CHAPTER-II

Review of Related Literature
Chapter-II

Review of related literature

The review literature gives us a clear understanding of the term used, the methodological issues involved and the developments in historical perspectives. It also brings to light the unexplored aspect and in a way it helps in providing guidelines for carrying out the research.

Achievement Motivation:

Achievement motivation is described as a multidimensional construct characterized by the need to demonstrate high ability and to define success and failure in terms of goal attainment (Weiss & Chaumeton, 1992). The goal perspective approach to the study of achievement motivation in sport psychology has been primarily based on the theoretical perspective of Nicholls (1984). Specifically, Nicholls proposed the study of achievement motivation via task and ego goals. Researchers have examined components of Nicholls' theory (1989) in the sport setting. With regard to the concept of ability, Roberts and Duda (1984) found that the demonstration of own ability was strongly related to perceptions of success and failure. Results revealed gender differences in that outcome, task difficulty attributions, and attributions to strategy
emerged as predictors of demonstrated ability for men; predictors for women involved attributions to skill and luck rather than competitive outcomes.

Ergene (2011) studied the relationships among study habits, test anxiety, achievement motivation, and academic success in a Turkish tenth grade high school, sample consisting of 510 participants, 267 (52.4%) of whom were females and 243 (47.6%) were males. A positive relationship between study habits scores and achievement motivation level was found. No correlation was observed between achievement motivation and academic success. Test anxiety and study habits were associated positively with academic success and there was no association with achievement motivation.

Maleki, Mohammadzadeh, SeyedAmeri & Sani (2011) investigated the relationship between self-esteem and achievement motivation among successful and unsuccessful athletes in West Azerbaijan Province. Two-hundred athletes were divided into two groups of successful athletes (n=100, 50 males and 50 females) and unsuccessful athletes (n=100, 50 males and 50 females). The results showed that there is a significant correlation between self-esteem and achievement motivation in both studied groups. Moreover, successful and unsuccessful athletes
significantly differed in terms of self-esteem and achievement motivation so that self-esteem and achievement motivation were significantly higher in successful athletes compared to unsuccessful athletes.

Shafizadeh & Gray (2011) investigated to develop the behavioural instrument for measuring the achievement motivation in sport matches. According to 5-stage behavioural measurement system, the instrument was established and was applied for Iran national soccer team among three matches. The results revealed the good validity, intra-rater, and inter-rater reliabilities for measuring motivational behaviours in sport contexts. In addition, the repeated measure analysis of variance has shown the applicability of new instrument for studying the association of achievement behaviours with successful performance, through significant differences between achievement behaviours in different matches with varied outcomes.

Sisodiya & Purashwani (2011) studied the relationship between achievement motivation and anxiety of inter-university level male and female shuttlers i.e. badminton players. For this purpose, 30 (15 males and 15 female) shuttlers were randomly selected as subjects, who participated in west zone inter-university badminton tournament. Findings showed no significant relationship between achievement
motivation and anxiety of male and female badminton players of inter-university level.

Yusuf (2011) investigated firstly, the relationship between self-efficacy, achievement motivation, and self-regulated learning strategies of undergraduate students. Secondly, educational research that investigate the relationship between self-efficacy, achievement motivation, and self-regulated learning strategies applying the structural equation modeling (SEM) in Malaysia seems to be very limited. Three hundred undergraduate students participated in the study using the Confirmatory Factor Analysis to answer the research Question: Is there any correlation between self-efficacy beliefs, achievement motivation, and self-regulated learning strategies of the UKM undergraduate students? Empirically, the CFA results indicated that there was a considerable correlation between self-efficacy beliefs, achievement motivation, and self-regulated learning strategies.

Rathee & Singh (2011) focused to examine the levels of achievement motivation, emotional and social adjustment among international and national players of basketball, hockey and handball games. International players had higher levels of achievement motivation as compared to the National level. No significant gender differences were noticed on this
construct. Among female players, handball group was better than basketball group on achievement motivation.

Kumar & Deepla (2011) studied to find out the level of achievement motivation among individual game sportsperson and team game sportsperson. The sample for the study consists of 100 individual game player and 100 team game players those who have participated in the inter college tournaments of Osmania University, Hyderabad. It was found the individual game players were having more achievement motivation than team game players.

Kumar & Kalidasan (2011) studied to compare the sports achievement motivation level between Tamil Nadu and Karnataka fresher and experienced ball badminton players. For the study eighty ball badminton players from Tamil Nadu state and eighty ball badminton players from Karnataka state were randomly selected as subjects. Among eighty ball badminton players, forty fresher’s each from Tamil Nadu and Karnataka state were selected. The age of the selected subjects ranged from 18 to 24 years. Result revealed a significant difference between Tamil Nadu and Karnataka ball badminton players on sports achievement motivation and also found significant difference between fresher’s and experienced ball badminton players on sports achievement motivation. Further it revealed
that there was no significant difference between Tamil Nadu and Karnataka fresher’s and experienced ball badminton players on sports achievement motivation.

Conroy & Pincus (2011) conducted two studies to evaluate relations between different forms of achievement motivation and transactional interpersonal impact messages during a dyadic puzzle-solving task. In Study 1, 400 college students received no formal competence feedback during the task. In Study 2, competence feedback was manipulated for 600 college students and used to create high-, low-, and mixed-status dyads. Expectancies of success had robust actor and partner effects on submission in both studies. Competence valuation was linked with communal partner effects in Study 1 and a generalized interpersonal sensitivity in Study 2. When competence was ambiguous, approach and avoidance achievement motives exhibited affectively driven actor and partner effects consistent with their roots in pride and shame, respectively; however, when competence was established formally, motives had more cognitively driven effects on person perception and behaviour (e.g., rejection sensitivity). Collectively, these findings highlight the importance of the achievement motivation system for organizing interpersonal impact messages during competence pursuits.
Can (2011) conducted a study to determine the factors motivating the weight lifters participating in a weight-lifting championship and their organizational motivation level. The findings of the study revealed that the frequencies of the motivational factors vary. According to gender variable, significant differences were found for the items 4, 6, 9, 10, 11, 12 and 14. For the weight lifters, spiritual incentives are as important as material incentives. Appreciation of their efforts, effective communication among the weight lifters, coaches, club managers, good friendships result in high motivation. On the other hand, biased attitudes of the managers, unjust waging practices, lack of facilities and equipment negatively affect the motivation.

Khan, Haider & Ahmed (2011a) investigated the effects of gender differences on achievement motivation of university badminton players. The study was based on interuniversity level players who participated in north zone interuniversity badminton tournament held at Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh India. The result of the study showed that there was no significant difference between male and female badminton players on achievement motivation.

Khan, Haider, Ahmed & Khan (2011b) explored the relationship of sports achievement motivation and sports competition anxiety among
Review of Related Literature

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

Reddy & Singh (2010) studied the sports achievement motivation as a psychological differential among sports achievers, non achievers and non participants female tribal. They selected 450 female tribal as a subject for the study. Their findings of the study revealed that sports achievers were high in sports achievement motivation in comparison to non achievers and non participants. Non achievers were moderate and non participants were low in sports achievement motivation.

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

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

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

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

Badawy, Al-Anani & El-Sayed (2010) established an achievement motivation scale for the sport for all specialists. The researchers have used descriptive method on a sample consisting of 78 specialists of the sports, all from youth centers in Egypt. The researchers concluded to establishing an achievement motivation scale for the sport for all specialists that is consisted of 30 statements divided to four dimensions
(self-confidence-desire to succeed-level of ambition-tendency to compete). The researchers recommend taking advantage of the results of this research because of its importance in identifying the motivation achievement to the specialist of the sports for all.

Kannur, Reddy & Reddy (2010) investigated to compare the academic achievement motivation and aggression among M. P. Ed and M. Ed students. 60 men and women of M. P. Ed and M. Ed students were constituted as the sample. The Results revealed that achievement motivation was more developed amongst M. P. Ed students as compared to M. Ed students.

Mishra (2010) conducted a study on anxiety, aggression and achievement motivation of university kho-kho players. The study was delimited to the male Kho-Kho players of three universities (B.H.U., V.B.S.P.U., Jaunpur and M.G.K.V.P., Varanasi with age ranging from 18-25years and was further delimited to three psychological variables i.e. anxiety, aggression and achievement motivation. In relation to achievement motivation the sequence of performance of all the three universities was M.G.K.V.P., Varanasi, V.B.S.P.U., Jaunpur, B.H.U., Varanasi.

Mudimela (2010) studied the impact of level of participation on psychological factors such as aggression, anxiety, achievement
motivation and performance. Six hundred and twenty-five soccer players representing three different levels that is, inter-university, inter-district, inter-collegiate, constituted the sample of the study. Significant differences were found among three levels of participation with regard to aggression achievement motivation and performance only. Aggression and achievement motivation contributed significantly to performance whereas anxiety is found to have negative impact on the performance.

Dureha, Singh, Yaduvanshi & Mishra (2010) studied to compare the status of national and international hockey players on the selected psychological variables. Sixty male hockey players of India divided into two groups national (n=30) and international (n=30). The age range of the subjects was 17–25 years. They found insignificant difference in incentive motivation, achievement motivation, state anxiety and trait anxiety between national and international hockey players and significant difference was found in sports competition anxiety.

Hotaman & Yuksel-Sahin (2010) analyzed university students’ level of achievement motivation in terms of instructors’ enthusiasm and some variables such as gender, grade level, academic achievement, course attendance, and the dependence of students’ course attendance upon the instructor’s enthusiasm. The study was conducted with 334 university
students. The results of their study revealed that the students who perceived high instructor enthusiasm had a significantly higher level of achievement motivation when compared to the students who perceived low instructor enthusiasm. The level of achievement motivation was significantly higher among female students than males. The students who regularly attended classes had significantly higher levels of achievement motivation than the absentees. The students who stated their regular attendance depended on the instructors’ enthusiasm had significantly had higher levels of achievement motivation when compared to the students stating that their regular attendance did not depend on the instructors’ enthusiasm. The achievement motivation levels were significantly higher among the students with high academic achievement than those with low achievement. The students with higher grade levels had significantly higher levels of achievement motivations than those lower grade levels.

Kumar & Chandrappa (2010) studied the effect of socio-cultural deprivation on achievement motivation among sportsmen and non-sportsmen. There are 100 students out of which 50 are sportsmen and 50 are non-sportsmen. The non-sportsmen were selected from other general education students. Socio-cultural deprivation was the major variable of the study. The sample was administered deprivation scale and categorized in to two groups of deprivation on whom the achievement motivation
inventory was administered to assess the level of achievement motivation. The sample was also divided equally into two groups of domicile-urban and rural. The following standardized scale/inventories were used: (a) Personal data Schedule (Bio data) (b) Socio-cultural Deprivation scale and (c) Achievement Motivation inventory. The following statistical methods were used in the following study: The mean, Standard Deviation and t-test. There is a significant difference in the achievement motivation level between the high and low deprived groups: Low deprived sample has higher achievement motivation level than the high deprived. Achievement motivation level is significantly higher in the sample of sportsmen than the non-sportsmen. Urban Students have significantly higher achievement motivation than the rural students.

Schorer, Baker, Lotz & Busch (2010) examined relationships among achievement motivation, relative age and size of one's early developmental environment (i.e., as reflected in population) in predicting attainment in a national talent program (i.e., being nominated for advancement in the program). Results indicated no consistent differences in achievement motivation among athletes who were nominated and those who were not.
Khan, Haider & Ahmed (2010) explored the difference of achievement motivation between university level male and female basketball players. Their study consisted of 24 basketball players from Aligarh Muslim University who participated in the interuniversity basketball tournament. They divided the sample into two groups namely, male (12) and female (12). They found insignificant difference between male and female players on the variable of achievement motivation.

Singh & Khan (2010) compared sports achievement motivation between male and female of physical education. For the purpose of the study 20 students (Male =10 and Female =10) were recruited as subjects. The age of the subjects ranged between 20 to 25 years. Results indicated insignificant difference between male and female on their sports achievement motivation.

Ahmadi, Namazizadeh, Abdoli, & Seyed (2009) studied achievement motivation and its subscales (competitiveness, win orientation and goal orientation) between soccer players of high and low ranking teams in super league of Iran. Participants were 115 players that divided in two groups; 57 players from first to third final ranking as high teams and 58 players from last three ranking position as low teams. The results revealed that there were no significant differences between soccer players
of high and low ranking teams on achievement motivation, competitiveness, and goal orientation, but there was significant difference between players of high and low ranking teams on win orientation.

Mansour & Martin (2009) investigated the achievement motivation of high school students, in the context of parental and home factors such as home resources, in-and out-of-home parental assistance, parenting style, and parental involvement in the school. Results demonstrated that over and above demographic factors such as age, gender and ethnicity, home and parental factors do indeed play a critical function in predicting student motivation and engagement. Specifically, the study revealed that home resources and parenting style were the most salient home and parental factors associated with key aspects of achievement motivation and engagement (planning, task management, teacher-student relationships-positively, and self-handicapping-negatively).

Murcia, Villodre, Galindo, Gimeno & Perez (2008) studied on “Motivation, disciplined behaviour, equal treatment and dispositional flow in physical education students” and analyzed the possible relations between dispositional goal orientations, perceived motivational climate, discipline, coeducation and the flow state in physical education students. The sample consists of 1,103 students with an average age of 14. The
results show that task orientation is related to discipline, the perception of equal treatment, the task-involving motivational climate, ego orientation and the flow state in a positive and significant manner, while it is related to indiscipline and the ego-involving motivational climate in a negative manner. They obtained a relation between the different dispositional goal orientations and the different motivational climates perceived by students in physical education classes, so that task orientation is related positively and significantly with the perception of a task-involving motivational climate and, in contrast, ego orientation is related positively and significantly with the perception of an ego-involving motivational climate.

Thakur & Mohan (2008) assessed the personality traits, anxiety and achievement motivation level of volleyball players and non-sportsmen. The study conducted on 360 samples, consisting of 120 inter-college level volleyball players, 120 inter-varsity level of volleyball players and 120 non-sportsmen of different colleges and universities of north India. The result of the study indicated that achievement motivation level of high performance groups was better than non-sportsmen.

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

Yadav, Tripathi & Dutt (2007) studied to analyze and determine the level of achievement motivation and factors influencing sports career of badminton. 96 male university badminton players representing their university teams qualifying from different zonal badminton tournaments to participate in the All India Inter-Zonal University Badminton Tournament held at Nagarjuna University, Guntur (A.P.) were selected to serve as subjects for this study. The age of the subjects ranged from 18 to 25 years. To identify factors as perceived to influencing the sports career of subjects, inventory of factors influencing sports career by Kamlesh and Sharma was used consisting of 20 statements covering internal and external factors in such a manners that the response to one statement
relating to a particular factor is substantiated by the responses to a similar statement elsewhere and to determine the need of achievement motivation in performance the sports achievement motivation questionnaire by Kamlesh was administered consisting of 20 items and each item has two answers. Each statement has a maximum 2 points as the responses value. Analysis of descriptive data on achievement motivation and factors influencing sports career indicate that All India Inter University male badminton players have moderate achievement motivation level (27.9), showed moderate dependence on internal factors on internal factors (27.53) and poor dependence on external factors (17.067) influencing sports career. The comparison between the means of internal (27.53) and external (17.067) factors indicate that All India University badminton players are more internally controlled than the external factors influencing sports career as perceived by male university badminton players.

Unierzyski (2003) investigated the level of achievement motivation of young tennis players and their future progress and examine the influence of achievement motivation on tennis performance he has taken the 185 tennis players for the study and divided the players into two groups: (Group A), players who eventually reached international level at the age of 18-20years, and (Group B) players who never reached international
level. He found in his study that the players who later reached international level in tennis possessed significantly higher level of achievement motivation than the players who never reached international level.

Morgan & Carpenter (2002) task orientation is associated with the use of an equivalent conception of ability, where effort is seen to equal the term ability. In contrast, ego orientation is associated with the use of a differentiated conception of ability, where effort is not associated with ability, and a focus where little effort to enhance social status are combined.

Andrew & Thrash (2002) examined the role of approach and avoidance motivation in models of personality. Specifically, it examined the hypothesis that approach and avoidance temperaments represent the foundation of several basic dimensions espoused in the trait adjective, affective disposition, and motivational system approaches to personality. In the study they focused exclusively on the achievement domain in linking temperaments to goals. Achievement and affiliation arguably represent the two most central domains in which daily life is experienced, and subsequent empirical efforts would do well to additionally examine
the link between approach and avoidance temperaments and approach and avoidance affiliation goals.

Tod & Hodge (2001) examined the relationship between moral reasoning and achievement motivation in sport. Eight male under-21 year old rugby union players were interviewed three times across a six-month rugby season. During these interviews individuals were presented with a series of four moral dilemmas and were asked open-ended questions with regard to their moral reasoning and achievement goals in each dilemma. Results revealed that an individual achievement goal orientation profile appeared to influence the level of moral reasoning used.

Fontayne, Sarrazin & Famose (2001) studied culture and achievement motivation in sports between maghrebian and european french adolescents in their qualitative comparative study they composed 202 samples (142 european students and 60 maghrebian) and observed that sport is the most important social domain of achievement for their sample of French teenagers. They chose to situate their essays more within the framework of sport activities than in school or in other social domains such as leisure activities, music, or painting.

Alderman (1999) added to the achievement theories, “Ability and effort have typically been found to be the most frequent reasons for success and
failure in achievement contexts”. “Ability and self – worth are often seen by students as synonymous. It is ability, often in the absence of accomplishment that defines self – worth for them. For students who believe success is unlikely, the main priority is to avoid failure that is linked or attributed to ability through the use of failure – avoiding strategies”. He continues, “Personal experience is one of the most influential sources of efficacy information. It follows then that successes tend to raise efficacy expectations – whereas failures tend to lower them”

Atkinson (1999) showed a percentage of students will work hard to achieve a task they do not enjoy, solely to maintain their high grade point average or high class rank. This reflects back on the student’s attitude toward success. Those students who hold a high attitude of success work hard to achieve success, regardless of the task. High achievement motivation and high achievement may be associated with normal perfectionism.

Elliot & Sheldon (1997) investigated one antecedent and various consequences of pursuing avoidance personal achievement goals over the course of a semester. They highlight the need to attend to avoidance, as well as approach, forms of self-regulation and the need to consider both motive disposition and goal constructs in accounting for competence-
relevant behavior. They consisted 135 participants (51 men and 85 women) of University of Rochester undergraduates in a personality psychology class in return for extra credit. The mean age of participants was 20, with a range of 17 to 48. After the study they found that avoidance achievement goals was associated with low perceptions of competence during the semester, and this low perceived competence had negative implications for achievement-relevant and general well-being outcomes at the end of the semester.

Hayashi (1996) approached achievement motivation from a cross-cultural perspective and found that Hawaiian and Anglo-American weightlifters defined positive experiences in physical activity through task and ego goal orientations. Participants displaying a task goal orientation experienced feelings of success and pleasure based on individual improvement, mastery of weight training skills, and personal achievement. Success for ego-involved subjects was related to winning and a positive perception of oneself in public. Results of the study also revealed additional components of achievement motivation such as an interdependent perspective for members of the Anglo American and Hawaiian cultures. In this perspective, participants desired to be connected to others and to conform to group norms and portrayed commitment to others. Specifically, Hayashi (1996) reported that
members of the Hawaiian culture defined positive experiences as "the demonstration of pride and harmony within a specific in group (family, weight training partners)".

Keefe & Jenkins (1993) found that extrinsically motivated individuals are those who participate to receive a reward or avoid a punishment, they typically do not want to do the task and believe that it is out of their control on whether they succeed or not. If they do the task, they expect some sort of gain other than knowledge, such as praise, rewards, or avoiding punishment.

Duda & Nicholls (1992) examined achievement motivation characteristics across schoolwork and sport. They found that in both domains ego-involved goals were related to the belief that success requires high ability, while task orientations were related to beliefs about the importance of interest, effort, and peer collaboration for success. Differences occurred in relationships involving satisfaction and boredom. In the classroom, satisfaction and boredom were related to personal goal orientations, while in sport they were related to perceptions of ability.

Slade & Rush (1991) investigated the Achievement Motivation and the Dynamics of Task Difficulty Choices they collected their data from 162 subjects and divided them into two groups positively motivated and
negatively motivated. They found that positively motivated subjects and negatively motivated subjects did not differ in initial task difficulty choices. Both groups shifted to more difficult tasks over time, but this linear trend interacted with achievement motive group, with positively motivated subjects shifting faster. Quadratic and cubic trends in task difficulty choices were also observed. Periodic interruptions attenuated achievement group differences in average task difficulty choices.

Parker & Johnson (1981) described that an individuals’ achievement motive may be seen as a personality trait. Each person has different degrees of achievement motivation. High achievers may be classified as driven, striving for success, competitive, or taking charge. Low achievers may be seen as quitters, non-participants, or failures. Each person approaches each situation with a unique combination of several achievement motives. These achievement motives are shaped by significant interactions in a child’s early developmental years. They are learned motives, shaped by play, experience, and rewards or consequences for actions or behaviors. It is at this time when parents, role models, and teachers can have the greatest impact on the child’s habits and values about achievement motivation.
Haasen & Shea (1979) stated “If we accept the notion of intrinsic motivation, it implies that there is a powerful potential for self – actualization within each of us”. This potential is based on the intensity of our need to achieve, as well as our enjoyment of achieving. Students who are intrinsically motivated participate in learning activities for their own sake; they desire the outcome. They do not need rewards or praise; they find satisfaction in knowing that what they are learning will be beneficial later. They want to master the task, and they believe it is under their control to achieve mastery.

Butler & Parasuraman (1977) studied on “Degree of uniformity of achievement motivation levels of team members: its effect on team performance in a simulation game” the study consisted of 85 undergraduate students enrolled in a junior-level management course at Indiana University. They were divided into 16 teams (each having either 5 or 6 members) for participating in a management simulation game called INTOP [5], which was a major component of the course. The study results seem to indicate that the differences in team composition, based on the achievement motivation levels of team members, do not contribute much to the dynamics of team behavior that may have a bearing on team performance.
Latta (1974) postulated that the intended effort of the task also plays a part in achievement motivation. If the individual has related experiences or abilities in doing the task, the amount of intended effort to complete the task will be low, and the chances for a positive outcome are increased. Latta continues that if the individual has no experiences or ability, then the intended effort is great, and the chances for a positive outcome are decreased.

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

**Emotional Intelligence:**

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

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

Lane, Devonport, Soos, Karsai, Leibinger & Hamar (2010) investigated relationships between self-report measures of emotional intelligence and memories of pre-competitive emotions before optimal and dysfunctional athletic performance. They found that pleasant emotions associated with optimal performance and unpleasant emotions associated with
Review of Related Literature

dysfunctional performance. Emotional intelligence correlated with pleasant emotions in both performances with individuals reporting low scores on the self-report emotional intelligence scale appearing to experience intense unpleasant emotions before dysfunctional performance.

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

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

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

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

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

Brown & Schutte (2006) examined the direct and indirect relationships between emotional intelligence and subjective fatigue. One hundred sixty seven university students were recruited for the purpose of study. They found that higher emotional intelligence was associated with less fatigue. The psychosocial variables depression, anxiety, optimism, internal health locus of control, amount of social support, and satisfaction with social support each partially mediated between emotional intelligence and fatigue. Additionally, sleep quality partially mediated between emotional intelligence and fatigue.
Brackett, Rivers, Shiffman, Lerner, & Salovey (2006) examined the role of emotional abilities in social functioning, they used three studies to examine the role of emotional abilities in social functioning. In Study 1, they examined the relationship between self-rated and performance measures of emotional intelligence. They examined whether the emotional intelligence measures were incrementally valid in the prediction of social behaviors, including perceived social competence (Study 2) and observable behaviors in a social encounter (Study 3). They found that Self-ratings of emotional intelligence and performance measures of emotional intelligence were not strongly correlated; and after statistically controlling for personality, the performance measures of emotional intelligence was associated with interpersonal competence for men, whereas the Self-ratings of emotional intelligence was generally unrelated to social competence for both genders.

Perlini & Halverson (2006) compared the emotional intelligence of hockey players and general population in a survey at 2006; Emotional intelligence in the players of hockey super league. They concluded that these players have a higher emotional intelligence than compared population and also emotional intelligence was positively related to their function in the game. In this survey, emotional intelligence was a important predictor of players’ function.
Berrocal, Alcaide, Extremera & Pizarro (2006) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence, anxiety and depression among adolescents. Two hundred and fifty high-school students were administered the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS), a self-report measure of emotional intelligence, along with measures of thought suppression, self-esteem, anxiety, and depression. Their study revealed two main findings. First, self-reported ability to regulate mood (Emotional Repair) was positively related to self-esteem. Second, self-reported emotional intelligence was negatively related to levels of depression and anxiety.

Rosete & Ciarrochi (2005) studied on “Emotional intelligence and its relationship to workplace performance outcomes of leadership effectiveness” and seeks to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence, personality, cognitive intelligence and leadership effectiveness. The study establishes a link between emotional intelligence and workplace measures of leadership effectiveness. In the study the co relational and regression analyses revealed that higher emotional intelligence was associated with higher leadership effectiveness, and that emotional intelligence explained variance not explained by either personality or IQ.
Bastian, Burns & Nettelbeck (2005) investigated relationships between emotional intelligence and a number of life skills (academic achievement, life satisfaction, anxiety, problem-solving and coping). The sample of their study was 246 predominantly first-year tertiary students. Correlations between emotional intelligence and academic achievement were small and not statistically significant, although higher emotional intelligence was correlated with higher life satisfaction, better perceived problem-solving and coping ability and lower anxiety. However, after controlling for the influence of personality and cognitive abilities, shared variance between emotional intelligence and life skills was 6% or less.

Dulewicz & Higgs (2004) explored approaches to the development of Emotional Intelligence and to the critical question ‘can emotional intelligence be developed?’ They used three studies involving managers, team leaders and the skippers and crews from around the world yacht race are presented to explore whether Emotional Intelligence scores change after training and other experiences. In their study they found that emotional intelligence is developable, but with differing views on the extent of development. They noted that the two emotional intelligence questionnaire elements which did not show improvements after emotional intelligence training in the retail study were found to improve with team
leaders, and with skippers and top four crews respectively, in very different circumstances.

Engelberg & Sjoberg (2004) found that Emotional Intelligence was related quite strongly to social adjustment. Social adjustment apparently seems to benefit from an ability to monitor one’s own moods so as not to be out of sync with the social groups that they interact with. This could be considered the ability to self-regulate emotions. Their findings seem to strengthen the idea that emotional perception is essential for adaptation on a social level and thus developing friendships.

Magyar (2004) examined the relationship between leader efficacy and emotional intelligence on personal caring among leaders at two summer sport camps. Eleven leaders participated in a leader caring intervention while 26 leaders did not. Magyar found that emotional intelligence was a significant predictor of personal caring. Specifically, use of emotions, regulation of emotions, and appraisal of others’ emotions positively predicted coach personal caring. These findings, along with preliminary data of children’s perceptions of the coaches who participated in the caring intervention, imply that coaching education programs should be augmented to include emotional intelligence related material.
Zizzi, Deaner & Hirschhorn (2003) explored the relationships between emotional intelligence and global measures of baseball performance in a sample of college baseball players. Research in sport psychology has supported the relationship between psychological skills and athletic performance, but their study provides only modest support for the link between emotional skills (i.e., emotional awareness, control and utilization) and athletic performance. The data suggest that components of emotional intelligence appear to be moderately related to pitching performance, but not related to hitting performance.

Wong & Law (2002) reexamined the definition and domain of the emotional intelligence construct and developed a new emotional intelligence scale. Using this new emotional intelligence scale, they showed that on top of general mental abilities, emotional intelligence was a good predictor of job performance. Given these opposing views of emotional intelligence, some researchers continue to develop new and revised emotional intelligence measures whereas others continue to take a conservative position and question the usefulness of emotional intelligence for serious scientific research.

Singh (2002) defined emotional intelligence in Indian context as, “the ability of an individual to appropriately and successfully respond to a vast
variety of emotional stimuli being elicited from inner self and immediate environment. Emotional intelligence constitutes three psychological dimensions such as emotional competency, emotional maturity and emotional sensitivity, which motivate an individual to recognize truthfully, interpret honestly and handle tactfully and the dynamics of human behavior.

Palmer, Donaldson & Stough (2002) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and life satisfaction. The sample comprised 107 participants (47 males and 59 females, 1 unreported) ranging in age from 16 to 64 years with a mean age of 35.44 years. The findings of their study provided preliminary empirical evidence that emotional intelligence, specifically how clearly individuals tend to experience their emotions, accounts for further variance in this important human value. Importantly, the findings also suggested that well conceptualised and developed self-report measures of emotional intelligence can account for the variance in life criteria over and above other well-established constructs.

Wagner, Moseley, Grant, Gore & Owens (2002) studied the Physicians’ emotional intelligence and patient satisfaction. In this study they investigated the relationship between patient satisfaction and physicians’ emotional intelligence. Patient subjects were recruited at the conclusion
of an office visit and completed a patient satisfaction survey they found that there is a limited relationship between the physicians’ emotional intelligence and patient satisfaction.

Schutte, Malouff, Simunek, Hollander & McKenley (2002) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and emotional well-being using a trait-based self assessment scale. This particular study defined emotional intelligence as the ability to understand and regulate emotions and emotional well-being as maintaining a positive mood and high self-esteem. Results indicated that emotional intelligence was associated with a characteristically positive mood and higher self-esteem. Additionally, they found that individuals with higher emotional intelligence were better able to maintain positive mood and self-esteem when faced with a negative state induction and maximize the positive mood impact of a positive state inductions.

Lynn (2001) emotional intelligence explains why, despite an intellectual capacity, training or experience, some people excel, while other of the same caliber lag behind. Emotional intelligence is the distinguishing factor that determines if one makes lemonade when life hands one lemons or if one spends one’s life stuck in bitterness. It is the distinguishing factor between findings and living one is life passions and just putting in
time. Emotional intelligence enables one to have wholesome, warm relationships or cold, distant contacts. Emotional intelligence is the distinguishing factor that draws others to us or repels them.

Palmer, Walls, Burgess & Stough (2001) administered a self-report emotional intelligence measure to 43 managers in order to evaluate the link between emotional intelligence and leadership style. They found significant correlations with several components of the transformational leadership model. Specially, the inspirational, motivation and individualized consideration components of transformational leadership correlated with the ability to monitor emotions and the ability to manage emotions.

Schutte, Malouff, Bobik, Coston, Greeson & Jedlicka (2001) conducted a study that explored the association between self-reported trait emotional intelligence and various interpersonal relations. The results indicated that higher emotional intelligence scores correlated with higher scores in (a) self-monitoring, (b) social skills, (c) cooperative behavior, (d) closer relationships, and (e) marital satisfaction. Additionally, they found that participants anticipated greater satisfaction in relationships with partners high in emotional intelligence. Schutte, et al. explained that these findings
suggest that emotional intelligence is perceived as a desirable quality and may lead to interpersonal attraction.

Barling, Slater & Kelloway (2000) conducted an exploratory study on the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. Their results suggest that emotional intelligence is associated with three aspects of transformational leadership, namely, idealized influence, inspirational motivation and individualized consideration. The leaders who report exhibiting these behaviours were assumed to be more effective in the workplace.

Mayer, Caruso & Salovey (2000a) argued that the conceptual background of emotional intelligence met traditional standards for intelligence measures. They highlighted three criteria that qualify emotional intelligence as a facet of intelligence. These are conceptual, co-relational and developmental criteria. The conceptual criterion requires that emotional intelligence reflect mental abilities instead of preferred ways of behaving. Intelligence refers to the ability of a person.

Dulewicz & Higgs (1999) examined the link between self-reported emotional intelligence and job competence, and unlike many previous studies, did not focus on the transformational-transactional model. These researchers looked at leadership effectiveness from the perspective of
progression within the hierarchy of an organization amongst 58 managers from the UK and Ireland. Using a self-report measure of emotional intelligence, which they derived from a job competency survey, they found that emotional intelligence was able to explain a greater proportion of an individuals' advancement than either cognitive intelligence or personality traits.

Golman (1995) suggested that individuals, who had developed emotional intelligence, would be able to communicate better, thus making their intentions more clear. He goes on further to imply that people with emotional intelligence would be well suited to deal with teamwork due to their advanced social skills.

Davies, Stankov & Roberts (1998) qualitatively summarized the emotional intelligence literature and developed from it a four-dimensional definition of emotional intelligence. However, they did not develop any measure of emotional intelligence. Instead, they used earlier work on emotional intelligence and a group of emotional intelligence–related measures to show that these measures loaded on the same factors as the Big Five personality dimensions. On the basis of these cross-loadings in a series of exploratory factors analyses, Davies et. al. concluded that emotional intelligence was elusive as a construct. Ironically, while
building up the foundation of emotional intelligence by drawing a four-dimensional definition of emotional intelligence from the literature, they used early emotional intelligence scales that were not based on this four-dimensional definition and concluded that emotional intelligence was an elusive construct.

Mayer & Salovey (1997) defined emotional intelligence as a set of interrelated skills that can be classified within the following four dimensions: the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth. They proposed a model of emotional intelligence to address a growing need in psychology for a framework to organize the study of individual differences in abilities related to emotion. This theoretical model motivated the creation of the first ability-based tests of emotional intelligence. Although findings remain preliminary, emotional intelligence has been shown to have an effect on important life outcomes such as forming satisfying personal relationships and achieving success at work. Perhaps most importantly, ability-based tests of emotional intelligence reliably measure skills that are relatively distinct from commonly assessed aspects of personality.
Mayer & Salovey (1995) defined that emotionally intelligent people are those who regulate their emotions according to a logically consistent model of emotional functioning. They studied the Emotional intelligence and the construction and regulation of feelings, in their study they suggested three themes as summaries of the sorts of qualities people possess relative to the non-lower, or upper conscious level of emotional construction and regulation they typically carry out. Corresponding to the unconscious level was a concept they termed emotional orientation, which refers to the person's basic adaptational learning of emotion. Corresponding to the low level of conscious emotionality was a concept they termed emotional involvement, which refers to openness to emotion and skillfulness at framing situations so that the right emotions emerge. Corresponding to the higher level of consciousness was a concept they termed emotional expertise, which refers to expert knowledge about feelings and their regulation.

Social intelligence:

Khan, Haider & Ahmed (2011c) explored the difference among the physical education students on the variable of emotional and social intelligence. The study consisted of 45 subjects (male and female) physical education students from Aligarh Muslim University. They found
that there were significant differences exist between the physical education students on the variable of emotional and social intelligence.

Petrides, Mason & Sevdalis (2011) studied preliminary validation of the construct of trait social intelligence. From a pool of 130 individuals, 15 high and 15 low trait social intelligence scorers were selected to participate in two laboratory studies. In Study 1, high trait social intelligence participants were significantly more accurate than their low trait social intelligence peers in identifying facial expressions presented on a computer screen; in Study 2, they were significantly more likely to judge some form of apology as appropriate, following a social transgression described in a short vignette.

Hampel, Weis, Hiller & Witthoft (2011) examined the relationship between social anxiety and social intelligence in a general population sample (N= 110) using Structural Equation Modeling. Dimensions of social anxiety as postulated by Clark and Wells (1995) and facets of social intelligence (social understanding, social memory, and social perception), were negatively correlated. Use of safety-behavior in particular was related to deficits in social understanding (r =−0.25; p < 0.05) and social perception and memory(r =−0.24; p < 0.05). Results suggested small to medium sized relationships between specific facets of social anxiety and certain domains of social intelligence.
Hooda, Sharma & Yadava (2009) examined the relationship between Positive Psychological health and Social intelligence in a sample of 300 working adults. They found that significant positive association between the two components of Positive Psychological Health i.e. satisfaction with life and happiness, and six factors of Social intelligence (Cooperativeness, Confidence, Sensitivity, tactfulness Sense of humor, and memory). Further it was revealed from the results of their study that out of eight, seven factors of Social intelligence significantly predict one or the other Positive Health dimensions.

Dogan & Cetin (2008) investigated the relationships between university students’ social intelligence and their levels of depression. 520 university students (287 female and 233 male) from Sakarya University, Turkey took the social intelligence scale and depression inventory. They found that some significant relations between social intelligence and level of depression. Also some significant correlations were found between Social Skills and Social Awareness but no statistically significant interactions were observed among the Social Information Processing and level of depression.

Weis & Süß (2007) intended to demonstrate the multidimensionality of social intelligence. They postulated three cognitive ability domains (i.e.,
social understanding, memory, and knowledge). These domains were operationalized in a multitrait-multimethod design applying verbal, pictorial, and video-based performance measures. Secondly, they intended to demonstrate that social intelligence can be differentiated from academic intelligence. One hundred eighteen high school and first year psychology students (80 of them females, mean age 19.7 years) were tested. Confirmatory factor analysis supported the postulated factor-structure within social intelligence. Correlational and regression analysis yielded generally low validity coefficients between social and academic intelligence except for the social memory tests. Still, residual analysis showed unique common variance within the social memory domain. Consequently, their study provided evidence for the structure of the social intelligence performance model according to the postulated design and demonstrated the discriminability of social intelligence from academic intelligence.

Hackworth & Brannon (2006) investigated the impact of social intelligence (measured in terms of discriminative facility) upon the breadth of social influence strategy choice. According to their study in the first of two sessions, participants completed a discriminative facility, Likert-type measure. In a second session, participants rated their use of several different social influence strategies in 14 different situations.
They found that individuals high in social intelligence reported a broader base of persuasion tactics in many situations. Their results provide evidence for the role of discriminative facility as an aspect of social intelligence that impacts social influence.

Kaukiainen, Bjorkqvist, Lagerspetz, Osterman, Salmivalli, Rothberg & Ahlbom (1999) studied the Relationships between social intelligence, empathy, and three types of aggressive behavior. They used Peer-estimation techniques to measure all major variables. Altogether, 526 Finnish schoolchildren from three age groups (10, 12, and 14 years old) participated in the study. They found that indirect aggression correlated positively and significantly with social intelligence in every age group studied. Physical and verbal forms of aggression had almost zero correlation to social intelligence. Empathy correlated negatively and significantly with every type of aggression except indirect aggression in 12-year-old children.

Blount (1995) performed an ultimatum-game experiment in which responders played both against a computer making random offers and against human subjects. She found that people rejected low offers from other subjects, as is the usual result, but very rarely rejected offers from
the computer. The issue is not low offers alone; it is the intentions behind them that make you feel exploited, angry, and ready to retaliate.

Sacks (1995) studied that people who have neurological disorders. Economists and cognitive psychologists usually do not; they study normal people. Nevertheless, there is a similarity between the autistic personality and the rational models that many economists and some psychologists embrace. If by “rational” we mean conforming to the classical expected-utility model, or backward induction, then we have an “autistic” conception of human rationality. Just like Temple Grandin, homo economicus defined in that way, lacks social intelligence and is puzzled by the strange behavior of normal people.

Gardner (1993) included interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences in his theory of multiple intelligences. According to Gardner, social intelligence, which is one among seven intelligence domains, comprises an individual’s interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. Intrapersonal intelligence relates to one’s ability to deal with oneself and to “symbolize complex and highly differentiated sets of feelings” within the self. Interpersonal intelligence relates to one’s ability to deal with others and to “notice and make distinctions among other individuals and,
in particular, among their moods, temperaments, motivations and intentions.”

O'Sullivan, Guilford & Demille (1965) conducted a normative study in which 306 high-school students received 23 different social intelligence tests representing the six hypothesized factors, along with 24 measures of 12 non-social ability factors. A principal factor analysis with orthogonal rotation yielded 22 factors, including the 12 non-social reference factors and 6 factors clearly interpretable as cognition of behavior. In general, the six behavioral factors were not contaminated by non-social semantic and spatial abilities. Thus, O'Sullivan et al. apparently succeeded in measuring expressly social abilities which were essentially independent of abstract cognitive ability.