CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE
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Hermans (1975) found that stress situations induced a performance deterioration within some persons and stimulated others to do better. He also showed that under stress situations the approach tendencies, labelled positive fear of failure, and the avoidance tendencies, labelled negative fear of failure, were partly determined by child rearing.

Calder and Staw (1975) found that an intrinsically interesting task became less leisure-like and less enjoyable with the introduction of an extrinsic reward. Contrarily, they found that a low intrinsic motivation task became more leisure-like and more enjoyable with the introduction of an extrinsic reward. Kruglanske et al. (1971) also confirmed that subjects in the 'no incentive condition' rated the experimental task as more enjoyable, were more likely to volunteer for similar tasks in the future and exhibited superiority in creativity of performance and task recall when compared to subjects in an external incentive condition.

Harter (1978, 1981) explains and predicts why people are motivated to participate in particular achievement areas. Individuals are motivated to be competent in achievement areas such as academics, sports, or peer relationships. In order to satisfy the urge towards competence, a person attempts mastery. When these attempts result in competent or successful performance, the person experiences positive effect. This in turn maintains or enhances competence
motivation. Individuals who perceive themselves as competent in sports are more likely to continue their participation, while those low in perceived physical competence will likely discontinue participation in the particular sport.

In Orlick's (1978) study 49 children, 24 girls and 25 boys in the age group of 9 to 11 years who expressed an initial intrinsic interest in a stabilometer (balance) task were exposed to one of four conditions: (a) conditionally expected award, (b) unexpected award, (c) no award but social reinforcement, and (d) no award and no social reinforcement. A one way analysis of variance on post experimental time on task yielded a significant main effect for experimental treatments on subsequent time on task ($p < 0.05$). A post hoc analysis (Scheffe) revealed that subjects who received no award and no social reinforcement spent a greater amount of post experiment time on the stabilometer than did subjects in the unexpected award condition ($p < 0.05$); post experimental date also revealed that when children in the two award conditions were combined and compared to those in the two non-award conditions, subjects in the award conditions spent less time with the target activity than did subjects in the non-award conditions ($p < 0.05$).

Dunleavy (1979) determined the effect of achievement motivation ($n$ Ach) and previous sports exposure upon current sports involvement. Sports involvement was conceptualized as involvement in (a) either competitive or recreational sports, and (b) either individual or team sports. Sports involvement was assessed through combined measures
of preference for and actual participation in sports. Two groups of 134 male undergraduate student volunteers (a) 54 high n Ach and 80 low n Ach, were categorized into high, moderate, and low exposure groups based upon previous sports exposure. Need achievement was measured by the Mehrabian Achievement Scale (Mehrabian, 1969). Analysis of the data indicated that (a) high n Ach was related to competitive and individual sports involvement (b) previous sports exposure was related to competitive sports involvement, but unrelated to individual sports involvement and (c) n Ach and previous exposure were independent rather than interactive predictors of competitive sports involvement.

Lefebvre (1979) found distinctive elements of achievement motivation in 40 top class male and female athletes. A questionnaire was constructed on the basis of interview data with athletes and on literature concerning the following elements: intermediate risk taking, intrinsic motivation, fear of failure and fear of success. Contrary to the predictions, male and female top athletes did not differ in their intermediate risk taking and in fear of success. On the other hand, females scored higher on intrinsic motivation and on fear of failure. It also dealt with the cognitive attributions of athletic performances to the underlying causes, like ability, effort, task and luck. As predicted ability and especially effort were considered as the primary causes for good achievements, while lack of effort and bad luck were important attributions for bad achievements. It also explored the possible links between the achievement motivation and the cognitive attribution
processes. Among other things, high achievers more than low achievers were found to attribute their successes internally.

Schmalt, Corron and Heckhausen (1980) observe that some individuals are characterized by a realistic, success-oriented attitude towards their own performance, whereas others have a rather unrealistic, failure-oriented attitude. Persons who are confident of success tend to set their goals relatively high, through a realistic understanding of their capabilities. In contrast, individuals who avoid failure, tend to set their goals either too low or too high with regard to the capabilities. These attitudes are closely related to the concept of person-specific motivational orientation, intensively investigated with in the research on achievement motivation.

Deci and Ryan (1980, 1985) have attempted to understand the effects of competition and other external events on intrinsic motivation within the framework of cognitive evaluation theory. They suggest that competition can affect intrinsic motivation differently, depending upon how one interprets or perceives the competitive situation. Specifically, the extent to which an external event, such as competitive outcome, is perceived to influence self-determination or reflect competence can have an impact upon intrinsic motivation.

Roberts, Kleiber, and Duda (1981) employed competence motivation theory in a study that examined the relationship of perceived competence to sport participant status. Herter’s perceived competence
scale for children was administered to 67 children of ages 9 to 11 years, who were classified as sport participants or nonparticipants according to whether they were currently involved in an organised sport programme. The findings revealed that level of perceived competence was related to sport participant’s status. The sport participants scored significantly higher on the perceived cognitive and physical, as well as general, self-worth sub-scales when compared to the non-participants.

Hosek and Man (1981) conducted a study of achievement motivation training of physical education teachers in Czechoslovakia. The experiment included 4 comparable homogeneous study groups (N=80). Two groups, experimental and control, were used. 37 students went through motivation training consisting of 12 training units, each lasting 19 minutes and carried out with one week interval. The training was carried out on the basis of Lin Hart’s functional system of activity and the model of active social learning. Achievement motivation was tested with the use of McClelland’s (1953) and Hochhasen’s (1963) methods. The data was given the statistical treatment (ANOVA). The results showed significant increase in achievement motivation after the termination of motivational training in experimental group; when experimental group was compared with the control groups they showed person’s behaviour as well as factual significance of observed differences. A significant decrease in achievement motivation was observed in the experimental group after the termination of the training. The results can be interpreted as relative
increase in achievement motivation of the experimental group as compared to the control group.

Iso-AHOLA and ALLEN (1982) investigated the effects of outcome (winning, losing, no outcome) of leisure participation on male and female subject’s leisure needs. Subjects were 438 players of 60 teams in the intramural basketball programme comprised of competitive and recreational leagues. Factor analysis produced seven need factors, of which three dealt with inter-personal relationships, two with competence and two with escape or diversion. ANOVA performed on the resultant factor scores showed that successful and unsuccessful leisure experiences strongly shaped subject’s needs for leisure participation, but these effects were often mediated by the sex of subjects and the competitive levels of leagues in which they played. Generally, winning and losing had just the opposite effect on males’ and females’ needs; winning increased females and decreased males needs. The effects of competitiveness of league types suggested that competitive and recreational leagues serve different psychological functions for males and females because the two leagues are expected to fulfill different leisure needs.

Weber (1983) took 559 runners participating in a people’s run who were selected randomly and asked about their motives and experiences and about the effects of running. The average age was 38. They had been running for more than five years. The average runner ran six hours a week. The most important results are that regular and intensive
running brings profound changes, positively influences one's general mood, sense of self and social contacts, and effects vitally, physical health and fitness and outward appearance. The motive spiritual compensation has overwhelming significance for the regular runner. Fitness and health appear as ancillary motives.

Blais (1982) conducted a study of achievement motivation on basketball players. The purpose of the study was to verify the validity of the assumption that participants perceived winning and losing, as success and failure, and to identify the meaningful responses of the target population. Open questionnaire was administered to 216 male and female basketball players. The results indicated that they exhibited wide variety of perceptions of success and failure, and that equating winning and losing with success and failure may represent an erroneous assumption. The most frequent responses to personal success and team success were pride, while for personal failure and team failure discouragement was most frequently evoked.

Nault (1982) investigated the effect of achievement motivation on risk taking behaviour and motor performance. The purpose of the study was to examine the decision making process of individuals performing motor task within the construct of an achievement motivation situation. The thesis advanced by the investigator was that the conditions of the achievement setting created in task studies, were dissimilar to the conditions prevailing in sports relating situations. Subjects were 60 male high school students. The SCAT was used in the study. The
results revealed that high achievers obtained better performance than low achievers in preliminary phase, where the elements of risk taking and perceived ability were not involved. None of the effects were significant in the analysis where these last two factors were taken into account.

Feltz and Petlichkoff (1983) also applied competence motivation theory in their examinations of the relationship between perceived competence and length of involvement in sports programs for both sport participants and dropouts. Some 239 school athletes comprised the participant sample, while 43 former school athletes comprised the dropout sample. Only the physical competence subscale of Harter’s (1979) perceived competence scale for children was administered. The results showed that the current participants scored higher in perceived physical competence compared to the sport dropouts.

Gill, Gross and Huddleston (1983) also conducted a recent investigation of participation motivation of young athletes. Specifically participation motives of 720 boys and 418 girls attending university of Iowa: summer sports schools, in basketball, baseball, golf, gymnastics, football, wrestling, tennis and track were examined. Results revealed that to improve skills, competition, fun, and learning new skills, being fit, and challenge are the most important factors. Factor analysis on the important ratings were also calculated separately for boys and girls and the total sample which suggests that the factors of success, team atmosphere, friendship, fitness, energy release, skill development and
fun are the basic participation motive dimensions of young athletes. Females, however, were found to be different from males in the importance they placed on the achievement, status factor, rating this factor as being of less importance.

Carpinter (1983) obtained an interview questionnaire data from reports of 21 university waterpolo players, regarding their mental life, and dreams, as related to sport. Selected variables from these interviews were contrasted to coach’s rating of performance, and intensity motivation. Significant relationships were obtained between the amount of time athletes reportedly spent thinking about their sport during the season and ratings of ‘intensity-motivation’ with those spending less time thinking of the sport, being rated higher in intensity. A variety of self initiated coping strategies were described by the athletes for dealing with pre-competition anxiety. No significant relationships were found between the type of skill imagery reported, the degree to which the athlete managed his mental life, and coach’s ratings of ability and motivation-intensity.

Gill and her associates (1983) created a participation motivation inventory based on extensive pilot work in which 1500 participants in youth sports programs were interviewed and asked to rate the degree of importance he/she attached to each reason for participating in sports. Factor analysis of the data revealed eight general motivational factors: achievement or status motivation, team spirit, fitness-oriented reasons, energy release, skill development, friendship, fun, and miscellaneous...
reasons (e.g., parents or close friends want me to participate). A related study by Gould et al. (1985), using the participation motivation inventory, produced similar factors.

Other factors like independence, power, aggression, and the influence of others (e.g. parents coaches), as well as the desire for enjoyment or fun, are cited often by youth as major reasons for their participation in sports (Gould & Horn, 1984; Passer, 1982).

Nicholls and Miller (1984) found that achievement goals are linked to different conceptions of ability. Specifically, according to them there are two major achievement goals that involve different conceptions of competence; task-involved and ego-involved goals. In the case of task-involved goals, the subjective experience of improving one’s performance or of performing a task better than expected generates feelings of competence and perceived success. For example a basketball player who has task involved goals would focus more on improving offensive skills than as how he or she compared offensively to others. Therefore, perceptions of success when one is oriented to task-involved goals are based on the less differentiated conception of ability. In respect to ego-involved goals, perceptions of success entails a favorable comparison of one’s current athletic capacity relative to that of others (a demonstration of the more differentiated conception of ability). Thus a basketball player who was ego-involved would be more concerned with demonstrating that he or she is the best player and
would be likely to place importance on his/her standing relative in peers.

Man, Hondlik (1984) presented a motivation training program which was integrated in the normal course of physical education of two classes in the 4 graders; 63 pupils in the age group of 10-11 years of the elementary school were administered the Schmalt's Achievement Motivation Grid (1976b). This program was based on the application of the following principles: realistic goal-setting; adequate use of the patterns of attribution also with respect to prospective orientation individual reference norm orientated achievement evaluation cooperation as a factor conditioning a successful result in a number of situations. The programme lasted 5 months, two lessons of physical education a week. The experimental group compared to the control sample showed expected changes, especially in Net Hope (NH₁, p < 0.001). Hope of success (HS₁, p < 0.05); however the sample did not differs in the values of fear of failure. Total values of achievement motivation for all six spheres, however, did not show any statistically significant difference between the experimental and the control samples.

Phillips (1984) investigated the issue of accurate and under-estimating self perceptions in the academic domain. She examined the question of whether children's perceptions of their academic competence influenced motivational determinants of achievement behaviour when the contribution of actual ability was
controlled. Fifth-grade children (N = 117) who were all described as highly competent according to standard achievement scores were categorized as accurate (High) or inaccurate (Low) with regard to perceived competence based on scores from Harter’s (1982) cognitive subscale. Measures tapping subjective standards and expectancies, motivational orientations, and classroom achievement behaviours were obtained. Results indicated that students with low, inaccurate perceptions of their academic competence, in comparison to their high accurate perceived competence peers, set less demanding standards of achievement and aspired to lower levels of performance, reported luck attributions for high grade and lack of ability attributions for low grades, and were portrayed by teachers as less persistent in their school work. Contrary to expectations few gender differences emerged. Not only did equal percentages of boys and girls fell into the low, average and high perceived competence groups, but both genders also exhibited similar achievement orientations.

Uppal, Sidhu and Gangopadhyay, (1985) conducted a study of sports motivation of Indian and Zimbabwean Women Hockey teams. Data were collected on Indian (N = 15) and Zimbabwean (N = 15) women Hockey teams which participated in the First Indira Gandhi Gold Cup Hockey Tournament held at New Delhi. Data on sports motivation was gathered. The sports motivation scale developed by Butt (1976) was employed. The questionnaire was administered to the players personally. The players were assembled at a common place so as to give them instructions regarding the proper way of answering the
questions and also for clarifying doubts if any. For every correct answer one mark was awarded and every wrong answer was graded as zero.

To determine the significance of differences between the means of total sports motivation and also for component of the sports motivation separately, the mean difference method using ratio was employed. The analysis of data revealed that there was no significant difference in sports motivation (total) of Indian and Zimbabwean Women Hockey Teams. However, when the means of different components of sports motivation for both the teams were compared, it was observed that Zimbabwean team showed significantly high neurotic conflict score as compared to Indian team and Indian team had significantly higher score in co-operation as compared to the Zimbabwean team. In the remaining three components i.e., aggression, competence and competition, the differences in the means between the two teams were not found statistically significant.

Klint (1985) investigated the motives and self-perceptions of current and former youth sport athletes. All four subscales of Harter’s (1982) perceived competence scale for children were administered to 106 males and females, representing current recreational and competitive gymnasts, as well as former elite gymnasts. The results showed both the perceived social and physical subscale measures differentiated the three participant status groups. And it was found that the former and recreational gymnasts scored significantly higher in perceived social competence when compared to the competitive gymnasts.
Additionally, the former gymnasts were significantly higher in perceived physical competence when compared to the recreational participants only. This may be explained by the fact that the former elite gymnasts had all experienced some degree of success in gymnastics as well as other competitive sports since they left gymnastics. The contradictory nature of these studies suggests that further investigations are necessary.

Shephard (1985) examined whether personal factors influence participants decisions to begin and continue exercise programmes. He summarized three surveys - the Canada Fitness Survey, Toronto Life Assurance Study and General Food Study. Results from the Canada Fitness Survey indicated that the 13,500 individuals preferred individual sports such as walking and cycling over other activities, especially structured exercise classes. Forty percent of the individuals indicated they would participate in physical activity if they had more time, because it makes them feel better and is fun and exciting. Females also valued the benefit of weight control and improved flexibility. Workers in Toronto (N = 1800) completed Kenyan’s Scale. Five groups of individuals high and low adherents, dropouts, non-participants and controls all reported the same four values for physical activity: Catharsis, Aesthetics, health and social contacts. Workers in General Food Study reported similar values for physical activity. They noted that exercise was valued for health, fun, socializing, enhanced physical appearance and the development of self-discipline. Shephard states. "It may be premature to draw conclusions about factors that would
encourage recruitment to and persistence in an exercise program”. However, the author suggests that all participants will be more likely to join an exercise programme if a wide range of activities are offered and incentives are provided to join. Participants may be higher in an exercise programme if external incentives (e.g. money, T-shirts) are given until the exerciser reaches a fitness level at which intrinsic rewards of exercise are possible.

Vallerand, Gauvin and Halliwell (1986), offering a Best Performance Award on a stabilometer task of fifth and sixth grade French-Canadian boys in a tournament, investigated the effects of competition on perceived competence following performance on a 4-point scale. Intrisic motivation was operationalized as initial task choice and time spent on the stabilometer during a post-experiment free-choice period. Results indicated that losers were less intrinsically motivated and perceived themselves to be less capable than winners. The authors concluded that the findings support the cognitive evaluation theory of Deci and Ryan (1980, 1985). Vallerand and his colleagues further suggested that competition can affect intrinsic motivation by reducing an individual’s sense of self determination as well as "by leading individuals to perceive themselves as being in-competent through their in ability to obtain performance contingent rewards".

Singh and Sharma (1987) conducted a study to find out the motives for participating in sports wing and competitive sports activity of 100
male sports wing players representing five colleges and Panjab University Campus. The players belonged to handball, Table-tennis, badminton, Lawn-tennis, athletic, basketball, cricket and wrestling. On the basis of importance rating they found that most of the players wanted to be physically fit, team work, improve their skills, learn new skills, their last preference being to get out of the house.

They developed nine factors on the basis of factor loading and clustering of motives into the factors; their first factor was identified as social factor, second career making, third team atmosphere, fourth-fitness, fifth-recognition, sixth - competition, ninth - facility. However, they failed to recognize seventh and eighth factors.

Duda (1988) examined the relationship between goal perspectives and selected motivation behaviours (i.e., persistence and intensity) among intramural league participants. Persistence was defined as the number of years of participation in the sport and intensity was operationalized as the hours/week spent practicing the recreational sport in the student’s free time. Results indicated that greater persistence and intensity corresponded to the student’s emphasis on task involvement in sport.

Higgs Catriona Thorpe (1989) found that motivational factors influencing the performance of elite women athletes were identified by professional women tennis players and professional women bowlers. Data were collected by means of a modified ethnographic technique
involving the use of open ended interview. The recorded interviews were transcribed and analyzed in depth to determine if any recurring themes existed. Motivational factors influencing the performance of elite women athletes were found to differ according to the sport participated in and were dependent on the athlete's initial, present, and future involvement with the sport. The result of the study provided qualitative data of the area of motivation within the world of professional women athletes.

Whitehead and James Robert (1989) investigated motivational outcomes consequent to participation in physical fitness testing procedures. Seventh and eighth grade school children (N = 165) were administered the intrinsic motivation inventory before and after participating in a fitness test where they received bogus positive, negative or no verbal feedback (control). MANOVA and casual modeling procedures revealed that positive feedback increased intrinsic motivation while negative feedback decreased it. Analysis showed that changes in intrinsic motivation were mediated by changes in perceived competence. In a second experiment seventh and eighth graders (N = 370) participated in either the president's challenge or the FITNESS GRAM fitness tests. Because of their different evaluative procedures and incentive schemes, it was hypothesised that these tests would have different effects on intrinsic motivation, MANOVA and ANOVA revealed no significant differences between fitness test groups on intrinsic motivation or physical self worth. However, there was a clear gender effect on the perceived competence aspect of intrinsic
motivation and self worth. These results partially support the case for applying the tenets of cognitive evaluation theory and effectance motivation theory of fitness testing situations in order to avoid threats to intrinsic motivation.

Rosenbery and Jeffrey (1989) investigated coaching leadership styles on team climate, achievement motivation, and performance in women's gymnastics. They also developed an instrument to identify the gymnastics coaching leadership styles. The class (1) advanced female gymnasts were between 14 to 17 years of age. The gymnasts had a minimum of 2 years training with the coach participating in the study. Two teams were combined into each leadership style, 16 gymnasts in the authoritative group that completed the Team Climate Questionnaire (TCQ) and the Berlin Sport Motivation Q sort, while 12 were included in the democratic group which completed the TCQ and the Q sort, and 11 participated in the performance measure. Seventeen gymnasts in the situation specific group completed the TCQ and the Q sort, and 11 were included in the performance measure.

After the data were compiled, a one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was utilized to identify any statistically significant differences between the coaching leadership styles groups with regard to team climate, achievement motivation, and performance. Within the limitations and delimitations of this investigation, the following conclusions may be drawn: (1) Leadership style does influence differences in team climate between situational and authoritative
groups. (2) Leadership style does influence differences in achievement
motivation between democratic and authoritative groups, and between
democratic and situation specific groups. (3) Leadership style does not
influence differences in performance and authoritative and democratic
groups, between the authoritative and situation specific group or
between the democratic and situation specific groups.

Duda (1989) examined the relationship between goal perspective
and participation and persistence in sport among 871 high school
students. In accord with recent cognitive motivation theories, two
major goal perspectives were assessed i.e., a task involved or mastery
goal orientation and an ego-involved or social comparative perspective.
The subjects were divided in five groups based on their involvement
in sport: (1) those involved in organized and recreational sport, (2) those
involved in organized sport only, (3) those involved in recreational
sport only, (4) those who dropped out of sport and (5) those never
involved in sport. Each subject indicated his/her preference for sport
success and failure which was mastery/social comparison-based and
oriented to the individual/group. MANOVAS and discriminant analysis
revealed significant participation group differences with the organized
sport only and organized/recreational sport participants indicating
greater preference for each goal perspective than dropouts and non-
participants. Further, results indicated that dropouts, non-participants
and those subjects presently involved in organized sport only placed
less emphasis on mastery-based success than social comparison-based
success. Dropouts and organized sport only participants had the least
preference for social comparison failure. These findings reveal how an emphasis on social comparison goals (and de-emphasis on mastery goals) might lead to a lack of persistence in athletic contexts.

Hayajneh and Ahmed Ali (1989) determined the differences between American and Jordanians in their reasons for participating in and dropping out of youth sports programme and examined factors in achievement motives that might discriminate between American and Jordanians in terms of perceived competence, perceived control, extrinsic/intrinsic motivation and achievement goals. The sample consisted of two groups: sixty five American and sixty seven Jordanians. Both samples consisted of male and female sport participants and sports dropouts between the ages of 11 and 17 years. Questionnaires were administered to the American sample, while data for the Jordanian sample was utilized through systematic stratified selection process from an earlier study in 1986. The most important reasons that Americans had for sport participation were liking to have fun, liking to improve skills and liking to learn new skills. For Jordanians, liking the team spirit, liking to be popular and liking to travel, were the most important reasons for participation in sports. Both American and Jordanian dropouts listed emphasis on winning and losing and the lack of fun as the most important reasons for dropping out of sport programmes. There were no significant differences found between Americans and Jordanians in the factors of Achievement Motivation for sports participation. However, one factor which emerged with regard to Maehr and Nicholls' (1980) model is that the Americans were found to
be more task and independence oriented while the Jordanians were found to be more ability and social approval oriented.

It was concluded that Americans and Jordanians had different reasons for participation and similar reasons for dropping out of sport programs. There were no significant differences found between the two groups in Harter's (1978) achievement motives model, while some differences were found in terms of Maehr and Nicholl’s (1981) Model of achievement orientation. Americans were found to be more independent and task oriented while Jordanians were found to be more social and ability goal oriented.

McAuley and Terry Duncan and Vance V. Tammen (1989) designed to assess selected psychometric properties of the Intrinsic Motivation Inventory (IMI) (Ryan, 1982) a multidimensional measure of subjects experience with regard to experimental tasks. Subjects (N = 116) competed in a basketball free throw shooting game, following which they completed the IMI. The LISREL VI computer program was employed to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis to assess the tenability of a five factor hierarchical model representing four first-order factors or dimensions and a second-order general factor representing intrinsic motivation. Indices of model acceptability tentatively suggest that the sport data adequately fit the hypothesized five factor hierarchical model. Alternative models were tested but did not result in significant improvements in the goodness-of-fit indices, suggesting the proposed model to be the most accurate of the models tested.
Coefficient alphas for the four dimensions and the overall scale indicated adequate reliability.

Bar-eli (1989) believed that the ability to cope with psychological stress, and competitive motivation, were two variables which were considered to affect motor performance. So he applied the Bayesian approach in order to estimate the diagnostic relevance of these two constructs on pre-start Vulnerability to psychological crisis before competition. 28 West German basketball experts and 45 Israeli team handball experts responded to a psychological crisis questionnaire (competition) in which they were asked to assess the components of the Bayesian likelihood ratio for each level of the two psychological constructs. ANOVA and paired t-test procedures were applied to the data. The results revealed that under a non-crisis condition, very high coping ability and balance motivation were mostly probable, while the reverse was true under a crisis condition. The results were similar for both samples.

Little and McCullagh (1989) examined 45 girls in the age group 12 to 15 years to find the potential interaction effects of using different instructional strategies with intrinsically and extrinsically motivated youths. Subjects whose motivation to participate in sports was either one on intrinsic mastery or extrinsic mastery were randomly placed in one of two instructional groups: Knowledge of results (KR) or knowledge of performance (KP). All four groups received a videotaped modeled demonstration of the skill to be learned, the tennis forehand.
subjects participated in a 3 day acquisition period and a 1 day testing phase, during which both form and outcome scores were recorded. Analysis of acquisition outcome scores yielded no significant differences between motivational orientation and instructional groups. Multivariate analysis of the test phase outcome and form scores revealed significant group differences, as well as significant group-by-motivation and group-by-blocks interactions. Subsequent discriminant analysis indicated that form scores were more affected than outcome scores by the instructional and motivational group manipulations. The interaction results of the test phase supported the prediction of different performance effects as a function of motivational orientation and instructional strategy.

In Weber and Wertheim's (1989) study at a community gymnasium, 55 women community gymnasts were randomly assigned to one of three groups. Control, self-monitoring of gymnasium attendance, or self-monitoring of attendance plus extra staff attention. The effect of these interventions on gymnasium attendance over 3 months were examined. A 3 x 4 (Group X time Phase, first 3 weeks to last three weeks) ANOVA indicated that the main effects for group and time predicted attendance at the gymnasium. Attendance during the first 3 weeks was significantly greater than attendance thereafter. The control subjects attended significantly less than the self-monitoring subjects at all phases. Further research is suggested toward using self-monitoring staff support and periodic progress feedback for increasing program adherence.
Deeter (1989) conducted a study regarding development of a model of achievement behaviour for physical activity. The purpose of the study was to evaluate the relationships among various individual difference variables and their roles in predicting achievement behaviours in a physical activity setting. Two samples of male and female university students consisting of 315 and 146 subjects, enrolled in required physical education skills programmes were drawn. The results showed that a model including the behavioural commitment indices produce n Ach. and determination but with substantial degree of parsimony. Also this model accounted for a large percentage of variances of the performance indices.

Gold, Ginger Lee (1990) investigated the achievement orientation, self-confidence, and attribution of five female collegiate varsity tennis players ages 18-22. Changes in these constructs were described and their interrelationships were explored over a single competitive tennis season. Quantitative and qualitative measures, including questionnaires, interviews and journals were used to assess achievement orientation, self-confidence, and attributions. The results were integrated to develop player motivation profiles. Results indicated that: (a) the players were stable in their level of achievement orientation to a match, irrespective of confidence level, (b) each player’s achievement orientation had different characteristics, (c) athlete’s prematch expectations were higher for events they won, (d) following matches which they won, athletes tended to have lower expectations for winning the next match, and (e) substantial increases
and decreases in expectancy to win and play well were observed between matches. Finally, the advantages of using an idiographic design to study fluctuations in athlete's motivation were underscored.

Weiss's (1990) study about children (N = 133) 8 to 13 years of age, who were attending a summer sport program, completed a series of questionnaires designed to assess perceptions of competence and control, motivational orientation, and competitive trait anxiety. Measures of physical competence were obtained by teachers ratings that paralleled the children's measure of perceived competence. Perceived competence and teacher's ratings were standardized by grade level, and an accuracy score was computed from difference between these scores. Children were then categorized as underestimators, accurate raters, or overestimators according to upper and lower quartiles of this distribution. A 2 x 2 x 3 (age level by gender by accuracy) MANOVA revealed a significant interaction of gender by underestimating. Girls were lower in challenge motivation, high in trait anxiety and more external in their control of perceptions than accurate or overestimators. Underestimating boys were higher in perceived unknown control than accurate and overestimating subjects. Their perceived competence may be a likely factor for discontinuation of sports activities or low levels of physical achievement.

Peter Brodkin and Maureen R. Weiss (1990) studied the developmental differences in motives for participating in competitive
swimming across the lifespan. Six age groupings were chosen based on underlying cognitive criteria identified in the literature - younger and older children, high school/college age, and young, middle, and older adults. Swimmers from YMCAS (N = 100) completed the participation motivation questionnaire modified by Gould, Feltz, and Weiss (1985). An exploratory factor analysis identified seven factors: characteristics of competitive swimming, health/fitness, social status, affiliation, energy release, significant others, and fun. A MANOVA on the factor scores revealed a significant age group main effect. Follow-up analysis indicated that characteristic of competitive swimming was rated significantly lower by the older adults while social status was rated significantly higher by older children and high school/college age swimmers. Significant others were rated significantly higher by children and fun was rated most important by younger children and older adults. Finally, health/fitness motives were rated highest by young and middle adults and lowest by older children and older adults.

Edward McAuley and Terry E. Duncan (1990) investigated the roles of intuitive (subjective performance perceptions) and reflective (causal attributions) appraisals in the generation of affective reactions to gymnastics performance of college students 32 males, 49 females in age group from 18 to 31 years. They were asked to complete a short background questionnaire documenting age, sex, and year in school prior to performing their floor exercise routine. Both intuitive and cognitive appraisal were significant predictors of general effect,
whereas self-related effects were predominantly influenced by intuitive appraisal and other related effect by causal dimensions. The stability dimension evidenced the strongest relationship with both general and other related affective reactions. Commonality analysis determined both types of appraisal to account for up to 14.7% of the cojoint variance in emotional reactions, suggesting that intuitive appraisal may well be perceived as causal attributions under certain circumstances.

Whitehead and Corbin (1991) took seventh and eighth grade school children as subjects (N = 105) who volunteered for an experiment that was ostensibly to collect data on a new youth fitness test (The Illinois Agility Run). After two untimed practice runs, a specially adapted version of the Intrinsic Motivation Inventory (IMI) was administered as a pretest of Intrinsic Motivation. Two weeks later when subjects ran again, they were apparently electronically timed. In reality, the subjects were given bogus feedback. Subjects in a positive feedback condition were told their scores were above the 80th percentile, while those in a negative feedback condition were told their scores were below the 20th percentile. Those in a control condition received no feedback. The IMI was again administered to the subjects after their runs. Multivariate and subsequent univariate tests were significant for all four sub-scale dependent variables (perceived interest-enjoyment, competence, effort, and pressure-tension). Positive feedback enhanced all aspects of intrinsic motivation, whereas negative feedback decreased them.
Butt and David (1992) found the motivational differences among tennis players who were compared on variables from Butt’s (1987) sport protocol. The 46 participants represented: (1) an elite group of players of Davis Cup Calibre (current or ex-Davis Cup players); (2) a university competitive tennis team; and (3) a group of recreational players. The psychometric properties of scales and their intercorrelations were reported. Multiple-range tests yielded significantly different levels of ambition, aggression, competence, competition and control between the groups with the elite group scoring most highly on all variables.

Richard M. Ryckman and Jane Hamel (1992) examined 72 ninth grade female adolescent’s involvement in organised team sports. Answering several questions about the degree of their involvement in organized team sports, and responding to three personality inventories designed to assess the intrapersonal motivational variables, including affiliation, competition, and achievement were investigated as predictors of degree of sport involvement. Involvement was operationalized as the number of different sports played by these adolescents. Stepwise multiple regression analysis indicated that girls who had greater involvement in sports had stronger needs for positive stimulation through friendship and weaker needs for emotional support and attention than girls with lower levels of involvement. Girls with higher involvement also had stronger competitive attitudes based on personal development goals. There was, however, no relation between hyper-competitiveness (competitive attitudes aimed at
self-aggrandizement and opponent denigration) and sport involvement for these adolescents.