics, the results clearly borne out statistically
significant differences in some of the personality dimensions between sportsmen and controls or between team games and individual games or between high achievers and low achievers.

The term “review” means to organize the knowledge of the specific area of research to evolve an edifice of knowledge to show that his study would be an addition to this field. The task of review of literature is highly creative and tedious because researcher has to synthesise the available knowledge of the field in a unique way to provide the rational for this study.

2.1(a). STUDIES CONDUCTED ABROAD:

Pezer and Brown (1980) on inter collegiate women basketball teams showed that the players in the winning teams had greater will to win than the losing teams.

In a more recent study Dowd and Innes (1981) found significant differences on the 16 P.F between squash and volleyball players and between high and average level competitors. They note: “the present analysis showed differences at high levels of participation which suggest that those who by special enthusiasm, drive and ability have graduated to positions of success may be identifiable as having a common constellation of personality characteristics.”

More recently investigators have attempted to understand sport preferences by examining the sources of satisfaction that people get from participating in different sports. For instance, Wankel and Kreisel (1985) found intrinsic motivations like excitement of the sport, personal accomplishment, improving one’s skills were rated more highly than
extrinsic factors like pleasing others, winning rewards and winning the game.

Studies using arousal concepts like extraversion, impulsivity and sensation seeking have proved more useful in understanding sport preference. For example, Rowland Et Al (1986) found high sensation seeking males preferred running/jogging, weight-lifting and hiking.


Zimbardo, Keonugh and Boyd (1997) if a preference for a particular temporal dimension, past present or future becomes chronic, then it may function as a personality trait exhibiting a static rather than fluid nature.

Greenwold, Mc Ghee and Schwartz (1998) The gender difference self-evaluations could be further examined using a more implicit measure that would not encourage boys to overestimate, or allow girls to underestimate, their positive qualities and achievements.

Kallipuska (1998) conducted a study to survey the relationship between personality factors and the success of top athlete’s sports. The study was confined to three fields of the athletic sports, cross-country skiing, biathlon and shooting tests used the self-esteem scale, the modified Mehrabian and Epstein empathy scale. Preliminary results showed that among top athlete’s men seem to get higher score on self-esteem and narcissism than women. On the other hand, women have better self-assertiveness than men.
Hogan, J., Rybicki, S.L., Matowildo, S.J., and Borman, W.C. (1998) Relations between contextual performance, personality and occupational advancement. Human performance examined the personality factor of conscientiousness and its relationship with contextual performance when organizational reward systems are taken into account. More specifically, they anticipated that if the organization rewards contextual performance with approval and acceptance then conscientiousness should be a significant predictor. However, if status were the reward for contextual performance then conscientiousness would not be a significant predictor but rather a personality variable known as ambition would be.

Zimbardo and Boyd (1999) however time perspectives are generally considered fluid in nature, thus individuals can influence the balance among these temporal orientations, depending on ‘situational demands, resources assessments or personal and social appraisals to negotiate strategies that satisfy new goals and avoid adverse consequences. In other words, students who are confident to their abilities (past positive) and who believe that their efforts produce results (low present hedonistic) are more likely than those who do not, to work towards a future goal (future) to which they are committed and with which they can identify. Thus by harnessing their perspectives, they are able to regulate their behaviour to persist with their students to achieve their educational goals.

Rawathorne and Elliot (1999) This argument is also corroborated by a Meta analysis of the experimental literature that has examined the
effects of performance and mastery achievement goals of intrinsic motivation. The Meta analysis showed that the undermining effect of performance goals relative to mastery goals was evident only when the experimental procedures induced a performance avoidance orientation.

Dweck (1999) 14 proposed that the precursors of self-handicapping are based on a learning history encourages the development of a ‘fixed-entity’ theory of competence.

Borman, W.C., Penner, L.A., Allen, J.D., and Motowildo, S.J., (2001) 15. Personality predictors of citizenship performance conducted behaviour of the this type contributes to maintenance and enhancement of the social structure within an organization, which can improve all job performance behaviour cannot be fully specified in a job description, but are none the less necessary for successful job performance.

Farmer, Jarvis, Berent and Corbett (2001) 16 however, scholastic achievement is not likely to be the only source of self-esteem in you people, as for example social competence or sporting skills may play an equal or alternative role.

Salgedo, J.F. (2002) 17. The big five personality dimensions and counter productive behaviours examined various forms of cwbc separately. The criteria considered in this study were absenteeism, accident rate, and deviant behaviour (e.g.) theft, substance abuse, property damage, organizational rate breaking, and other irresponsible behaviours.
Elliot and Church (2003) 18. The associations between self-handicapping and achievement goals have also been of particular interest among researchers in their attempts to understand self-handicapping better.

2.1(b). STUDIES CONDUCTED IN INDIA;

Thakur and Ojha (1981) 19 conducted a study on Indian sample of (n=90) different games i.e. (table tennis 30, badminton 30 and football 30) by administering them the Cattle’s 16 p.f. almost similar characteristics have been found in the three groups except on a few factors viz., b.i. and 0 of the test.

Sharma (1984) 20 tested a sample consisting of 282 university representing sportsmen and 256 non-sportsmen on 16 p.f., general mental ability test and self concept scale. Results of this study indicated that both samples differ markably on aggression, emotional stability, intelligence and happy-go-lucky factors. University representing sportsmen were found higher on positive self-concept than non-sportsmen. No significant differences we found among university representing sportsmen and non-sportsmen on intelligence variable. Sharma (1985) 21 conducted a study on 256 males and 248 females selected from propulsive sampling and this sample was tested on 16 p.f. and achievement tests. Main findings of this study indicated that personality traits are highly related to performance in sports and games. There are certain personality traits that contribute to increment in sports capacity in one category of games while the same may not help in another category of games.
Dureha (1986) 22 compared the personality characteristics of sportsmen and non-sportsmen. He found significant differences in personality characteristics of the two groups.

Dureha (1991) 23 observed inter-university hockey players to be warm-hearted, easy-going, less intelligent, more emotionally stable, aggressive, happy-go-lucky, socially bold, tender-minded, vigorous, confident, self-disciplined, conscientious and relaxed and suggested that these factors might have contributed to playing ability and ultimately of winning performance.

Yadav (1992) 24 studied selected personality variables, adjustment and socio-economic status of mass and class athletes of college and university levels. The results indicated that mass sports athletes were more venturesome and placid whereas, class athletes were more intelligent and experimenting.

Shukla and Sharma (1994) 25 found personality differences between state level selected and non-selected hockey players. There were significant differences in 8 out of 16 factors.

Sheikh. (1994) 26 showed female adolescents (600) who were failed independent to be showing higher achievement scores than their field dependent counterparts.

Sudhir and Khiangte (1997) 27 intellectually gifted and high creative were found superior in abstract thinking, more assertive, tender minded, placid and spontaneous.
Bhargava and Sexena (1997) 28 prolonged deprivation was found to affect differently adolescent boy and girls (n=60) in age range 16 to 18 years. The extremely deprived female group was found to be more emotionally balanced, having greater empathy although more dependent and with more difficulty in establishing personal relationship and having greater anxiety concerning their body functions then their male counterparts.

Mishra and Singh (1998) 29 found male and female graduates of low SES unable to make proper adjustment with environmental situation due to poor facilities of accommodation, transportation and communication.

Kumar and Shukla, (1998) 30 administered personality test on 80 high achieving and 80 low achieving male hockey players. High achievers were those who had participated in national or international tournaments, low achievers were those who had never achieved such distinctions throughout their sports life and 80 non-sports persons were also included in study. These groups were matched on the variable of age and education e.p.q. Rotter’s locus of control scale; “will to win” questionnaire and Batter’s self-esteem inventory were administered to these groups individually. High achieving hockey players were found to be extrovert, dominating, less anxious, emotionally stable, internally controlled and having personal and social self-esteem in comparison to other groups. Kumar and Shukla, (1998) They found that high achieving hockey players were found to be extrovert than low achieving players.

Bawa and Debnath, (1999) 31 investigated to determine the relationship of various personality traits with competition performance in
gymnastics. The purpose of the study was to determine significance of differences in personality characteristics among high, mediocre and low performance in competitive gymnastics championship. 16 p.f. by Cattell and Eber (1971) was administered on each subject. ANOVA was applied to find out the significance of difference in various personality characteristics among the three groups.

Sharma (1999) 32 investigation was primarily designed to pin-point the differences among various sports disciplines on the parameter of personality. For this purpose 100 athletes of Guru Ghasidas University Bilaspur (M.P.) belonging to 10 disciplines were selected. The introversion, extroversion inventory prepared by Dr. P.F. Aziz and Rabha Agnihotry (1991) was used. Results revealed that difference in personality pattern of players of both sex of individual and team games were not found except volleyball players. Mostly all the male and female players were of extrovert in nature in various sports. This was also found that personality patterns of sports had not been affected by the game differences.

Arora, (1999) 33 in addition to parental behaviours, physical handicaps like visual impairment did not affect adversely visually impaired students of class viii and ix who were found to be easy going, imaginative and having normal degree of ego strength.

Chaturvedi (1999) 34 found high creative tribal to be warmhearted intelligent, emotionally stable, excitable, enthusiastic and self controlled than the low creative.
Upadhyay, Yogesh (2000) 35 investigates the significant differences, if any between the personality traits of rural and urban consumers. A sample of 400 heads of house hold living in urban and rural areas of two Indian districts was administered Tripathi personal preference schedule (K.R.Tripathi, 1973) and a multi traits scale of 15 normal personality variables. There were no significant difference between the personalities of these two consumer groups.


Saraswati, Swami Niranjan Ananda (2001) 357 discusses yoga as a life long process in understanding the necessities of life, managing the human mind and potential and transforming the personality. Imbalance in mind create minter conflicts (anxiety, stress and depression) which in turn lead to deep psychological problems called samskaras for which yoga has devised certain systems of practice as remedies. The practice of asanas helps in the management of the body and health, leading to physical balance and harmony, pranayama, mudras and bandhas channel the physical forces, providing the opportunity to deal with the mind and help in the development and shaping the personality at all stages.

Chandan Manna, (2002) 38. The purpose of the study was to analyse and compare the tribal and non tribal boys in some selected personality factors. Eighty tribal boys from Jhargram of West Bengal and same number
of non-tribal boys from center of the same state were selected as subjects. The subjects were within 10 to 12 years of age. Bengali version of Porter and Cattle’s children personality questionnaire (cpq) was used to analyse the fourteen personality factors of the subjects. The raw scores were converted to sten scores. The data were statistically analysed for testing difference between two means by 't' test. Results revealed that the subjects of the tribal group were more mild obedient, and submissive. The non-tribal group appeared to be more intelligent, serious, restrained, zestful, but careless.

Singh (2003) 39 compared high and low achievement athletes, at different level of competition, and found that high achiever has higher will to win as compared of low achiever athletes. Therefore the investigator decided to study this aspect of the personality of boxer’s champions and non-champions. It has been proclaimed that Tyson and Mohd. Ali, who have reigned for years in the boxing ring, had the will to win in great measures.

D’souza, Urs and Ramaswamy (2003) 40 personality and academic achievement in high school students. Low self-esteem and decreased self-concept.

Monin (2003) 41 as a result, it has not been possible to determine whether fluency effects how deeply people process available information. Our findings are therefore novel because they show that fluency is used not only directly as a cue for judgment but also indirectly as a mechanism for strategy selection.
**Sindhu and Singh (2006),** the main objective of the study was to compare the champion and non-champion boxers on will to win traits of personality, at their different levels of participation. It was hypothesized that champion boxer would have significantly higher level of will to win than non-champions.

**Upadhyaya, P. (2006)** examines the difference in the personality traits of high and low emotionally intelligent student-teacher. A sample of 78 student-teachers studying in Ewing Christian College, Allahabad was selected for study. The test of emotional intelligence and personality inventory were used for collecting data and these tools were developed by **K.S. Mishra.** The statistically method used in the study for analysis of data were mean s.d. and ’t’ test.

**FINDINGS:** Students-teacher with low emotional intelligence are more uneasy and worried about future-unhappy felling and failure are lets cautions, irregular and like to take more rust, restrain others. Have lack of energy and feel tired and uninterested and conform to the opinion or accepted path taken by most people. Students-teacher with high emotional intelligence are more competent, and have more self-confidence, hard working, help others constructive way, more motivated, energetic and full of enthusiasm and turn away from accepted or given path or opinion. The fifteen personality traits like experiment v/s conservative, emotionally stable v/s excitable, spiritual v/s materialist, social v/s self-centred, adaptive v/s
rigid, inquisitive v/s non-curious, relaxed v/s tense, affectionate v/s undemonstrative, self-critical v/s happy-go-lucky, group dependent v/s autonomous, humble v/s assertive, more analytical v/s less analytical, forthright v/s crooked, dominant v/s submissive, conscientious v/s unscrupulous are not different in case of student-teacher with high and low emotional intelligence. The study cites two references.

Moreover, these findings suggest a resolution for inconsistencies in the fluency literature for instance; some research suggests that fluent stimuli are perceived as being more familiar than diffluent stimuli.

Singh, kumar and Singh (2009), who found that the score of catching, passing, throwing, shooting, footwork and dribbling of low performances and high performances differ significantly at 0.01 level of confidence, in favour of high performances.

2.2. ATTRIBUTION STYLE AND SPORTS ACHIEVEMENT:

2.2 (a). STUDIES CONDUCTED ABROAD:

Attribution theory seems to have acquired relevance to sports performance in recent past. Some of the research studies conducted in this field throws light on the nature of this variable operating in sports performance. A review of these studies is provided here.

Lefebvre (1979) recorded the causal attribution of 30 Belgium athletes. The subjects were candidates for the Olympics in Montréal 1976. The main objectives of the study dealt with the cognitive attributions of
athletic performances to the underlying causes, being ability, effort, task difficulty and luck. As predicted ability especially efforts were considered as the primary causes for good achievement, while lack of efforts and bad luck were important attributions for bad achievements.

**Roberts and Pascuzzi** (1979) administered an open ended questionnaire to 346 college students to determine the causal elements used in sport situations. Results show that the 4 traditional elements of ability, effort, luck and task difficulty were used 45% of the time. However, the theory advanced by **Wiener** (1974) is based on the dimensions of locus of control and stability, and not on the elements per se. When subject’s responses were content analyzed for dimensional properties. It was concluded that 100% of the responses could be placed within the 4 cells of Weiner model. Results support the applicability of the Weiner achievement behaviour model to sport environments, but only when a careful analysis of causul attributions is made to determine their dimensional relevance.

**Bukowski and Moore** (1980) examined 77 boys (aged 7-16 years) who participated in a series of athletic events at an overnight camp evaluated the importance of possible causes for success and failure in these events. These reasons included those four traditional attributions of ability, effort, luck and task difficulty and other attributions suggested in previous person perception studies of the causes of outcomes in achievements related tasks. Findings reveal that luck and difficulty were perceived as having little
importance, success was attributed to internal factors, the differences between winner’s and loser’s provided little evidence for the presence of a self-serving bias in their evaluation of the items, and the differences between actors and observers were not entirely consistent with the hypothesis that actors attribute outcomes to situational factor and observers attribute the same outcomes to dispositional factors.

Caron and Spink (1980) 48 examined the stability of causal attributions over repeated test days using (2 win, loss) x 2 (immediate, 2 day delay) x 3 (post game 2 week, 4 weeks) design. Male high school football players outline the degree of causality attributed to ability, effort, luck, task difficulty and officiating. Results clearly support the view that attributions are stable over four week’s interval. However, co-relational analyses revealed that there is only a moderate consistency of individual differences in attribution over repeated tests. Thus, retrospective judgments of causality may not be reliable.

Lau and Russel (1980) 49 extended the generality of attribution research by exploring several important issues in a highly involving real world setting in which attributions naturally occur: athletic competition. 107 newspapers accounts of baseball and football games were coded for attribution contests. These data support a motivational or self-enhanced explanation for the tendency to make internal attributions for success and external attributions for failure. No support was found for Miller and Ross’s (1975) combinations that this tendency is mediated by expectancies. It was
also found that more attributions were made after unexpected, as opposed to the expected outcomes. There was a tendency for relatively more stable attributions to give after outcomes.

**Rajeski and Lowe** (1980) 50 investigated the effects of ability (high vs. low), effort (high vs. low), and outcome (success vs. failure) on casual attributions. After riding a bicycle aerometer 120 male undergraduates attributed a cause of their increased or decreased performance to ability, effort, task difficulty and luck. Results indicate that successful outcomes were attributed to both ability and effort and that unsuccessful outcomes were attributed to a lack of ability but not a lack of effort. While the task was seen as easier following success, the perception of low effort mediated this relationship. Results support a situational specific conceptualization of sport achievement. It is suggested that physiologically related ability may be viewed as relatively unstable. Relative to intellectual tasks, sport-related effort may be more salient and more quantifiable and may exert a greater influence on subsequent attributions for sport achievement.

**Spink and Roberts** (1980) 51 assessed the effects of perceived outcome on the causal attributions of 70 undergraduate racquetball players. Prior to a 2 person racquetball game, subjects indicated their expectancy of success against their opponent. Following the game, subjects rated their performance satisfaction, own competency, and opponents competency, as well as rating the extent to which the outcome was due to internal or external failures. Results show that the clearly perceived outcomes were
attributed internally, while the ambiguous outcomes were attributed externally. Objective outcome may not be the determinant of success and failure causal attributions.

Yukelosn Et Al. (1981) 52 tested. Kukla’s attribution theory of performance and addressed the mediating link between causal attributions and subsequent actions in a competitive motor task. Two experiments were conducted with 184 male college students. Experiments 1 determined the effect of perceived task difficulty and attribution instructions on the ball tossing performance of high achievers while competing against a standard of excellence. Results indicate that high achievers performed with greater intensity when receiving an effort rather than ability orientation instructional set and when they perceive themselves to be behind a normative score of their classmates. Low as well as high achievers were added to the 2nd study and were placed in face to face competition instead of a competition against a standard of experiment ii support Kukla’s theory in that high achievers performed best when they perceived themselves to be behind on opponents score midway through the experiment, whereas low achievers performed best when they perceived themselves to be ahead. Results from the cognitive assessment procedures, however, failed to support the performance findings.

Weinberg Et Al. (1982) 53 conducted a study on male and female (n=60) athletes to highlight the effect of evaluation on causal and trait attributions at the pursuit roter task. Subjects were asked to perform ten trails and were provided bogus feedback via a computer. After assessing
causal and trait attributions subjects performed ten more trails and again given bogus performance feedback. Results indicated a significant sex main effect with females viewing luck as a more important causal determinant of performance than males. The success-failure main effect indicated that subjects attributed primarily to internal factors of ability and efforts whereas failure was attributed to the task difficulty.

Auvergne (1983) 54 conducted a study on (n=45) high and low achiever skiers and recorded their causal attributions. Three groups were made on the basis of their performance i.e. above average, average and below average groups. Analysis revealed that how athletes (skiers) who obtained high, average or poor competition results differed with respect to achievement and causal attributions (skiers) attributed success internally and failure externally than did athletes whose performances were poor. Low achieving athletes were less consistent in their causal attributions for both success and failure.

Humble (1983) 55 conducted two experiments and determined if 8-10 years old children could be directionally influence in their causal attributions for success or failure on motor achievement task. In 1st experiment 84 subjects were provided cause effect information about a motor task and then experienced a single trail of manipulated success or failure at a task. Only those subjects who were informed that effort was necessary for task success and then experienced success attributed their task outcome to the
hypothesized cause (effort) at a significant rate (pc .002). In experiment ii 168 subjects received cause effect information but were given three trails of either success, failure, or mixed outcomes. Hypothesized attribution tendencies were again limited to conditions where subjects were told that effort was necessary and then experienced either all or mostly success outcomes. These results indicate that the treatment has potential for influencing causal attributions within prescribed situations. Experiment had revealed that the influence was not always internalized by subjects.

McCauley Et Al (1983) 56 argued that the previous research in academic achievement setting has indicated that causal attributions for success and failure outcomes are important determinants of effective reactions to the outcomes in sports. They examined the relationship between the dimensions underlying causal attributions and effective reaction to performance outcomes in table-tennis. 62 undergraduates played a table tennis game against an opponent matched on sex, ability and completed the causal dimension scale. Attribution processes were important determinants of effective reactions, particularly for winners. In contrast to previous findings, the locus of causality dimension was not an important determinant of effect. Instead, controllability appeared to be the most influential causal dimension. Winner attributions were more internal, stable and controllable than those of losers. But attributions were of an internal, unstable and controllable nature for both winners and losers.
McCauley (1984) 57 conducted a study on female gymnasts (n=52) and it was seen that perceptions of causality and success in women’s intercollegiate tournament and to determine the relative influence of perception of success on causal explanation for performance and the reciprocal influences, if any, of causal attributions on perceptions of success. Gymnasts completed the Russell’s (1982) causal dimension scale performance of each event. The score awarded by the judges for each event was employed as an objective, absolute measure of performance. Analysis revealed more internal, stable and controllable attributions for performance were made by those gymnasts who scored high and perceived their performance as more successful than those gymnasts who scored lower and perceived their performance as less successful.

Rajeski and Brawley (1983) 58 discussed the sport psychological perspectives of attribution theory in terms of present and future concerns and present a critical evaluation of existing approaches to the study of sports attribution. Typical characteristics of such an investigation and their problems are outlined. Some inherited from psychology and others unique to sport. This critical analysis under scores the narrowness of previous interests. The broad scope of attribution is presented to emphasize the wealth of research problems that could be studied in addition to these concerning self-focus on achievement outcomes. Recent investigations of attribution in sport are briefly described to exemplify new research directions. These examples sketch the importance of subject’s phenomenology, the situational and internal variables affecting attributions and a
developmental comment. If future studies recognize the rich array of social inference problems within the sport context and confront previous investigative errors, the results should be productive decade of attributions research in sport psychology.

Mark Et Al (1984) 59 conducted two studies to examine the attribution style of winners and losers in the second round of organized squash (study 1) and racquetball (study 2) tournaments. In 1st study subjects included six players in the top section of the local league, 16 players with at best 3 years of experience, and 37 novice players. In study 2 subjects including 16 players of highest ability, 4 above average and 6 average were taken. Subjects reported their attributions on the causal dimension scale. Results indicate that there is no difference between players of different experiences/ability level. Winners and losers did not differ in the locus of causality of their attributions, but winners, relative to losers, made more stable and controllable attributions.

A field study was conducted by Roberts and Duda (1984) 60 which was designed as to determine the variables that best predict perceptions of success and failure, to examine this relationship for males and females, and to investigate the factors that lead to perceptions of demonstrated ability in males and females. 48 female and 49 male undergraduate racquetball players completed a questionnaire assessing their own and opponent's perceived ability, self confidence, reason for enrolling in racquetball class, and the importance placed on winning prior to a 2 person racquetball game.
Immediately after the contest a second questionnaire was administered that measured perceived satisfaction in the game (subjective success and failure), perception of own and opponent’s demonstrated ability, and the causal attributions of winners and losers. Regression analysis revealed that perception of demonstrated ability was significantly related to perception of success and failure for both men and women. However, males and females used different information variables to determine whether ability had been displayed. For males, outcome and attributions to task difficulty and strategy predicted perception of ability for females; attribution to skill and luck were more important.

**Tenenbaum Et Al** (1984) 61 examined the distinction between sport-specific attributions and general locus of causality by administering Rotter’s Ent-Ext. Loc scale and wingate sports ach. responsibility scale on 69 team athletes, 38 individual athletes. Both scales were found to be reliable and valid through the probabilistic research model. Correlations should be examined separately from general loc. Results also suggest that successful events should be examined separately from unsuccessful events and a distinction should be made between individual and team athletes.

**Kimiecik and Duda** (1985) 62 examined distinctions between open ended and forced choice causal attributions between open ended and forced choice causal attributions of 48 (9-12 years old) boys in a competitive sport setting. Subjects participated in a 1 on 1 basketball games and were interviewed after the games. A significant number of subjects experienced subjective success regardless of whether they won or lost, which suggests
that an objective outcome (win vs. loss) may not be the best way of defining success and failure in sport setting. When given the opportunity to respond freely subjects attributions were categorized as ability, effort, opponent difficulty, and luck. Finally, the attribution pattern for winners and losers differed significantly as function of the type of attribution assessment utilized. It was concluded that there may be a relationship among perceived compliance, subjective perceptions of success and failure and causal attributions.

**Rierdon Et Al (1985) 63** examined the generality of self-serving attribution biases and gender differences in attributions in an individual sport competition on 54 male and 25 female adult racquetball players involved in a small local tournament were asked to make attributions for the outcome of their matches in open ended format. Raters categorized subject’s responses along the dimension of locus of causality, controllability and stability. Results indicate that the self-serving bias was observed following wins in both males and females. Only female evidenced external attributions following losses. Males maintained a preference for internal attributions. Males made more unstable attributions than females, and this was particularly true following wins. Results are interpreted as proving evidence for the externals validity of the notion that females are attribution ally modest. Cautions are offered concerning the use of the term self-serving bias in competitive situations.

**Tenanbaum and Furst (1985) 64** have conducted a study to delineate the relationship between enduring sports attribution, and outcomes such as
perceived ability and sport type. The study has also examined the relationship between sports specific enduring and state attributions. The two tests Wingate sports achievement responsibility scale (wsars) and the causal dimension scale were given to 138 athletes who participated in individual sports (events) boxing, table tennis, track and field events (n=94) and team sports: soccer handball and basketball (n=44). All athletes were tested both prior to and following regular league and international competitions. Results revealed that individual athletes assigned unsuccessful sports events more internally than team athletes. A similar tendency was also found in successful events. It was also noted that winners assigned the causes more stable, controllable and partially more internally than losers. The higher perceived ability, the more internal the responsibility for both successful and unsuccessful events tended to rate the causes following a win more internally than their counterparts. Athletes internal for unsuccessful events tended to assign the causes following a loss more internally. But the differences did not reach significance.

Hewitt and Jackson (1986) 65 examined 20 high school and university tennis players rated the extend to which 5 factors (skill, hustle, off day, bad conditions and luck) contributed to a personal win and a personal loss, outcome was a significant factor only for the off day and hustle factors.

Tyler (1986) 66 assessed the sensitivity of group members to attribution styles for group performance. 32 ice hockey players gave their impressions of fictitious hockey player’s attributions for success or failure. Attributions were either self-serving or group-serving (i.e. individuals blamed
themselves for group failure and shared responsibility for group success). Subjects consistently reacted favourably to players exhibiting the group-serving pattern; especially in terms of the condition such a person would make the group-cohesiveness. Players from successful teams were judged to contribute more to group cohesion than players from failing teams. This attribution may contribute equally to group-cohesion under conditions of success or failure.

Watkins (1986) 67 examined attributions for sporting outcomes given by New Zealand newspapers using 27 undergraduates rating along three dimensions (locus of causality) stability and controllability. These findings suggest the stable causal explanations are more likely to be elicited by expected rather unexpected outcome was supported.

Croxton et al (1987) 68 investigated gender differences in attitudes towards sports attribution patterns after sports participation. 40 male and 40 female undergraduates responded to a sport emotional reaction profile developed by T. Tutko and U. Tosi (1978) and competed in an athletic contest against either a member of their own sex or a member of the opposite sex. The outcomes were rigged so that half of the subjects experienced a win and half of the experienced a loss. Results show that male expressed more competitive and assertive attitudes towards sports participation and were also more confident of success prior to the competition than females. However, the attribution of winning males and females were basically the same. Both losing males and females were basically the same. Both losing males and females were more likely to focus on characteristics of the
opponents when losing to member of the opposite sex than when losing to a member of their own sex.

The relationship between personal selfefficacy and causal explanation given for performance in a competitive sport setting was examined by Dancan and McAuley (1987) 69. The 84 undergraduates were manipulated into high and low efficacy groups, engaged in competitive motor task against an opponent, and then causal attributions for outcome. Analysis did not reveal any significant differences between high and low efficacy groups. Causal explanation for outcome, however, winners made more stable controllable attributions than losers.

Robinson and Howe (1987) 70 determined which of the causal dimensions of locus, stability and controllability were most clearly associated with mood states profiles for both personal performance and team win or loss outcomes. The causal dimension scale and the profile of mood states were administered to 17 male university soccer players to assess attribution inferences and mood profile over a three game period. Successful performance was achieved by 7 subjects, whereas 10 subjects were unsuccessful. Unavailable analysis revealed that the unsuccessful subjects experienced significant pre to post game mood disturbance, while the successful subjects demonstrated positive mood profiles for both pre and post game conditions. Successful subjects also attributed positive mood profiles for both pre and post game conditions. Successful subjects also attributed significantly more too controllable and stable factors than did the unsuccessful group.
Luginbuhl and Bell (1989) examined 34 male athletes (10 horizontal jumpers, 12 sprinters and 12 throwers) specializing in one of three track and field events. One athlete read a vignette about another performer who performed below expectations and a fourth vignette about a pole vaulter who performed above expectations. After each vignette, subjects were asked to list three factors that contributed to the performance of the target person. It was found that when the ego involvement of subjects was high (rating an athlete from their own specialty area), they made situational attributions than when their ego involvement was low (rating an athlete from another specialty area). Subjects also made more dispositional attributions for successful performance than for the unsuccessful one.

Shaw Et Al (1992) examined (n=60) male undergraduates by administering the self-efficacy questionnaire and causal dimension scale ii (CDS ii) to measure the perceived psychological momentum participants were randomly assigned to either a repeated success or a repeated failure group in which success or failure was manipulated by having participants compete against a highly skilled confederate. Each participant and confederate performed three sets of 10 basketball free throws. Free throw self-efficacy, perceived psychological momentum and causal dimensions were assessed after each set. Results indicated that the success and failure manipulations were effective in that the responses changed differently over time for both groups. Experiencing competitive success increased perceptions of momentum: experiencing competitive failure decreased perceptions of momentum. In contrast, self-efficacy only changed in response to
competitive success, as the participants became more confident. Both groups attributed the competitive outcome to internal, personally controllable and unstable causes.

Kent, R.L., and Mertinko, M.J. (1995) 73. The organization used to measure Attributional Style. This scale measure are extent to which an individual attributions negative work place events to external, stable, internal, controllable, and global causes with a five point linker scale. The following is an example of a negative work scenario,” you recently received a below average performance evaluation from your supervisor.”

Whittlesea and Williams (1998) 74 although no study has specifically examined whether the “aha” experience associated with solving problems might be confused with recollection, a number of students have demonstrated that the related experience of surprise influences recognition judgments.

Whittlesea and Williams. (2000) 75 suggested that the tendency to call the pseudo homophones old may have resulted from a misattribution of the surprise that participants experienced when an unfamiliar letter string suddenly sounded like a real word.

Shpancer ET. Al. (2006) 76 a working mother (wm) has much less time to spend with her child than a non-working mother (NWM). The review of literature indicating offspring of employed mothers may enjoy beneficial impact of it.

Higgins N.C. (2009) 77 the present study examined Attributional Styles and the effects of Attributional feedback on expectations, emotions,
and persistence behaviour during repeated failure. Those with a functional Attributional style who received functional feedback maintained higher expectations and hopefulness for future success (next trial), and showed greater persistence in the face of failure.

**Higgins N.C.** (2009) 78 Persistance, Attributions, Emotions, and Expectations were measured before and after the feedback. Subjects included 80 volunteers who were randomly assigned to the feedback groups and who completed a series of questionnaires and a set of test trials. Although all of the subjects became less optimistic (expecting less success on the next trial) prior to each new trial, it was the functional Attributional style group that continued to expect to do better while the dysfunctional Attributional style group’s expectations dropped dramatically over the trials. When coupled with Attributional style, the type of feedback had a powerful effect on persistence. Those with a functional Attributional Style who received functional feedback maintained higher expectations and hopefulness for further trials, and showed greater persistence. Those with a dysfunctional attribution style who received dysfunctional feedback dropped substantially in their expectations and hopefulness from trial to trial, and showed little or no tendency to persist.

**Leili Mosalanejad; Ahmad Alipor; Bahman Zandi** (2010) 78 Blended learning is a mixture of the various learning strategies and delivery methods that will optimize the learning experience of the user. This research evaluated psychological effect of blended learning on student. This research is a quasi-experimental study. 41 students participated in two groups and
they registered in the course of psychological diseases in the first semester of 2008–2009. Then, they were randomly divided into groups of traditional and blended methods. Data were gathered through attribution measurement test and neo personality test (neofife). Descriptive statistics were used to evaluate the patterns of data distribution. Analytic statistics such as paired-t test and student t-test were utilized to compare the differences of between the mean scores in pre and post tests. Then analysis of variance (ANOVA test) and chi square tests applied to evaluate the effects of research variables on each other. The mean score of academic achievement in the blended education group (mean=15.67, sd=1.65, t=3.06, p=0.004), was higher than that of the traditional education (mean=13.88, sd=2.06). In surveying the interaction between attribution style, type of teaching, and scores of academic achievement, it was revealed that there was a significant relationship between global–local favourable condition (p=/.04, f=10/52). Evaluating the interaction between type of teaching, student’s final scores and personality type based on ANOVA test revealed that there was a significant relationship between all personality factors (openness, extraversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness), except neuroticism criterion. The use of this educational method with standard designing strategies is recommended for teaching medical sciences.

A second major approach to achievement motivation rejects the expectancy – value formulation and analyzes instead the attributions that people make about achievement situations. In general, attribution theory concerns how people make judgments about someone’s (or their own)
behaviour—that is, the causes to which they attribute behaviour. Considerable research has found that people typically attribute behaviour either to stable personality characteristics, termed dispositions, or to the situations that were present at the time the behaviour occurred. 


2.2 (b). STUDIES CONDUCTED IN INDIA:

Gill Et Al (1982) 80 explored what kind of causal attributions are given in team competition and how the attributions of the winning and losing team differ. 352 open ended attributions were obtained in two field studies with 162 college women of volleyball teams and 2 in laboratory experiments with 128 undergraduates subjects completed attribution items following competition. All attributions were classified along the three causal dimensions of locus of causality, stability and controllability. Attributions were also classified as referring to self, to team-mates, to team as a whole, or to other factors and then sorted into specific categories. Log linear analysis revealed that attributions were predominantly internal, unstable and controllable. A significant win/loss effect reflected tendency for members of winning teams to use controllable and particularly unstable attributions more than members of losing team. Attributions refer to the team as a whole rather than to individual or other factors and team work was an especially popular causal explanation. Findings suggest that research on attributions in team competitions should focus on causal dimensions rather than the 4
traditional attributions of effort, ability, luck, and task difficulty and that further attention, should be given to team referent causal explanation.

**Aggarwal and Misra** (1986) conducted a study on 40 female subjects categorized into two internally and externally controlled by administering the *Levenson and Millers* (1975) i.e. locus of control scale. Findings of this study revealed that success was attributed to self by externals whereas effort by both externals and internals. Internally controlled subjects made consistent attributions across positive and negative outcomes. While externally controlled subjects made situation and context based attributions. It was concluded that internally controlled subjects utilized information processing while externally controlled subjects employ self-protective process in attribution.

**Dalal and Sethi** (1988) compared attribution of success and failure of high and low achiever subjects. They found that high achievers exhibit an increased tendency in comparison to low achievers to attribute success to their own efforts and to attribute failure to both lack of effort and task difficulty. They also found that effort responses correlated with Internal causes and expectation with stable causes.

**2.3. THE OVERALL VIEW:**

The review of research literature related to the problem presented in the foregoing pages, indicates that these studies were limited to personality and attribution style but very few studies have been conducted on sportsmen relating to their achievement. So far as known to the investigator no such
study has so far been conducted in India regarding the personality and attribution style. The present study deviates from previous investigations in that it covers such a wide field and collects data from relatively large number of cases. It covers male sportsmen of north zone universities. The present study covers a large sample on the basis of which definite conclusion can be drawn to the personality of high and low achieving sportsmen and attribution style of high and low achieving sportsmen. Thus, the researcher reasonably realized the importance and utility of the present research study and is very optimistic about its usefulness for educationists, psychologists, sports teachers and community at large.
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