CHAPTER-II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE
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The term ‘Review’ means to organize the knowledge of specific area of research and to evolve an edifice of knowledge. The survey of relevant literature is a precondition for successful and meaningful research project. To make research effective and presentable, adequate familiarity with all research work carried out in respective field of study is very important. Best (1983) considers the survey of related literature an important prerequisite for actual planning and execution of any research work. The review of related literature lays the foundation upon which all future work will be built up. The research workers need to acquire up-to-date information about what has been thought and said in a particular area so that they can derive benefit from the work of their predecessors. A researcher takes the advantage of the already existing literature which has been accumulated over the years as a result of the constant human effort.

Review of literature of the concerned topic is quintessential as it provides a better understanding and insight into the complexities of any problem and helps avoid duplication. The present review highlights the work done in the field of Emotional Intelligence, Will to Win, Social Intelligence and Social Support. A review of related literature on previous studies will be taking a comprehensive account of volume of work that has already been done on the related topics. Apart from this, the relevant studies conducted in other countries and contexts as well as related theoretical literature on this subject have also been reviewed. During the review, it was found that there has not been a considerable work done on the game of baseball especially, in India considering its psycho-social perspectives.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

April et al. (2012) conducted a study to investigate if emotional intelligence can be used as a measure to differentiate between an elite and average group of leaders in the sports and business environments. They approached this study by selecting a self-report measure of emotional intelligence, (The Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire) and a sample group of thirty eight (N=38) candidates consisting of elite coaches, elite executives, average coaches, or average executives. The sample group completed the questionnaire anonymously allowing the quantitative data to be gathered and analyzed. Examination revealed that there is a similarity between the emotional intelligence of elite coaches and executives, and between elite and
average executives. Minor differences were noted between the elite and average coaches. The results indicate that there are transparencies between the two environments and that the sports team leaders are similar to business leaders. However, caution needs to be taken when determining if emotional intelligence can be used as an indicator to differentiate between elite and average leaders.

Stanimirovic and Hanrahan (2012) investigated the dimensional structure and factorial validity of the Emotional Quotient-I in a sample of male athletes. Confirmatory factor analysis was used to examine and model of emotional-social intelligence and the 1-5-15 dimensional structure which underpins the Emotional Quotient-I. A total sample of 706 male athletes from various sports and competing at the national age group level through to the professional level of competition completed the Emotional Quotient-I. Confirmatory factor analyses demonstrated that the 1-5-15 dimensional structure was a poor fit for the data. A re-specification of the model representing the best fit for the data was a 1-4-15 dimensional structure. The factorial validity of the individual subscales was also examined at the item level using confirmatory factor analysis. Thirteen of the 15 subscales showed close, reasonably good, or mediocre fit for the data. Further construct validation of Bar-On’s model and measure is required. Sport psychologists administering the Emotional Quotient-I in applied practice should consider using the Emotional Quotient-I subscales rather than referring back to the 1-5-15 dimensional structure.

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

Afkhami et al. (2011) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and coaching efficacy of university coaches. Therefore, 120 coaches (60 male and 60 female) were selected randomly and completed emotional intelligence and the coaching efficacy questionnaires. Data were analyzed by descriptive statistics and inferential (Pearson correlation, and single-variable and multivariate regression) with SPSS 16 software (p<0.05). Suggested hypothesis showed that the scale and subscales of coaches’ emotional intelligence are associated
with the scale and subscales of coaching efficacy. The coaches’ emotional intelligence was considered as a good predictor of coaching efficacy. Generally speaking, there is a significant relationship between emotional intelligence as a variable affecting the coaching efficacy.

Ahmed et al. (2011) studied the difference of emotional intelligence between the male and female volleyball players. The data was collected from thirty (N=30) male and female volleyball players from north zone inter-university tournament. They applied the Mangal and Mangal Emotional Intelligence Inventory (MEII) (2004) for measuring the emotional intelligence. After analysis of data, it was found that male volleyball players have higher emotional intelligence than the female volleyball players.

Bal et al. (2011) studied psychological factors between open and closed skill athletes. In addition, factors discriminating successful from less successful participants in the open skill sport of football and the closed skill sport of gymnastics were identified. A total of forty (N=40) inter-varsity athletes (n=20; footballers) from open-skill and (n=20; gymnasts) from closed-skill sports completed the emotional intelligence questionnaire (EIQ). The emotional intelligence questionnaire 16 measures 16 emotional competencies covering the ability to accurately perceive emotions in oneself 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 level of \( p \leq 0.05 \) was considered significant. The results revealed significant difference in self-analysis (\( p=0.0004 \)), analysis of others (\( p=0.0137 \)), self-expression (\( p=0.0274 \)), thinking (\( p=0.0189 \)), judgment (\( p=0.0010 \)), problem solving (\( p=0.0310 \)), complexity (\( p=0.0036 \)), transitions (\( p=0.0013 \)), openness (\( p=0.0061 \)), self-control (\( p=0.0562 \)) and others (\( p=0.0490 \)) (\( p<0.05 \)) among open-skill and closed-skill athletes. Results further indicated no significant difference in the in-discrimination (\( p=0.1789 \)), sensitivity (\( p=0.0761 \)), symptoms (\( p=0.2617 \)), outcomes (\( p=0.0770 \)) and monitoring (\( p=0.2258 \)) (\( p>0.05 \)). In conclusion, emotional intelligence is an important construct in the sports domain (Meyer & Fletcher, 2007). Accordingly, interest in emotional intelligence has increased specifically in the realm of athletics (Zizzi et al., 2003). Proponents have claimed that emotional intelligence can enhance leadership performance, team cohesion, and coping with pressure.

Crombie et al. (2011) examined the effect of emotional intelligence (EI) training and development on the emotional intelligence profile scores of individual cricketers. Twenty four (N=24) players attending the South African National Cricket Academy were randomised to an
intervention group (emotional intelligence training and development intervention program) or control group (no intervention). The experimental design was executed in 2007 and 2008 with different cohorts of players. The emotional intelligence of the players was measured pre and post intervention using the Mayer et al., (2003) Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT). In 2007 the baseline total emotional intelligence score for the intervention group was 84.9 and the post intervention Total emotional intelligence score was 96.6, giving a relative increase of 13.7%. By comparison, the baseline Total emotional intelligence score for the control group was 81.8 and post intervention the Total emotional intelligence score was 83.4, giving a relative increase of 2%. In 2008 the baseline Total emotional intelligence score for the intervention group was 89.4 and the post intervention Total emotional intelligence score was 101.7, giving a relative increase of 13.8%. By comparison, the baseline Total emotional intelligence score for the control group was 87.4 and the post intervention Total emotional intelligence score was 84.8, a relative decrease of 3.1%. The estimated intervention effect for the percentage change in Total emotional intelligence score over both years is 14.5% (95% CI: 11.9 to 17.2%) and is significant, indicating emotional intelligence training and development may contribute to increasing the emotional intelligence profile of individual cricketers.

Ilyasi et al. (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. Sport orientation and Bar-on emotional intelligence questionnaire were used to achieve the goals. Results showed that there is 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 is no significant correlation between emotional intelligence and win orientation and no significant level of emotional intelligence and sport orientation among team and individuals athletes. Generally speaking, it seems that physical activity and psychological factors cause sports bias and improve emotional intelligence. The result of this research confirms that there is no significant difference between sport orientation and emotional intelligence among team and individual athletes.

Kajbafnezhad (2011) investigated the relationship of psychological skills and emotional intelligence in athlete girl’s students of Islamic Azad University, Behbahan Branch. The research sample consisted of (N=80) girl students was randomly selected. The subjects completed of
psychological skills questionnaire Ottawa-3, bar-on emotional intelligence inventory. The research hypotheses were; there is relationship between psychological skills and emotional intelligence. Data were analyzed using mean, standard deviation, Pearson correlation coefficient. The results showed that there has been significant and positive relationships exist between psychological skills and emotional intelligence.

Kajbafnezhad et al. (2011) examined the psychological skills, emotional intelligence and athletic success motivation in Shiraz city athletes. The research sample consisted of 400 male athletes (247 individual and 153 team) that were selected through randomly multistage sampling method and subjects answered to three scales psychological skills questionnaire OTAWA-3, Bar-On emotional Intelligence Inventory and perception of sport success questionnaire. Data were analyzed using mean, standard deviation and MANOVA statistical method. The finding (MANOVA) 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 was not a significant difference between the two groups (individual and team sports) with respect to overall emotional intelligence.

Laborde et al. (2011) explored the influence of trait emotional intelligence in athletes when they have to face the stress of competition. Thirty male handball players (M Age=22.5 years; SD=1.7) were exposed to a competition-like stressor in the laboratory consisting of 20min of negative imagery coupled with the sound of a crowd hissing. Their trait emotional intelligence was measured with the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire, and a mental stress indicator, the low-frequency/high-frequency (LF/HF) ratio, was calculated from their heart rate variability. A repeated measures analysis of variance showed a significant Time of Measurement Trait emotional intelligence interaction, F(1,28)=6.036, p=.020, indicating that high trait emotional intelligence athletes experienced a lower increase of stress compared to their low trait emotional intelligence counterparts. Through its influence on the LF/HF ratio, trait emotional intelligence may help athletes cope better with stress.

Lane and Wilson (2011) assessed the relationships between trait emotional intelligence and emotional state changes over the course of an ultra-endurance foot race covering a route of approximately 175 miles (282 km) and held in set stages over six days. A repeated measures field design that sought to maintain ecological validity was used. Trait emotional intelligence was defined as a relatively stable concept that should predict adaptive emotional states.
experienced over the duration of the race and therefore associate with pleasant emotions during a 6-stage endurance event. Thirty four runners completed a self-report measure of trait emotional intelligence before the event started. Participants reported emotional states before and after each of the six races. Repeated measures ANOVA results showed significant variations in emotions over time and a main effect for trait emotional intelligence. Runners high in self-report trait emotional intelligence also reported higher pleasant and lower unpleasant emotions than runners low in trait emotional intelligence. Findings lend support to the notion that trait emotional intelligence associates with adaptive psychological states, suggesting that it may be a key individual difference that explains why some athletes respond to repeated bouts of hard exercise better than others. Future research should test the effectiveness of interventions designed to enhance trait emotional intelligence and examine the attendant impact on emotional responses to intense exercise during multi-stage events.

Saiiari et al. (2011) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout syndrome on sport teachers of secondary schools. The sample in this study consisted of 183 subjects of male sport teachers that selected by a systematic stratified sampling method from among of teachers in Iran-Khuzestan province. These subjects had more than 5 years job history and they did not have special mental illness or disorder history. In this research, two questionnaires were used to collect data, such as emotional intelligence questionnaire Syber yashring and burnout syndrome questionnaire Maslach. This research is correlation type so to analyze the data, were used Pearson correlation co-efficient and Analysis of Regression. Research findings showed there is a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout Syndrome (r=0.627). Also there are relationship between burnout syndrome and emotional intelligence components. The level of significant in this study was P<0.01.

Torkfar et al. (2011) investigated the relationship between dimensions of emotional intelligence and competitive anxiety in male and female student athlete group and individual. 270 student athletes (180 team sports, individual sports in 1990) from the University of Fars province, all of which have 6 to 15 years had the championship, once the night before the race and the second time within half an hour before the contest conducted by questionnaire competitive anxiety and emotional intelligence fill. Kendall correlation test to determine the relationship between variables, Smirnov test for normal distribution of data, independent samples T-test for comparing normal and test agents "U" Mann-Whitney to compare variables that were
not normal. Results showed that the only spontaneity between the dimensions of emotional intelligence with self-confidence was a significant relationship (p<0.05) but the relationship between all these dimensions except for anxiety, cognitive empathy was significant (p<0.05). All aspects of the relationship between self-awareness and empathy with the exception of physical anxiety were not significant (p>0.05). Individual and group athletes showed significant differences (p<0.05) on emotional intelligence and social skills and self-regulation. However, no significant differences (p>0.05) were found on self-awareness, empathy and spontaneity. Emotional intelligence competitive anxiety is associated in most cases.

Zamanian et al. (2011) compared the emotional intelligence between elite athletes 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 Bar on Emotional Quotient Inventory (Emotional Quotient-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 (p<0.05). Considering the above findings, they 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 can be learned, it seems that participation in sports activities can be considered as a factor for developing this feature.

Frank et al. (2010) examined the relationship between athletes emotional intelligence (EI) and pre-competitive anxiety. Taiwanese intercollegiate track and field athletes (N=111; 64 men, 47 women) completed the Bar-On EQ-I 1 mo. Before national inter-collegiate athletic meet and the Competition State Anxiety Inventory-2 1hr before the competition. Analyses indicated that participants with the lowest emotional intelligence scores reported greater intensity of precompetitive cognitive anxiety than those with the highest emotional intelligence scores. No
other statistically significant differences were found among the groups. Further, correlation analyses and multiple stepwise regression analyses revealed that emotional intelligence components such as stress management, intrapersonal emotional intelligence, and interpersonal emotional intelligence were associated with precompetitive anxiety. Current emotional intelligence (EI) measures provide limited understanding of precompetitive anxiety. A sport-specific emotional intelligence measure is needed for future research.

Knobel (2010) explored the emotional intelligence in sport: A predictor of rugby performance. A study was conducted on (N=74) school first and second team rugby players from four Pretoria high schools, to investigate whether start-up A-team players differ significantly from other (B-team start-up and reserve) players on emotional intelligence. It was further investigated whether emotional intelligence is a predictor of rugby performance if measured as being included into the study’s ‘best team’ or being a start-up A-team school rugby player. Various other physical, psychological, social and spiritual predictors were also investigated singularly and in combination with the emotional intelligence predictor to indicate performance. Data were gathered through a self-reporting questionnaire developed by the researcher. The main methods for analysing data used included the Mann-Whitney Test and the Logistic Regression analysis. The study found certain spiritual and social predictor aspects to be significantly related to performance in rugby but not emotional intelligence.

Koch et al. (2010) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and factors such as coach ability, concentration, dealing with pressure and freedom from worry. Forty-five American basketball players and 14 Chinese basketball players completed the EQ-I. Results show that the interpersonal competence factor of the EQ-I was the most important factor for performance related indicators. In addition, American basketball players scored significantly higher than Chinese players on this factor. The results are discussed in terms cultural differences and coaching strategies.

Lamba (2010) conducted a study to find out difference between male and female athletes in their emotional intelligence. To accomplish the objective of the study, 140 athletes having equal number of male and female were randomly drawn from the colleges of Rohtak (Haryana). Emotional Intelligence Test was applied to collect the data and ‘t’ test was applied to found out mean difference between the scores of male and female athletes. The results indicated that there was higher level of emotional intelligence among female than their counterpart male athletes.
Lane et al. (2010) investigated the relationships between trait emotional intelligence, pre-race emotions, and post-race emotions among a sample of (N=93) competitive 10-mile runners. Participants completed emotional intelligence and pre-race emotion scales approximately one hour before starting a 10-mile race, repeating completion of the emotion scales within one hour of finishing. Results indicated emotional intelligence correlated significantly with higher pleasant emotion and lower unpleasant emotion before and after racing. Path analysis results revealed emotional intelligence predicted both pre and post-race emotion. Results lend support to the notion that emotional intelligence is associated with emotional well-being. Future research should investigate emotional intelligence and its relationship with strategies used by athletes to regulate emotion before, during, and after competition.

Lane et al. (2010) explored relationships between self-report measures of emotional intelligence and memories of pre-competitive emotions before optimal and dysfunctional athletic performance. Participant athletes (N=284) completed 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. Consistent with theoretical predictions, repeated MANOVA results demonstrated pleasant emotions associated with optimal performance and unpleasant emotions associated with dysfunctional performance. Emotional intelligence correlated with pleasant emotions in both performances with individuals reporting low scores on the self-report emotional intelligence scale appearing to experience intense unpleasant emotions before dysfunctional performance. He suggests that future research should investigate relationships between emotional intelligence and emotion-regulation strategies used by athletes.

Pasand (2010) conducted a study to assess emotional intelligence among athletes and non-athletes and its relationship with demographic variables that 240 participants (200 athletes and 40 non-athletes) using emotional intelligence scale (Bar-On) were evaluated. For analysis of data were used Pearson correlation, analysis of variance and t test. Results research indicates there was no significant difference between emotional intelligence scores of athletes and non-athletes. There are significant difference (p<0.05) between variables of age with emotional intelligence as well as with problem-solving, independent action, realism, interpersonal relationships, responsibility and empathy components (p<0.01). In general we can say that emotional intelligence of these people that enables to control their emotions and understanding.
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of themselves and others in the regulation of relationships with others are more successful, with
daily stress to deal more easily and therefore health may enjoy more favourable psychological.
Thus, the increasing importance of sports participation should be strengthened. Our findings
provide a basis for research to determine the relationship between emotional intelligence and
physical activity.

Solanki and Lane (2010) assessed the relationship between perception of emotional
intelligence and beliefs in the extent to which exercising leads to mood-enhancement. Volunteer
participants (N=315) completed a 33 item self report measure of trait emotional
intelligence and an exercise-mood regulation scale. Emotional intelligence significantly
correlated with beliefs that exercise could be used to regulate mood (r=0.45, p<0.01). Findings
demonstrate that using exercise to regulate mood relates significantly to emotional intelligence
and suggest that individuals who use exercise to enhance mood report higher scores of emotional
intelligence.

Costarelli and Stamou (2009) examined 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 (N=60) subjects were recruited: (n=20) were national and international
TKD and Judo athletes and (n=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<0.01) and with self-classified
weight (p<0.01). Athletes had higher levels of emotional intelligence and a healthier body image
compared to non-athletic, but there were no significant differences in terms of disordered eating
attitudes.
Crombie et al. (2009) investigated 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. Team emotional intelligence was based on cricketers measured prior to the start of the competition in each season using the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Testability 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 emotional intelligence was positively associated with the sports performance of the cricket teams. Further, Team emotional intelligence was shown to be a significant predictor of sports performance, with 61% of the variation in the log points explained. This finding suggests that emotional intelligence may contribute to the success of teams participating in complex sports like cricket.

Lane et al. (2009) explored the relationships between self-report trait emotional intelligence and psychological skills. Male athletes (N=54) completed the Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS; Schutte et al., 1998) and the Test of Performance Strategies (TOPS; Thomas et al., 1999). Canonical correlation results suggested psychological skills used in both competition and in practice relate to perceptions of emotional intelligence (Practice: Canonical $R=.69$, $p<0.01$; Competition: Canonical $R=.67$, $p<0.01$). Specifically, self-talk, imagery, and activation in both practice and competition were associated with perceptions of the appraisal of others’ emotions and the ability to regulate emotions. The direction of relationships showed that individuals reporting frequent use of psychological skills also reported stronger perceptions of emotional intelligence. Future researchers should seek to establish the direction of relationships by investigating whether increased psychological skills use is associated with enhanced emotional intelligence or vice versa.

Narimani and Basharpoo (2009) compared attachment styles and emotional intelligence between athlete (collective and individual sports) and non-athlete women. Statistical population of this study is comprised of all 250 athlete women (of both collective and individual sport who were exercising in the sport saloons of Ardabil city (Iran) within first 6 months of 2008. All non-athlete women of Ardabil in this age range were the normal population of this survey. Of this statistical population, 30 athletes of collective and 30 athletes of individual sports and 30 of non-athlete women were selected with simple random sampling. After sampling some demographic characteristics like age, education and record of sport activities were taken and questionnaires of
attachment styles and emotional intelligence were completed by them. Results of Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) showed that there is statistically significant difference between mean scores of 3 groups in the secure attachment and emotional intelligence; however, there is no significant difference between 3 groups in the mean scores of avoidant insecure and ambivalent attachment styles. Results of LSD pursuit test also showed that, rate of secure attachment in the individual sport athletes was lower than collective sports. And also, emotional intelligence of individual sport’s athlete was more than individual and it was higher for individual sport’s athlete than non-athlete persons.

Thapa (2009) tested the relationship between emotional intelligence and self-confidence of the soccer players from different colleges and universities. Data was collected from (N=96) football players (48 college players and 48 university players) in the age group of 18 to 25 years. The study was delimited to the colleges and universities of Haryana. The purposive random sampling technique was used to collect the data. To assess the self-confidence of the soccer players Agnihotry’s self-confidence inventory (1987) was used and to assess emotional intelligence of the players emotional intelligence scale constructed by Hyde et al., 2001 was used. Means and SD values were calculated to find out the direction or differences between the two groups of soccer players. Pearson correlation (2-tailed) test was used to find out the relationship of the two psychological variables. For the purpose of this study, the level of significance was set at 0.05 and 0.01 levels. The finding of the study reveals that there is negative relationship between the emotional intelligence and self-confidence of the soccer players at both the levels.

Thelwell et al. (2008) studied the relationship between emotional intelligence and coaching efficacy. Ninety-nine (N=99) coaches completed the Emotional Intelligence Scale and the Coaching Efficacy Scale with the results of the canonical correlation suggesting significant relationships between the two sets of variables. Regression analyses suggested motivation efficacy to be significantly associated with the regulation of emotions and social skills, whereas character-building efficacy was associated with optimism. Teaching technique efficacy was significantly associated with appraisal of own emotions with no significant predictors for game strategy efficacy. When viewed collectively, results provide an insight to how emotional intelligence relates to coaching efficacy and gives an indication to where applied work with
coaches may be directed. Future research suggestions are also provided in reference to coach-related psychology.

Lindahl (2006) designed to investigate if there is a relationship between game intelligence and emotional intelligence in Swedish ice hockey players. Participants were (N=55) Swedish ice hockey players from four different teams on four levels and one coach from each team. The players age ranged from 17 to 35 (M=22, 95, SD=4, 57). The players completed the Emotional Skills and Competence Questionnaire and their coaches rated each player’s game intelligence using Game Intelligence in Ice Hockey Survey. A multivariate analysis of variance was performed and the results showed no significant differences in emotional intelligence between those with high game intelligence and low game intelligence.

Perlini and Halverson (2006) evaluated the standing on emotional intelligence of National Hockey League players, relative to the general population, to evaluate the relationship of draft rank and emotional intelligence (EI) measures to hockey performance, and to evaluate the relative predictive value of these measures to performance indices. During the 2003-04 hockey season, 79 players across 24 National Hockey League 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 emotional intelligence, both intrapersonal competency and general mood added significant variance to predictions of number of National Hockey League points and games played. Implications for predicting performance in the National Hockey League, amongst draft prospects.

Zizzi et al. (2003) evaluated the relationship between emotional intelligence and athletic performance. Total sample of 61 Division I baseball players (aged 18-23 yrs) was selected to act as subjects. Out of the 61 players, 40 were classified as hitters (66%) and 21 were classified as pitchers (34%). Baseball players completed an informed consent form and the Emotional Intelligence Scale. Performance data were obtained through the conference's website, which had links to each team's performance statistics. Research in sport psychology has supported the relationship between psychological skills and athletic performance, but the current study provides only modest support for the link between emotional skills (i.e., emotional awareness, control and utilization) and athletic performance. The data suggest that components of emotional intelligence appear to be moderately related to pitching performance, but not related to hitting performance.
WILL TO WIN

Sidhu and Dutta (2012) examined the will to win ability and to give a comprehensive and correct understanding of the variables under study, to the experts as well as the general reader. For this purpose a sample of (N=120) boxers were taken which included medallists and non-medallists from university level and state level participants. The results of the study showed that there exists a significant difference on the variables of will to win ability between medallists and non-medallists as well as between the university level and state level boxers players. It has been found that champion medallists boxers have better will to win than the non-medallists boxers. The results of the present study can be useful to Indian coaches, selectors, camp-holders and physical educators as aid for screening and selection of potentially talented players who can later on become good boxers.

Kumar and Kang (2011) studied that the main thrust of the modern sports is on winning, not just participating and playing. Physical Health and fitness or joy and fun are no longer the purpose or even the target. Will to Win is the intensity to desire to defeat an opponent or to excel some performance standard in a given sports. This construct is similar to need achievement and internal locus of control. It is also related partly to competition and some parts of aggression. The objectives of the study are to compare the will to win of boxers participating national, state and district level. A total 300 boxers were selected as subject as different levels of participation. Will to win Questionnaire constructed by Pezer and Brown (1980) was used to collect the data of the present study. The results reveal that National level Boxers were found to have higher will to win than State level Boxers. National level Boxers were found to have higher will to win than district level Boxers. State level Boxers were found to have higher will to win than District level Boxers.

Shaw et al. (2011) compared the winning and the loosing team of women football matches of University of Delhi, with regard to will to win and stress score and studied the relationship between will to win score and stress score. For the purpose of the study, two teams named as team A (N₁=14) and team B (N₂=14) of university of Delhi were randomly selected. Will to win and stress questionnaire was administered on the subjects one hour before the match. The age of the subjects were ranging from 17 to 23 years. The administered questionnaires were quantified for obtaining the scores as per the instructions/guidelines given in the concerned manual. Mean, standard deviation, product moment correlation, t-test and ANOVA were used as statistical procedure for analyzing the data. The drawn hypothesis was tested at 0.05 level of
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significance. The findings concluded that the comparison between the winning and the loosing team of women football matches of university of Delhi in regard to will to win and stress scores were significantly different. Further, there was an evidence of significant relationship between the will to win score and stress scores during university of Delhi women football matches.

Tiwari (2011) conducted the study to compare the high and low achiever rowers on ‘will to win’ and ‘locus of control’ variables of personality. It was also aimed to find out relationship between will to win and locus of control. Sixty male rowers were the subjects of this study who had participated in All India Inter University Rowing Championship held at Sukhna Lake, Chandigarh. Subjects were categorized into two groups; thirty were high achiever rowers who secured 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th positions and thirty were low achiever rowers who failed to secure any position. Their age ranged between seventeen to twenty five years. The subjects were administered Kumar and Shukla (1988) for assess the will to win & Levenson (1972) scale for measuring the locus of control. For analysis’ t test was applied to test the hypothesis. To find out the relationship between will to win and locus of control product movement co-relation method was used. The level of Significance was set at 0.05 level (p<0.05). The result of the present study on ‘will to win’ indicates that there were significant differences on will to win between high achievers and low achievers of rowing (t=9.34>tabulated value (2.00). The high achiever rowers scored high in will to win and low achievers scored low in will to win. The hypothesis of this study was that there would be significant differences on will to win between high & low achiever rowers were accepted. For second variable Analysis of data revealed that there was significant difference between high & low achiever rowers on ‘locus of control’. The scores were on individual control (t=9.71), powerful others (t=5.33) and chance control (t=4.49). The high achiever rowers possess internal locus of control where as low achiever rowers possess external locus of control. The hypothesis of this study, that there would be significant difference between high & low achievers rowers on locus of control was accepted. The result of present study indicates that there was significant relationship between will to win and locus of control of high & low achiever rowers. It may be concluded that high & low achiever rowers significantly correlated to each other on will to win & ‘individual control’ variable of locus of control, whereas on will to win & ‘powerful others’ & ‘chance control’ variables of locus of control correlates significantly but negatively.
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Reddy et al. (2010) explored the will to win as a psychological differential to play and triumph among female runners, jumpers and throwers. For the purpose of the study, 60 female athletes (15 short distance runners, 15 long distance runners, 15 jumpers and 15 throwers) from 10th National Junior Federation Cup Athletic Championship 2010 held at Visakhapatnam were randomly selected as subjects of the study. The variable selected for the purpose of this study was: will to win. Will to win was assessed by the total scores in Will to Win Questionnaire constructed and standardised by Kumar and Shukla (1988). With the help of the questionnaire related to will to win as a psychological variable necessary data were collected. Data were collected with regard to will to win variable from 60 female athletes in 10th National Junior Federation Cup Athletic Championship 2010 held at Visakhapatnam. The data was analysed by applying descriptive statistic that is, mean, SD, SE and range and analysis of variance. The level of significance was set at 0.05. The finding of the study was relation to will to win showed insignificant difference among short distance runners, long distance runners, jumpers and throwers. On the basis of the findings of the study, the following conclusions are drawn: insignificant difference among short distance runners, long distance runners, jumpers and throwers was found as will to win is defined as the intensity of the desire to defeat an opponent or to exceed some performance standard in a given sports.

Singh and Reddy (2010) investigated the will to win as a psychological differential to play and triumph among male runners, jumpers and throwers. For the purpose of the study, 60 male athletes (15 short distance runners, 15 long distance runners, 15 jumpers and 15 throwers) were randomly selected from 10th National Junior Federation Cup Athletic Championship 2010 held at Visakhapatnam as the subjects of the study. The variable selected for the purpose of this study was: will to win. Will to win was assessed by the total scores in Will to Win Questionnaire constructed and standardised by Kumar and Shukla (1988). With the help of the questionnaire related to will to win as a psychological variable necessary data were collected. Data were collected with regard to will to win variable from 60 male athletes in 10th National Junior Federation Cup Athletic Championship 2010 held at Visakhapatnam. The data was analysed by applying descriptive statistic that is, mean, SD, SE and range and analysis of variance. The level of significance was set at 0.05. The findings of the study in relation to will to win showed significant difference among long distance runners in comparison to short distance runners, jumpers and throwers. On the basis of the findings of the study, the following conclusions are
Kumar et al. (2009) tried to find out the relationship of achievement motivation and will to win in the performance of sprinters. 30 female inter-university level sprinters were selected to act as subjects of the study. The variables under investigation were achievement motivation and will to win and performance in their respective event that is 100m, 200m, 400m. It may hypothesize that there will be no significant relationship of achievement motivation, will to win and performance of sprinters. The questionnaire method was adopted for seeking the response on achievement motivation of Ray-Lynn “AO” scale and will to win of Pezer and Brown (1980) and the performance was taken by the time trial of their respective events. Pearson product moment correlation was used to find out the correlation of achievement motivation, will to win to the performance of sprinters. Analysis of data revealed that correlation between achievement motivation, and performance is 0.44 which is significant at 0.05 level with df=29. As the value is greater than tabulated $r_{0.05} = 0.36$. Also, the correlation between will to win and performance is not significant at 0.05 level. The findings revealed that significant relationship exist between will to win and performance of sprinters. No significant relationship exists between will to win and performance of sprinters. It may further be concluded that achievement motivation has significant relationship to the performance of the sprinters. However, insignificant relationship was observed between will to win and sprinters performance.

Kaur (2006) compared the will to win between high and low achievers in canoeing and kayaking. Fifty male canoeists and kayakers were the subjects of this study who had participated in All India Kayaking and Canoeing inter university championship held at Sukhna Lake, Chandigarh. Subjects were categorized into two groups, thirty seven high achievers canoeists and kayakers who failed to secure first three positions. Subjects were under graduate and post graduates students of various participating universities and their age ranged between seventeen to twenty five years. To measure the will to win of the players then will to win questionnaire of Kumar and Shukla (1988) was used for collection of data. For analysis, beside descriptive statistics t test was applied to test the hypothesis. The level of significance was set at 0.05. The analysis of results obtained revealed that there were significant differences between the high
achievers and low achievers. The subjects of higher level of participation in male section high in will to win and the subjects of low level achievement scored low in will to win. It is concluded that will to win has great impact on the high and low achievers in canoeing and kayaking.

Sidhu and Singh (2006) compared the champion and non-champion boxers on will to win at different levels of competitions. The study was conducted on 150 male champion and 150 male non-champion boxers. Who participated at the university, inter-varsity, state and national level. The players who got first, second and third positions, at any level of competition, were included as champions. All others, who participated in the competition, were considered as non-champions. They were administered Kumar and Shukla (1988) test for measuring the will to win. The results of the study showed that, in all these cases, champion boxers have better will to win as compared to non-champion boxers, at university, state and national level, but not at the inter-varsity level.

Singh (2003) investigated the level of will to win among college, university and state level athletes. The study was restricted to male athletes who got 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th position in any athletic event in the competitions at college, university and state level. It was concluded that the athletes move from lower level of performance to the higher level of performance, their will to win also increase the inferences is that with level of performance going higher from college to state, the will to win also goes upward.

Kaur (2002) explored the skills of handball players in relation to performance, will to win and personality characteristics. One hundred thirty young girls and women ranging in age between seventeen and twenty four and one hundred twenty boys and men ranging in age from seventeen to twenty six in years attending the state coaching camps, university coaching camps in handball, volunteered as subjects for this study. In this study handball skills tests, will to win questionnaire and personality inventory was used to measure the various tests for better rusts of handball players. The performance in handball was related to will to win and higher level players had high level of will to win as compared to low level players.

Ghuman and Dhillon (2000) assessed the will to win and self-confidence of Indian universities women hockey players. The study was carried out on 112 players, out of which 64 players of four teams participated but failed to achieve any position in the tournament and 48 players of three teams attained the first three positions in the tournament. To collect the required information the will to win questionnaire of Kumar and Shukla (1988) and Agnihotri’s self-
confidence inventory (ASC) of Agnihotri (1987) was administered to measure will to win and self-confidence of women hockey players respectively. The ‘t’ test was applied to draw the results. The results of study revealed that will to win in the players of teams which attained the position in the tournament showed higher score than the players participated in tournament showed higher score than the players participated in tournament but failed to achieve any position. On self-confidence the players of the teams which attained the positions in the tournament showed higher level of self-confidence and vice-versa than other players.

Kumar and Shukla (1998) designed the study on psychological consistencies within the personality of high and low achieving hockey players. Test was conducted on 80 high achieving and 80 low achieving male hockey players. High achievers were those who had participated in national or international tournaments, low achiever were those who never achieved such distinctions throughout their sports life and 80 non-sportspersons were also included in study. These groups were matched on the variable of age and educational E.P.Q. Rotter’s locus of control scale, will to win questionnaire and batter’s self esteem inventory were administered to these groups individually. High achieving hockey players were found to be extrovert, dominating, less anxious, emotionally stable, internally controlled and having personal and social self-esteem in comparison to other groups.

Woloschuk (1986) explored the relationship between will to win and basketball performance. This study examined the relationship between will to win scores and athletic performance in women’s basketball. Eighteen high school basketball teams participating in a three day tournament took part in study. The subjects were 166 basketball players, ranging from 15 to 19 years of age. Spearman rank order correlation was calculated to determine the relationship between will to win and performance measures. The results support the relationship between these two variables, for not only does the will to win correlate positively with points scored but it also seems to be related to the margin of win ratio.

Daino (1985) investigated the personality traits among adolescent tennis players. 36 male and 30 female competitive tennis players (TPLs [aged 13-18 yrs]) and 36 male and 30 female age-matched controls who were nonparticipants in sports were administered the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire, the Middlesex Hospital Questionnaire, and a will-to-win questionnaire. Findings reveal significant differences in personality traits between the 2 groups. Male TPLs had significantly higher will-to-win scores and significantly lower obsession scores.
Review of Related Literature

than controls. Female TPLs scored significantly higher on extraversion and will to win scores and significantly lower on neuroticism, anxiety, depression, and somatization scores than controls. As a group, TPLs scored higher on extraversion and will-to-win and lower on neuroticism, psychoticism, anxiety, obsessiveness, and depression than controls. Findings fail to support the hypothesis that sports participants are more tough-minded, dominant, aggressive, and hostile than nonparticipants.

Dorsey et al. (1980) assessed the relationship between will to win and performance in an 8-team women's basketball tournament. Players completed a 14-item will to win questionnaire. Team and individual scores were compared with various indices of performance. Results reveal that between 2 competing teams, the game was more likely to be won by the team with the higher average will to win score. The correlation between this score for a team and its finishing position in a tournament was not significant. The last-place team had a will to win score that was significantly lower than the score of 5 of the other 7 teams. Data obtained on individual players indicate a significant but low correlation between the will to win score and the mean number of points scored was found for individual players.

Pezer and Brown (1980) tested the sport-specific, self-report measure of the will to win (i.e., the extent to which a person desires to reach some standard of excellence or defeat an opponent). The scale is based on an interactional individual differences-by-situation model of personality. Several pilot investigation, using 254 undergraduates who regularly participated in 1 of 7 sports, showed a test–retest (4-mo) reliability of .87 and a Kuder-Richardson reliability coefficient of .66. Validity assessments using coaches' and teammates' ratings of the Ss indicated that the scale had moderate internal consistency and high stability. In a sample of 216 female curlers, will-to-win scores were positively related to curling performance.

SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE

Hampel et al. (2011) investigated whether the Social anxiety has been associated with biases in cognitive processing and deficits in social performances. Yet, it remains unclear if these variations may be partly attributable to deficits in fundamental social abilities: for example, social intelligence (SI). Using the Magdeburg Test of Social Intelligence (MTSI) as an objective and performance based SI measure, we examined the relationship between social anxiety and social intelligence in a general population sample (N=110) using Structural Equation Modelling. Dimensions of social anxiety as postulated by Clark and Wells (1995) and facts of SI (social
understanding, social memory, and social perception), were negatively correlated. Use of safety-behaviour in particular was related to deficits in social understanding \((r=-0.25; p<0.05)\) and social perception and memory \((r=-0.24; p<0.05)\). Results suggest small to medium sized relationships between specific facets of social anxiety and certain domains of Social intelligence. Therapeutic was implications for socially anxious individuals concerning Social intelligence.

Jeloudar and Yunus (2011) analyzed the social intelligence level of teachers employed in government secondary schools in Malaysia based on selected demographic variables such as age, and how they relate to the classroom discipline strategies. The sample of the study comprises 203 teachers. The study also revealed that there were significant differences between teachers’ age groups and their social intelligence. Further a significant relationship was noted between teachers’ social intelligence and the six strategies of classroom discipline strategies (discussion, recognition, involvement, hinting, punishment and aggression).

Khan et al. (2011) conducted a study while keeping the objective of physical education in mind and attempted to investigate whether the duration of participation in physical education have any impact on the social intelligence. To measure social intelligence the scale developed by Chadha and Ganesan (1986) was used. The sample consisted of 45 physical education students of 19-35 age range. As per results the subjects of B.P.Ed Scored better than the students of B.P.E in tactfulness dimensions of social intelligence.

Sembali et al. (2011) assessed to find out the attitude towards regionalism of college students in relation to social intelligence of college students in Cuddalore, Villupuram, Nagapattinam, Thanjore, Vellore and Thrivannamali Districts of Tamil Nadu, India. Random sampling technique was used to compose a sample of 1050 college students mean, standard deviation t value were calculated for the analysis of data. The results revealed that there is no significant relationship between for the analysis of data. The results revealed that there is no significant relationship between attitude towards regionalism and social intelligence of college students.

Singh et al. (2011) studied the achievement orientation and social intelligence among individual and team athletes and their effects on sports performances. Subjects were forty university level individual and team athletes aged 18-25 years. Out of 40 athletes, 20 were individual and 20 were team athletes. They were subjected to achievement orientation and social intelligence scale (sis). The following dimensions were determined using social intelligence
scales: patience, cooperativeness, confidence, sensitivity, recognition of social environment, tactfulness, sense of humour and memory whereas differences were assessed using the student’s t-test for dependent data. The level of significance 0.05 was set. The data were further subjected to One way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). A result indicates that the significant differences between groups were found among the athletes of individual and team sports on the variable achievement orientation and social intelligence. It was concluded that considering the various dimensions as applied on different set of subject’s i.e., individual team, the results prove to be variant in both the category.

Juchniewicz (2010) investigated the influence of social intelligence on effective music teaching. Forty teachers from “exemplary programs” and “more challenging programs” across band, chorus, orchestra, and general public school music programs were administered the Interpersonal Perception Task-15 (IPT-15). In addition, 84 external evaluators viewed teaching excerpts of 12 “exemplary” and “challenged” teachers and rated the (a) overall effectiveness and (b) main attribute that influenced their evaluations of each teaching excerpt. Results indicated no significant differences between the IPT-15 scores of “exemplary” teachers and “challenged” teachers. The external evaluators rated teachers identified as “exemplary” significantly higher than they rated teachers labelled as “challenged.” The majority of attributes influencing external evaluators’ ratings of overall teacher effectiveness were social, constituting more than 85% of all responses. All teachers who demonstrated effective social skills were perceived as effective teachers. Effective communication skills were the most frequently cited attributes for “exemplary” teachers, whereas ineffective classroom management was the most listed attribute for why teachers were rated ineffective.

Bains (2009) investigated the social intelligence, achievement motivation, study habits and self concept of students of arts and science stream. The present study was conducted on a sample of 509 male and female students studying in 10+1 class in arts and science stream (arts stream=303, science stream=206 students). To measure the social intelligence of the students then Chadha and Ganesan (1986) questionnaire was used. To measure the social intelligence of the students then Chadha and Ganesan (1986) questionnaire was used. To find out the significant difference between arts and science stream students, that independent samples t-test was used. The level of significance was set at 0.05. The results with regard to patience, confidence, tactfulness, sense of humor were found statistically insignificant between arts and science stream students. However,
the results with regard to cooperativeness, sensitivity, social environment and social intelligence (total) were found statistically significant between arts and science stream students.

Hooda et al. (2009) examined the relationship between positive psychological health and social intelligence (SI) in a sample of 300 working adults (male=170 and female=130). Positive health was assessed by (a) 29-Oxford Happiness Scale, (b) Satisfaction with Life Scale and (c) Life Orientation test-revised. Social intelligence (SI) was assessed by a Social Intelligence Scale which provides scores on eight dimensions i.e. patience, cooperativeness, confidence, sensitivity, recognition of social environment, tactfulness, sense of humor, and memory. Correlation analysis showed 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). Optimism was found to be significantly and positively correlated with patience, cooperativeness, confidence and tactfulness and negatively correlated with memory. Further Step-wise regression analysis revealed that out of eight, seven factors of Social intelligence significantly predict one or the other Positive Health dimensions.

Dogan and Cetin (2008) examined the relationship between university students’ social intelligence and their levels of depression. The basic research assumption was that high social intelligence would be in an interaction with low depression. It was expected that there would be negative correlation between subscales of Social Intelligence Scale: social skills, social information processing and social awareness. Two measures were used for this study. Tromso Social Intelligence Scale (TSIS; Silvera et al., 2001) and Beck Depression Inventory (BDI; Beck, et al., 1961) were applied. 520 university students (287 female and 233 male) from Sakarya University/Turkey took the social intelligence scale and depression inventory. One way ANOVA and correlation were used to statistically evaluate the data. According to the procedure randomly chosen university students were divided into three social intelligence groups as high, medium and low by using the scores of Tromso Social Intelligence Scale. The research findings showed 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.
Singh (2007) conducted a study on low creative and high creative boys and girls of class 11th studying in the senior secondary schools of Punjab state. He revealed insignificant difference in social intelligence between low creative and high creative adolescents, between high creative boys and high creative girls. But a significant difference was found in the social intelligence of low creative boys and low creative girls adolescents.

Andreou (2006) explored the relationship among social preference, perceived popularity, social intelligence and two types of aggressive behaviour. Peer-estimation techniques were used to measure all major variables. Altogether, 403 Greek schoolchildren from fourth-through sixth-grade classrooms participated in the study. Both overt and relational aggression was negatively associated with social preference for girls; overt aggression was positively associated with perceived popularity for boys. Relational aggression was positively associated with perceived popularity for both boys and girls, and social information processing only for girls. In addition, as was hypothesized, relational aggression was predicted by cognitive aspects of social intelligence whereas overt aggression by lack of social skills. Overt aggression was found to be a unique significant negative predictor of perceived popularity whereas relational aggression a positive predictor.

Kaur and Kalaramna (2004) assessed the inter-relationship between home environment, social intelligence and socio-economic status across various age levels and two sexes. The data was collected from randomly selected four high schools in the villages of Ludhiana-I block of Ludhiana district. Home environment was assessed by using Mishra’s Home Inventory (1989), Social Intelligence was assessed by using Chadha and Genesan (1986) Social Intelligence Scale and to know the socio-economic status, Kulshreshta Socio-Economic Status Scale (1970) was used. Results revealed that socioeconomic status has got effect on social intelligence. Home environment also showed positive impact on social intelligence.

Grewal (2003) examined that whether social intelligence contributes to teacher adjustment. He found that there exists significant relationship between social intelligence and adjustment of teachers, which means that the teachers possessing the traits of cooperativeness, sensitivity, tactfulness, patience, confidence, recognition of social environment, sense of humor and memory, have better adjustment or in other words socially intelligent teachers are better adjusted.
Review of Related Literature

Prasad (1995) conducted a study on social intelligence and adjustment between male and female students. He concluded that male and female students differed significantly in cooperativeness, confidence, sensitivity, recognition of social environment and tactfulness, i.e., patience, sense of humour and memory. He also found that there existed highly significant correlation between social intelligence and adjustment in both male and female groups.

Brown and Anthony (1990) evaluated the relationship between social and academic forms of intelligence. Subjects (N=83) were university undergraduates. Three measures of academic ability (grade point average and scores on the ACT English and Mathematics tests) and four measures of social intelligence (self and peer ratings of personality and self and peer ratings of social-behavioral effectiveness) were taken. Three types of correlation analysis revealed that (a) academic and social intelligence represent separate, although partially overlapping, domains; and (b) self assessments of social intelligence appear to bear little relationship to peer assessments.

SOCIAL SUPPORT

Minhat and Amin (2012) measured the association between perceived social support received by the elderly and their leisure involvement in certain activity. A cross-sectional study was conducted among persons aged 60 years and above, purposively selected from eight health clinics in the state of Selangor. Leisure participation was measured using a validated Leisure Participation Questionnaire specific for Malaysian elderly, consisting of 25 activities, categorized into 4 categories, namely recreational (physical), cognitive, social and productive. Frequency of such participation was measured on a 6-point scale. Its association with perceived social support variable was examined using Pearson’s correlation and regression analysis. 268 participants were involved in this study (response rate=100%). The most common daily leisure activities were having conversations while relaxing (78.7%), watching television (74.6%) and reading (63.4%). The least frequently done leisure activities were from the recreational and cognitive categories. Majority (85.4%) perceived they received higher social support from family members compared to only 49.6% received higher social support from friends. However, social support received from friends was found to be the main predictor for leisure participation involving all categories of activities. Social activity was the only leisure activity shown to have significant correlation with both, perceived social support from family and friends. Perceived social support received from friends by elderly is an important predictor for their leisure
participation. Health promotion programmes for the elderly should emphasize on the social interaction among the senior citizens.

Darlow and Xu (2011) examined the influence of perceived support for exercise as well as close others’ exercise habits on own exercise, and to examine the differential effects of friend’s exercise and romantic partner’s exercise. Undergraduates (N=220) at a north eastern university completed questionnaires on their own exercise habits, their romantic partner’s and best friend’s exercise habits, and perceived support for exercise. Friend’s exercise was associated with own exercise, but only when perceived support was high. Being male, partner’s exercise, and friend’s exercise all independently predicted own exercise. Exercise habits of close others are associated with one’s own exercise habits, though this relationship may vary depending on perceived support. Attention should be paid to women’s exercise habits, since they are less likely to exercise than men.

Gillard (2011) investigated the role of social support in the academic confidence of transitional foster youth. Because the literature suggests men and women benefit from social support differentially, therefore, the investigator examined gender as the moderating variable for social support and academic confidence. A sample of 82 foster youth (15-18 years old) from San Joaquin County’s Human Service Agency volunteered to participate. Participants were given the Student Perceived Availability of Social Support Questionnaire (SPASSQ) to assess their perceptions of the available social support from foster family, teachers, and peers. The Academic Efficacy Scale (AES) and the School Investment Inventory (SII) were used to assess academic confidence. Hierarchical and linear regression analyses and independent t-tests were conducted to examine the relationship between social support and academic confidence with gender as the moderating variable. Results were that overall social support positively predicted academic confidence, and this was particularly true for females when using AES. More specifically, the social support provided by foster parents was a strong predictor of academic confidence for girls. Teacher and peer support also had a positive impact on foster youths’ academic confidence. These data support the hypotheses that social support positively predicts academic confidence and that female foster youth benefit more from social support.

Kirimolu (2011) studied the explanatory power of social support and coping in relation to a competitive sport event between male and female table tennis players. 246 university students table tennis players (120 men and 126 women) from different region and part of Turkey were
invited to participate in a survey study included the following standardized measures during competitive sport event: The Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support, The Ways of Coping Inventory. A mean score showed that Turkish tennis players highly use problem solving coping strategies. Problem solving was the main coping strategy for both men and women tennis players. Social support made strong contribution on the problem solving coping in tennis players. There were no gender differences for using variety of problem-focused coping strategies.

Wezyk (2011) assessed the level of self-handicapping tendency, competitive anxiety (trait) and social support within groups of young male and female athletes, as well as to determine the relationships between those variables. A group of 75 athletes (46 male football players and 29 female volleyball players) from Sport Mastery School in Lodz, aged 16-19 years, participated in the study. Three questionnaires were administered: Anticipative Strategy of Self-Esteem Protection Scale (ASO) to measure self-handicapping tendency, Social Support Scale (SWS) and Reactions to Competition (RNW), in order to measure the competition-related anxiety (trait). Female athletes attained significantly higher scores in ASO and RNW while male players perceived their social support higher than girls. No significant correlations between self-handicapping and anxiety were found. Most of the observed relationships between self-handicapping and social support were negative, like those between anxiety and social support. It is advisable to work with young athletes on eliminating self-handicapping activities and replacing them with other, more efficient, ways of coping with anxiety. Social support (adequate to the athlete’s needs) might be crucial in that proceeding. The hypothesis of relationship between sport competitive anxiety and self-handicapping was not confirmed, maybe due to the relatively small number of subjects.

Cowan (2010) tried to explore and describe the nature of change that occurred in self efficacy and received social support of university-age academy cricketers over the duration of an academy programme. The secondary aim was to explore and describe the relationship between the two constructs, self-efficacy and social support. Sixty-five male, university-age (18-25 years) provincial academy cricketers completed a social support measure and a self-efficacy measure specifically designed for the purposes of this study. These measures were based on Rees and Freeman (2007) items and Cox et al., 2003 revised Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2 (CSAI-2-Martens et al., 1990) respectively. The perceived pre- and post-academy personal ratings of self-efficacy and social support, obtained prior to the start of the South African
Interprovincial Academy Cricket week, referred to participants’ perceptions before and after attending their respective provincial academies. An inferential pre-experimental post-pre test design was used. The results included significant changes found in self-efficacy, esteem social support, informational social support and tangible social support over the academy season. There were no differences attributed to the length of time a cricketer had spent at the academy or to the cricketer’s highest level of achievement in cricket. The only significant correlation that existed between self-efficacy and social support was the correlation between self-efficacy and informational social support. This study provided an initial insight into the role of self-efficacy and social support in talented cricketers, especially in a South African context.

Hassell et al. (2010) explored multiple dimensions of social support of nine elite female adolescent swimmers. Data were collected and analyzed using the principles of constructivist phenomenology. Results highlighted the importance of the structural, functional, and perceptual social support dimensions on athletes’ experiences in elite swimming in relation to their coaches, parents, and peers. Coaches were an important provider of almost every aspect of social support. Parents provided social support on a more general level, with their swimming-specific informational support being the single most unappreciated aspect of social support. Teammates provided a sense of affiliation and shared experience that was described as the most positive aspect of their swimming involvement. The current qualitative findings provide new insights into the concurrent structural, functional, and perceptual dimensions of social support in female youth elite sport.

Kristiansen and Roberts (2010) examined that how the Norwegian Olympic Youth Team (N=29) experienced competitive and organizational stress during the European Youth Olympic Festival in July 2007 and how they coped with the stressors. Participants were aged 14-17 and competed in handball, track and field, swimming, and judo. They used a qualitative methodology with interviews and open-ended questionnaires. Qualitative content analyses revealed that the athletes experienced competitive stressors because of the size and importance of the competition, and organizational stressors (e.g., housing, lining up for food, and transportation) exacerbated by the extreme heat during the Festival. The elite competitive experience was novel to all and overwhelming for some of the more "inexperienced" athletes. The athletes used cognitive coping strategies to some extent in addition to relying on different types of social support. The findings
revealed the need for social support for adolescent athletes, and underlined the importance of a
good coach-athlete relationship in order to perform well and enjoy the competitive experience.

Rees et al. (2010) examined the main and buffering effect relationships between social
support and psychological responses to sport injury with samples of high and low-performance
standard injured participants. High (N=147) and low-performance (N=114) standard injured
participants completed measures of perceived social support, injury-related stressors and
psychological responses during physiotherapy clinic visits. Moderated hierarchical regression
analyses revealed the following key findings: a) in the high-performance sample, there were
significant (p<0.05) main effects for social support in relation to psychological responses; b) in
the low-performance sample, there were significant buffering effects for social support in
relation to psychological responses. That is, in the low-performance sample, the detrimental
relationships between stressors and psychological responses were reduced for those with high
social support compared to those with low social support, but level of social support was
relatively unimportant at low levels of stressors. These results highlight that the relationships
between social support, stressors, and psychological responses to sport injury may differ,
depending upon the performance standard of the athlete. The impact of social support in the
injury process may therefore be more complicated than first thought, and this has implications
for interventions aimed at increasing social support for injured athletes.

Shariff and Mustaph (2010) investigated the relationship between input factors and social
support mechanism toward catharsis predictors among student athletes. The sample comprised
student athletes of hard touching sports, namely football, hockey and rugby (N=311) from two
national sports schools (NSS). The main result shows that social support from family, friends and
coach are able to control the teenage behaviors in sports. Besides, a continuous relationship
induced between social support and input factors could influence teenagers’ psychological
development and social ability.

Yang et al. (2010) explored to know the social support patterns of collegiate athletes
before and after injury. Social support has been identified as an important factor in facilitating
recovery from injury. However, no previous authors have prospectively assessed the change in
social support patterns before and after injury. Objective: To examine the pre injury and post
injury social support patterns among male and female collegiate athletes. Design: Prospective
observational study. Setting: A Big Ten Conference university. Patients or Other Participants: A
total of 256 National Collegiate Athletic Association Division I male and female collegiate athletes aged 18 or older from 13 sports teams. Main Outcome Measure(s): Injury incidence was identified using the Sports Injury Monitoring System. Social support was measured using the 6-item Social Support Questionnaire. Data on pre injury and post injury social support patterns were compared. Results: Male athletes reported more sources of social support than female athletes, whereas female athletes had greater satisfaction with the support they received. Athletes’ social support patterns changed after they became injured. Injured athletes reported relying more on coaches (p=.003), athletic trainers (p<.0001), and physicians (p=.003) for social support after they became injured. Athletes also reported greater post injury satisfaction with social support received from friends (p=.019), coaches (p=.001), athletic trainers (p<.0001), and physicians (p=.003). Conclusions: Our findings identify an urgent need to better define the psychosocial needs of injured athletes and also strongly suggest that athletic trainers have a critical role in meeting these needs.

Kim (2009) investigated the acculturative stress, social support and physical activity among international students in the United States. 215 Korean international students from Bryan-College Station, Texas, were recruited for this study. The results revealed that only the stressor of English language difficulty, one of acculturative stress, negatively influenced physical activity levels. Social support was positively associated with physical activity levels. Finally, in the role of social support between acculturative stress and physical activity levels, the support of Korean friends and American friends positively affected vigorous physical activity level. These results suggest that social support for international students is likely to be one of most important factors for their physical activity levels. Since the convenient sample of Korean international students may not be representative of international students in the United States, further study needs representative samples in order to establish the generality of international students studying in the United States. Moreover, future research is necessary to examine various sources and types of social support which influence physical activity of international students.

Koshi and Sekizawa (2009) examined that when students received and/or provided either support for skill improvement or support for interpersonal relations, their overall adjustment level in extracurricular activities would be higher than for students who received and/or provided neither support. Data were analyzed from 475 junior high school students (female 175, male 300) who were taking extracurricular sports activities, out of 743 research participants. The results

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were as follows. Students who received support mainly for skill improvement showed a statistically equivalent adjustment level as students who received support mainly for interpersonal relations. Students who received either support showed higher adjustment levels than students who received neither. Additionally, providing support showed the same results. The exchange of different types of social support showed equivalent effects on the adjustment level as the exchange of the same type of social support. These results suggest that even though the types of social support are different for skill improvement or interpersonal relations, the exchange of support positively contributes to junior high school students' adjustment level in extracurricular activities.

Kurc and Leatherdale (2009) examined how social support, participation in intramurals, varsity and community sports are associated with physical activity among Ontario secondary school students, and tried to explore gender differences in the prevalence of physical activity and participation in school and community-based sports. Data from 25,416 students (grades 9-12) attending 76 Ontario secondary schools were collected using the School Health Action, Planning, and Evaluation System (SHAPES). Logistic regression analyses examined how social support and school- and community-based sports participation were associated with physical activity. Males and females with low social support for physical activity were less likely to be active than their lower-risk peers (males: OR 0.61; females: OR 0.72). Males and females were more likely to be active if they participated in intramural activities (males: OR 1.92; females: OR 1.55), varsity sports (males: OR 1.93; females: OR 1.77), or community sports (males: OR 2.84; females: OR 2.90). Since students with low social support for physical activity were less likely to be active, interventions to increase support and engagement in physical activity should be targeted to these students. In addition, considering that participation in school- and community-based sports increases the likelihood that students were active, practitioners should seek to enhance opportunities for participation in and access to these programs in order to increase the level of activity obtained by students.

Rees et al. (2007) evaluated the main and stress-buffering effects of social support upon sports performance in a different context, using a different outcome measure, and a specific time-frame. A high-level performance sample of 117 male golfers (mean age 24.8, s=8.3) completed measures of social support and stressors before competitions. Performance outcome was recorded. Moderated hierarchical regression analyses revealed significant (p<0.05) main effects
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for stressors upon performance in 8 of the 11 models tested (R^2=0.08-0.21). Over and above the variance accounted for by stressors, there were significant (p<0.05) main effects for social support upon performance in all models tested (R^2=0.100.24). In all models, stressors were associated with worse performance, whereas social support was associated with better performance. There were no significant interactions (stress-buffering effects). Main effects for social support upon performance suggest that social support may have aided performance directly, regardless of the level of stress.

Handegard et al. (2006) explored a qualitative and quantitative design to describe the effects of relaxation and imagery in the sport rehabilitation setting on self-confidence and fear of returning to sport. In addition, the possible relationships between perceived social support, self-confidence, and transition into play were investigated with modified versions of the State and Trait Sport Confidence Inventory (Vealey, 1986), Social Support Survey (Richman et al., 1993), and Sport Imagery Evaluation (Vealey & Greenleaf, 2001). Participants were 2 injured male collegiate athletes (soccer and baseball) with upper extremity injuries of moderate severity levels and an estimated recovery period of 2 weeks. Participants were given a specifically designed audiocassette tape of a guided imagery script, which was used twice daily. Results were processed and analyzed for any similarities and/or discrepancies between participants regarding the rehabilitation experience. Both experienced increases in self-confidence and moderate to high levels of social support. Participant 001 received the most amount of social support from the athletic trainer and significant other. Participant 002 received the most social support from the head coach. Neither participant was fearful to return to play.

Springer et al. (2006) examined the associations of two types of social support (social participation in and social encouragement for physical activity) and two social support sources (family and friends) with self-reported daily minutes of physical activity and sedentary behaviour among sixth-grade girls in Texas. A secondary analysis of 718 sixth-grade girls between the ages of 10 to 14 was performed using cross-sectional baseline data from an osteoporosis prevention intervention study. Physical activity and sedentary behaviours (television-video viewing and computer-video game playing) were assessed using 3 administrations of the Self-Administered Physical Activity Checklist; social support indicators were assessed with Likert-type items from a psychosocial questionnaire. In multiple linear regression analyses, friend physical activity participation (partial correlation coefficient (r)=0.10, p=009) and friend (r=0.12) and family
encouragement ($r=0.11$) ($p<0.01$, respectively) were positively related to moderate-to-vigorous physical activity in the full model with other support variables, BMI and ethnicity; friend encouragement was the only variable positively related to vigorous physical activity ($r=0.11$, $p=.005$). Family participation in physical activity had the strongest negative correlation with total minutes of television-video viewing and computer-video playing ($r=-0.08$, $p<0.05$). Findings lend support to the importance of social support for physical activity among adolescent girls but suggest that the source and type of social support may differ for physical activity and sedentary behaviours. Further research is needed to assess the causal or reciprocal relation between the roles of friends and family in promoting physical activity and of family physical activity in decreasing sedentary behaviours among early adolescent girls.

Zourbanos et al. (2006) explored the relationship between perceived coaching behaviour, coaches’ esteem support, and athletes’ positive and negative self-talk. Two hundred and eight athletes participated in the study. Participants completed questionnaires assessing two coaching behaviour dimensions (supportiveness and negative activation), coaches’ esteem support, and athletes’ positive and negative self-talk. Structural equation models with latent factors were tested to examine the hypothesized relationships. The results showed that coaches’ esteem support mediated the relationship between coaches’ supportiveness and athletes’ positive self-talk. Moreover, there were direct effects of coaches’ negative activation on athletes’ negative thinking. Overall, the results of the study stress the importance of coaching behaviour and esteem support in shaping athletes’ self-talk.

Mummery et al. (2004) tried to identify how self-concept, social support and coping style can act as protective factors against the potentially deleterious effects of negative performance in competitive sport. A cohort of swimmers ($N=272$) competing at the Australian Age National Championships was examined to discriminate between three performance-related outcomes - initially successful performance, resilient performance (initial failure, followed by subsequent success) and non-resilient performance (initial failure followed by subsequent failure). A discriminate function analysis revealed two main discriminate functions. The first discriminated resilient performers from the other two groups. Resilient performers showed higher self-perceptions of physical endurance, but lower perceptions of perceived social support from significant others than the other two groups. The second discriminate function discriminated initially successful performers from resilient and non-resilient performers. The initially
successful performers scored more highly than the other groups on the coping with adversity and peaking under pressure subscales of the Athletic Coping Skills Inventory. Importantly, this study demonstrates a relationship between psychological constructs and a measurable performance outcome. It is suggested that a high concept of physical endurance, good self-perceptions for peaking under pressure and coping with adversity, and a level of independence from social support are important factors in swimming performance.

Rees and Hardy (2004) examined the factor structure of a four-dimensional measure of social support specifically designed for this study and matched social support dimensions with stressors in examining the main and stress-buffering effects of social support upon factors underlying performance in tennis. 130 high level tennis players completed measures of social support, stressors, and performance factors. Analyses of covariance structures largely provided support for the four-dimensional structure of the social support measure. Moderated hierarchical regression analyses revealed significant main and stress-buffering effects of the social support dimensions upon performance factors. The results illustrate the importance of matching specific types of sport-relevant social support with the needs elicited by the stressors under consideration. They also illustrate the need to pay close attention to the measurement instruments used in such studies. In this study, the finding of significant stress-buffering effects of social support may have been optimised through detailed attention to the measurement instruments chosen for the constructs under study. Applied implications would include developing an understanding of the beneficial role social support has to play in protecting players from the deleterious impact of stressors upon performance. Providers of support should, however, carefully match their support to the needs of the individual.

Bianco (2001) studied that social support can be an important coping resource for athletes recovering from sport injury. Few studies have investigated this claim, however. To address this gap in the literature, 10 elite downhill skiers who had recovered from serious sport injuries were interviewed about the sources of stress associated with injury and the role of social support in recovery from sport injury. Content analyses of the social support data revealed that the skiers needed various types of emotional, informational, and tangible support from the occurrence of injury through the return to full activity. Members of the treatment team, the ski team, and the skiers' home support networks provided social support throughout these phases. In general, the skiers were satisfied with the support received, indicating that it reduced distress and kept them
motivated throughout recovery. The findings from this research have implications for the design of sport injury interventions.

Green and Weinberg (2001) examined the athletic identity, coping skills, and social support as moderators of mood disturbance and physical self-esteem with the occurrence of injury in recreational participants. Thirty participants, who sustained an injury that prohibited physical activity for at least 6 weeks, completed a battery of questionnaires including measures of social support (Sarason et al., 1983), coping skills (Smith et al., 1990), athletic identity (Brewer et al., 1993), mood state (McNair et al., 1971), and physical self-esteem (Fox & Corbin, 1989). Results from multiple regression analysis revealed that individuals’ satisfaction with their social support network was significantly related to mood disturbance with increased satisfaction leading to lower levels of mood disturbance. No other relationships were significant. Results are discussed within the context of cognitive appraisal models of adjustment in order to better understand the injury process.

Hurst et al. (2000) investigated the psychological correlates of exercise dependence social anxiety and social support in experienced and inexperienced bodybuilders and weightlifters. Secondary objectives included measuring social physique anxiety, bodybuilding identity, and social support among bodybuilders and weightlifters. Thirty five experienced bodybuilders, 31 inexperienced bodybuilders, and 23 weightlifters completed the bodybuilding dependence scale, a bodybuilding version of the athletic identity measurement scale, the social physique anxiety scale, and an adapted version of the social support survey-clinical form. A between subjects multivariate analysis of variance was calculated on the scores of the three groups of lifters for the four questionnaires. Univariate F tests and follow up tests indicated that experienced bodybuilders scored significantly higher than inexperienced bodybuilders and weightlifters on bodybuilding dependence (p<.001), social identity and exclusivity subscales of bodybuilding identity (p<.001), and social support scales (p<.001), and significantly lower on social physique anxiety (p<.001). Experienced bodybuilders exhibit more exercise dependence, show greater social support behaviour, and experience less social physique anxiety than inexperienced bodybuilders and weightlifters.

Rees et al. (1999) explored the relationships between dimensions of social support and components of performance in tennis. A post-match performance measure was completed by 144 British tournament tennis players. Principal components analysis yielded eight components,
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labelled Execution of (Flexible) Plan, Loss of Composure, Feeling Flat, Positive Tension, Worry, Flow, Effective Tactics and Double Faults. Before the match, 46 players had also completed the Interpersonal Support Evaluation List. Stepwise regression analyses revealed significant effects of the Belonging and Appraisal dimensions of the Interpersonal Support Evaluation List on five of the performance components. The correlations between total support and four of these performance components were also significant. Logistic regression analyses revealed no significant effects of the dimensions of the Interpersonal Support Evaluation List or Total Support upon winning versus losing. Effects of social support upon performance were therefore only apparent when attention was focused on the components of performance.

Lavallee and Flint (1996) examined the role of stress, competitive anxiety, mood state, and social support in athletic injury. Specifically, they hypothesized that athletes reporting high levels of stress, high competitive trait anxiety, negative mood state, and low social support would exhibit greater incidence of injury and injury severity. Voluntary sample, 55 male varsity athletes (42 football, 81% of the football team, and 13 rugby, 74% of the rugby team), ages 19-28 yr (x = 22). The inventories Sport Competition Anxiety Test (SCAT), Social Support Scale, Social Athletic Readjustment Rating Scale (SARRS), and Profile of Mood States (POMS) were administered. Internal consistency of the self report measures was tested using Cronbach’s alpha coefficient. Injury rate and severity were recorded by the head student therapist throughout the season. Correlation analyses performed using Pearson correlation coefficient revealed that competitive anxiety (r=.29, p=.03) and tension/anxiety mood states (r=.43, p=.001) were related to injury frequency, and that tension/anxiety (r=.44, p=.008), anger/hostility (r =.30, p=.02), and total negative mood state (r=.28, p=.038) were related to injury severity. Individually, the two sports yielded somewhat different results: for football, injury frequency and injury severity were related to tension/anxiety (r=.43, p=.004 and r=.47, p=.002, respectively). Vigor/activity was found to be significantly related to injury rate (p=.02), but since the internal consistency of vigor/activity was less than .70 on the Cronbach’s alpha scale, this significant finding was disregarded. In rugby, injury frequency was related to tension/anxiety (r=.58, p=.04) and depression/dejection (r=.57, p=.04). Conclusions: These findings are useful for athletic trainers in identifying athletes who may possess psychological factors predisposing them to athletic injury. Subsequently, athletic trainers can instruct these athletes or refer them for assistance in psychological preventive interventions.
Smith et al. (1995) conducted a study to assess the efficacy of a social-support and stress-reduction program intended to influence factors that affect performance anxiety in child athletes. Baseball coaches in an experimental condition received preseason training in which behavioral guidelines for reducing anxiety were presented and modelled. A no-treatment control group did not receive the coach training. Children (N=152) who played for the two groups of coaches were interviewed and administered sport-specific trait anxiety scales pre-and postseason. A manipulation check demonstrated that trained coaches differed from controls in player-perceived behaviours in accordance with the goals of the intervention. They were also evaluated more positively by their players, their players reported having more fun, and their teams exhibited a higher level of attraction among players despite the fact that they did not differ from controls in won lost records. Consistent with theory-based predictions, the intervention program significantly reduced children's trait anxiety over the course of the season.

The previous researches/investigations on Emotional Intelligence, Will to Win, Social Intelligence and Social Support included in this chapter clearly establish the fact that these parameters cover such a wide and complex areas that any amount of research work is insufficient and efforts are required to be made to further explore these parameters in different contexts and different sports settings so as to obtain comprehensive knowledge regarding the same. The review of related literature has helped the investigator to formulate the present research problem under investigation so as to fill up the gap and to further add to the existing literature on the selected parameters.