

CHAPTER-II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A careful review and exploration of the related literature was indispensable to provide ideas, theories, explanation or hypotheses valuable in formulating the problem, to avoid the risk of duplicating the same study already undertaken, to suggest methods of research appropriate to the problem, to locate comparative data useful in the interpretation of results and to contribute to the general scholarship of the investigator. The current chapter was designed to bring light on a few related empirical studies which are relevant to the problem under study.

Dana L. Joseph et al. (2010) carried out a study that examines the research and valid practice in emotional intelligence (EI) that have been impeded by lack of theoretical clarity regarding (a) the relative roles of emotion perception, emotion understanding, and emotion regulation facets in explaining job performance; (b) conceptual redundancy of EI with cognitive intelligence and Big Five personality; and (c) application of the EI label to 2 distinct sets of constructs (i.e., ability-based EI and mixed-based EI). In the current article, the authors propose and then test a theoretical model that integrates these factors. They specify a progressive (cascading) pattern among ability-based EI facets, in which emotion perception must causally precede emotion understanding, which in turn precedes conscious emotion regulation and job performance. The sequential elements in this progressive model are believed to selectively reflect Conscientiousness, cognitive ability, and Neuroticism, respectively. “Mixed-based” measures of EI are expected to explain variance in job performance beyond cognitive ability and personality. The cascading model of EI is empirically confirmed via meta-analytic data, although relationships between ability-based EI and job performance are shown to be inconsistent (i.e., EI positively predicts performance for high emotional labor jobs and negatively predicts performance for low emotional labor jobs). Gender and race differences in EI are also meta-analyzed. Implications for linking the EI fad in personnel selection to established psychological theory are discussed.

Erkut Konter (2010) carried out the study to investigate the nonverbal intelligence of soccer players according to their age, gender and educational level. For this purpose, data were collected from 353 soccer players using adapted version of the TONI-2. The soccer players had a mean age of 14.78 years. Collected data was

analyzed by ANOVA for age groups, t statistics for comparisons of gender and level of education. ANOVA and t statistics of the data revealed the significant differences between age groups, gender and level of education. Multiple comparisons showed that TONI-2 points increased with the age from 13 through 17 in order. Results also indicated that female players from male players and high school players from secondary school players have higher TONI-2 points in soccer.

Erkut Konter (2010) conducted a study to investigate the nonverbal intelligence of soccer players according to their level of play. For this purpose, data were collected from 312 male soccer players (aged 14.71 ± 1.38 years). using adapted version of the TONI-2. Collected data was analyzed by ANOVA and LSD Test for comparisons of significant differences. Analysis revealed the significant differences between A, B and C Level of Soccer players ($p < .02$). It seems that TONI-2 points go up with the increase of age and level of play. However, future researchers could control the level of play for each age group to have more conclusive results in soccer.

Heather H. McIntyre (2010) states that amidst accumulating support for higher-order personality factors (the big two) and a general factor of personality (GFP), researchers theorize about their unique evolutionary and social underpinnings (Rushton, Bons, & Hur, 2008). In the current study, these efforts were extended by (a) examining the relevance of a set of intra and interpersonal skills, which form what is more commonly known as trait or ability Emotional Intelligence (EI), to GFP and (b) exploring gender differences in the pattern of these relationships. Consistent with prior research findings, a series of exploratory factor analyses in the current study supported the GFP in both female and male samples. Moreover, EI dimensions dominated these GFPs, though the precise pattern and strength of loadings differ across gender. Specifically, trait Intrapersonal EI loaded highest on the GFP for the male sample. In the female sample, on the other hand, the GFP contributed to all EI ability-based (MSCEIT) dimensions positively, albeit weakly, while trait Interpersonal EI was most relevant to a GFP. Discussion centers on the role of EI as a biologically and socially adaptive, as well as socially-desirable, trait, given its empirical connection with the GFP.

Kevin A. Davies *et al.* (2010) performed a study that describes the development and validation of a brief self-report measure of emotional intelligence based on Salovey and Mayer's (1990) conceptualization. In stage one, the 33-item Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS: Schutte *et al.*, 1998) was assessed for content

validity by a panel of experts. The panel deemed 17 items unsuitable for further analysis. In stage two, a theoretically derived 5-factor solution and a uni dimensional model were subjected to confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in a student-athlete sample (n = 955). Results supported the multidimensional solution. The Brief Emotional Intelligence Scale (BEIS-10) was developed by extracting the two items from each factor with the most salient factor loadings. CFA results yielded good fit indices for the 10-item, 5-factor solution. Finally, stage three provided evidence of test-retest stability for the BEIS-10 over a 2-week period in a sample of 111 student-athletes. The BEIS-10 is offered as a valid and reliable measurement tool that has particular utility in situations where brevity is important.

Liz Day *et al.* (2010) conducted 3-year longitudinal study that explored whether the two-dimensional model of trait hope predicted degree scores after considering intelligence, personality, and previous academic achievement. A sample of 129 respondents (52 males, 77 females) completed measures of trait hope, general intelligence, the five factor model of personality, divergent thinking, as well as objective measures of their academic performance before university ('A' level grades) and final degree scores. The findings suggest that hope uniquely predicts objective academic achievement above intelligence, personality, and previous academic achievement. The findings are discussed within the context of how it may be fruitful for researchers to explore how hope is related to everyday academic practice.

Martin Kilduff *et al.* (2010) suggested that Emotional intelligence (EI) comprises a set of abilities related to detecting, using, understanding and managing emotions. Research and discussion of EI has disproportionately focused on prosocial outcomes and has neglected the possibility that individuals high in EI may use their skills to advance their own interests, even at the expense of others. Just as the cognitively smart person may be able to understand options and draw conclusions quickly and competently, so the emotionally intelligent person may be able to assess and control emotions to facilitate the accomplishment of various goals, including the one of getting ahead. They suggest that high-EI people (relative to those low on EI) are likely to benefit from several strategic behaviors in organizations including: focusing emotion detection on important others, disguising and expressing emotions for personal gain, using misattribution to stir and shape emotions, and controlling the flow of emotion-laden communication. In addressing self-serving benefits, they reveal the dark side of EI and open new areas for research.

Boardley ID *et al.* (2010) carried out a study to examine (a) the effects of goal orientations and perceived value of toughness on antisocial behavior toward opponents and teammates in soccer and (b) whether any effects were mediated by moral disengagement. Male soccer players (N = 307) completed questionnaires assessing the aforementioned variables. Structural equation modeling indicated that ego orientation had positive and task orientation had negative direct effects on antisocial behavior toward opponents. Further, ego orientation and perceived value of toughness had indirect positive effects on antisocial behavior toward opponents and teammates which were mediated by moral disengagement. Collectively, these findings aid our understanding of the effects of personal influences on antisocial behavior and of psychosocial mechanisms that could facilitate such antisocial conduct in male soccer players.

Garcia-Mas A *et al.* (2010) conducted a study on Building upon Deci's and Ryan (1985) Self-determination theory as well as the sportive behavioral correlates of the model of Commitment (Scanlan et al., 1976), this study tries to establish the relationship between motivation and commitment in youth sport. For this purpose 454 young competitive soccer players answered the Sport Motivation Scale (SMS) and the Sport Commitment Questionnaire (SCQ) during the regular season. The SMS measures the three dimensions of the Motivational continuum (the A motivation, the Extrinsic Motivation and the Intrinsic Motivation). The SCQ measures the Sportive Commitment and its composing factors such as the Enjoyment, the Alternatives to the sport, and the Social Pressure. Their findings provided a clear pattern of the influence of motivation in sport enjoyment and commitment, outlining the positive contribution of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to enjoyment and commitment. Amotivation, contributes positively to alternatives to sport and negatively to enjoyment and commitment, It should be noted that extrinsic motivation has a higher contribution to enjoyment whereas intrinsic motivation has a higher contribution to commitment.

Popescu Veronica (2010) conducted a study to highlight the presence and the necessity of moral education in an athlete's training, as reflected into attitudes and behaviors of fair play. Working hypothesis: performance athletes and high performance athletes realize that moral training is important for high level sports. The research aimed at highlighting the importance of moral training for performance athletes. In order to investigate the athletes' views, they have developed a self-

assessment questionnaire focused on their personal moral training (PMT). The analysis and interpretation of results confirmed their hypothesis.

Sylvain Laborde *et al.* (2010) performed the study with the aim to explore the influence of trait emotional intelligence (Trait EI) and of preference for intuition (PID-I) and deliberation (PID-D) on short-term academic performance (i.e. an experimental task involving learning and decision-making). They recruited 219 sport science freshman students (168 males and 51 females). They had to watch a 45 min videotaped lecture followed by a multiple choice questionnaire (MCQ), which was aimed to assess their comprehension. Moreover, they had to fill out the PANAS (before and after the lecture), the TEIQue and the PID. We found that: (1) trait EI predicted significantly positively the MCQ-Score; (2) PID-D predicted significantly positively positive affect (PA) before and after the exam; (3) trait EI predicted significantly negatively negative affect (NA) before and after the exam; (4) PID-I predicted significantly positively NA before and after the exam. Findings supported the idea that trait EI plays a role in academic performance, certainly with stress appraisal, but the influence of intuition on the MCQ-Score was not confirmed. Interesting findings about the links between the PID and affect are discussed.

Lynda Jiwen Song (2010) accomplished the study to consider the debate about whether emotional intelligence (EI) has incremental validity over and above traditional intelligence dimensions. They propose that EI and general mental abilities (GMA) differ in predicting academic performance and the quality of social interactions among college students. Using two college student samples, we find support for the notion that EI and GMA each have a unique power to predict academic performance, and that GMA is the stronger predictor. However, the results also show that EI, but not GMA, is related to the quality of social interactions with peers. The theoretical contributions and implications of the study and some recommendations for future studies are discussed.

Tim Woodman (2010) conducted the study to explore the agentic emotion regulation function that prolonged engagement high-risk sports (ocean rowing and mountaineering) may serve. In two studies, a cross-sectional design was employed. In Study 1, ocean rowers were compared to age-matched controls. In Study 2, mountaineers were compared to two control groups, one of which was controlled for the amount of time spent away from home. In Study 1, 20 rowers completed measures of alexithymia and interpersonal control before rowing across the Atlantic Ocean.

They were also interviewed about the emotional and agentic changes that had occurred as a consequence of completing the ocean row. In Study 2, 24 mountaineers and the two control groups (n = 27 and n = 26) completed measures of alexithymia and interpersonal agency. In both studies, high-risk sportspeople had greater difficulty in describing their emotions. The lowest interpersonal agency was in loving partner relationships. Participants of prolonged engagement high-risk sports have difficulty with their emotions and have particular difficulty feeling emotionally agentic in close relationships. They participate in the high-risk activity with the specific aim of being an agent of their emotions.

Amy B. Stapleton (2010) states that the multidisciplinary field of applied sport psychology, a specialty area of psychology practice, has been acknowledged as a proficiency area by the American Psychological Association (APA, 2007). This unique discipline often requires the psychologist to work outside the realm of traditional practice. In doing so, sport psychologists frequently encounter unique ethical dilemmas. In an effort to promote awareness and dialogue, this article describes some of the more commonly faced ethical considerations in applied sport psychology. Issues related to developing and maintaining competence in the field, confidentiality, and boundary issues are discussed, and case examples are provided to illustrate the relevant ethical consideration. Subsequently, three applied sport psychology experts respond to the lead article's discussion and offer poignant reflections on ethical issues presented. In addition, suggestions for successfully resolving ethical dilemmas related to competence, confidentiality, and boundary issues in sport psychology are discussed.

Janaki Gooty (2010) presents a selective, qualitative review of affect, emotions, and emotional competencies in leadership theory and research published in ten management and organizational psychology journals, book chapters and special issues of journals from 1990 to 2010. Three distinct themes emerged from this review: (1) leader affect, follower affect and outcomes, (2) discrete emotions and leadership, and (3) emotional competencies and leadership. Within each of these themes, they examine theory (construct definition and theoretical foundation) and methods (design, measurement and context) and summarize key findings. The findings indicate that the study of affect and emotions in leadership fares well with regard to construct definitions across the first two themes, but not in the last theme above. Design and measurement issues across all three themes are a little less advanced. One serious gap

is in a lack of focus on levels-of-analysis theoretically and methodologically. The review concludes with recommendations for future theoretical and empirical work in this area.

Tibor Bosse *et al.* (2010) performed a study on emotion regulation that describes how a subject can use certain strategies to affect emotion response levels. Usually, models for emotion regulation assume mechanisms based on feedback loops that indicate how to change certain aspects of behaviour or cognitive functioning in order to get a more satisfactory emotion response level. Adaptation of such feedback loops is usually left out of consideration. This paper introduces an adaptive computational model for emotion regulation by formalizing the model informally described by Gross (1998). The model has been constructed using a high-level modelling language, and integrates both quantitative aspects (such as levels of emotional response) and qualitative aspects (such as decisions to regulate one's emotion). This model includes mechanisms for adaptively of the degree of flexibility of the emotion regulation process. Also, the effects of events like traumas or therapies on emotion regulation can be simulated. Based on this computational model, a number of simulation experiments have been performed and evaluated.

Larissa K. Barber *et al.* (2010) conducted this study that examined affect regulation styles that best discriminated among affectivity groups representing languishing, moderate, and flourishing emotional health. Using the Measure of Affect Regulation Styles (MARS; Larsen & Prizmic, 2004) with 380 undergraduate students, analyses revealed nine affect regulation strategies (i.e., understanding/analyzing feelings, making plans, talking to someone, doing something enjoyable, being grateful, alcohol use, caffeine use, treating oneself, and consulting an advisor/mentor) that significantly distinguished between languishing and non-languishing individuals (moderate and flourishing) and six affect regulation strategies (i.e., withdrawal, emotion suppression, keep to themselves, downward social comparison, eating something, and daydreaming) that significantly distinguished flourishing individuals from those with moderate emotional health. Significant differences between moderate and flourishing groups consisted of behaviours that 'prevented' rather than 'promoted' flourishing (e.g., behavioural and cognitive avoidance). These findings suggest that in order to achieve flourishing, individuals may need to reduce avoidance strategies and increase engagement strategies.

David Crombie *et al.* (2009) carried out a study on the relationship between team emotional intelligence (Team EI) of six cricket teams and their sports performance in a South African national cricket competition over two consecutive seasons was investigated. Team EI was based on cricketers measured prior to the start of the competition in each season using the MSCEIT ability test and averaged over all games for that season. This was correlated with a team sports performance measure, the final log points standing for the team at the end of a competition. The results showed that Team EI was positively associated with the sports performance of the cricket teams. Further, Team EI was shown to be a significant predictor of sports performance, with 61% of the variation in the log points explained. This finding suggests that EI may contribute to the success of teams participating in complex sports like cricket.

Jordi Quoidbach *et al.* (2009) claims about the numerous positive influence of emotional intelligence (EI) on work team performance, both in commercial and scientific literature. However, despite the huge interest that media and business consultants put in EI and its fast-growing use in organizations, there is very little empirical evidence to support these claims. In this study, they investigated the relationships between EI, performance, and cohesiveness in 23 nursing teams. EI was assessed using the modified version of the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale and cohesiveness with the Group Cohesiveness Scale. Finally, nursing team performance was measured at four different levels: job satisfaction, chief nursing executives' rating, turnover rate, and health care quality. Results showed that health care quality was positively correlated with emotion regulation. Emotion regulation was also positively correlated with group cohesiveness. Surprisingly, it also appears that emotion appraisal was negatively correlated with the health care quality provided by teams. These results suggest that EI and, more specifically, Emotional Regulation may provide an interesting new way of enhancing nursing teams' cohesion and patient/client outcomes.

Vassiliki Costarelli *et al.* (2009) carried out a study to explore the possible differences in body image, emotional intelligence, anxiety levels and disordered eating attitudes in a group of Taekwondo (TKD) and Judo athletes and non-athletes. The interrelationships of the above parameters were also examined. A total of 60 subjects were recruited: 20 were national and international TKD and Judo athletes and 40 were non-athletes. Subjects completed the following questionnaires: the Eating

Attitudes Test (EAT-26), the Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire (MBSRQ), the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) and the BarOn Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (BarOn EQ-I). Athletes had higher levels of emotional intelligence compared to the control group, particularly in factors such as *assertiveness* ($p < 0.01$) and *flexibility* ($p < 0.01$). The differences were more pronounced in the female athletes compared with the non-athletes, with statistically significant differences in most of the intrapersonal factors ($p < 0.01$), including *self-regard* and *self-actualization*, in the adaptability factors and in most of the mood factors. There were no significant differences in terms of disordered eating attitudes (EAT-26) between the two groups. Regression analysis revealed that disordered eating attitudes were significantly positively correlated with anxiety levels ($p < 0.001$) and with self-classified weight ($p < 0.001$). Athletes had higher levels of emotional intelligence and a healthier body image compared to non-athletes, but there were no significant differences in terms of disordered eating attitudes.

Peter J Jordan (2009) accomplished the study that reveals that emotional intelligence is an important factor in predicting performance in teams. In this article, they initially outline a theoretical model for examining emotional intelligence in teams. Using this model, they test a short version (16 items) of the self-report Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile (WEIP). Evidence from three studies supports this model. Two samples of 620 and 217 employees support the hypothesized structure of the WEIP-S. Four distinct constructs were derived: Awareness of own emotions; Management of own emotions; Awareness of others' emotions; and Management of others' emotions. The WEIP-Short Version (WEIP-S) scale, therefore, is based on abilities that are vital during the interaction of team members. Data from 99 employees provide evidence of test-retest stability for the WEIP-S across three time periods. Limitations and potential uses in management research for this short-version scale were discussed.

Figueiredo AJ et al. (2009) conducted a study on the growth, maturity status, functional capacity, sport-specific skill, and goal orientation of 159 male soccer players, aged 11-12 ($n = 87$) and 13-14 years ($n = 72$) years, who at follow-up 2 years later discontinued participation (dropout), continued at the same standard (club) or moved to a higher level (elite). Age group-specific multivariate analysis of variance was used for comparisons. Among 11- to 12-year-old players at baseline, a gradient of elite > club > dropout was suggested for size and function, although differences were

not consistently significant. Elite players performed significantly better in only two of the four skills, dribbling and ball control. A gradient of elite > club > dropout was more clearly defined among 13- to 14-year-old players at baseline. Elite players were older chronologically and skeletally, larger in body size and performed better in functional capacities and three skill tests than club players and dropouts. Baseline task and ego orientation did not differ among dropouts and club and elite players at follow-up in either age group. The results suggest an important role for growth and maturity status, functional capacities, and sport-specific skills as factors in attrition, persistence, and moving up in youth soccer.

Catrin Williams *et al.* (2009) performed a study for investigating Emotional Intelligence (EI) in preadolescence are beginning to emerge in the scientific literature. However, currently little is known regarding the conceptualization and measurement of EI in this population. This study examined the relationships between trait EI, objective measures of emotional ability, and psychopathology, and the factor structure of five measures of emotional skills. A sample of 598 children aged 10–11 years completed two measures of trait EI, three objective measures of emotional ability, the Ravens Coloured Progressive Matrices, and the Beck Youth Inventories. Weak or non-significant relationships were found between trait EI and objective measures of emotional ability. Trait EI correlated moderately with psychopathology whilst only a few weak relationships were found between psychopathology and objective measures of emotional ability. Females scored higher than males on objective measures of emotional ability but there were no gender differences in trait EI. The trait EI and objective measures of emotional ability scale scores loaded onto two separate factors indicating that future researchers need to base their choice of EI scale for preadolescent children on theoretical grounds *a priori*.

Boardley ID *et al.* (2009) carried out a study that examined: (a) the effects of perceived motivational climate and coaching character-building competency on prosocial and antisocial behaviours towards team-mates and opponents in field hockey and netball; (b) whether the effects of perceived character-building competency on sport behaviours are mediated by moral disengagement; and (c) whether these relationships are invariant across sport. Field hockey (n = 200) and netball (n = 179) players completed questionnaires assessing the aforementioned variables. Structural equation modelling indicated that mastery climate had positive effects on prosocial and negative effects on antisocial behaviour towards team-mates,

while performance climate had a positive effect on antisocial behaviour towards team-mates. Perceived character-building competency had a positive effect on prosocial behaviour towards opponents and negative effects on the two antisocial behaviours; all of these effects were mediated by moral disengagement. No effect was found for prosocial behaviour towards team-mates. The model was largely invariant across sport. The findings aid our understanding of social influences on prosocial and antisocial behaviours in sport.

Elizabeth J. Austin (2009) conducted the study to measure the associations of reaction times (RTs) to the items of two trait emotional intelligence (EI) scales (N = 242, 191) and one ability EI measure (N = 331) with EI score. For trait EI an inverted-U relationship between RT and score was found for both scales. This is consistent with the self-schema model of time to respond, with extreme scorers responding more rapidly. For ability EI there was no overall association between RT and EI, but high scorers responded more slowly than low scorers to difficult items.

Mark S. Allen (2009) accomplished the study to investigate the effect of team-referent attributions on emotions and collective efficacy. A sample of 265 athletes, from 31 interdependent sport teams, completed measures of competition importance, the Sport Emotion Questionnaire (SEQ; Jones, Lane, Bray, Uphill, & Catlin, 2005), and a collective efficacy measure (CEM) immediately prior to competition. Immediately after competition, participants completed self-report measures of performance, the Causal Dimension Scale for Teams (Greenlees, Lane, Thelwell, Holder, & Hobson, 2005), the SEQ, and the CEM. Findings indicated that following team victory attributions of team control were associated with higher levels of post competition happiness. Further, an interaction effect for team control and stability demonstrated that if team victory was perceived as stable over time, a team controllable attribution was associated with higher levels of post competition collective efficacy. For losing teams, an interaction effect for external control and stability indicated that only when team defeat was not perceived as under the control of others would an unstable attribution favor collective efficacy. This study provides evidence that team-referent attributions contribute to emotions and collective efficacy beliefs in group achievement settings.

Linda Gottfredson *et al.* (2009) studied that there is no more central topic in psychology than intelligence and intelligence testing. With a history as long as psychology itself, intelligence is the most studied and likely the best understood

construct in psychology, albeit still with many “unknowns.” The psychometric sophistication employed in creating intelligence tests is at the highest level. The authors provide an overview of the history, theory, and assessment of intelligence. Five questions are proposed and discussed that focus on key areas of confusion or misunderstanding associated with the measurement and assessment of intelligence.

Marie T. Dasborough *et al.* (2009) has given a follower-centric model of leadership that integrates multiple levels of analysis, and includes emotional contagion as a key meso-level process. In our model, leadership at the individual level is manifested in terms of the leader's favoritism toward members and affective displays. Drawing upon affective events theory, we argue that member perceptions of a leader's behaviours and member attributions of insincerity result in negative emotions. Through a process of emotional contagion, the negative emotions then spread to other individuals in the group. These are in turn reflected in the group's affective climate and trust climate, and also in the quality of leader-member and team-member relationships. In the end, this results in organizational-level disapproval of the leader and cynicism towards the leader. Included as moderators in the model are task interdependence, the temporal context, reward systems, emotional labor requirements, organizational culture, and power distance. They concluded with a discussion of boundary conditions, and implications of our model for research, theory, and practice.

Ute Kunzmann *et al.* (2009) found that during films about age-typical losses, older adults experienced greater sadness than young adults, whereas their physiological responses were just as large. In the present study, their goal was to replicate this finding and extend past work by examining the role of cognitive functioning in age differences in emotional reactivity. They measured the autonomic and subjective responses of 240 adults (age range = 20 to 70) while they viewed films about age-typical losses from our previous work. Findings were fully supportive of our past work: The magnitude of subjective reactions to our films increased linearly over the adult years, whereas there were no age differences on the level of physiological reactivity. They also found that the subjective reactions of adults with high pragmatic intelligence were of moderate size independent of their own age or the age relevance of the emotion elicitor. In contrast, the subjective reactions of adults low on pragmatic intelligence were more variable. Together, this evidence suggests that research on age differences in emotional reactivity may benefit from a

perspective that considers individual difference variables as well as contextual variations.

İbrahim Kışaç *et al.* (2009) conducted a study to examine interceptive awareness, ineffectiveness and maturity fears in Turkish ballet dancers and ballerinas with respect body mass index (BMI) type to and gender. The study sample of the research is consisted of 215 ballet dancers and ballerinas who were recruited randomly from State Conservatories in some cities of Turkey. Multidimensional Eating Behaviours Inventory was used to collect data. Findings on BMI indicated that thin weight ballet dancers and ballerinas have significantly higher means about interceptive awareness than normal weight ballet dancers and ballerinas. There were no significant difference on maturity fears and ineffectiveness. When findings were analyzed according to gender, it was found that ballerinas have higher means on interceptive awareness and ineffectiveness than ballet dancers. However, it was not found any significant difference between ballet dancers and ballerinas on maturity fears.

Fatokun, A. L. A (2008) performed a study that reports that Emotional intelligence (EI) has been more realistic than other measures in evaluating performances in many fields of human activities. However, research evidences reveal that its application to amateur athletes and its ' possible effectiveness in enhancing sports performances is yet unknown. This study therefore investigated the effectiveness of emotional intelligence programme on the performances of amateur athletes from selected sports in Oyo State of Nigeria. The pretest, posttest randomized control group quasi experimental design was adopted for the study. The fishbowl method of the simple random, sampling technique was used to select four sports, which include basketball, handball, volleyball and weightlifting. The modified Emotional Competence Inventory Version 2 (ECI2) ($\alpha=0.8$ and the Emotional Competence Development Module Sports Version (ECDMSPORTS) ($\alpha =0.79$) were administered to 92 male and female amateur athletes whose ages ranged between 18 and 25. The experimental groups were exposed to six weeks of emotional competence training using the ECDM Sports programme. Two hypotheses were tested at significant level of 0. 05. The data were analyzed using Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA). The results revealed significant difference in (EI) posttest (Exp.x= 196.20; Control x= 186.98) ($P< 0.05$). Further, the treated group consequently performed better in the sports performance posttest ($x=66.19$) than the control group

($x=52.30$) ($P<0.05$). Results further indicated no significant difference in the EI and sports performance scores between the sports groups that were treated ($P>0.05$). This showed that the amateur athletes from all the sports groups equally utilized and benefited from the treatment programmes.

Torregrosa M *et al.* (2008) conducted a study to find the role of coaches' communication style and coach-created motivational climate in young soccer players' enjoyment and commitment. Four hundred and fifteen young soccer players of high competitive level in the age range from 14 to 16 completed the following questionnaires: a) coach-induced perceived motivational climate (PMCSQ-2), b) coaches' behaviour perception (CBAS-PBS), and c) sport commitment (SCQ). Results showed that coach-created motivational climate correlated highly with the perception of coaches' communication style. Moreover, coach-created motivational climate and communication style significantly determines players' sport commitment and enjoyment. Discussion focuses on the importance of seeking and training credible coaches that favours athletes' commitment.

Kimberly A *et al.* (2007) performed a study on ten-dimensional model of Emotional Intelligence that included three broad areas: (a) Appraisal and Expression of Emotion, (b) Regulation of Emotion, and (c) Utilization of Emotion. In the intervening decade and a half, researchers have not yet demonstrated that all of these dimensions can be empirically distinguished using self-report measures. Furthermore, research has not established what higher-order factors may relate these dimensions to each other, or whether higher-order factors can explain the relationships between the first-order factors. The Multidimensional Emotional Intelligence Assessment (MEIA; Tett, Fox, & Wang, 2005) is a new self-report measure designed to provide separate measurement of the ten Salovey and Mayer dimensions. This study shows that a ten-dimensional model fit the data well, and the ten factors had mostly small to moderate correlations. Higher-order factors exist, but were not able to account for the relationships between the first-order factors: correlated disturbance terms were also needed. There appears to be a trade-off between separate measurement of all dimensions and the simplicity of the higher-order factor structure. It was suggested that researchers and test users should continue to report scores on the first-order scales, rather than summarizing scores at the level of higher-order factors.

Nick Sevdalis *et al.* (2007) has emphasized the relevance of emotions in decision-making processes, individual differences in the perception and experience of emotion have been largely overlooked. Here they reported research that examines the relationship between trait emotional intelligence (*trait EI* or *trait emotional self-efficacy*) and decision-related affect. In Study 1, they obtained a positive relationship between trait EI and the deterioration of mood after the recall of a poor real-life decision. In Study 2, they obtained a negative relationship between trait EI and negative emotions experienced a few days after a failed negotiation. In addition, trait EI was positively associated with affective overprediction. The findings were discussed with reference to behavioural decision research and the need to explore the role of individual differences in the research.

Martin J. Lee *et al.* (2007) developed a questionnaire on attitudes to moral decision making in youth sport and describe the levels of ethical attitudes in young competitors. One qualitative and 4 quantitative studies. First, 11 focus group interviews with 50 competitors, aged 11–17 years, identified their attitudes to moral issues. Subsequently, exploratory (EFA) and confirmatory (CFA) factor analyses with samples of 435 and 218 competitors eliminated unsuitable items, to improve conceptual clarity and factorial validity, and reduced a 56-item pilot questionnaire to a 3-factor 18-item instrument measuring Acceptance of Cheating, Acceptance of Gamesmanship, and Keeping Winning in Proportion. Then exploratory modifications were made in a restricted framework to develop a 9-item gender-invariant instrument using a sample of 1126 competitors. Finally, with 375 participants, the 3-factor model was cross-validated and concurrent validity was demonstrated by correlations with a similar instrument. All psychometric criteria were met. Males, older and team sport athletes scored higher than females, younger and individual sport athletes on acceptance of cheating and gamesmanship. Acceptance of gamesmanship was also higher among athletes at higher competitive levels and keeping winning in proportion was higher in females. We present a sound psychometric instrument to assess 3 ethical attitudes in young competitors.

Carole Sève (2007) conducted the study to characterize the contents of emotions experienced by elite table tennis players during high-stakes matches and the

situational elements that contribute to these experiences. A four-case study. Three top-level table tennis players from the French Men's Table Tennis Team volunteered to participate in the study. Four matches were studied. Procedures involved: (a) videotaping high-stakes table tennis matches, (b) conducting self-confrontation interviews with players after matches, (c) transcribing the players' actions and self-confrontation data, (d) decomposing their activity into elementary units, and (e) identifying typical contents of emotion and typical emotional situations. The contents of players' emotions varied during matches. The pleasant or unpleasant tone of emotional content was linked to the set result and the interpretations of the unfolding situation. However, other elements of the competitive interaction (score configurations, judgments about the strokes performed) had a strong emotional coloration. Certain similar events (e.g., bad sensations during stroke performance) were frequently coupled with similar emotional content (e.g., displeasure). Until quite recently, the predominant focus in sport psychology has been on pre-performance emotions, with far less attention paid to the subjective emotional experiences that occur during task execution. This exploratory study provides initial empirical support for the notion of bi-directionality in emotion-performance relationships [Hanin, Y.L. (Ed.). (2000). *Emotions in sport*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics; Hanin, Y.L. (2003).

Knut A. Hagtvet and Yuri L. Hanin (2007) performed a study to estimate the between- and within-individual consistency of the individual zones of optimal functioning (IZOF)-based emotion profiles describing successful and unsuccessful (sub-standard) performance situations. The methodology of Generalizability theory (GT) was applied to two multifaceted measurement designs in studies of 12 highly skilled ice-hockey players assessed by the 28-item aggregated sport-specific emotion scale (Study 1) and a single-case involving elite soccer player (Study 2) using self-generated individualized emotion scale, respectively. A unique and specific interaction of emotions (the IZOF-“iceberg” or bell-shaped profile) characterized successful performance situations in both Study 1 and 2. This pattern with predominance of optimal pleasant and unpleasant emotions was consistently revealed in between- and within-individual comparisons. In contrast, failure (or sub-standard

performance) could not be characterized in terms of one unique and specific profile. However, the findings clearly motivate future research to identify multiple emotion profiles to conceptualize sub-standard performance. The paper offers hypotheses to guide future research. Findings provided support for conceptualizing performance situations in terms of relatively stable optimal and dysfunctional patterns of interaction of pleasant and unpleasant emotions. Results also demonstrate that GT is a methodology that can accommodate idiographic as well as nomothetic approaches to estimating within-individual and between-individual consistency patterns of performance-related emotions.

Arthur H. Perlini *et al.* (2006) carried out a study to: a) to evaluate the standing on emotional intelligence of National Hockey League players, relative to the general population, b) to evaluate the relationship of draft rank and emotional intelligence (EI) measures to hockey performance, and c) to evaluate the relative predictive value of these measures to performance indices: total NHL points and NHL games played. During the 2003–04 hockey season, 79 players across 24 NHL teams completed the Bar-On EQ-i. The findings indicated that years-since-draft was the strongest predictor of performance and draft rank was the weakest predictor of performance. With respect to EI, both intrapersonal competency and general mood added significant variance to predictions of number of NHL points and games played. Implications for predicting performance in the NHL, amongst draft prospects, was discussed.

Gerald Matthews *et al.* (2006) states that Emotional intelligence (EI) may predict stress responses and coping strategies in a variety of applied settings. This study compares EI and the personality factors of the Five Factor Model (FFM) as predictors of task-induced stress responses. Participants ($N = 200$) were randomly assigned to 1 of 4 task conditions, 3 of which were designed to be stressful. Results confirmed that low EI was related to worry states and avoidance coping, even with the FFM statistically controlled. However, EI was not specifically related to task-induced changes in stress state. Results also confirmed that Neuroticism related to distress, worry, and emotion-focused coping, and Conscientiousness predicted use of task-focused coping. The applied utility of EI and personality measures was discussed.

Rhonda F. Brown *et al.* (2006) conducted a study to examine the direct and indirect relationships between emotional intelligence and subjective fatigue. One hundred sixty seven university students completed questionnaires assessing subjective fatigue, emotional intelligence, and a range of other psychosocial factors. A series of regression analyses were used to examine the direct and indirect relationships between subjective fatigue and psychosocial factors. 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. These findings regarding the association between subjective fatigue, emotional intelligence, and other psychosocial factors may facilitate an understanding of the aetiology of fatigue and contribute to future research examining interventions aimed at helping individuals cope with fatigue.

Benjamin P *et al.* (2006) accomplished a study to found out the differentiation of the construct of emotional intelligence by investigating young and middle-aged adults, on the basis of hypotheses generated from differential emotions theory, discrete emotions functionalist theory, and empirical literature on age-related changes in affective complexity and differentiation of abilities. Both age groups were characterized by the same set of comparably related dimensions. However, midlife adults reported significantly greater use of optimism as a mood-regulation strategy than was reported by young adults. This study considers implications of possible structural continuity in emotional intelligence in conjunction with mean increases in the use of optimism as a strategy for managing affect.

Jeremy A *et al.* (2006) carried out a study among sense of humor, emotional intelligence (EI), and social competence by examining 111 undergraduate students using measures of humor styles, trait cheerfulness, social competence, and an ability test of EI. Emotional management ability was positively correlated with self-enhancing humor and trait cheerfulness, and negatively correlated with trait bad mood. Ability to accurately perceive emotions was negatively related to aggressive and self-defeating humor. Positive humor styles and trait cheerfulness were positively

correlated with various domains of social competence, whereas negative humor styles and trait bad mood were negatively correlated with social competence. Finally, the emotional management facet of EI was positively correlated with several social competence domains.

Daniel L. Wann (2006) in his article presents a theoretical model designed to account for the positive relationship between identification with a local sport team and social psychological health. This model, labeled the Team Identification-Social Psychological Health Model, predicts that team identification facilitates well-being by increasing social connections for the fan. Two forms of social connections are developed through team identification: enduring and temporary. Although the enduring and temporary social connections are expected to result in improved well-being, it is predicted that this relationship will be moderated by threats to social identity and efforts to cope with the threats. The social connections resulting from team identification are expected to impact both state (via increases in temporary social connections) and trait well-being (via enduring connections). Finally, because research indicates that group and team identification are more closely related to social well-being than personal well-being, temporary and enduring social connections are predicted to have their greatest impact on social psychological health.

Manfred Amelang and Ricarda Steenmayr (2006) performed a study to examine the role of trait emotional intelligence ('trait EI') in academic performance and in deviant behavior at school on a sample of 650 pupils in British secondary education (mean age \approx 16.5 years). Trait EI moderated the relationship between cognitive ability and academic performance. In addition, pupils with high trait EI scores were less likely to have had unauthorized absences and less likely to have been excluded from school. Most trait EI effects persisted even after controlling for personality variance. It was concluded that the constellation of emotion-related self-perceived abilities and dispositions that the construct of trait EI encompasses is implicated in academic performance and deviant behavior, with effects that are particularly relevant to vulnerable or disadvantaged adolescents.

Ester Cerin and Anthony Barnett (2006) conducted the study to examine the natural flow of (a) pre- and post-competition temporal patterns of intensity,

frequency and daily mean level (a composite measure of frequency and intensity) of basic emotions and (b) frequency of reports of competition-related and competition-extraneous concerns across time. The Experience Sampling Method (ESM) was used, which permits the monitoring of the spontaneous flow of daily affective and cognitive experiences in the athletes' habitual environment. Thirty-nine male elite martial artists were assessed on 12 basic emotions and concerns at five random times a day across 1 week before and 3 days after a competition. On the competition day, the participants were assessed 1 h before and immediately after the contest. Different patterns of change were observed for intensity and frequency of emotions and frequency of competition-related and competition-extraneous concerns. Frequency of fear was the most reactive affective component to competition vicinity. Increased frequency of some outcome-contingent negative emotions persisted for three days post-competition. The presence of negative emotions was the lowest in the post-competition days. This study confirms that, for a better understanding of the process of competitive stress, monitoring of both intensity and frequency of a wide range of emotions is needed. This research area may also benefit from analyzing possible psychological spill-over between sport, competition and other life domains.

Robert J. Harmison (2006) performed a study examining if psychologists help performers in sport, business, and the performing arts achieve peak performances more often and with greater consistency? Sport psychologists have taken the lead in researching peak performance in an attempt to answer this question. This article focuses on optimal experiences in sport and ways in which the author works with athletes to help them achieve peak performances. Peak performance in sport is overviewed, the application of two models related to the preparation for peak performance in sport are discussed, and applied sport psychology experiential knowledge is shared. Implications for practice for psychologists considering work in this area are also considered.

Anne Bowker (2006) performed a study that examined the links between sports participation and self-esteem, with particular interest in the possible mediating role of physical self-esteem. The participants in this study were 382 students (167 boys; 215 girls) in Grades 5–8. Participants completed a series of paper and pencil

measures, detailing their sports participation, as well as their self-perceptions concerning physical and general self-esteem. Sports participation was related to all indices of self-esteem and this was equally true for boys and girls. Two distinct but related factors were identified as components of physical self-esteem (Physical appearance and Physical competence), differentially associated with self-esteem for boys and girls. Results supported a mediational model, with physical self-esteem mediating the relationship between sports participation and general self-esteem. Significant sex differences were noted with regard to specific indices of physical self-esteem.

Veneta A *et al.* (2005) conducted a study on Emotional Intelligence (EI) to explain how emotions advance life goals. While different theories of EI have been proposed there is still controversy about how EI should be conceptualised and measured. It is agreed, however, that EI's relevance depends on it being able to predict significant life outcomes. A study of 246 predominantly first-year tertiary students investigated relationships between EI and a number of 'life skills' (academic achievement, life satisfaction, anxiety, problem-solving and coping). Correlations between EI and academic achievement were small and not statistically significant, although higher EI 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 EI and life skills was 6% or less.

Joseph B *et al.* (2005) states that Emotional intelligence (EI; the ability to perceive, integrate, understand, and manage emotions) may influence appraisals of stressful tasks and subsequent task performance. This study examined the relationship of ability-based EI facets with performance under stress. It was expected that high levels of EI would promote challenge appraisals and better performance, whereas low EI levels would foster threat appraisals and worse performance. Undergraduates ($N = 126$) performed mental math and videotaped speech tasks. Certain dimensions of EI were related to more challenge and enhanced performance. Some EI dimensions were related to performance after controlling for cognitive ability, demonstrating

incremental validity. This pattern of findings differed somewhat for males and females.

David L. Van Rooy *et al.* (2005) states that Emotional intelligence is a relatively new concept and little research to date has examined group differences in test scores. In this study a common measure of emotional intelligence (EI) was administered to 275 participants (216 female) to examine how different groups score on a test of EI. Differences were compared for gender, ethnicity and age. Results indicated that females scored slightly higher than males and EI scores tended to increase with age. Group differences existed for ethnicity but favored minority groups, mitigating potential adverse impact concerns. Full implications for test development and organizational use are discussed.

Ian R. Tofler *et al.* (2005) in his article presents an overview of sporting participation for children and adolescents from psychological, physical, social, developmental, and historical perspectives. The following areas were reviewed: (1) normal developmental readiness and sporting participation; (2) benefits and risks of athletic participation for the child and adolescent; (3) self concept and sporting participation; (4) adverse psychophysiological and somatoform effects of sports; (5) interactional and systemic contributions to adverse physical and psychological effects; (6) a historical/social perspective of sport in the United States; (7) the current and future role of psychiatrists in conjunction with sports medicine physicians; (8) the sports psychiatry interview of the child, family, and coach; and (9) summary and future challenges.

John H. Kerr *et al.* (2005) conducted the study to measure the effects of game outcome on pleasant and unpleasant emotions and stress during elite-level competition. Quasi-experimental repeated pre- and post-game measurement in a field setting. Participants were 16 members of the Japanese women's field hockey team playing a world cup preliminary qualifying tournament in Trinidad. Players completed the Tension and Effort Stress Inventory (TESI), a measure of emotion and stress, at the seven games of the tournament (five wins, two losses). The pattern of emotions after game 1 (a loss) were in sharp contrast to the results from the other six games (five wins, one loss). When compared to other games, significant increases in

anxiety, humiliation and excitement pre- to post-game 1 were found, as were significantly higher scores in sullenness and lower scores in relaxation post-game 1. No significant decreases in external tension stress and somatic tension and effort stress pre- to post-game 1 were found. For the other games, athletes were significantly more relaxed and excited after games, increasing with each game in the tournament. Also, the unpleasant emotion and stress results, associated with game 1, significantly diminished as the team progressed to the tournament final. There was no evidence for a simple win/loss difference on post-game emotions and stress. The relationship between game outcome and emotional response is not straightforward. Other factors, such as cognition, may also play a role.

Blake W. Miller *et al.* (2005) performed a study to investigate the relationship between perceived motivational climate and moral functioning, moral atmosphere, and legitimizing injurious sports acts among competitive youth football players. A perceived performance climate will be associated with lower moral functioning, less appropriate moral atmosphere perceptions, and a greater likelihood of legitimizing aggression in competitive football than a perceived mastery climate. A perceived performance climate will be associated with lower moral cognitions and behaviour. Lastly, boys will be lower in sport morality than girls. A cross-sectional study of 705 competitive Norwegian youth football players (n=365 boys; n=340 girls). Participants responded to a questionnaire measuring coach-created motivational climate, moral functioning, moral atmosphere, and the legitimacy of injurious acts in football. Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted to investigate the differential effect of mastery and performance climate perceptions on the moral variables. Controlling for the emergence of gender differences, climate interactions emerged for moral judgment and intentional aggression by means of physical intimidation. A high performance/high mastery climate significantly predicted lower moral judgment as well as the legitimacy of using physical intimidation. Further, climate main effects indicated that perceiving a performance climate significantly predicted overall low sport morality, whereas mastery climate perception predicted more mature moral reasoning and a coach-determined moral atmosphere disproving

of low moral behaviour. Our findings further emphasize the low moral effect of a high perceived coach-created performance climate in competitive youth football.

Timothy A et al. (2004) accomplished a study that used Meta-analysis to aggregate results from studies examining the relationship between intelligence and leadership. One hundred fifty-one independent samples in 96 sources met the criteria for inclusion in the meta-analysis. Results indicated that the corrected correlation between intelligence and leadership is .21 (uncorrected for range restriction) and .27 (corrected for range restriction). Perceptual measures of intelligence showed stronger correlations with leadership than did paper-and-pencil measures of intelligence. Intelligence correlated equally well with objective and perceptual measures of leadership. Additionally, the leader's stress level and the leader's directiveness moderated the intelligence-leadership relationship. Overall, results suggest that the relationship between intelligence and leadership is considerably lower than previously thought. The results also provide meta-analytic support for both implicit leadership theory and cognitive resource theory.

Konstantinos Kafetsios (2004) conducted a study which tested hypotheses about the relationship between attachment orientations and emotional intelligence, measured as a set of abilities (perception, facilitation, understanding and management of emotion). The sample consisted of 239 adults aged between 19 and 66 years who completed the Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso emotional intelligence test (MSCEIT V2.0) and the relationship questionnaire. Secure attachment was positively related to all sub-scales (except perception of emotion) and total EI score. Contrary to expectations, dismissing attachment was positively associated with the ability to understand emotion. The results also found differences in emotional intelligence abilities between age and gender groups. Older participants scored higher on three out of four branches of EI (facilitation, understanding and management) and females scored higher than males on emotion perception and the experiential area. The study highlights the importance of distinguishing fearful and dismissing avoidance and the associated cognitive and affective processes and provides a validation for the recent emotional intelligence abilities test.

Melanie J. Schulte *et al.* (2004) states that cognitive ability and personality have long played central roles in the investigation of determinants of human performance. Recently, the construct of emotional intelligence (EI) has emerged in the popular literature as an additional explanatory concept for human behavior and performance. The ability conceptualization of EI proposed by Mayer, Salovey, and their colleagues involves the perception, assimilation, comprehension, and management of emotions. Its proponents consider it to be distinct from either general cognitive ability (*g*) or personality. The purpose of this study was to investigate the construct validity of EI by examining its relations to *g* and the Big Five personality dimensions of Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness. The observed correlation between scores on the Wonderlic Personnel Test (a measure of *g*) and EI was $r=0.454$. A regression model that included three predictors representing *g*, the Big Five dimension of Agreeableness, and sex showed an *R* of 0.617. After correction for unreliability the multiple correlations became 0.806, showing a strong relationship. Based on these results, we question the uniqueness of EI as a construct and conclude that its potential for advancing our understanding of human performance may be limited. Implications and suggestions for future studies are discussed.

David L. Van Rooy *et al.* (2004) carried out a study that used meta-analytic techniques to examine the relationship emotional intelligence (EI) and performance outcomes. A total of 69 independent studies were located that reported correlations between EI and performance or other variables such as general mental ability (GMA) and the Big Five factors of personality. Results indicated that, across criteria, EI had an operational validity of .23 ($k=59$, $N=9522$). Various moderating influences such as the EI measure used, dimensions of EI, scoring method and criterion were evaluated. EI correlated .22 with general mental ability ($k=19$, $N=4158$) and .23 (Agreeableness and Openness to Experience; $k=14$, $N=3306$) to .34 (Extraversion; $k=19$, $N=3718$) with the Big Five factors of personality. Results of various subgroup analyses were presented and implications and future directions were provided.

Arla L. Day *et al.* (2004) studied that despite of the claims that emotional intelligence (EI) predicts performance on work-related tasks and successful

interpersonal interactions, little research exists to support these claims. In the present study, the construct and criterion-related validity of an ability-based measure of EI (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000b) were examined. The four-factor model for the MSCEIT fit the data well. As hypothesized, there were some gender and experience differences in the MSCEIT subscales. The MSCEIT subscales were modestly correlated with personality, unrelated to individual-level citizenship behaviour, and somewhat related to group-level citizenship behaviour. Only the emotional Perception Scale of the MSCEIT was correlated with performance on a cognitive decision-making task.

Marc A. Brackett *et al.* (2004) assessed that the discriminant, criterion and incremental validity of an ability measure of emotional intelligence (EI). College students (N=330) took an ability test of EI, a measure of the Big Five personality traits, and provided information on Life Space scales that assessed an array of self-care behaviours, leisure pursuits, academic activities, and interpersonal relations. Women scored significantly higher in EI than men. EI, however, was more predictive of the Life Space criteria for men than for women. Lower EI in males, principally the inability to perceive emotions and to use emotion to facilitate thought, was associated with negative outcomes, including illegal drug and alcohol use, deviant behaviour, and poor relations with friends. The findings remained significant even after statistically controlling for scores on the Big Five and academic achievement. In this sample, EI was significantly associated with maladjustment and negative behaviours for college-aged males, but not for females.

Ken McPhail (2004) in this paper have attempted to do three things. Firstly, in the light of growing concern over the expanding managerialism and rationalism within society in general and accounting education in particular, the paper presents a theoretical reappraisal of the extent to which conventional perspectives on rationalism and managerialism might be misconstrued. In particular, the paper address a question that relates to the role of emotion within business decision making: ‘while we might feel uneasy about basing accounting and business decisions purely on reason, surely this is more acceptable than basing them on feelings or emotions?’ Behind this rhetorical question lies the common assumption that emotional responses to business issues are at best unhelpful. The first section of the paper explores this misconceived

notion of the distinction between reason and emotion which, it is argued, has emerged primarily from the work of Max Weber and presents an alternative perspective on the primacy of emotion in all rational decision making. Secondly, drawing on Gardner's work on multiple intelligence, the paper suggests that the conventional misconception of the relationship between emotion and reason has resulted in the complete failure within accounting education to address the area of student's emotional intelligence. Finally, it is contended that despite the spread of managerialism, accounting education remains a dialectical process and the paper concludes with a report on a specific attempt to critically resist the managerialism rhetoric through developing accounting student's emotional skills.

David W. Chan (2004) conducted a study in which one hundred and fifty-eight secondary school teachers were assessed on their perceived emotional intelligence (Schutte et al., 1998) and general self-efficacy and self-efficacy toward helping others (Schwarzer, 1993). An item factor analysis yielded four dimensions of perceived emotional intelligence, leading to the construction of four corresponding empirical scales. Teachers scored most highly on positive utilisation and emotional appraisal, followed by empathic sensitivity and positive regulation. Using the four components of perceived emotional intelligence as predictors of self-efficacy beliefs, positive regulation emerged as the significant predictor in predicting general self-efficacy whereas empathic sensitivity emerged as the significant predictor in predicting self-efficacy toward helping others. Implications of the findings for exploring the relationships between various components of perceived emotional intelligence and various specific self-efficacy beliefs for different groups of teachers and the need for further studies using longitudinal data are discussed.

Donald H. Saklofske et al. (2003) carried out a study on short self-report emotional intelligence (EI) measure was completed by a sample of 354 students, who also completed a range of affective and personality measures. A subset of the group also completed an intelligence measure. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis of the EI scale suggested a hierarchical factor structure with a super-ordinate EI factor and four lower-level factors. EI was found to be negatively and significantly correlated with Neuroticism, and positively and significantly correlated with Extraversion, Openness, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness. Correlations of EI with the other measures were in accordance with theoretical expectations; for example, positive with life satisfaction and negative with depression-proneness. Most

of these correlations remained significant when the effects of personality were controlled for. These results and regression modelling show that EI accounts for variance in these measures not accounted for by personality. EI was found not to be significantly correlated with cognitive ability. The relationship between EI and alexithymia was investigated using structural equation modelling and factor analysis. The results indicated that the two constructs are distinct, although strongly correlated.

Joseph Ciarrochi *et al.* (2002) states that despite a great deal of popular interest and the development of numerous training programs in emotional intelligence (EI), some researchers have argued that there is little evidence that EI is both useful and different from other, well established constructs. We hypothesized that EI would make a unique contribution to understanding the relationship between stress and three important mental health variables, depression, hopelessness, and suicidal ideation. University students ($n=302$) participated in a cross-sectional study that involved measuring life stress, objective and self-reported emotional intelligence, and mental health. Regression analyses revealed that stress was associated with: (1) greater reported depression, hopelessness, and suicidal ideation among people high in emotional perception (EP) compared to others; and (2) greater suicidal ideation among those low in managing others' emotions (MOE). Both EP and MOE were shown to be statistically different from other relevant measures, suggesting that EI is a distinctive construct as well as being important in understanding the link between stress and mental health.

Chi-Sum Wong *et al.* (2002) states that recently, increasing numbers of scholars have argued that emotional intelligence (EI) is a core variable that affects the performance of leaders. In this study, they develop a psychometrically sound and practically short EI measure that can be used in leadership and management studies. They also provide exploratory evidence for the effects of the EI of both leaders and followers on job outcomes. Applying Gross' emotion regulation model, they argue that the EI of leaders and followers should have positive effects on job performance and attitudes. They also propose that the emotional labor of the job moderates the EI–job outcome relationship. Their results show that the EI of followers affects job performance and job satisfaction, while the EI of leaders affects their satisfaction and extra-role behavior. For followers, the proposed interaction effects between EI and emotional labor on job performance, organizational commitment, and turnover intention are also supported.

Danielle Charbonneau *et al.* (2002) tested the validity of two measures of «emotional intelligence» (EI) and we investigated the relation between EI and leadership in 191 adolescents (M=14.33 years) attending a 3-week military training camp. A scale by Schutte *et al.* [Personality and Individual Differences 25 (1998) 167] assessed primarily the intrapersonal aspect of EI, whereas selected items from the Weisinger [«Emotional intelligence» at work (1998) Dan Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass] scale measured primarily the interpersonal aspect. Participants were also rated by their peers and junior leaders on the Weisinger items. Leadership was assessed using a peer nomination system for task-goal and socio-emotional orientation [Schneider, Ehrhart, & Holcombe (in press) Leadership in adolescence: comparing peer and teacher perspectives and correlates, Leadership Quarterly]. Both measures, but especially the Schutte *et al.* scale, correlated with social desirability, suggesting problems of discriminant validity. Scores on the Schutte *et al.* scale did not correlate with any peer nominations, indicating questionable convergent validity. In contrast, scores on the Weisinger scale (self-report) correlated with peer nominations of socio-emotional leadership and task-goal leadership. However, the lack of correlation between the self-rated and the other-rated versions of the Weisinger scale is a concern.

Neal M. Ashkanasy *et al.* (2002) provides a review of recent developments in two topical areas of research in contemporary organizational behavior: diversity and emotions. In the section called “Diversity,” he trace the history of diversity research; explore the definitions and paradigms used in treatments of diversity, and signal new areas of interest. He concluded that organizational behavior in the 21st century is evolving to embrace a more eclectic and holistic view of humans at work. In the section called “Emotions,” he turns attention to recent developments in the study of emotions in organizations. He identifies four major topics: mood theory, emotional labor, affective events theory (AET), and emotional intelligence, and argue that developments in the four domains have significant implications for organizational research, and the progression of the study of organizational behavior. As with the study of diversity, the topic of emotions in the workplace is shaping up as one of the principal areas of development in management thought and practice for the next decade. Finally, he discusses in conclusion how these two areas are being conceptually integrated, and the implications for management scholarship and research in the contemporary world.

P. Totterdell *et al.* (2001) conducted the study to test whether the performance of professional sports competitors is related to their expectancy of improving an unpleasant mood. Two related studies of professional cricketers were conducted. In Study One, 46 players completed a battery of questionnaire scales, including a measure of negative mood regulation (NMR) expectancy. In Study Two, 19 participants from Study One took part in a time-sampling study in which they rated their mood on a pocket computer throughout a competitive match. The results from Study One showed that NMR was significantly correlated with players' batting average for the season. In contrast, reflexivity, well-being, and age were significantly associated with NMR but not with batting average. The results from Study Two showed that players who had greater NMR had significantly higher ratings for happy mood, smaller negative changes in happy mood, and greater batting averages during the match. Results of regression analysis supported an explanation of the association between NMR and performance in terms of a mediating effect of happy mood. Overall, the findings suggest that NMR expectancy can facilitate professional sports performance.

David Fletcher *et al.* (2001) conducted a study to investigate equivocal findings within the literature addressing the relationship between competitive anxiety responses and psychological skills. Intensity (i.e. level) and direction (i.e. interpretation of intensity as facilitative or debilitating) dimensions of competitive state anxiety and self-confidence were examined in performers with different levels of psychological skills usage. Cross-sectional design assessing psychological constructs during competition. The independent variable was psychological skill usage ("high" and "low" groups) and dependent variables were competitive anxiety responses. Non-elite competitive swimmers (N=114) completed a modified version of the Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2 (CSAI-2) which examined both intensity and direction dimensions prior to racing. Following the event these participants completed the Test of Performance Strategies (TOPS) which measures psychological skills usage. Based on the TOPS scores the swimmers were dichotomized using post-hoc median-split into high and low usage groups for certain psychological skills. MANOVAs revealed significant differences in the CSAI-2 scores between the high and low usage groups for the skills of relaxation, self-talk and imagery. ANOVAs indicated significant differences on all CSAI-2 subscales for relaxation groups, and differences on cognitive intensity, somatic direction and self-confidence for self-talk

groups, and self-confidence for the imagery groups. Non-elite swimmers, in contrast with previous research examining elite swimmers (Hanton, S. & Jones, G. (1999a). The acquisition and development of cognitive skills and strategies: I. Making the butterflies fly in formation. *The Sport Psychologist*, 13, 1–21), primarily use relaxation strategies to reduce and interpret their anxiety intensity levels as facilitative, relying minimally on other psychological skills.

Michael Bar-Eli *et al.* (2000) conducted a study to explore psychological performance crises under time pressure towards the end of basketball games. Three hypotheses were tested: (a) situations in the end phase of the game would be evaluated as highly critical; (b) crisis probability will increase within the end phase of the game, from its beginning towards its end; (c) players' decision behaviour would be of lesser quality under high- versus low-criticality situations. A panel of six experts observed elite basketball players at the end phase of 10 close games at the highest international level. In the study's first stage, three experts evaluated the criticality of each possession during the observed game intervals. In the second stage of the study, three experts' evaluations of team- and player-decision making behaviour in offense, defense and scoring attempts were analyzed. In the study's first stage, experts' judgments indicated that the final phase of the game was characterized as comprising twice as many highly critical possessions than low-criticality possessions. In addition, the number of highly critical possessions grew dramatically towards the end of the phase. In the study's second stage, results indicated that highly critical possessions were characterized by a lower quality of decision making compared to low criticality possessions. Results in both stages supported all three hypotheses, in accordance with crisis theory. It was recommended that researchers further observe athletes' decision behaviour within the framework of crisis theory, and practitioners were advised to direct athletes' mental preparation towards the end phases of games.

Shaun Newsome *et al.* (2000) states that Emotional intelligence has become a fashionable topic in the popular press, and has been heralded as an effective predictor of successful performance. However, little empirical evidence has borne out these claims. The present study was conducted in order to determine the relationship of emotional intelligence, cognitive ability, and personality with academic achievement. Emotional intelligence was assessed using the EQ-i (total EQ-i score and five EQ-i composite factor scores). Both cognitive ability and personality (in terms of extraversion and self control) were significantly associated with academic

achievement. None of the EQ-i factor scores, nor the total EQ-i score, was significantly related to academic achievement.

Williams AM and Reilly T (2000) attempted to integrate the main research findings concerned with talent identification and development in soccer. Research approaches in anthropometry, physiology, psychology and sociology are considered and, where possible, integrated. Although some progress has been made in identifying correlates of playing success, it appears that no unique characteristics can be isolated with confidence. Both biological and behavioural scientists have indicated a strong genetic component in performance of sports such as soccer; nevertheless, the influence of systematic training and development programmes should not be underestimated. They conclude that the sport and exercise sciences have an important support role in the processes of identifying, monitoring and nurturing talented soccer players towards realizing their potential.

Morris T (2000) carried out a research on psychological characteristics and sports performance and examine the literature on talent identification with particular reference to soccer to derive implications for the use of psychological variables in the talent identification and development process. Although the many cross-sectional studies of psychological characteristics and performance in all football codes conducted over the last 30 years have revealed no clear patterns, studies of both general inventories and specific variables are still being conducted. Reports on talent identification in all codes have increased in recent years, but most are descriptive in nature. In this review, he suggest that research on systematic expert observation has potential as a practical approach, but more studies of this type are needed. Considering the examination of specific psychological variables, only a solitary investigation of creativity in adolescents has shown promise. Further research on creativity and talent identification is required to replicate the positive results found in that study. In summarizing the research on psychological characteristics and talent identification, he concluded that cross-sectional research on adults cannot be extrapolated for use in talent identification with adolescents. He proposes that resources would be more effectively used in the provision of psychological skills training for adolescent soccer players, pending more sophisticated research on a wider range of psychological variables. It was recommended that longitudinal or quasi-longitudinal research is essential to determine whether the same psychological variables are important for outstanding performance throughout the process of

development and whether psychological variables measured during adolescence can predict outstanding performance in adulthood.

Williams AM (2000) reviewed that the key components of perceptual skill in soccer are identified and implications for talent identification and development highlighted. Skilled soccer players can recall and recognize patterns of play more effectively than their less skilled counterparts. This ability to encode, retrieve and recognize sport-specific information is due to complex and discriminating long-term memory structures and is crucial to anticipation in soccer. Similarly, experts use their knowledge of situational probabilities (i.e. expectations) to anticipate future events. They have a better than average idea of what is likely to happen given a particular set of circumstances. Also, proficiency-related differences in visual search strategy are observed. Skilled players use their superior knowledge to control the eye movement patterns necessary for seeking and picking up important sources of information. The nature of the task plays an important role in constraining the type of search used. Skilled soccer players use different search strategies when viewing the whole field (i.e. 11 vs 11 situations) compared with micro-states of the game (i.e. 1 vs 1, 3 vs 3 situations). Visual search behaviour also differs between defensive and offensive plays. These observations have implications for the development of perceptual training programmes and the identification of potential elite soccer players.

Peter Salovey *et al.* (2000) states that positive emotional states may promote healthy perceptions, beliefs, and physical well-being itself. To explore potential mechanisms linking pleasant feelings and good health, the authors consider several lines of research, including (a) direct effects of positive affect on physiology, especially the immune system, (b) the information value of emotional experiences, (c) the psychological resources engendered by positive feeling states, (d) the ways in which mood can motivate health-relevant behaviours, and (e) the elicitation of social support. As anticipated by the Greek physician Hippocrates, positive emotions and healthy outcomes may be linked through multiple pathways.

Dennis M. O'Sullivan *et al.* (1999) carried out a study on Male members of two college teams, baseball and football, and female members of two teams, field hockey and lacrosse (combined) and equestrians, were compared on the five scales of the Zuckerman-Kuhlman Personality Questionnaire (ZKPQ). All teams were significantly higher on the Activity and lower on the Neuroticism-Anxiety scales than the general college population of the University of Delaware. Lacrosse and field

hockey athletes were higher on activity than equestrians and baseball players were higher than football players on this scale. Contrary to predictions, football players scored lower than the general university male population on Impulsive Sensation Seeking and the lacrosse and field hockey players did not differ from the general college females on Impulsive Sensation Seeking. The baseball players also scored lower on this scale. The hypothesis that body contact sports attract high sensation seeking and aggressive participants was not supported. Sensation seeking is more characteristic of participants in high risk sports offering unusual sensation and personal challenges.

John D. Mayer *et al.* (1995) states that emotionally intelligent people are defined in part as those who regulate their emotions according to a logically consistent model of emotional functioning. We identify and compare several models of emotion regulation; for example, one internally consistent model includes tenets such as “happiness should be optimized over the lifetime.” Next, we apply that internally consistent model to the way a person can intervene in mood construction and regulation at non-, low-, and high-conscious levels of experience. Research related to the construction and regulation of emotion at each of these levels is reviewed. Finally, we connect our concept of emotionally intelligent regulation to its potential applications to personality and clinical psychology.

Ebbeck V *et al.* (1994) states that little are known about the nature of task and ego orientations that are key motivation construct. The purpose of this study, therefore, was to examine the extent to which perceived social, contextual, and personal factors predicted the goal orientations of youth sport participants. The sample consisted of 166 male and female adolescent soccer players, who completed self-report measures at the end of a 7-week competitive season. A canonical correlation analysis revealed that the set of predictor variables accounted for 24% of the variance in player goal orientations. Higher scores on perceived soccer competence, perceived parent task orientation, and particularly perceived parent ego orientation were primarily associated with higher scores on player ego orientation. In addition, higher scores on perceived soccer competence, perceived parent task orientation, and perceived mastery climate, as well as lower scores on perceived performance climate, were associated with a higher level of player task orientation. These findings were interpreted and discussed in terms of future research directions.