REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Researches have been conducted on different aspects of psychological phenomenon connected with sports performance. A careful search of related literature was made through the studies of books, periodicals, journals and other relevant material in the library.

Studies Related to Achievement Motivation

Sarmento et al. (2008) compare the achievement goal, self-determination and beliefs about the nature and determinants of sportive competence in function of competitive level in 3 groups of adult football players: Professionals (n=105), Semi-Professionals (n=156) and Amateurs (n=78). There were no significant differences in motivational orientations as a function of a competitive level. Amateur players, when compared with Professionals, presented significantly higher levels of a motivation and strongly believed that their sport competence was stable; nevertheless, they reported lower levels of identified regulation. On the other hand, Professionals and Semi-Professionals when compared with Amateurs revealed significantly higher levels of introjected regulation and strongly believed that their competence for the practice of football was due to learning and able to be improved.

Muola (2010) investigate the relationship between academic achievement motivation and home environment among standard eight pupils. The study was carried out on 235 standard eight Kenyan pupils from six urban and rural primary schools randomly selected from Machakos district. Their age ranged between 13 and 17 years. Two questionnaires, the simple profile (SP) and home environment questionnaire, were used to provide information on the pupil’s levels of academic motivation and home environment. A significant (p < 0.05) positive relationship was found between six of the home environmental factors, that is fathers’ occupation (r = 0.22),
mothers’ occupation ($r = 0.26$), fathers’ education ($r = 0.15$), mothers’ education ($r = 0.14$), family size ($r = 0.26$) and learning facilities at home ($r = 0.23$) and academic achievement motivation. Parental encouragement was the only factor that was not significantly ($r = 0.03$) related to academic achievement motivation. Although these correlations are low, they showed that pupils’ motivation to do well in academic work is to some extend dependent on the nature of their home environment. It was recommended that parents need to be aware of the importance of their role in their children’s academic achievement motivation so that they can provide the necessary facilities at home.

Schilling and Hayashi (2001) studied achievement motivation among high school basketball and cross-country athletes: a personal investment perspective. Goal perspective research in the sport setting has primarily focused on task and ego goal orientations, while failing to address the influence of social goals (e.g., Urdan & Maehr, 1995). Maehr and Braskamp’s (1986) personal investment theory allows researchers to examine achievement motivation from a multidimensional perspective that incorporates social factors of motivation. Thus, the purpose of this study was to examine the nature of the personal incentives, sense of self, and perceived options (Maehr & Braskamp, 1986) of basketball and cross-country athletes via semi-structured interviews. Results from content analyses revealed that athletes defined positive and negative experiences through task-, ego-, and socially-oriented personal incentives as well as sense of self and perceived options components. Socially-oriented personal incentives and sense of self components were more prevalent for the basketball athletes than for the cross-country athletes. Notable sport group differences suggest the need to further examine social factors of motivation with a broader representation of individual and team sport athletes.
have to be studied, suggest measures for these questions and to create awareness about this subject, this research has been undertaken.

There are three important things in the women educational system, which are the knowledge, work and commitment. It is very important to work wholeheartedly especially in the rural areas than the urban areas in the field of women education. Without expecting the fruit, it is very important to work in this field to propagate and expand the ambit of the women education. Only this can enhance the participation of the activist women. If this ‘Karma Yoga’ is assimilated by all, the time is near that there will be complete transformation in the present women education scenario in the Marathwada region.

R.M. Khanna says, “Amid various Yogas, Gita also emphasizes on the Karma Yoga. The aspect of the Women Sports training is also based on the Karma Yoga. He further says, “Swadharma which is the struggle for gaining this aim”. It is very important to implement such struggle to enhance the assistance of the women in sports.

How the assistance of women in the physical education will enhance? The work analysis in this regard will increase the quality of the higher education in the region. This will help the women to acquire higher education efficiently.

Gogte says, “It is expected that the women should have the opportunities of higher education like that of their counterparts (men). The shoulder the responsibility to nurture the next generation and hence it is important that they are provided with the quality higher education. The women accomplishing higher education generally belong to the higher social status and higher castes. The higher education has not been in filtered in the women of the backward classes and poor strata. This implies that the situation of gaining higher education in the Marathwada is a very difficult task.”
Brown et al. (2006) studied Aggressive contests in house crickets: size, motivation and the information content of aggressive songs. The function of aggressive signals, including both their information content and the circumstances under which they cause resolution or escalation of conflict, continues to be controversial. We studied the information content of aggressive songs in the house cricket, Acheta domesticus, to test their ability to inform opponents about fighting ability and motivation. We show that songs produced by individual males are highly repeatable and contain information about male resource holding potential, the ability of a male to win an aggressive contest. Temporal components of aggressive song were correlated with male body size, and size affected both the intensity and outcome of fights. In contrast, we found no components of song that signal motivation to fight. Although males with restricted access to mates were significantly more aggressive and won fights more often, their songs did not reflect the asymmetry in motivation to fight. We discuss possible reasons for the absence of signals of motivation during animal contests.

**Studies Related to Mental-Toughness**

Balaji and Jesudass (2011) study was to find out the differences in Mental Toughness among Cricket Players of different age groups. To achieve this purpose, ninety Cricket players at the age group of 10-21 years were selected from Chennai District, who regularly practice the game and participate in various tournaments. “Mental Toughness Questionnaire” a standardized sports psychological inventory designed by Dr. Goldberg, was responded by all the subjects. The collected data was analyzed using simple analysis of variance (ANOVA). The results of the study showed that there was a significant difference in Mental Toughness among Cricket
Players of different age levels at 0.05 level of confidence. It was concluded that Cricket Players of age group 18-21 years showed significantly greater mental toughness than the other two age groups. This may be due to their experience in the game.

Bhambri et al. (2005) examining the effect of psychological interventions such as General relaxation, Imagery and combination of both on the mental toughness dimensions of Table-Tennis players. The study was carried out on 32 national level table -tennis players in the age group of 12-17 years. Loehr psychological performance inventory was administered to assess their mental toughness on seven variables viz. self confidence, negative-energy, Attentional control, visual and Imagery control, motivational level, positive energy and attitude control. The data obtained was analyzed using ANOVA, t test and percentage distribution. The results indicate that all the 3 psychological interventions enhanced mental toughness dimensions of sports persons. However combined intervention consisting of both relaxation and imagery therapies showed the maximum effect on mental toughness dimensions.

Jalili et al. (2011) investigate and identify personality dimensions of individual and team athletes and to compare the level of social skills and mental toughness of individual and team athletes with non-athletes. 210 high school students of Tehran City (70 individual athletes, 70 team athletes, and 70 non-athletes) participated in the research. The participants were asked to fill out the “Social Skills” and “Mental Toughness” questionnaires as well as Eysenck Personality Scale. Various statistical indices and method were applied for data analysis including mean, standard deviation, and t-test. The results indicated that there is a significant difference between individual athletes, team athletes, and non-athletes in mental toughness, social skills, and personality dimensions. It can be concluded from the results that personality characteristics of individual and team athletes are different from non-athletes.
Kuan and Roy (2007) examined the association between goal orientations and mental toughness and its influence on performance outcomes in competition. Wushu athletes (n = 40) competing in Intervarsity championships in Malaysia completed Task and Ego Orientations in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ) and Psychological Performance Inventory (PPI). Using cluster analysis techniques including hierarchical methods and the non-hierarchical method (k-means cluster) to examine goal profiles, a three cluster solution emerged viz. cluster 1 - *high task and moderate ego* (HT/ME), cluster 2 - *moderate task and low ego* (MT/LE) and, cluster 3 - *moderate task and moderate ego* (MT/ME). Analysis of the fundamental areas of mental toughness based on goal profiles revealed that athletes in cluster 1 scored significantly higher on negative energy control than athletes in cluster 2. Further, athletes in cluster 1 also scored significantly higher on positive energy control than athletes in cluster 3. Chi-square ($\chi^2$) test revealed no significant differences among athletes with different goal profiles on performance outcomes in the competition. However, significant differences were observed between athletes (medallist and non medallist) in self-confidence ($p = 0.001$) and negative energy control ($p = 0.042$). Medallist's scored significantly higher on self-confidence (mean $= 21.82 \pm 2.72$) and negative energy control (mean $= 19.59 \pm 2.32$) than the non-medallists (self confidence-mean $= 18.76 \pm 2.49$; negative energy control mean $= 18.14 \pm 1.91$).

Golby and Sheard (2004) studied mental toughness and hardness at different levels of rugby league. The increasingly business-like environment of professional sport has resulted in greater scrutiny and analysis of players' performance. The roles of physiological parameters in predicting success in the world of professional and amateur sport are well established. However, to date, evidence is sparse concerning the role of personality traits in predicting such success. The present study examined the potency of measures of personality style and mental skills in
predicting success in the criterion sport of professional rugby league. Mental toughness was assessed by questionnaire using the Psychological Performance Inventory. Hardiness was assessed by questionnaire using the Personal Views Survey III-R. Subjects in this study were 115 professional rugby league footballers representing the top three playing levels in the game in Great Britain (International, Super League, and Division One). Findings demonstrated that performers playing at the highest standard (International players) scored significantly higher in all three hardness subscales (commitment, control and challenge) and in two of the seven mental toughness subscales (negative energy control and attention control). Results are discussed relative to previous findings, in particular, of the efficacy of high levels of hardness. Practical implications focus on the advocacy of mental toughness and hardiness.

Sports Aggression

Shinde (2012) studied a comparative study of endurance, aggression and dominance among team game players and individual game players. Personality and sport has proved a rather more fruitful area of study, and some important differences between the personalities of successful athletes in different sports have emerged. This is perhaps unsurprising when we consider the varying demands of different sports. In the Schurr et al (1977) study, although relatively few differences emerged between athletes and non-athletes, considerable differences were found between team and individual players. Team players emerged as more anxious and extrovert than individual competitors. Another important distinction has emerged between the personalities of those taking part in high- and low-risk sports. Breivik (1996) administered the 16PF to 38 elite Norwegian climbers and found a distinctive profile characterized by very high levels of stability, extraversion and adventure seeking. In another study, Freixanet (1999) administrated the EPQ to a range of high-risk sports participants, including 72 mountaineers, and
a control group of low-risk athletes. The mountaineers and other high-risk athletes were characterized by significantly higher levels of extraversion and low levels of neuroticism. Other high-risk sports have also attracted attention. Using the NEO-PI, Diehm & Armatas (2004) compared the personality of 44 golfers (low-risk) and 41 surfers (high-risk). Surfers emerged as significantly higher on the openness scale, meaning that they were more open to new experiences.

Reza (2012) studied to compare the rate of aggression among student athletes in judo, taekwondo, volleyball indoor soccer at the University of Tiran. For compelling this study, 90 subjects with age ranged 19-23 years old were selected. The subjects of this study were selected among student athlete male subjects. In this study, four groups of athletes in the judo, taekwondo, volleyball and indoor soccer attended and individual athletes from 25 sports as a simple random sample selection for investigation and were used in analysis of descriptive and inferential statistics. The descriptive statistics used for the Evaluation of central tendency Index such as (mean, median, thumb) and the size of the dispersion (range, variance, standard deviation). in the inferential statistical test, one way ANOVA was used. Obtained results from the statistical analysis show that there is no significant difference between student athlete’s aggression in judo, taekwondo, volleyball and indoor soccer (p> 0.05); in the other hand the trend of sportsmen with violent behavior is not only related to the sport.

Donahue et al. (2009) examine the interplay between harmonious and obsessive passion and aggressive behavior in sports. It was hypothesized that players who are obsessively-passionate about basketball should report higher levels of aggressive behaviors than harmoniously-passionate players in general, and especially under self threat. Using the Dualistic Model of Passion (Vallerand et al. (2003), Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 85,
756–767) as a guiding framework, basketball players indicated their level of passion and aggression during typical basketball situations using a self-reported questionnaire. Results: In Study 1, results demonstrated that athletes with a predominant obsessive passion for basketball reported higher levels of aggression on an aggression scale than athletes with a harmonious passion. In Study 2, harmoniously-passionate and obsessively-passionate athletes were randomly assigned to one of two conditions: self-threat and self-affirmation. We predicted that under self-threat, obsessively-passionate players should report higher levels of aggressive behavior than harmoniously passionate players. However, no differences were expected between obsessively and harmoniously passionate players in the self-affirmation condition. These hypotheses were supported. The present findings reveal that having an obsessive passion is associated with aggressive behavior, especially under identity threat. Thus, the love for one’s sport may lead to some maladaptive interpersonal behavior, especially if such love is rooted in a sense of identity that is contingent on doing well in that sport.

Palmer (1993) examines patterns of anger, aggression, and humor during 95 floor hockey games in a small fishing village in Newfoundland. The observed behaviors meet the prediction, based on evolutionary theory, that anger and aggression will be more frequent among males at the age when mate competition is most intense. Aggression was also found to be combined with humor most frequently in interactions among players attempting to form social relationships. This last finding is consistent with the hypothesis that combining humor (smiling and laughing) with what would otherwise be interpreted as aggressive behavior is a means of establishing trusting relationships between individuals. The potential contribution of an evolutionary approach to studies of anger and aggression is discussed.
Ramirez (2008) reviews the results of two decades of research on moral approval of aggressive acts conducted in several countries with different religious and cultural backgrounds. A nationally-adapted version of the Lagerspetz and Westman questionnaire was administered to university students in Finland, Poland, Spain, Japan, Iran and India. Respondents had to indicate levels of justification of several aggressive acts of different quality and intensity in the context of different social justifications. Although slight method variations preclude the possibility of direct comparison, the pattern of effects in the different countries leads to interesting conclusions. In all countries: more drastic forms of aggression (e.g., killing, torture) are less accepted than non-dangerous forms of such behavior (e.g., hindering, being ironic); and aggressive acts that are socially justified (in terms of protection of self or other) are clearly more accepted than ones with no such justification (problems of communication). However, there are also some striking differences among the samples studied. Thus, patterns of moral approval of various kinds of aggressive acts are only to some extent common to most cultures, while there are some culturally bound differences in these attitudes.