CHAPTER 2

Review of Related Literature
CHAPTER – II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Review of related literature is very important and it plays a vital role to understand the problem thoroughly. Research scholar since beginning of his attempt for conceptualization of the study reviewed extensively every literature related to this study, he could avail from various sources. This effort had helped to formulate the study as well as provided logical understanding about formulating hypothesis, designing their limitations, methodology and solution for implementation. There has been a good deal of research on the psychiatric problems focusing on areas such as occupational stress, mental health, and job satisfaction. The literature that were of critical important to this study and sourced and reviewed from Internet, Academic journals and periodicals subscription were cited in abstract form in this chapter to provide the background material to evaluate the significance of this study.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND BASKETBALL PLAYERS

Emotional Intelligence in Basketball Players: A Predictor of Sport Performance

Baljinder sing Bal and Davinder singh (2014) This study examined the role of emotional intelligence in performance of basketball players. To obtain required data, the investigators had selected Sixty (N=60) female intercollege level basketball players of 19 to 25 years of age to act as subjects. They were divided into three groups; (i.e., N1=20; District, N2=20; State and N3=20 National). The purposive sampling technique was used to select the subjects. Every one of the subjects, subsequent to having been educated about the goal and convention of the review, gave their agree and volunteered to take an interest in this review. To quantify the level of Enthusiastic Knowledge the subjects, the Passionate Insight scale developed by Hyde et al., (2001) was regulated. The results revealed significant differences have been noticed among district, state and national level female basketball players on the sub-parameters; self-awareness and integrity. It has been observed that district level female basketball players had demonstrated significantly better self-awareness as compared to their counterpart state and national level female basketball players. It has
also been noticed that national level female basketball players exhibited significantly better on integrity as compared to their counterpart district and state level female basketball players. However, No significant differences were found on the sub-parameters; empathy, self-motivation, emotional stability, managing relations, self-development, value orientation, commitment and altruistic behaviour.

Keshtkarmaleki, Nikaeen, and Ganjouei, (2015) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and motivation of Gillan province basketball players. Statistical population of present study was all entire men and women basketball players of Gillan province. Two questionnaires were used in present study. Bar-An emotional intelligence standard questionnaire (1997) that measured emotional intelligence with 43 questions in 5 subscales contains interpersonal, intrapersonal, adaptability, stress management, and impulse control. Also Willis motivation standard questionnaire (1986) that measured competitive motivation with 40 questions in 3 subscales contains motive to achieve success, motive to avoid failure, and power motive. Internal consistency of the questionnaires was estimated 0.90 and 0.92 using Cronbach's alpha. Data were analyzed with one sample Kolmogorov Simonov, Spearman, and Friedman test in significance lower than 0.05. Results showed there is positive and significant relationship between emotional intelligence and motivation of Gillan province basketball players. Totally results supported the notion that athletes with high level of emotional intelligence had more motivation for participation in physical activity.

Gobinder Singh Gill et al., (2016) The purpose of this investigation was to examine the impact of emotional intelligence and goal setting in basketball. Having recognized the significance of enthusiastic control in execution a reasonable mediation to encourage this procedure was tried. Utilizing quantitative investigation to quantify execution, members finished an objective setting and passionate insight survey amid three times of the normal season. Comes about uncovered that members who showed high enthusiastic knowledge levels set incessant objectives. Members additionally found that boundaries to objectives were overcome through particular activity arranging and identified with individual prerequisites. Information for passionate insight exhibited that members additionally ended up noticeably mindful of their own execution levels. In whole, this examination advocates the utilization of objective
setting to upgrade passionate insight levels for execution results in ball. Future research ought to draw in the utilization of passionate knowledge with bundled mental aptitudes (e.g. symbolism, self-talk and unwinding) to upgrade execution levels. Promote, utilizing relapse investigation would be valuable in analyzing connections all the more intimately with the incorporation of more subjective philosophy.

**Nivedita Gupta (2009)** conducted a study to find out the effects of specifically designed mental simulation training programme on the variable emotional intelligence as well as on the selected basketball players who had been classified into experiment and control groups for the purpose of this study the sample consisted of a total numbers of 100 boys and girls in the age group of 15 to 19 years studying in 9th to 12th grades of senior secondary schools at Dehradun in the state of uttarakhand. The sample was divided into two parallel groups, i.e. experimental and control groups. The test gather involved 50 young men and young ladies who were subjected to the mental reproduction preparing and control bunches included 50 those b-balls playing young men and young ladies who were not be subjected to any mental recreation preparing , yet had proceeded with their normal preparing and practice plan. For discovering the level of enthusiastic insight the seven crease passionate knowledge scale built by Khera, Ahaja and Sarbjeet (2002) was utilized. Results of one way ANOVA regarding pre-test male and female groups and post-test male and female groups within the experiment group on the variables emotional intelligence. The mean and SD were 178.76 and 10.59, for pre-test female group these were 177.40 and 15.43, for the group test post test female group value were 202.00 and 19.127. This difference has also been found to be significant (p<0.01). Mean difference between post-test male and post-test female group was 1.80 which was not significant.

**Teresa Fonseca (2011)** the physical abilities and strategies of ball players are, right now fundamentally the same as, furthermore their mental aptitudes, additionally their enthusiastic state is essential to the individual execution. Without a doubt, the game practice passionate state and in the warmth of rivalry can support both the players or hurt them, since they may endorse the mastery of their games hones. In this unique circumstance, we did a review with a specimen of 32 youthful female concentrate the apparent enthusiastic insight (PEI) in their three measurements (thoughtfulness regarding feelings, lucidity of sentiments and repair of passionate state). The PEI was
surveyed with the quality Meta-Inclination scale (TMMS-24; salovey factually noteworthy in ladies' group in all part of the PEI, however in men's group.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND VOLLEYBALL PLAYERS

Thanemozhi, and Margaret, (2015) compared the emotional intelligence between men and women volleyball players of Tamilnadu. The study was administered on 24 volleyball players in the age group 18-25 years selected at random. They divided them into two equal groups as men and women volleyball players. The questionnaire of Emotional Intelligence developed by Petrides and Furnham, (2006) was administered to test their emotional intelligence. Independent test was used to analyse the data and in all cases the level of significance was fixed at 0.05. The results showed that women volleyball players were found to be better than men volleyball players in emotional intelligence, no significant difference on emotional intelligence were found between men and women volleyball players of Tamilnadu.

Ghezelsofloo and Mostafaloo, (2014) compared emotional intelligence between veteran and non-veteran volleyball players. They had taken 46 veteran and disabled volleyball players and 58 non-disabled volleyball players who participated in the Iran Volleyball Super League Competition in 2011-12 who were selected by simple random sampling. In order to evaluate the athletes’ emotional intelligence, they used Cibria Shearing emotional intelligence questionnaire was used. For data analysis, descriptive statistics and independent t-test were used to compare the subscales of emotional intelligence of the two groups. Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to assess the correlation between emotional intelligence and the national game experience. The results of the study showed that significant difference between self-control, empathy and social skills subscales between two groups. The national games number had a significant correlation with social skills, and self control. High emotional intelligence has effect on optimal performance of sports skills.

Gul Mohammad (2015) investigated Intelligence forms the basic characteristic of human beings. The level of intelligence is reflected by the clarity of purpose, thought and action in an individual’s behavior. Emotional intelligence in games is the capacity to control your feelings and make crest execution on request. The reason for the present review was to decide the distinction amongst state and national level
volleyball players on passionate knowledge. For the purpose of the study 200 male volleyball players selected as a subject. The Emotional Intelligence Inventory developed by Mangal and Mangal (2004) was used to collect the data. Independent t-test was used to interpret the results at 0.05 level of significance. The results of the study revealed that there is significant difference between state and national level volleyball players on emotional intelligence.

Shakeel Ahmed et al., (2011) investigated the difference of emotional intelligence between the male and female volleyball players. The data was collected from 30 male and female volleyball players from north zone interuniversity tournament. They filled the Mangal Emotional Intelligence Inventory (MEII) for measuring the emotional intelligence. After analysis the data it was found that male volleyball players have more emotional intelligence than the female volleyball players.

Bahrololoum, Hassani, Bandeli, and Akbari, (2012) analyzed the relationship between the emotional intelligence and mental skills in elite male volleyball players in Semnan province at Iran. To do this survey they had chosen, 35 elite volleyball players in Semnan. OMSAT-3 questionnaire developed by Bradberry and Greaves (2005) were used to collect data. Results showed that there is relationship exists between the emotional intelligence and mental skills in elite male volleyball players.

Ahmed, Khan and Ahmed (2011) conducted a study to explore the difference of emotional intelligence between the male and female volleyball players. The data was collected on 30 male and female volleyball players. They found that male volleyball players have more emotionally intelligent than the female volleyball players.

Emotional Intelligence and other games reviews

Shakuntala hiremath (2014) investigated the relationship between reasoning ability, emotional intelligence& social intelligence, in terms of leadership behaviour and personal effectiveness of sports hostel women with a population of N=300, the study revealed that there is relationship between reasoning ability, emotional intelligence& social intelligence of sports hostel women with their leadership behaviour and reasoning ability, emotional intelligence& social intelligence when taken together in the predication of leadership behaviour of sports hostel women, reasoning ability makes the maximum contribution were as emotional intelligence& social intelligence
makes considerable contribution for predication. The main effects of reasoning ability, emotional intelligence & social intelligence are significant & other interaction effects are not influencing in the leadership behaviour of sports hostel women. The main effects of reasoning ability, emotional intelligence & social intelligence are significant and other interaction effects are not influencing in the personal effectiveness of sports hostel women.

**Hemmatinezhad et al.,** (2012) surveyed the relationship between emotional intelligence and mood with team efficiency and performance in elite handball players. The statistical population consist of all Iranian male handball players (n=115) (9 teams) that participated in superior handball matches in Iran (March 2010). Participants were n=95 volunteer athletes (M=21/46, SD=2/31) that completed Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) that consist of 5 sub-scale (Self-awareness, Self-management, Self-motivation, Empathy, Social skills). Items are rated on a 5-point scale anchored by “not at all” (0) to “extremely” (4) and the Brunel Mood Scale with 6 sub-scales (anger, confusion, depression, fatigue, tension, and vigor) are rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree). Feltz self-efficiency questionnaire, were use to evaluation of athletes self-efficiency too. The Handball player’s performance analysis in terms of the schedule of competition in end of competitions that was divided to three parts (top parts: high performance, second part: middle performance and three part: weak performance). In order to analysis the data, After use of K_S (p≥0/05) and convinced about data normality, were use the descriptive statistic (mean, standard error) and multivariate analysis of variance (ANOVA), Post-hoc results were conducted on those subcomponents of emotional intelligence that demonstrated statistical significance at p< .05 level, Pearson coefficients to investigate differences between variables (p≤0/05). The finding of research showed a significant relationship between mood and self-efficiency.

**Perlini, Arthur H.; Halverson, Trevor R.** (2006) evaluated 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.
Amid the 2003-04 hockey season, 79 players crosswise over 24 NHL groups finished the Bar-On EQ-i. The discoveries demonstrated that years-since-draft was the most grounded indicator of execution and draft rank was the weakest indicator of execution. Concerning EI, both intrapersonal competency and general mind-set added noteworthy difference to expectations of number of NHL focuses and diversions played. Suggestions for anticipating execution in the NHL, among draft prospects, is talked about. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2012 APA, all rights held)

Mehr Ali Hemmatinezhad et al., (2012) analysed relationship between emotional intelligence and mood with team-efficiency and performance in elite handball players. The statistical population consist of all Iranian male handball players (n=115) (9teams) that participated in superior handball matches in Iran (March 2010). Participants were n=95 volunteer athletes (M=21.46, SD=2.31) that completed Emotional Intelligence Scale(EIS) that consist of 5 sub-scale (Self-awareness, Self-management, Self-motivation, Empathy, Social skills).

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Lane et al., (2009) This study utilized a within-subject design to investigate relationships between emotional intelligence and memories of mood states associated with optimal and dysfunctional performance in competitive sport and academic situations. Sport students (N = 436) finished a self-report Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS), while review records of mind-set states related with ideal and broken wearing rivalry and scholastic examination execution were recorded utilizing the Brunel Inclination Scale. Rehashed measures MANOVA comes about show that temperament states related with ideal and broken execution are circumstance particular (Game x Scholastic Cooperation: Pillai's Follow 8.428 = .70, p < .00, Halfway estimated time of arrival squared = 0.09). Contrasts in inclination states amongst ideal and useless execution were more articulated for athletic circumstances, in this manner recommending temperament states are related with execution, however the way of these connections are circumstance particular. A further analysis was completed to explore the role of emotional intelligence in mediating mood performance relationships. A MANCOVA comparing differences in mood states by performance (optimal and dysfunctional performance) by situation (sport and academic) controlling for EIS scores indicated a significant three-way interaction effect. Discoveries show that self-announced convictions of emotional intelligence are related with ideal disposition states for various circumstances. Future research should continue to investigate the influence of emotional intelligence in performance contexts. The ultimate objective being to develop an understanding of the role emotional intelligence plays in contextualized optimal performance.

Crombie, et al., (2009) studied to examine the relationship between team emotional intelligence of six cricket teams and their sports performance in a South African national cricket competition over two consecutive seasons. 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 corresponded with a group activities execution measure, the last log focuses remaining for the group toward the finish of an opposition. The consequences of this demonstrated Group EI was emphatically connected with the games execution of the cricket groups. Further, Team EI was shown to be a significant predictor of sports performance, with 61% of the variation in the log points explained. They suggests that EI may contribute to the success of teams participating in complex sports like cricket.
Bhandare Prasad and Tiwari Pratap Singh (2011) conducted a psychological analysis case study of Sanjay Bangar, a international cricket player. Based on the objectives of the present study, Sixteen primary personality factor questionnaire (R. B Cattel, 1969), Emotional intelligence scale (Anukool Hyde, Sanjyot Pethe and UpinderDhar 2007) and Value orientation scale (Chauhan N.S. 1973) were administered on the subject. It is concluded that Sanjay Bangar is good natured, easy going, emotionally expressive, ready to co-operate, attentive to people, softhearted, kindly, adaptable, quick to grasp ideas, a fast learner, shrewd, candidly develop, steady, reasonable about existence, unruffled, having inner self quality, better ready to keep up strong gathering confidence, decisive, confident, free disapproved, bright, dynamic, chatty, forthright, expressive, foaming and cheerful. He is demanding in character, overwhelmed by feeling of obligation, protecting, mindful, planful, "fill the unforgiving moment, agreeable, striking, prepared to attempt new things, unconstrained and copious in enthusiastic reaction. His "thick skin" enables them to face wear and tear in dealing with people and grueling emotional situations, without fatigue. He is tough, realistic, "down to earth", independent, responsible but skeptical of subjective, cultural elaborations, free of jealous tendencies, adaptable, cheerful, uncompetitive, concerned about others, a good team worker, anxious to do the right things, attentive to practical matters, polished, experimental and shrewd, unruffled and to have unshakable nerve. He has a mature, unanxious confidence in themselves and their capacity to deal with things. He is testing, inspired by scholarly matters, he has questions on major issues, likes to work and settle on choices with other individuals and like and rely on upon social endorsement and profound respect. He has undisciplined self-clash and have huge control of his feelings and general conduct. Slant to be socially mindful, watchful and he has part of sense of pride and high respect for social notoriety. He is calm, casual, created and fulfilled individual. He is sedate, relaxed, composed and satisfied person. He has high emotional intelligence and higher value orientation.

Baljinder Singh Bal, Kanwalijeet Singh, et, al., (2011) analysed cognitive psychological factors utilized as a part in competition and training which differentiate athletes participating in an open and closed skill sport Likewise, variables segregating effective members in the game of football and the closed skill sport of gymnastics were identified. An aggregate of 40 between varsity competitors (n=20; footballers)
from open-aptitude and (n=20; gymnasts) from closed-skill sports finished the emotional intelligence questionnaire (EIQ 16). The EIQ 16 measures 16 emotional competencies covering the ability to accurately perceive emotions in one-self and others. Use emotions to facilitate thinking, understand emotional meanings, and manage emotions. Student’s t-test for independent data was used to assess the between group differences. The results revealed significant difference in self-analysis, analysis of others, self-expression, thinking, judgment, problem solving and others among open-skill and closed-skill athletes. Results further indicated no significant difference in the in-discrimination, sensitivity, outcomes and monitoring. In conclusion, emotional intelligence is an important construct in the sports domain (Meyer and Fletcher, 2007). Accordingly, interest in emotional intelligence has increased specifically in the realm of athletics (Zizi et. al., 2003). Proponents have claimed that emotional intelligence can enhance leadership performance, team cohesion, and coping with pressure.

Kajbafnezhad et al., (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) explored the impact of emotional intelligence and gender on occupational stress among secondary school teachers. An ex-post facto configuration was utilized to accumulate 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 et al., (2010) researched connections between self-report measures of emotional intelligence and memories of pre-competitive emotions before optimal and dysfunctional athletic performance. There were 284 Member competitors to finish a
self-report measure of emotional intelligence and two measures of pre-competitive emotions; a) emotions experienced before an optimal performance, and b) emotions experienced before a dysfunctional performance. The results demonstrated pleasant emotions associated with optimal performance and unpleasant emotions associated with dysfunctional performance. Emotional intelligence corresponded with pleasant emotions in both performances with people detailing 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 typical populace of this overview. Of this measurable populace, 30 competitors of group and 30 competitors of individual games and 30 of non-athlete women were chosen. Emotional intelligence of collective sports” athletes is higher than individual sports and it is higher in the individual sports than non-athlete persons.

**Mehdi Bostania and Abdulamir Saiiarib (2011)** compared emotional intelligence and mental health between athletic and non-athletic students. On this base 100 athlete students and 100 non athlete students selected cluster randomly as samples. For data collection SCL-90- R questionnaire and Bar-On questionnaire were used for measuring mental health and emotional intelligence. All data collected were assessed by using One-Way Analysis of Variance and independent t test. Statistical significance was conferred at P = 0.05. All statistical analysis was accomplished using SPSS (v 16). The results of this research showed that there are significant differences between athletes and Non-athletes in some of emotional intelligence components such as: happiness, Stress Tolerance and Self-assertiveness (P < 0.05). Also there are significant differences between athletes and Non-athletes in mental health (P < 0.05).

**Faezeh Zamanian et al., (2011)** compared emotional intelligence in elite athletes in several sports and non-athletes. For that matter, 160 women including 90 handball, futsal, and basketball players participating in 2009-2010 premier league (30 women in
each group) and 70 non-athletes filled out the BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i). This questionnaire consists of 15 subscales for an overall assessment of emotional intelligence. The results of statistical analysis showed that the subscales of problem solving, happiness, independence, stress tolerance, self-actualization, emotional self-awareness, interpersonal relationship, optimism, self-regard, impulse control, and empathy were significantly higher in athletes than non-athletes. Between-group comparisons revealed that there is a significant difference between handball players and all the other groups in the problem solving subscale. The non-athletes showed a significant difference from all the athlete groups in the happiness subscale. Emotional self-awareness of the handball players was significantly different from that of the non-athletes and basketball players. Considering the above findings, we can say that emotional intelligence is higher in athletes than non-athletes, since they must constantly control and manage their emotions under different conditions of training and competition. Since emotional intelligence scholarly, it appears that participation in sports activities can be considered as a component for developing this feature.

Zamanian et al. (2011) concluded that athletes have higher emotional intelligence in comparison with non-athletes. The results of study indicated that the level of emotional and social intelligence of participants always increases as a result of successful performance and a warm, desirable social environment with a high degree of cooperation. It can be stated that athletes have higher emotional intelligence in comparison with nonathletic because they need to constantly control and manage their emotions under different conditions of training and competition. The study further revealed that handball and basketball players did not show any significant difference in emotional self-awareness. Conceivably, the physical nature of handball on one hand and fewer numbers of goals on the other furnishes handball players with more opportunities for expression of emotions as compared to the conservative nature of basketball and more goals scored in a single match. Due to less expression of emotions, basketball players have less awareness of immediate emotions and more flexibility in comparison with handball players although this difference was not significant.
Costarelli & Stamon (2009) explored 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 investigation uncovered 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.

Soflu et al., (2011) led the present research for making a correlation between emotional intelligence and mental skills and their relationship with the experience of individual and team sport fields’ athletes in super league of Golestan Township. In order to evaluate mental skills of subjects, Thomas’s test of strategic performance (TOPS) that measures 8 micro scales was used, for evaluating emotional intelligence, they used emotional intelligence test which measures following micro scales, after collecting the data and using (K-S) test and making certain of data natural distribution, they used descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation) and independent t test and Pierson's correlation coefficient. The results indicated that there was a significant difference among these micro scales: self talk mental imaging and negative thinking among team and individual sport athletes. Also in emotional intelligence micro scales, there was significant difference in following micro scales:
self management, self motivation and social skills but no significant difference was observed in self awareness and empathy micro scales.

**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.

**Ulucan. H.G.(2012)** investigated the EI (Emotional Intelligence) levels of athletes in different branches of sport in terms of some demographic variables. In the study, a 5-dimensional and 19-item scale was used, which was developed by Shuutle et al. (1998) and then subjected to a validity and reliability study by M. Lane (2010) for use in sports. A total of 480 people participated in the study. It was observed that EI increased significantly in parallel with the increase in age levels, and that the EI levels of team players were found to be significantly higher than that of athletes in individual branches of sport.

**Samira Saadati1 et al., (2014)** Emotional intelligence capacity to screen one's own particular and others' and emotion, to discriminate among them and utilize this data to guide one's thinking and actions. The main purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and athlete burnout. There is negative significant connection amongst burnout and emotional intelligence. Likewise there is negative significant relationship between burnout with self motivating, self awareness, self control, social awareness and social skills. Emotional intelligence is important factor on preventing athletes’ burnout.

**Brigette Ann Rapisarda, (2002)** investigated whether the degree of emotional competence demonstrated by members of a team will determine or member interactions build cohesiveness and high performance. The study presented examines the relationship between the average score of team members on thirteen emotional intelligence (EI) competencies, and ratings of team cohesiveness and performance in 18 teams in an Executive MBA program. Results showed EI competencies of influence, empathy, and achievement orientation were positively related to student and faculty ratings of team cohesiveness. Empathy was
positively related to student and faculty ratings of team performance, and achievement orientation was positively related to student ratings of team performance. Implications are discussed.

Hooda (2006) conducted a study to examine cognitive vigilance as related to emotional maturity among the participants of mass and class games. The subjects (N=120) were players from three mass games (i.e. football, cricket and volleyball) and three class games (lawn tennis, shooting and archery). The subjects were administered Cognitive Vigilance Test and Emotional Maturity Scale. She had found significant differences between mass and class games sports persons with regard to cognitive vigilance. Within the mass male sports group she had found significant differences between the three sports disciplines on cognitive vigilance and emotional maturity. She had also found significant positive correlation between these two variables regarding the mass sports group.

Sylvain Laborde et al., (2014) explored the role of trait emotional intelligence (EI) in emotion regulation and performance under pressure. Twenty-eight tennis players performed two series of 35 serves, separated by a pressure manipulation. Reaction to pressure was assessed using both subjective (self-report emotion questionnaire) and objective (cortisol secretion, tennis serve success) measures. The pressure manipulation was successful with observed increases in anxiety and decreases in self-confidence and tennis serve performance. Characteristic EI was found to predict cortisol secretion over state emotion measures. Performance under pressure was anticipated by self-confidence and cortisol secretion, but not by trait EI. discoveries give some preparatory proof that trait EI and cortisol secretion are imperative in athlete responses to pressure situations.

Hassan Bahrololoum (2012) investigated the relationship between happiness and emotional intelligence among female students participating in the 10th Sport Olympiad of Iranian universities held in Semnan province. To do this survey, 302 female students were randomly selected from the total population of female students participating in the 10th sport Olympiad of Iranian Universities. To collect data, the study used three standardized questionnaires: Oxford's Happiness Questionnaire; Brodberry's Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire, and a questionnaire of personal and professional information. The data were analyzed via SPSS. The results show that:
It is significant that there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and happiness; and emotional intelligence is the best predictor of happiness.

Brendan B. Gail (2012) analysed whether participation in youth sports influenced middle school students' level of emotional intelligence competencies. The study was conducted to examine the relationship between youth sports participation and emotional intelligence competency. These two variables had not yet been effectively examined. The study used an instrument, The Life Effectiveness Questionnaire, to measure an individual’s emotional intelligence and participants self-reported their previous youth sports participation. The test scores were averaged and cross-referenced with participant’s questionnaire results. A two-tailed t-test was used to test for significance. The results were used to test the five hypotheses and draw conclusions. The most significant conclusion from the study was that middle school students that participated in youth sports had a higher emotional intelligence competency than those that did not participate in youth sports. Furthermore, male middle school students that participated in youth sports had a higher emotional intelligence competency than female students that participated in youth sports. The remaining hypotheses were inconclusive due to the smallness of the research sample. This study was an excellent pilot for future studies in the area of youth sports participation and the development of emotional intelligence competency. Recommendations for future studies include increasing the sample size in both breadth and depth and utilizing a greater variety of youth sport opportunities as choices for male and female participants.

Mohsen Khatiyon et al., (2015) investigated the Relationship between emotional intelligence, self-efficacy and performance in elite male table Tennis players. The research statistical population Included all the 46 elite male table tennis players present in Iran’s adult rankings in 2014. Participants completed Emotional Intelligence 33-question questionnaire of SibriaShiring and Physical Self-Efficacy Inventory (PSEI). The participants’ performance was assessed using the outcomes of the matches. The reliability questionnaires by method cronbach’s alpha was obtained (a=0.81 ,a=0.82) and Their validity supported by exports of physical education faculty. To analyze data we used descriptive and inferential statistics methods (One-sample T-test , Pearson correlation and multiple regression). The study results
indicated a positive and meaningful relationship between the players’ self-efficacy, Emotional Intelligence and their performance, and that self-efficacy, Emotional Intelligence was able to predict the performance of the elite table tennis players. Also, there was a positive and meaningful relationship between self-efficacy and Emotional Intelligence in table tennis players.

Zizzi, Deaner and Hirschhorn (2003) designed a study to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence and athletic performance in a sample of Division I baseball players. A total of 61 players ranging in age from 18-23 comprised the sample. Their results demonstrate a lack of predictive ability of EQ on baseball performance.

Saklofske (2007) studied the 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.

Tiken et al., (2004) analysed the existing differences in emotional and social adjustment among in athletes participating in team and individual body contact sports. The investigator used Bell’s adjustment scale (1961). The study was conducted on 100 boys who understand in SAI (NERC) Imphal, inmates from 7 disciplines at 7 centres. Games i.e. football, Hockey and sepak takras fifty another fifty athletes participated in individual body contact sports i.e. tae-kwondo, Judo, Boxing and Karate and were randomly selected and used as subjects in this study. To find out the differentiating value social and emotional the mean, standard deviation and standard error were calculated. The researchers found significant difference between the mean in social adjustments of individual body contact sports and team sports.

Adnan R. (2014) compared the level of emotional intelligence among different ethnic of athletes and their sports performance. It sought to correlate the relationship between emotional intelligence and sports performance of athletes from different ethnics (Malay, Chinese and Indians). Emotional intelligence scale (EIS) and Sport Performance Questionnaire were used to collect the data. The sample consisted of 217
athletes, who competed in MajlisSukan University Malaysia (MASUM), also known as Malaysian University Sports Council. The result of this research showed that overall Chinese athlete scored higher in emotional intelligence and Indians, the lowest. The result also showed that the existence of a strong positive relationship between emotional intelligence and sports performance. Sports psychologist and coaches can use the findings to apply coping strategies to enhance emotional intelligence among Indian and Malay athletes.

Dalwinder Singh et al., (2015) conducted this study to determine the emotional intelligence among Indian female baseball players. For the purpose of present study, two hundred (N=200) senior national female baseball players were selected through purposive sampling technique from different regions of India. They were chosen from four distinct regions: A (North region baseball players=50), B (East region baseball players=50), C (West region baseball players=50) and D (South region baseball players=50). To gather the required information for the present review, the survey created by Hyde et al. (2001) on emotional intelligence was administered. One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was employed to compare the entire regions. Where ‘F’ values were found significant, LSD (Least Significant Difference) Post-hoc test was applied to find out the direction and degree of difference. The level of significance was set at 0.05. Noteworthy differences were seen among North, East, West and South regions female baseball players on the sub-parameters; empathy, self-development, value orientation and on the parameter Emotional Intelligence (Total). No significant differences were noticed on the sub-parameters; self-awareness, self-motivation, emotional stability, managing relations, integrity, commitment and altruistic behaviour. They reasoned that East region female baseball players can focus on to the worries and concerns of others, can listen to someone without the urge to say something, can remain centered under pressure, are able to handle multiple demands and able to recognize and separate their emotions.

Roy, Sinha, and Suman, (2013) endeavor to inspect connection between emotional intelligence and academic achievement motivation. It additionally concentrates the emotional intelligence of students with high, average and low academic achievement motivation. Sample for the study incorporates 105 students (48 boys and 57 girls) of class XII of Patna. The information were broke down with the assistance of product
moment coefficients of correlation. The findings of the study reveal positive relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement motivation. The study also likewise uncovers that students with high, average and low academic achievement motivation differ from one another on emotional intelligence.

Maleki, Nia, Habibi, and Saemi, (2011) try to correlate between emotional intelligence and general health in personnel of physical education offices. For this they adopted survey research. A total of 134 employees completed Schutte and Goldberg and Hiler questionnaires. Data was analyzed through Pearson correlation, Stepwise regression, One Way Analysis of Variance and the independent t-test (p ≤ 0/05). Results showed that there were significant negative correlations between emotional intelligence and general health, physical complaints and anxiety among the subjects. However, there was no significant correlation between emotional intelligence and depression and performance disorders. Moreover, the finding shows that utilization of emotional anticipation and general health is significant. They concluded that people with higher emotional intelligence have higher general health, too. Thus, based on the findings, it was recommended general health be improved via improving emotional intelligence.

Khan, Haider and Ahmed (2011) 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. In their finding they reported that there was significant difference exist between the physical education students on the variable of emotional and social intelligence.

Ilyasi, Sedagati and Salehian (2011) studied the relationship between sport orientation and emotional intelligence among male university students. One hundred eighty one students (18-30 years) were selected randomly in this study. Sport orientation and Bar-on emotional intelligence questionnaire were used to achieve the goals. Results showed that there was a positive correlation between sport orientation and emotional intelligence and a positive correlation between competitiveness and goal setting with emotional intelligence among team and individuals athletes, but there was no significant correlation between emotional intelligence and win orientation and no significant level of emotional intelligence and sport orientation.
among team and individuals athletes. They suggested that physical activity and psychological factors cause sports bias and improve emotional intelligence. They further confirmed that there was no significant difference between sport orientation and emotional intelligence among team and individual athletes.

Lane et al., (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. Hence, it is contended that strong perceptions of emotional intelligence lead participants to utilise psychological skills since they will perceive the significance of regulating and managing emotion.

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.

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. Moreover, sleep quality partially intervened between emotional intelligence and fatigue.
Brackett et al., (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.

Berrocal et al., (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. To begin with, 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.

Tsaousis & Nikolaou (2005) investigates the relationship of emotional intelligence IE characteristics, such as perception, control, use and understanding of emotions, with physical and psychological health. In the first study, 365 individuals filled in measures of EI and general health. It was 162 hypothesized that EI would be negatively associated with poor general health. The findings are discussed in the context of the importance of emotional competences on health and personal lifestyle, while implications for practice and directions for future research are proposed.

Rosete & Ciarrochi (2005) examined on emotional intelligence and its relationship to workplace performance outcomes of leadership effectiveness, tries to research 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)** researched connections between emotional intelligence and a number of life Skills (academic achievement, life satisfaction, anxiety, problem-solving and coping). The specimen of their review was 246 predominantly first-year tertiary students. Relationships between emotional intelligence and academic achievement were little and not statistically significant, although higher emotional intelligence was correlated with higher life satisfaction, better perceived problem-solving and coping ability and lower anxiety. Be that as it may, in the wake 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 ones 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 et al., (2007)** 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.

**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 (2003)** 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 conceptualized and developed self-report measures of emotional intelligence can account for the variance in life criteria over and above other well-established constructs.
Wagner et al., (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 et al., (2002) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and emotional well-being using a trait based self assessment scale. This specific review characterized 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. Also, 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 (2002) emotional intelligence clarifies why, despite an intellectual capacity, training or experience, a few people exceed expectations, while other of the same caliber lag behind. Emotional intelligence recognizing element that decides whether 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. Uniquely, the inspirational, motivation and individualized consideration components of transformational leadership corresponded with the capacity to monitor emotions and the ability to manage emotions.
Schutte, Malouff et al., (2001) led a review that investigated the relationship between self-reported trait emotional intelligence and various interpersonal relations. The outcomes demonstrated 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.

Also, they found that members anticipated greater satisfaction in relationships with partners high in emotional intelligence. Schutte, et al., (2001), clarified that these discoveries recommend 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 pioneers who report showing these behaviours were thought 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) analyzed the connection between self-reported emotional intelligence and job competence, and unlike many previous studies, did not concentrate on the transformational-transactional model. These scientists taken a gander at authority adequacy from the point of view of progression within the hierarchy of an organization amongst 58 managers from the UK and Ireland. Utilizing 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 team work 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 developing need in psychology for a framework to arrange the investigation of individual differences in abilities related to emotion. This hypothetical model propelled the creation of the first ability-based tests of emotional intelligence. Despite the fact that discoveries stay preparatory, emotional intelligence has been appeared to have an effect on important life outcomes such as forming satisfying personal relationships and achieving success at work. Maybe above all, 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 adaptation 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. Comparing to the higher level of consciousness was an idea they termed emotional expertise, which refers to expert knowledge about feelings and their regulation.

Sara Hassan Kalhori, Rezaei, Maddahi, Najafi, and Masafi, (2013) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and thinking styles in a correlation research. The statistical universe was composed of all the female students of district 13 of Tehran. The sampling method was cluster sampling. The sample was composed of 200 students. Paul emotional intelligence questionnaire and The Sternberg and Wagner questionnaire were used. The data was analyzed with SPSS software. Then, it was studied under chi square and Pearson Correlation Coefficient. Results indicate that emotional intelligence is positively related to legislative and internal thinking style and was negatively related to judicative, executive and external thinking styles. Difference is significant in five styles. People with different thinking styles tend to use their abilities in different ways. Having an understanding of thinking styles helps to realize why some activities suit him or her well. Therefore, recognizing and examining these factors could be really effective on improvement of occupational performance and educational development.
SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE:

Volleyball players

Mohammad, G. and Mohammad A. (2015) compared Social intelligence between state and national level male volleyball players. This study was designed to assess whether any difference exists between state and national level male volleyball players on social intelligence. A sum of 200 (100 State and 100 National level) male volleyball players were chosen as subjects of the review. The information on social intelligence was collected by using Social Intelligence Scale (SIS) developed by Chanda and Ganesan (2007). Independent t-test was utilized to compare state and national level volleyball players on the selected psychological variables. The result of the review demonstrated no significant difference found between state and national level volleyball players on social intelligence.

Patial and Sharma (2012) conducted a study on social intelligence of boxers, weightlifters and wrestlers. For the study, total two hundred forty sportsmen of different colleges of Himachal Pradesh University were randomly drawn to act as subjects. Out of these, eighty male boxers, eighty male weightlifters and eighty male wrestlers were selected to act as subjects. Only those sportsmen were selected, who participated in inter college competitions. In order to measure social intelligence of subjects, Social Intelligence Scale developed and standardized by N.K. Chandha and Ms. Usha Ganesan (1986) was adopted. Mean and standard deviation, analysis of variance (ANOVA ) and Tukey Post Hoc Test were used as statistical techniques. The discoveries of the review uncovered that boxers, weightlifters and wrestlers vary in perception of social intelligence. Boxers are more socially intelligent than weightlifters and wrestlers. The boxers possessed higher level of patience, cooperativeness, confidence and sensitivity level than weightlifters and wrestlers. Weightlifters had more elevated amount of memory than boxers and wrestlers.

Sangeeta, Kumari, and Shivani (2014) worked to know whether or not happiness and social intelligence play a significant role in the life of adolescent students in the present scenario. Happiness and social intelligence are reported to be positively related to each other. Importance of both the variables in the life of an adolescent in various complexities of present world encouraged researchers to study the correlates
of happiness and social intelligence among adolescent students. Scientists likewise started to concentrate the impact of incapacity on the connection amongst happiness and social intelligence. Oxford Happiness Questionnaire and Tromso Social Intelligence Scale (TSIS) were administered on 180 adolescent students for the purpose of study. Pearson’s Product Moment Co-efficient of correlation was applied to analyze the relationship. The relationship was found to be varying in case of different disabilities. Researchers recommended burden free child centered education system.

Saxena, and Kumar, (2013) led a review to know the social intelligence of male and female undergraduate students of science and Arts subject streams studying in various degree colleges of Bhilai City, Chhattisgarh. For this reason distinct review strategy was utilized. 60 male and 60 female undergraduate students were selected, for the sample by adopting stratified disproportionate random sampling technique. The data was collected by using Social Intelligence Scale (SIS) constructed and standardized by Chadda and Ganesan (2009). The data was analyzed by using t-test. The findings of gender analysis indicates that female student’s posses more social intelligence than male students and analysis of stream indicates that arts students are having greater social intelligence than students of other streams.

Kerri, and Crowne, (2012) examined three forms of intelligence: social intelligence (SI), emotional intelligence (EI) and cultural intelligence (CQ). The aim is to establish the relationship that exists between EI and CQ, and to clearly show how they distinct, but related constructs, as well as subsets of SI. A series of models is developed to support the various propositions presented and to show the evolution of ideas which build to the final integrated model. This new model will impact future research and managerial use of these constructs, which is critical in order to advance the field. A discussion of limitations of this study and future research is also provided.

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 et al., (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 and social perception and memory. Results suggested small to medium sized relationships between specific facets of social anxiety and certain domains of social intelligence.

Hooda, Sharma and 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 areas were operationalized in a multitrait-multimethod setup applying verbal, pictorial, and video-based performance measures. Moreover, they proposed 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. Therefore, their review gave confirmation to the structure of the social intelligence performance model according to the postulated design and demonstrated the discriminability of social intelligence from academic intelligence.

Hackworth and Brannon (2006) explored the effect of social intelligence (measured in terms of discriminative facility) upon the breadth of social influence strategy choice. As indicated by their review in the first of two sessions, members finished 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 outcomes gave confirmation to the part of discriminative facility as an aspect of social intelligence that impacts social influence.

Kaukiainen et al., (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) played out a ultimatum-game experiment in which responders played both against a computer making random offers and against human subjects. She found
that individuals dismisses low offers from different subjects, similar to the standard outcome, but very rarely rejected offers from the computer. The issue is not low offers alone; it is the aims 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 hypothesis of multiple intelligences. As per 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 and 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. As a rule, the six behavioral factors were not contaminated by non-social semantic and spatial abilities. In this manner, they apparently succeeded in measuring expressly social abilities which were essentially independent of abstract cognitive ability.