CHAPTER - I

INTRODUCTION

"The difference between a good athlete and a great athlete is desire"  
— Candice Einspahr

Sports activity has been characteristic of people throughout history. The area of human endeavor called sports involves great numbers of people, both participants and spectators, in almost all the nations and civilizations of the world. Last few decades have witnessed tremendous change in the attitude of world towards competitive sports. Society at large is becoming highly concerned for the performance of their athletes and players at national and international levels, thereby transforming sports competition into a highly exciting and challenging enterprise. The prestige of a region or the nation is frequently at stake. The sportspersons are under great pressure to perform their best, create new records, and to win more and more medals. Having realized the significance of sports participation and sports competitions, the advanced countries of the world are spending huge amount of money, resources and expertise to facilitate new training methods and techniques. Even small countries like Cuba, South Korea, Kenya, Croatia etc. have adopted extensive training programmes for their sports persons and have shown significant increase in their medal tally in various international competitions. However, in our country such a concerted effort is still lacking and the same is being persistently reflecting in the performance of our sportspersons. For a large country like India, winning only one gold medal in Beijing Olympics 2008, a silver medal in Athens Olympics 2004, one bronze each in Sydney Olympics 2000 and Atlanta Olympics 1996 is no consolation. Even in game of hockey, the last time India had won gold in Olympics was more than a quarter century ago, when the men’s hockey team came on the top in the 1980 Moscow Olympics. During Olympics 2008, our hockey team even failed to qualify. There is urgent need for introspection at all the quarters.

In today’s competitive scenario, the sportspersons, coaches, trainers and all other concerned with sports cannot depend only on physical fitness alone, they have to identify and determine socio-psychological attributes which
affect the performance. It is necessary to find out the psychological traits required to be a winner. Normally, in our country, a person starts taking part in a game or event without any proper guidance or determination of his specific skills and abilities. No sincere effort is made from any quarter to tap his hidden talent for any particular or specific game or event. On the other hand, it has become quite common for schools and colleges to compel their outstanding sportspersons to participate in more than one game or event, even if it is not his game or specialization. This narrow and selfish approach has the effect of wasting the talent only. It is by sheer chance that one gets to participate in any particular sport that is suitable to his inherent capabilities. In such circumstances, failure is just, but inevitable.

The poor performance of Indian athletes and sportsmen in international competitions has been a matter of great concern to all. Decimal performance in sports does produce some half hearted, off and on efforts to uplift the sports standards, but little success has been achieved so far. It has to be realized that there are numerous factors that are responsible for the performance of a sportsman as it depends not only on his or her suppleness, skill, and training, but also on various other factors of psychological and biochemical nature. The need of the hour is to develop personal psychological profiles of outstanding and great sportspersons, to systematically analyze the same, and then, to filter out the medal winning formula.

Hockey, our national game, has provided our nation with many proud occasions. Unmatched excellence and incomparable virtuosity brought India a string of Olympic gold medals. The brilliant Indians brought a touch of black magic to their play and the ball juggling feats of the Indians were a sheer delight. The Golden Era of hockey in India was the period from 1928-1956 when India won 6 consecutive gold medals in the Olympics. During the Golden Era, India played 24 Olympic matches, won all 24, scored 178 goals (at an astounding average of 7.43 goals per match) and conceded only 7 goals. The two other gold medals for India came in the 1964 Tokyo Olympics and the 1980 Moscow Olympics. In 1956, after India won the last of its six consecutive gold medals, the manager of the Pakistan hockey team, Riazuddin Ahmed said, “This is the first time that we played India in the Olympics. The next time we
play, the result will be different." His prophetic words came true in 1960, when after 28 consecutive victories in the Olympic Games; India lost 0-1 to Pakistan in the 1960 Rome Olympics final. Indian hockey has witnessed only constant decline thereafter, except few sporadic spots of excellence here and there. This has been the sad story of India hockey inspite of having produced players like Dhayan Chand, Balbir Singh and many others who had mesmerized the world of hockey with their 'magical skills'. In this chain of outstanding players, out of the present day hockey players, the name that can be very conveniently added is that of Dhanraj Pillay.

Dhanraj Pillay, born on July 15, 1966 to a poor family in Khadki in Pune, was the youngest child of a migrant labourer from Tamil Nadu, he was given the name, Dhanraj (wealthy) as his family was struggling to make both ends meet. He was a thin, not that much toughly built, but an athlete boy in his childhood. Athleticism was god-gifted to him. His father worked as a grounds man in the ordinance factory and his three elder brothers also used to play hockey. In fact, it was one of the elder brothers, Ramesh, who initiated Dhanraj Pillay into the game and became his first coach. Following the footsteps of his elder brother, he started to play hockey from his early childhood. He would play hockey whenever he "could lay his hands on a few broken sticks and then with a few friends pasted them up with gum and sutali (gunny-sack strings)" (Misra, 2007). It was at Ramesh's insistence that Dhanraj moved to Bombay in 1988. He honed his skills playing for Rashtriya Chemicals and Fertilizers in the Bombay Hockey Association league. The former International player Joaquim Carvalho recognized Dhanraj's potential and coaxed him to join Mahindra. He first caught the eye of the selectors during 1989 Gwalior Nationals, which Bombay won. He made his debut for the country in the Asia Cup held at Delhi in December, 1989. In March 1990, he played the first of his four World Cups in Lahore. In the 1994 World Cup at Sydney, Pillay was at his scintillating best and was chosen as one of the 16 best players in the world. Dhanraj Pillay, a mercurial center-forward, who has changed the face of India's national game Hockey. In 1998 he became Captain of Indian Hockey team for the first time. It was his finest hour. He top-scored, with 11 goals, in the 1998 Bangkok Asian Games. His performance and leadership enabled India to win the Asiad Gold after 32 years. Since 2000 he has played more as a provider for strikers Gagan
Ajit Singh and Deepak Thakur. He became the only hockey player to have been awarded Arjuna Award in 1995, Rajiv Gandhi Khel Ratan Award in 1995, decorated with Padam Shree in 2001 and K.K. Birla Foundation Award (1998-99). Another distinction earned by him is that he is the only Indian Hockey player to have participated in four Olympics (1992, 1996, 2000, and 2004), four World Cups (1990, 1994, 1998, and 2002), four Champions Trophies (1995, 1995, 2002 and 2003) and four Asian Games (1990, 1994, 1998 and 2002). Cedric D'Souza, Indian coach at the Atlanta Olympics, uses the word "genius" for him. Indian captain Ramandeep Singh calls Pillay the "spearhead" of the team and to Asian Games coach M.K. Kaushik he is a "leader" who can carry 10 men. Ajitpal Singh, who led India to her only World Cup hockey victory in 1975, rates him among the greatest Indian centre forwards of the modern era. When groping for comparisons, experts come up with the names of Shahbaz Ahmed, the dazzling Pakistani forward considered the best hockey player of his generation, and Diego Maradona of Argentina (Ugra, 2000).

Successful athletes like Dhanraj Pillay form a class apart in sporting arena as they carve out a distinct spot for themselves through sheer hard work and sincere devotion. In fact, they possess a combination of unique characteristics, some special attributes which make them one of the most successful Indian sportspersons. They all have undergone rigorous physical training, have developed optimum physical fitness, set up their goals quite early, and have worked hard on their mental training too. They demonstrate mental toughness when performing under pressure, exhibit positive attitude, are emotionally mature and emotionally intelligent. They are self confident, know their self worth, have high levels of self esteem, take initiative and are good in developing interpersonal relationships. They possess distinct cognitive styles and believe in self development through self evaluation.

One thing that sportspersons have in common is that their sport is important to them and they're committed to being the best that they can be within the scope of their limitations - other life commitments, finances, time, and their natural ability. They set high, realistic goals for themselves and train and play hard. They are successful because they are pursuing their goals and enjoying their sport. Their sport participation enriches their lives and they
believe that what they get back is worth what they put into their sport. If we critically analyze, there are basically four traits of successful sportspersons. These are: Accountability. It is the difference between demanding from others and demanding of oneself. Successful sportspersons hold themselves 100% responsible for their own success or failure. They rely on coaches, parents and others for help, of course. But they don’t hold anyone else accountable for their progress or happiness. They know that they must succeed on the basis of their own hard work and passion for their sport; Toughness: Toughness is the difference between blaming and persevering. It’s what makes an athlete shift into a new gear when he or she faces adversity. The adversity can be either physical, such as pain or injury or, it can be mental, such as getting benched, losing a starting job, or falling behind in the score. Successful athletes rise above both of them; Aggressiveness: It is the difference between playing the game, and discouraging or even intimidating the opponent. Every sport has its signature play that demonstrates a level of aggressiveness designed to break an opponent’s spirit. Sportspersons use aggression appropriately - all perfectly legal and acceptable within the culture of each sport - to dampen their opponents’ spirit and make them want to give up and quit before the game is over; Initiative. It is the difference between hoping and doing. Successful sportspersons don’t sit around wishing and waiting for a chance to move up the depth chart or improve their skills. They create opportunities on their own determination and enthusiasm. If they’re not getting enough playing time in games, they arrive at practice determined to compete with, and defeat, whoever is ahead of them. They pair up against the starter in drills. They outrun him in sprints and outperform him in other conditioning exercises. Every chance they get, they put themselves in situations where coaches will notice them out hustling the player ahead of them.

The elite sportspersons in most sports share a common physiology, most suited to their sport, as well as the best of equipment, coaching, strength, conditioning, and nutrition. What then remains to make the difference between success and failure on a given day is often their mental skills. As suggested by Lesyk (2009), there are following nine, specific mental skills that contribute to success in sports. They are all learned and can be improved with instruction and practice. These successful sportspersons: ‘1. Choose and maintain...

There are not many players who can honestly say that their game is never affected by mental or psychological factors. Sportspersons and coaches generally feel that at least fifty percent of the success is due to psychological factors that reflect mental toughness. Almost everyone who competes or attempts to do his or her best at some important aspect of life has experienced both mental boosts and hindrances. Doubts, confidence, anxiety, poise, courage and fears, for example, can have a significant impact on how well one performs. The more one understands the complex inter-relationship between mind and body, the more it becomes clear that in order to perform best physically, one must properly prepare and use both body and mind.

Singh (2009) has summed up the main characteristics of successful sportspersons being:

- They earnestly want to succeed, and they set realistic goals for themselves.
- They realize that everything worth having in sports has a price tag in terms of training and competitive effort and they are willing to pay, keeping their eyes on their goals.
- They realize their future success in the end will depend upon their own personal effort.
- They accept personal responsibility for their own success and don’t depend upon luck.
- They know that willpower, not magic, turns dreams into reality.
- They have a high frustration tolerance and don’t become discouraged by their mistakes and temporary setbacks. Rather, they learn from these setbacks.
- They avoid negative thoughts and defeatist thinking. They don’t make excuses. They know that the best excuse is one you never make; rather they set examples for others.
• They are cooperative and generate their own enthusiasm. They don't grumble or complain. They always look ahead with optimism.

In the realm of sports performance, it is well recognized that psychological makeup of the athletes plays a very significant role in producing successful performance outcomes (Singh, 2004). Various such psychological variables have been extensively explored by sports psychologists in different sport settings and it has been felt that among all these variables, mental toughness, emotional intelligence, and self esteem have profound influence in shaping up the sports personality of an athlete. Thus, keeping in view their significance, these variables have also been examined hereinafter.

**MENTAL TOUGHNESS**

Toughness is being able to create positive emotions upon command, enabling us to bring all our talent and skills to life in a moment. Mental Toughness is to be strong and resilient; able to withstand great strain without tearing or breaking. Mental toughness is being able to reach your ideal competitive state. This is the personal state of being that allows an individual to perform with his greatest potential. It is a state of being where an individual feels most energized, most confident and most strong. A state where one is able to generate positive emotions that help him to be most alert, responsive and creative. It is a state when one has that positive fighting attitude and is enjoying the battle (the competition).

There are several emotions that can block our potential such as fear, confusion, low energy, fatigue, and helplessness. When we feel these negative emotions we should practice changing our mind set. This is when we must practice creating the positive emotions. There are everyday situations that can challenge our ideal competitive state: lack of sleep, which makes one feel sluggish and tired; officials that make bad calls; pressure from school/work/family; and many more such instance can be very conveniently added to this list.

Mental Toughness is being able to create these positive emotions upon command, thus enabling us to bring all our talents and skills to life at that
moment, no matter what negative thing(s) might be affecting us. Mental Toughness is not being affected by anything but what's going on in the game or competition no matter what coaches, other players, or referees are doing. According to Jones et al (2002) mental toughness is having the natural or developed psychological edge that enables us to:

- Generally cope better than the opponents with the many demands (e.g., competition, training, life style) that are placed on an individual as a performer.
- Specifically, to be more consistent and better than the opponents in remaining determined, focused, confident, resilient, and in control under pressure.

Sport psychologists, coaches, sports commentators, sports fans, and athletes acknowledge the importance of mental toughness in sporting performance. In early work on the issue, Loehr (1982, 1986) emphasized that athletes and coaches felt that at least fifty percent of success is due to psychological factors that reflect mental toughness. Similarly, Gould, Hodge, Perterson, and Petlichkoff (1987) emphasized that coaches feel that mental toughness is important in achieving success, while Norris (1999) has emphasized the importance of mental toughness in developing champion athletes. Developing mental toughness is a continuous process that takes both time and dedication.

Despite widespread agreement on the importance and benefits of mental toughness and calls to identify psychological attributes that create champions, high quality research into mental toughness is limited. In one study of mental toughness, Fourie and Potgieter (2001) analysed written responses from 131 expert coaches and 160 elite athletes. Their analysis identified twelve components of mental toughness including: motivation level, coping skills, confidence maintenance, cognitive skill, discipline and goal directedness, competitiveness, possession of prerequisite physical and mental requirements, team unity, preparation skills, psychological hardiness, and ethics. In contrast to Jones et al. (2002), the researchers suggested that further work was needed to finalise a working definition of mental toughness.
Although the previous studies provide insights into the mentally tough performer there are none that attempt to define mental toughness, while also stating sufficiently all the characteristics associated with mental toughness. It has been found that only 9% of coaches have been successful in developing or changing mental toughness in performers they worked with, therefore Jones et al. (2002), and Gould et al. (2002) attempted to clarify how to achieve such goals, and did so with relative success. Through using participants that had achieved full honors and represented their country in the Olympics or commonwealth games, Jones et al. (2002) implemented interview to try and complete a profile for the mentally tough performer. Three stages were carried out in the procedure. In stage 1 the athletes were drawn into a focus group and asked to discuss (a) a definition of mental toughness, and (b) a list of qualities and attributes of the ideal mentally tough performer. In stage 2, individual interviews were carried out on each athlete where they were asked for their definition of mental toughness, views on the focus group definition, and sentiments regarding the attributes associated with mental toughness. Stage 3 involved the researchers independently then collectively reviewing the participants’ comments. The definition and attributes of the ideal mentally tough performer were presented to all participants in the form of questionnaires for agreement rating of definitions and rank-orders of the attributes. Looking at the findings of Thomas et al. (1996) and Scarnati (2000), this definition further supports the idea that mental toughness can be either an innate characteristic or one developed over years of experience. It is also consistent with the notion that mental toughness is an important factor for success. With concern to the attributes characterising mental toughness it is no surprise that Jones et al. (2002) produced a number of attributes that have already been suggested in previous literature. Gould et al. (2002) give rise to similar findings in this sense also with such key words as focus, blocking out distractions, confidence, and coping with and controlling anxiety. All of these characteristics have been commonly reiterated throughout mental toughness studies. We know now the definition and attributes of mental toughness and seen some examples from Olympians, we have not however looked at any seasonal athletes and how they manage to perform week in week out. Gary Player, 63 year old South African golfer was still winning trophies up to the new millennium, his motto is, “The answer is not in the swing; the mind’s the thing”. With this kind of
philosophy its no wonder he has been able to push his game for so long at the highest level. In an interview for publication *psychology today* (Kossoff, 1999), Player talks about some of the previously spoke of established attributes of mental toughness including focus and control under pressure: “you can lose focus ... you’ve got to try and keep a good balance ... just keep punching and plugging , because you’ll be rewarded. Today I was struggling to start with, and ended up with a 70. And I’ve done this so many times in my career.” (Kossoff 1999). This is a prime example of mental toughness, the fact that over and over again he’s found himself in difficult situations but has had the resolve to overcome them again and again. With concern to limitations of research into mental toughness it should be noted how the majority of research is qualitative in nature, this may lead to a number of questions being asked. Firstly due to the nature of the interview techniques used, potential memory bias effects may occur since many of the interviews were not conducted immediately after the athletes successful performance (Gould *et al.* 2002). Although the outcome of mental toughness research has been rich in information the sample sizes used have usually been small, between 10-20 in most cases with no comparison group of say less successful but elite athletes of comparable experience (Jones *et al.* 2002). As to where now for mental toughness, identification of further research can open a number of avenues that need exploring. A big need is for the increase in more scientific investigation of mental toughness. While the qualitative research has provided information regarding the nature of mental toughness, it doesn’t give any values from which in-depth analysis can be produced. Development of a valid instrument to measure mental toughness would be of great possible benefit for athletes lacking in mental toughness. It may also help to spot mental weaknesses of an athlete thus giving them a chance to turn those weaknesses into strengths. Also as suggested in the limitations, a group of comparison athletes would help in determining how they may have differed for the more successful athletes. Could it be to do with such athletes lacking some of the more highly ranked attributes that Jones *et al.* (2002) discuss in their study, or maybe resulting from incorrect application of a coping strategy that has gone unnoticed? One further interesting proposal is from the investigation into coping strategies used by U.S. Olympic wrestlers by Gould et al (1993), and is in reference to the fact that they see coping as a long-term process. This would suggest the implication of conducting
longitudinal research where multiple interviews take place over a season(s), allowing better clarification on coping strategies used, stress reduction and performance. This type of research would also eliminate the limitation of potential memory bias as memory should be able to accurately recall the events of previous performance if interviews are conducted fairly soon afterwards. Finally both Thomas et al. (1996) and Jones et al. (2002) believe that it would be interesting to see how aspects of mental toughness they discovered in their respective sports would differ in athletes of world number one status. This could possibly only show minor differences in these athletes, but the significance of these differences may in fact be of major magnitude.

Mental toughness is arguably one of the most, if not the most important characteristic for success in athletic performance. Mental strength won't compensate for lack of skill, but in close contests it can make the difference between winning and losing. Despite this being known to psychology researchers, performers and coaches alike, a lack of scientific rigor has meant a lack in clarity towards the definitive concept of mental toughness. Just recently researchers have tried to clarify these problems by seeking out a definition for mental toughness while also listing the major characteristics associated with it that previously had been unspecified (Gould et al. 1993b; Jones et al. 2002).

Most recently, Jones et al (2007) conducted a qualitative study of elite athletes, aiming to define mental toughness and to determine the essential attributes required to be a mentally tough performer. The definition that emerged from their analysis concluded that: Mental toughness is having the natural or developed psychological edge that enables you to: 1) Generally, cope better than your opponents with the many demands (competition, training, lifestyle) that sport places on a performer; and, 2) Specifically, be more consistent and better than your opponents in remaining determined, focused, confident, and in control under pressure. They also identified twelve attributes to mental toughness. These attributes include self-belief, an unshakeable focus, high levels of desire and determination (especially at times of distress), and overall consistency of effort and technique despite life and sport stress. The strength of their research is that multiple components of mental toughness
are identified – thus reinforcing the notion that mental toughness is multidimensional.

It has been unsure as to whether mental toughness is an innate characteristic or if it is something that can be developed. Research has now suggested that such characteristics are not solely innately determined but can be a result of deliberate periods of intense, prolonged practice of psychological skills. (Thomas et al. 1996). Scarnati (2000) notes how physical developments can also be emulated in a psychological way, in the belief that just like a body builder developing physical stamina, the development of mental toughness gives mental stamina and resilience to help achieve success. The author further explains how prisoners in World War II that resisted and refused to die did so because they developed the mental toughness to survive. These soldiers were taught that once they mentally give up and let the enemy into their mind they may not only compromise themselves, but fellow prisoners also. Talking about developing mental toughness, Scarnati (2000) uses key words to describe characteristics of mental toughness like desire, making a choice to persist, and having a positive attitude towards yourself and the job you have to do.

Characteristics similar to what Scarnati (2000) found are persistently described by researchers with concern to what the make-up of a mentally tough performer consists of. A number of studies have addressed the coping strategies and the psychological characteristics of Olympic and national representative athletes to try and find out how successful athletes think in order to perform at consistently high standards. This is worth investigating as somehow Olympic athletes find ways to remain focused on an event to the exclusion of negative influences such as unruly crowds, inclement weather and even family problems. (Bauman, 2000). Gould et al (1993b) interviewed 20 U.S. wrestlers who had competed in the 1988 Seoul Olympics to see what coping strategies they used in stressful situations during competition. From analysis of interviews 4 dimensions were established for coping strategies: (a) thought control – examples included blocking distractions and positive thinking, (b) task focus – including focusing on the task at hand and concentrating on their goals, (c) emotional control – for example arousal control and visualisation
techniques, (d) behavioural based strategies – such as following a predetermined routine that help the wrestler to focus his attention. From these findings it was seen that the use of coping strategies is a dynamic process where wrestlers were not limited to using one strategy alone, but rather using a number of strategies, often in combination. They also reflect how the long term development and implementation of coping strategies bring autonomy, making dealing with times of adversity second nature. In the same year, Gould et al (1993a) investigated coping strategies used by national figure skaters. Coping dimensions here included (a) rational thinking and self talk – this being able to focus on what could be controlled and taking a rational perspective of the stressor, dealing with the reality of the situation, (b) positive focus and orientation – skaters being able to think and talk positively, be confident, and turn potentially negative feelings and occurrences into positive ones, (c) social support – seeking out emotional, technical, and informational assistance to stay mentally on top, (d) time management and prioritisation – making time for personal interests, time utilisation and day-to-day goal focus (only pushing for results when it’s necessary), (e) precompetitive mental preparation and anxiety management – consisting of cognitive, physical, and behavioural techniques to cope with competitive stress, (f) training hard and smart – through this you teach yourself to try and get through everything by digging in when it most matters, (g) isolation and deflection – deflecting a stressor by not letting it affect your mental skill, not letting situations of stress bother you, (h) ignoring the stressor(s) – not dealing with a situation of stress straight away and leave it till later.

Mental toughness, as observed by Middletown et al (2004) is multi-dimensional and consists of twelve components, including: self-efficacy, potential, mental self-concept, task familiarity, value, personal bests, goal commitment, perseverance, task focus, positivity, stress minimization, and positive comparisons. Mental toughness is defined as an unshakeable perseverance and conviction towards some goal despite pressure or adversity. This conceptualization of mental toughness a platform from which instruments of measurement can be developed.
Mental toughness requires maintenance. Elite athletes and coaches generally agree that mental toughness develops throughout a player's career and can fluctuate from day to day, season to season, game to game. Proposing a multi-factor 4-dimensional framework that spans attitude, training, competition and post-competition, Jones et al (2007) rank and describe the components of mental toughness. The framework doesn't prohibit friendly conversation with opponents, but it puts attending to mental toughness (which includes total self-awareness and understanding) first. Mentally tough athletes are "more consistent and better than [their] opponents in remaining determined, focused, confident, and in control under pressure" (Jones, 2007). Mental toughness is not the absence of emotion, but the control of emotion; not aggression, but a "killer instinct" that allows a player to "capitalize on the moment when they know they can win."

It is clear that mental toughness concerns an athlete's ability to overcome the adversity they face during high-pressure competition. As Gary Player demonstrates, even when you are a successful athlete this success has arisen because the frustrations and pitfalls that have presented themselves are dealt with effectively and resourcefully. (Gould *et al.* 2002). The road to success is never a walk in the park, this is what athletes need to realise to enable them to build their road to the future.

**EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE**

Emotional intelligence (EI) is a relatively new construct that has gathered momentum due to proposals that measures of EI are related to a number of desirable outcomes, including performance and health. Since the publication of the best selling book Emotional Intelligence by Goleman (1995), the topic of emotional intelligence has witnessed unparalleled interest and programs seeking to increase emotional intelligence have been implemented in numerous settings. But what exactly is emotional intelligence? As is the case with all constructs (i.e. intelligence or personality), several schools of thought exist which aim to most accurately describe and measure the notion of emotional intelligence. At the most general level, emotional intelligence (E.I.) refers to the ability to recognize and regulate emotions in ourselves and others (Goleman, 2001). Salovey and Mayer (1990) who originally used the term...
"emotional intelligence" in their published writing, initially defined emotional intelligence as: "A form of intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions."

Later, these authors revised their definition of emotional intelligence, the current characterization now being the most widely accepted. Emotional intelligence is thus defined as: "The ability to perceive accurately, appraise and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth."

Mayer et al (2000) explained that EI has four skill hierarchical levels that range in complexity in terms of how individuals identify, manage and use emotions. Appraisal and expression (sometimes referred to as perception) of emotion is the lowest skill level. The next level involves evaluating emotional experiences, for example, weighing emotions against one another and against other sensations and thoughts. The third level involves understanding and reasoning about emotions. Each emotion follows its own specific rules. Each emotion changes according to its own characteristic rules; emotional intelligence includes the ability to identify emotions, know how they change, and reason about emotions accordingly. The fourth and highest skill level includes the management and regulation of emotions, such as knowing how to calm down after being really nervous or angry.

Another prominent researcher of the emotional intelligence construct is Reuven Bar-On, the originator of the term "emotion quotient". Possessing a slightly different outlook, he defines emotional intelligence as being concerned with understanding oneself and others, relating to people, and adapting to and coping with the immediate surroundings to be more successful in dealing with environmental demands (Bar-On, 1997). Regardless of the discrepancies between definitions of emotional intelligence, it is clear that what is being referred to is distinct from standard intelligence, or I.Q.
Intelligence quotients (I.Q.’s) were developed and used during the initial part of the 20th century as measures of intelligence. French psychologist Alfred Binet pioneered the modern intelligence testing movement in developing a measure of mental age in children, a chronological age that typically corresponds to a given level of performance (Myers, 1998). More modern studies linked a person’s I.Q. with their potential for success in general (Weschler, 1958) as well as with elements such as leadership success (Lord et al 1986). However, the validity of the general academic measure of I.Q. was soon challenged on the grounds that it did not consider situational factors such as environment or cultural setting when predicting achievement (Riggio et al 2002). Theorists began to hypothesize that perhaps cognitive intelligence as measured by I.Q. tests did not encompass intelligence in its entirety, but that perhaps several types of intelligences could coincide within one person.

Studies have found that El is associated with a number of positive outcomes including academic performance, health, and social support. Brackett et al (2004) found that emotional intelligence related to positive life experiences, in which life experiences was an amalgamated variable. In their study they examined everyday life and El, it was found that there was a high correlation between negative coping skills and low El for men. This was not the case for the women population in the study. The authors suggest that this could be related to the fact that men have problems identifying and expressing emotion (Helmers & Mente, 1999; Taylor et al 1990). A recent meta-analysis focusing on El, found that El correlated positively with general mental ability, agreeableness, openness to experience and extraversion (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004). All of these traits could be suggested to have an important impact on academic achievement and the ability to have success in the work place. Emotional Intelligence may also have an impact with work place experiences. It has been suggested that individuals who had developed emotional intelligence, would be able to communicate better, thus making their intentions more clear. People with El would be well suited to deal with team work due to their advanced social skills. The ability to be attuned to other workers emotions as well as personal emotions and their impact on other workers has been purported to be a very attractive skill for leaders.
Engelberg and Sjoberg (2004) found that Emotional Intelligence, was related quite strongly to social adjustment. Social adjustment apparently seems to benefit from an ability to monitor one's own moods so as not to be out of sync with the social groups that they interact with. This could be considered the ability to self-regulate emotions. Their findings seem to strengthen the idea that emotional perception is essential for adaptation on a social level and thus developing friendships. A study by Antonio (2004) focused on the effects of student friendship groups supports a strong case for the importance of friendship groups and change during a student's college years. He suggested that friendship groups could be thought of as synonymous with membership groups. In these membership groups, the members share a consensual set of norms which are developed through interpersonal interaction. As such EI should play a large part in the ability for a student to gain the most out of these membership groups. The efficacy of high achieving friendship groups on the membership has been found to produce positive effects across different studies (Epstein, 1983; Hallinan, 1983). An influential psychologist in the areas of learning, education, and intelligence, E.L. Thorndike proposed that humans possess several types of intelligence, one form being called social intelligence, or the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls, and to act wisely in human relations (Thorndike, 1920). Even David Wechsler, the originator of the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS) intelligence tests, referred to both non-intellective and intellective elements of intelligence. The non-intellective elements, which included affective, personal, and social factors, he later hypothesized were essential for predicting one's ability to succeed in life (Wechsler, 1940). Later in the century, Howard Gardner again raised the notion of multiple intelligences. A Harvard-educated developmental psychologist, Gardner proposed a theory of multiple intelligences which dictated that individuals possess aptitudes in several areas, including verbal, mathematical, musical, spatial, movement oriented, environmental, intrapersonal (the examination and knowledge of one's own feelings) and interpersonal (the ability to read the moods, intentions, and desires of others) spheres (Myers, 1998). These intelligences were thought by Gardner to be as important as the type of intelligence typically measured by I.Q. tests (Gardner, 1983).
Early theorists such as Thorndike and Gardner paved the way for the current experts in the field of emotional intelligence. Each theoretical paradigm conceptualizes emotional intelligence from one of two perspectives: ability or mixed model. Ability models regard emotional intelligence as a pure form of mental ability and thus as a pure intelligence. In contrast, mixed models of emotional intelligence combine mental ability with personality characteristics such as optimism and well-being (Mayer, 1999). Currently, the only ability model of emotional intelligence is that proposed by Mayer and Salovey (2002). Two mixed models of emotional intelligence have been proposed, each within a somewhat different conception. Bar-On (2002) has put forth a model based within the context of personality theory, emphasizing the co-dependence of the ability aspects of emotional intelligence with personality traits and their application to personal well-being. In contrast, Daniel Goleman proposed a mixed model in terms of performance, integrating an individual's abilities and personality and applying their corresponding effects on performance in the workplace (Goleman, 2001).

Salovey and Mayer: An Ability Model of Emotional Intelligence

Salovey & Mayer (1990) in their pure theory of emotional intelligence integrates key ideas from the fields of intelligence and emotion. From intelligence theory comes the idea that intelligence involves the capacity to carry out abstract reasoning. From emotion research comes the notion that emotions are signals that convey regular and discernable meanings about relationships and that at a number of basic emotions are universal (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002). They propose that individuals vary in their ability to process information of an emotional nature and in their ability to relate emotional processing to a wider cognition. They then posit that this ability is seen to manifest itself in certain adaptive behaviours (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000).

Mayer and Salovey's (1990) conception of emotional intelligence is based within a model of intelligence, that is, it strives to define emotional intelligence within the confines of the standard criteria for a new intelligence (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2003). It proposes that emotional intelligence is comprised of two areas: experiential (ability to perceive, respond,
and manipulate emotional information without necessarily understanding it) and strategic (ability to understand and manage emotions without necessarily perceiving feelings well or fully experiencing them). Each area is further divided into two branches that range from basic psychological processes to more complex processes integrating emotion and cognition. The first branch, emotional perception, is the ability to be self-aware of emotions and to express emotions and emotional needs accurately to others. Emotional perception also includes the ability to distinguish between honest and dishonest expressions of emotion. The second branch, emotional assimilation, is the ability to distinguish among the different emotions one is feeling and to identify those that are influencing their thought processes.

The third branch, emotional understanding, is the ability to understand complex emotions (such as feeling two emotions at once) and the ability to recognize transitions from one to the other. Lastly, the fourth branch, emotion management, is the ability to connect or disconnect from an emotion depending on its usefulness in a given situation (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

**Bar-On: A Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence**

The director of the Institute of Applied Intelligences in Denmark and consultant for a variety of institutions and organizations in Israel, Reuven Bar-On developed one of the first measures of emotional intelligence that used the term "Emotion Quotient". Bar-On's model of emotional intelligence relates to the potential for performance and success, rather than performance or success itself, and is considered process-oriented rather than outcome-oriented (Bar-On, 2002). It focuses on an array of emotional and social abilities, including the ability to be aware of, understand, and express oneself, the ability to be aware of, understand, and relate to others, the ability to deal with strong emotions, and the ability to adapt to change and solve problems of a social or personal nature (Bar-On, 1997). In his model, Bar-On outlines 5 components of emotional intelligence: intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, stress management, and general mood. Within these components are sub-components Bar-On posits that emotional intelligence develops over time and that it can be improved through training, programming, and therapy (Bar-On, 2002).
Bar-On hypothesizes that those individuals with higher than average E.Q.’s are in general more successful in meeting environmental demands and pressures. He also notes that a deficiency in emotional intelligence can mean a lack of success and the existence of emotional problems. Problems in coping with one’s environment is thought, by Bar-On, to be especially common among those individuals lacking in the subscales of reality testing, problem solving, stress tolerance, and impulse control. In general, Bar-On considers emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence to contribute equally to a person’s general intelligence, which then offers an indication of one’s potential to succeed in life (Bar-On, 2002).

Goleman: A Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence

Daniel Goleman, a psychologist and science writer who has previously written on brain and behaviour research for the New York Times, discovered the work of Salovey and Mayer in the 1990’s. Inspired by their findings, he began to conduct his own research in the area and eventually wrote Emotional Intelligence (1995), the landmark book which familiarized both the public and private sectors with the idea of emotional intelligence. Goleman’s model outlines four main emotional intelligence constructs. The first, self-awareness, is the ability to read one’s emotions and recognize their impact while using gut feelings to guide decisions. Self-management, the second construct, involves controlling one’s emotions and impulses and adapting to changing circumstances. The third construct, social awareness, includes the ability to sense, understand, and react to other’s emotions while comprehending social networks. Finally, relationship management, the fourth construct, entails the ability to inspire, influence, and develop others while managing conflict (Goleman, 1998).

Goleman includes a set of emotional competencies within each construct of emotional intelligence. Emotional competencies are not innate talents, but rather learned capabilities that must be worked on and developed to achieve outstanding performance. Goleman posits that individuals are born with a general emotional intelligence that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies. The organization of the competencies under the various constructs is not random; they appear in synergistic clusters or
groupings that support and facilitate each other. The constructs and competencies fall under one of four categories: the recognition of emotions in oneself or others and the regulation of emotion in oneself or others.

Despite the existence of three distinct models of emotional intelligence, there are theoretical and statistical similarities between the various conceptions. On a global level, all of the models aim to understand and measure the elements involved in the recognition and regulation of one’s own emotions and the emotions of others (Goleman, 2001). All models agree that there are certain key components to emotional intelligence, and there is even some consensus on what those components are. For example, all three models of emotional intelligence implicate the awareness (or perception) of emotions and the management of emotions as being key elements in being an emotionally intelligent individual.

A relationship between elements of the models has been established through statistical analyses. As outlined in the descriptions of the measures of emotional intelligence, there is evidence that different measures of emotional intelligence are related and may be measuring similar components. Brackett and Mayer (2003) found significant similarities between the regulation of emotion subscale of the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test and the interpersonal EQ scale of the Bar-On Emotion Quotient Inventory. Considerable similarities have been found between self-report measures of emotional intelligence. Brackett and Mayer (2003) found that two self-report measures, the Emotion Quotient Inventory and the Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test, were highly correlated (r = .43). However, no relation between the two measures could be found when personality and positive well-being were controlled for, suggesting that while the two measures share variance, this variance may be attributable not to the measurement of emotional intelligence but to the measurement of other factors.

**Emotional Intelligence and Personality**

Personality, one’s characteristic pattern of thinking, feeling, and acting (Myers, 1998), has been explored using a variety of theories including psychoanalytic, humanistic, social-cognitive, and trait theory. One of the most
predominant and well accepted personality theories, trait theory attempts to explain personality in terms of the dynamics that underlie behaviour. Traits are characteristic patterns of behaviour or dispositions to feel and act in a certain way which distinguish one person from the next. They are hypothesized to be consistent and stable across a lifetime, acting as a type of template for an individual’s behaviour (Myers, 1998).

Several trait theorists have proposed models of personality based on the factor analyses of traits expressed through personality inventories. For example, Hans and Sybil Eysenck’s model of personality outlined two genetically influenced dimensions of personality: introversion-extroversion and stability-instability (Myers, 1998). A more recent, and more widely accepted trait model is the “Big Five” Personality Factor Model.

The Big Five Personality Factor Model, often called the “Big Five” or the “Five Factor Model”, is an empirically derived model of personality based on the early work on traits by Gordon Allport, Raymond Cattell, and Hans and Sybil Eysenck. It proposes that personality can be factored into five dimensions: neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. Further, it proposes that each individual falls between the two extremes of each dimension. Neuroticism contrasts elements of emotional stability with those of negative emotionality. Extraversion implies an energetic approach to the world as opposed to a passive approach, while openness examines an individual’s openness to experiences versus their level of close-mindedness. Agreeableness seeks to measure whether one has a prosocial, co-operative orientation towards others or if they act with antagonism. Lastly, conscientiousness includes the control of impulses which facilitates tasks and other goal-directed behaviour (Hergenhahn & Olson, 1999).

The relationship between emotional intelligence and personality has been heavily discussed in the literature. Several models of emotional intelligence are closely tied with personality theory, specifically the mixed models of Bar-On and Goleman. Both models list components and sub-components of their theory of emotional intelligence which are similar to areas which have been previously studied under personality theory. Bar-On’s sub-components of assertiveness, interpersonal effectiveness, empathy, impulse
control, social responsibility, and reality testing have all been considered parts of personality, and are consequently measured as such by popular personality inventories. For example, the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) contains scales that include self-assurance, interpersonal effectiveness, self-acceptance, self-control, flexibility, and empathy. Likewise, several of Goleman’s competencies, including empathy, self-control, and self-confidence are areas which have been extensively researched in personality psychology (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000).

**Emotional Intelligence and Leadership**

One of the most applied constructs which emotional intelligence has been associated with is that of leadership. The leadership literature has produced countless theories outlining which characteristics compose the most effective leader, however, current academic research in the area describes two distinct types of leaders: transformational and transactional (Mandell & Pherwani, 2003). The transformational leader stimulates interest among colleagues, inspires a different outlook on the work, generates an awareness of the goals of the organization, develops others to higher levels of ability, and motivates others to consider the interests of the group over their own interests. Along these lines, transformational leadership is said to be comprised of the following four dimensions: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Alternatively, the transactional leader is one whom rewards (or disciplines) staff on the basis of their performance. They emphasize work standards, task completion, and employee compliance while relying heavily on organizational rewards and punishments to influence employee performance (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Researchers investigating the effects of transformational and transactional leadership have found that transformational leadership predict higher ratings of effectiveness and satisfaction (Hater & Bass, 1988), higher group performance (Keller, 1995), and higher amount of effort on the part of subordinates (Seltzer & Bass, 1990) compared to transactional leadership. Researchers in the area of leadership have likewise proposed that effective transformational leaders must possess social and emotional intelligence. These
elements are considered critical to inspire employees and to build strong relationships. Research comparing emotional intelligence and transformational leadership has consistently found positive correlations between the two constructs. In a study examining transformational leadership and emotional intelligence in 32 individuals in management positions, Mandell and Pherwani (2003) found that level of emotional intelligence (as measured by the Bar-On Emotion Quotient Inventory) was significantly related to transformational leadership style ($R = .50$).

The foremost contributor to the area of emotional intelligence and leadership is Daniel Goleman, who has written several books on implementing emotional intelligence in an organization, including *Working with Emotional Intelligence* (1998) and *The Emotionally Intelligent Workplace* (2001). Goleman posits that leaders high in emotional intelligence are key to organizational success; leaders must have the capacity to sense employees' feelings about their work environments, to intervene when problems arise, to manage their own emotions in order to gain the trust of the employees, and to understand the political and social conventions within an organization (Goleman, 2001). In addition, a leader has the capacity to impact organizational performance by setting a particular work climate. Goleman outlines six distinct leadership styles and how they affect the climate of the organization (see Figure 3). Each style is characterized by a number of the emotional intelligence competencies outlined in Goleman's model, and each may be effective in an organizational setting, depending on the situation at hand.

Research has found that the most effective leaders integrate four or more of the six styles regularly, substituting one for another more appropriate style depending on the leadership situation. This has been found to be the case in studies of insurance companies, where leaders were adept at all four of the positive styles of leadership, and at schools, where heads of schools who used four or more of the leadership styles experienced superior performance among students compared to comparison schools. Performance was poorest in those schools were only one or two styles of leadership were used (Hay/McBer, 2000).
Gender Differences in Emotional Intelligence

Competing evidence exists surrounding whether or not males and females differ significantly in general levels of emotional intelligence. Daniel Goleman (1998) asserts that no gender differences in E.I. exist, admitting that while men and women may have different profiles of strengths and weaknesses in different areas of emotional intelligence, their overall levels of E.I. are equivalent. However, studies by Mayer and Geher (1996), and Mandell and Pherwani (2003) have found that women are more likely to score higher on measures of emotional intelligence than men, both in professional and personal settings.

The discrepancy may be due to measurement choice. Brackett and Mayer (2003) found that females scored higher than males on E.I. when measured by a performance measure (the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test). However, when using self-report measures such as the Bar-On Emotion Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) and the Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT), they found no evidence for gender differences. Perhaps gender differences exist in emotional intelligence only when one defines E.I. in a purely cognitive manner rather than through a mixed perspective. It could also be the case that gender differences do exist but measurement artifacts such as over-estimation of ability on the part of males are more likely to occur with self-report measures. More research is required to determine whether or not gender differences do exist in emotional intelligence.

Applicability of Emotional Intelligence to Everyday Living

Several studies have found that emotional intelligence can have a significant impact on various elements of everyday living. Palmer, Donaldson, and Stough (2002) found that higher emotional intelligence was a predictor of life satisfaction. They reported that people higher in emotional intelligence were also more likely to use an adaptive defense style and thus exhibited healthier psychological adaptation. Performance measures of emotional intelligence have illustrated that higher levels of E.I. are associated with an increased likelihood of attending to health and appearance, positive interactions with friends and family, and owning objects that are reminders of their loved ones (Brackett, Mayer, & Warner, in press). Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (1998)
found that higher emotional intelligence correlated significantly with higher parental warmth and attachment style, while others found that those scoring high in E.I. also reported increased positive interpersonal relationships among children, adolescents, and adults (Rice, 1999; Rubin, 1999).

Negative relationships have likewise been identified between emotional intelligence and problem behaviour. Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (2000) found that lower emotional intelligence was associated with lower self-reports of violent and trouble-prone behaviour among college students, a correlation which remained significant even when the effects of intelligence and empathy were partialed out. Lower emotional intelligence (as measured by the MSCEIT) has been significantly associated with owning more self-help books (Brackett et al., in press), higher use of illegal drugs and alcohol, as well as increased participation in deviant behaviour (i.e. involvement in physical fights and vandalism). No gender differences were observed for these associations (Trinidad & Johnson, 2002; Brackett and Mayer, 2003).

Are Individuals with High E.I. More Successful?

Research on the predictive significance of E.I. over I.Q. was spurred by Goleman's initial publication on the topic which claimed that emotional intelligence could be "as powerful, and at times more powerful, than I.Q." (Goleman, 1995). Much of this claim was based on past research revealing that the predictive nature of I.Q. on job performance was not promising, with I.Q. accounting from 10-25% of the variance in job performance (Hunter & Hunter, 1984; Sternburg, 1996). The results of longitudinal studies further implicated emotional intelligence as being important. One study involving 450 boys reported that I.Q. had little relation to workplace and personal success; rather, more important in determining their success was their ability to handle frustration, control emotions, and get along with others (Snarey & Vaillant, 1985). Although this study did not attend to emotional intelligence directly, the elements which it addressed (the ability to regulate one’s emotions and understand the emotions of others) are some of the central tenants of the emotional intelligence construct.
While research exists supporting the contention that emotional intelligence does contribute to individual cognitive-based performance over and above the level attributed to general intelligence (Lam & Kirby, 2002), current theories tend to be more judicious regarding the incremental benefits of E.Q. over I.Q. Both Goleman (1998) and Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (1998) emphasize that emotional intelligence by itself is probably not a strong predictor of job performance. Instead, it provides a foundation for emotional competencies which are strong predictors of job performance.

In later work, Goleman (2001) attempted to theoretically clarify the relationship between I.Q. and E.Q., and their respective applicability to job performance. He describes I.Q. as playing a sorting function, determining the types of jobs individuals are capable of holding. He theorizes that I.Q. is a strong predictor of what jobs individuals can enter as well as a strong predictor of success among the general population as a whole. For example, in order to become a medical doctor, an individual requires an above average I.Q. Emotional intelligence, on the other hand, is described by Goleman as a stronger predictor of who will excel in a particular job when levels of I.Q. are relatively equal. When the individuals are being compared to a narrow pool of people in a particular job in a certain organization, specifically in the higher levels, the predictive power of I.Q. for outstanding performance among them weakens greatly. In this circumstance, E.Q. would be the stronger predictor of individuals who outperform others. Thus, the doctors in a particular clinic would all have similarly above average I.Q.'s. Goleman would hypothesize that what would distinguish the most successful doctors from the others would be their levels of emotional intelligence.

**SELF ESTEEM**

Self-esteem is a powerful force within each one of us. It encompasses much more than that innate sense of self-worth which presumably is our human birthright—that spark that we who are psychotherapists or teachers seek to fan in those we work with. That spark is only the anteroom to self-esteem.

All over the world today there is an awakening to the importance of self-esteem. We recognize that just as a human being cannot hope to realize his or
her potential without healthy self-esteem, neither can a society whose members do not value themselves and do not trust their minds.

Self-esteem is the experience that we are appropriate to life and to the requirements of life. More specifically, self-esteem is:

1. Confidence in our ability to think and to cope with the basic challenges of life.

2. Confidence in our right to be happy, the feeling of being worthy, deserving, entitled to assert our needs and wants and to enjoy the fruits of our efforts.

Self-esteem is the judgment one makes about one’s capacity to cope with the basic challenges of life, such as thinking, learning, deciding and responding adequately to change. It means having confidence in the efficacy of your mind. If one is not confident in his capacity to evaluate reality (perceiving and thinking about it), one will tend to rely on the opinion of other people and will repudiate his own perceptions.

Self-esteem is more than just a warm feeling about oneself. It is a cognitive attitude and it entails to operate with responsibility. To evaluate the consequences of your actions, you must take reality into account. If you neglect reality, you are not in conditions to evaluate the outcome of your actions and, hence, you are not acting with responsibility. It can be learned to operate one’s mind having reality on focus—which means to live consciously. However, if one regularly pain as a result of being conscious, one may choose not to be conscious. Living consciously means to seek any information that may be important to your values and goals. It also means trying to understand yourself, so that you do not act against your interest.

To be able to build a high self-esteem one must adopt a series a behaviors that include avoiding the repudiation of his own self. If one pays excessive attention to other people’s opinions and values, one may end denying one’s thoughts and emotions, replacing whatever could be one’s goals with the goals of other people.
By choosing your goals and selecting the actions necessary to reach them, you can create the conditions to build self-esteem whether or not the goals are accomplished. It is better to fail trying to achieve goals that one set than to succeed in achieving goals set by the others. The same apply to standing up for your ideas in appropriate ways and appropriate contexts as opposed to faking the reality of who you are in order to avoid disapproval.

The relationships between self-evaluation, effort, and reevaluation of the self suggest a cyclic aspect to the dynamics of self-esteem. Harter (1983) asserts that the term self-worth is frequently used to refer to aspects of motivation and moods. High self-esteem is associated with a mood of cheerfulness, feelings of optimism, and relatively high energy. Low self-esteem is accompanied by feelings of doubt about one's worth and acceptability, and with feeling forlorn, morose, or even-sad. Such feelings may be accompanied by relatively low energy and weak motivation, invariably resulting in low effort. In contrast, high self-esteem is associated with high energy, which increases effectiveness and competence, which in turn strengthen feeling of self-esteem and self-wroth. In this way, feelings about oneself constitute a recursive cycle such that the feelings arising from self-appraisal tend to produce behaviour that strengthens those feelings—both positive and negative.

Self-esteem as a ratio that is found by dividing one's successes in areas of life that the important to a given individual by the failures in them or one's "success/pretensions" (James, 1890). A problem with this approach is that making self-esteem contingent upon success means that it is inherently unstable because failure can occur at any moment (Crocker and Park, 2004). In the mind 1960s Maurice Rosenberg and social learning theorists defined self-esteem in terms of a stable sense of personal worth or worthiness that can be measured by self-report testing. This approach became the most frequently used definition but now it is known that feeling good about oneself in healthy ways is difficult to differentiate from such things as narcissism (Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996). Branden (1960) defined self-esteem as a Relationship between one's competence and one's worthiness. Self-esteem as the result of dealing with challenges of living in a way that is worthy or respectable and
doing so consistently over time. This two-factor approach, as it to be capable of
dealing with limits of defining self-esteem primarily in terms of competence or
worth alone (Mruk, 2006).

Self-esteem is a widely used concept both in popular language and in
psychology. It refers to an individual's sense of his or her value or worth, or the
extent to which a person values, approves of, appreciates, prizes, or likes him
or herself (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991). The most broad and frequently cited
definition of self-esteem within psychology is Rosenberg's (1965), who
described it as a favorable or unfavorable attitude toward the self.

Self-esteem is generally considered the evaluative component of the
self-concept, a broader representation of the self that includes cognitive and
behavioral aspects as well as evaluative aspects as well as evaluative or
affective ones (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991). While the construct is most often
used to refer to a global sense of self-worth, narrower concepts such as self-
confidence or body-esteem are used to imply a sense of self-esteem in more
specific domains. It is also widely assumed that self-esteem functions as a trait,
that is, it is stable across time within individuals. Self-esteem is an extremely
popular construct within psychology, and has been related to virtually every
other psychological concept or domain, including personality (e.g., shyness),
behavioral (e.g., task performance), cognitive (e.g., attribution bias), and clinical
concepts (e.g., anxiety and depression). While some researchers have been
particularly concerned with understanding the nuances of the self-esteem
construct, others have focused on the adaptive and self-protective functions of

Self-esteem has traditionally been considered an indication of mental
and social life adjustment and a mediator of behavior (Harter, 1989; Marsh,
1993). Research has shown that self-esteem is associated with many positive
achievements and social-related behaviors including leadership ability,
satisfaction, decreased anxiety, and improved academic and physical
performance (Fox, 1992). Current self-esteem theory emphasizes the multi
dimensionality of self-esteem, recognizing that people have different
perceptions of themselves in different capacities (Harter, 1985; Marsh &
Shavelson, 1985). Thus, self-perceptions in different domains are thought to contribute to an overall and more global sense of self-esteem (Harter, 1978; 1989).

Self-esteem is considered to be a psychological benefit of participation in physical activity (Sonstroem, 1984), and perceptions of self-concept in the physical domain are considered to be an important factor in determining levels of global self-worth (Fox, 1992). However, early research was limited by measurement difficulties in that no instruments clearly measured physical self-concept, or distinguished it from any of the other domains of global self-esteem (Shavelson, Hubner, & Stanton, 1976). This led to the development of several multidimensional, hierarchical physical self-concept instruments including the Physical Self-Perception Profile (Fox & Corbin, 1989).

The Physical Self-Perception Profile (Fox & Corbin, 1989) is based on a hierarchical, multidimensional theoretical model of self-esteem, in which self-perceptions can be categorized as superordinate (i.e., global self-esteem), domain (i.e., physical self-worth), subdomain (i.e., body attractiveness), facet (i.e., figure/physique), subfacet (i.e., slim waistline) and state (i.e., I feel trim today). Self-perceptions are general and enduring at the top of the hierarchy and increasingly specific and unstable at lower levels. The model holds that the extent to which we feel good about ourselves physically will contribute to how we feel about ourselves in general. Physical self-worth is proposed to mediate the relationship between specific physical self-perceptions and general feelings of self-esteem. The PSPP model holds that physical self-worth (general feelings of pride, satisfaction, happiness, and confidence in the physical self) is formed through the contribution of four types of physical self-perceptions: perceptions of physical conditioning and fitness (conditioning, stamina, fitness, ability to maintain exercise, confidence in exercise setting), perceptions of body attractiveness (attractive physique, ability to maintain an attractive body, confidence in appearance), perceptions of physical strength (perceived strength, muscular development, confidence in situations requiring strength) and perceptions of sport competence (athletic ability, ability to learn sport, confidence in sport).
Initial evidence supporting the validity and reliability of the PSPP was demonstrated with a large sample of American college-age students (Fox & Corbin, 1989). A positive relationship existed between PSPP subdomain scales and physical self-worth, and there was a positive association between physical self-worth and global self-esteem. When physical self-worth was removed through partial correlation analysis the majority of relationships that existed among PSPP subdomains and global self-esteem were extinguished. This provided evidence of the mediating influence of physical self-worth and its role as a superordinate variable for the PSPP subdomains. The model has also been similarly validated cross-culturally with British college-age subjects (Page, Ashford, Fox, & Biddle, 1993), and among U.S. adults (Sonstroem, Speliotis & Fava, 1992; Sonstroem, Harlow, & Josephs, 1994).

Fox and Corbin (1989) found acceptable factor validity for the four subdomain scales as well as similar factor patterns for males and females. In support of the hierarchical model Fox and Corbin (1989) found that the relationship between global self-esteem and physical self-worth was stronger than any of the relationships between global self-esteem and the subdomain scales, that each of the subdomain scales were more strongly correlated with physical self-worth than with global self-esteem, and that correlations between the subdomain scales and global self-esteem were largely reduced when physical self-worth was controlled. Further, Sonstroem et al., (1994) reported that each of the subdomains contributed unique variance among a sample of adult aerobic dancers, and Biddle et al (1993) reported that all of the subdomains except PSPP sport competence for boys contributed unique variance in a sample of British children.

Based on motivation theories which hold that people are drawn towards activities in which they can demonstrate a high degree of skill or competence (e.g., Harter, 1978; Nicholls, 1984), it follows that physical self-perceptions should be positively related to levels of physical activity. Further these relations should be stronger than global self-esteem - physical activity relations. Fox and Corbin (1989) found that the physical strength, sport competence, and conditioning subscales discriminated between active and nonactive males and females and that the subscales were closely associated with logically related
physical activities. Sonstroem et al. (1992) reported that physical conditioning self-perception was the strongest predictor of exercisers and nonexercisers and the degree of physical activity participation in adults. Sonstroem et al. (1994) found that physical activity in adult female aerobic dancers was positively related to physical conditioning self-perceptions. However, none of these studies provided evidence for the reliability and validity of their physical activity measure nor did they report relationships among activity, global self-esteem and physical self-worth.

An important consideration in the study of self-esteem is gender differences. Schwalbe and Staples (1991) argued that gender differences in self-esteem may be expected for several reasons including sex role socialization of esteem-enhancing skills, cultural expectations of what behavior is considered competent, and the availability of valued opportunities to demonstrate competent behavior. Research with the PSPP has indicated that men score consistently higher than women on all aspects of physical self-perceptions (Fox & Corbin, 1989; Sonstroem et al., 1992). Fox and Corbin found similar factor structures for the four PSPP subdomains for both genders. However, given that men and women may use different sources and have dissimilar opportunities to enhance self-esteem, it is possible there will be differences in that the relationship among self-esteem constructs across levels and in relationships with other constructs such as physical activity.

SPORTS PERSONALITY

For decades, psychologists attempted to identify personality traits that distinguished athletes in one sport from those in another (and from non-athletes). Using American psychologist Raymond Cattell’s Personality Factor Questionnaire and a battery of other paper-and-pencil inventories, researchers came to contradictory results. Beyond the fact that athletes are more physically active than non-athletes and the equally obvious fact that athletes drawn to individual sports score higher on “autonomy” and “independence” than athletes devoted to team sports, there was little consensus on “the athletic personality.” If one controls for social class, athletes tend to be like non-athletes and all athletes, regardless of sport, tend to be very much like one another.
Studies of the "athletic personality" have become rare, but studies of motivation and aggression have increased in number and have become increasingly multi-factored and sophisticated. Early studies of motivation, often inspired by the work of American psychologists David McClelland and John Atkinson, examined the relationship between the need for achievement and the fear of failure. Female athletes proved to be a special problem. For a number of years, their lower levels of motivation were explained as a fear that athletic success came at the cost of diminished femininity. This fear was, in turn, explained as the result of role conflict. A woman's fervent interest in sports might be perceived as an expression of a masculine nature or lesbianism; psychological tests such as American psychologist Sandra Bem's Sex Role Inventory routinely classified female athletes as "masculine" because they scored high on scales for competition and aggressiveness.

By the end of the century, however, in Europe and North America greater social acceptance of intensely competitive female athletes more or less eliminated role conflict and the "fear of success." At the recreational level as well as the elite level, recent studies have shown conclusively that sports participation generally leads to increased, rather than diminished, self-esteem for girls and women as well as for boys and men.

In their book *Problem Athletes and How to Handle Them*, Ogilvie and Tutko (1966) attempted to apply motivational principles to improve sports performance. Their widely used Athletic Motivation Inventory was designed to measure personality traits, such as leadership and mental toughness, conducive to athletic achievement. Other psychologists have explored a variety of techniques, including meditation, mental imaging, and even hypnosis, to lessen anxiety or control arousal or improve concentration. Still other psychologists have sought to enhance performance by studying the dynamics of small-group interaction and the relative efficacy of different coaching and leadership styles.

Gender accounts for some of the observed differences. Although female athletes are increasingly similar psychologically to male athletes, they continue to respond more readily than men do to encouragement and to react more negatively than men do to admonition. Cultural differences, which sports
psychologists sometimes neglect, are also important. Cultural differences also play an important role when the stage is set for pharmacological intervention. The more authoritarian the culture is, the more likely it has been that coaches will demand that elite athletes use performance-enhancing drugs, such as anabolic steroids, and abjure recreational drugs, such as cocaine. The motivation for recreational sports is unquestionably different from the motivation at the elite level. Recreational and elite athletes share a common desire to improve their skills and to win, rather than lose, a contest. Both are likely to value the social pleasures of team membership and to experience the moments of ecstatic fulfillment that some psychologists refer to as “flow.” There are, however, important differences in the kind and intensity of their motivation. Material rewards figure, of course, among the motives of openly professional athletes, but, even when economic motives are not in play, elite athletes are a breed apart. They are likely to feel themselves to be representatives of their nation (or of some other collectivity). Standing on the victor’s podium and watching one’s national flag rise to the strains of one’s national anthem can motivate as strongly as the prospect of signing a million-dollar contract (and the first frequently leads to the second). When inspired by a combination of economic and representational motives, elite athletes can reach almost unimaginable levels of athletic performance, but they are also liable to develop a win-at-all-costs attitude that motivates them to use performance-enhancing drugs, to commit intentional fouls, and to risk lifelong physical disability by “playing hurt” (continuing to compete despite a serious injury).

This disregard for one’s health is perhaps the most important motivational difference between the elite and the recreational athlete. For the latter, a principal motive for sports participation (and for visits to an aerobics class or a fitness centre) is a desire to improve one’s health and to shape one’s body into closer conformity to contemporary ideals of physical attractiveness. For the former, the physical self is frequently jeopardized and sometimes sacrificed on the altar of sports success.

The growing knowledge about aptitude, abilities, and skills has just begun to explain performance differences, in terms of depending to some extent on the individual’s unique and personal and behavioral dispositions. Such dispositions that an individual brings to a performance are not fully
understood, neither as to the nature of the predisposition nor as to the predictive value. This is not surprising, given that the field of personality trait theories within psychology is a complex and imprecise science. Yet these theories purport to deal with such issues as the permanence of personality states, the effects of cognitive and perceptual styles, the nature of motivation, and the individual's mode of interpreting learning experiences. The physical education literature dealing with personality factors and their effects on performance is heavy with implied and stated links between personality development and involvement in appropriately conducted programs of planned physical activity, games, dance, and sport.

Why do some people enjoy playing sport and others avoid physical activity, especially when it is competitive? Are those who prefer individual sports, such as swimming or marathon, more self-sufficient and less group-oriented in other life pursuits than those who only play sport as part of a team? Is it likely that our choice of sport or exercise activity — as well as our ultimate achievements in it — may be linked to certain personal characteristics, such as extraversion, emotionality or self-esteem? Such questions have inspired research about the role of personality in sport for over 40 years. Their intuitive appeal, coupled with the relative transparency and accessibility of personality measurement instruments, has generated one of the most prolific research streams in sport psychology ranging from investigations of the choice of sport.

Is there a relationship between personality type and sport preference? How do people choose the sport they participate in? Would it be a matter of personality preference? Are certain personality types more attracted to certain sports, like in careers? Why some people prefer individual sports over team sports? What do basketball players have in common?

In order to answer questions related to athletes' personality type, and to examine the relationship between personality types, sport preferences and performance, team and individual athletes' it becomes imperative to construct their personality profiles.

Benefits of Understanding the Personality Profile of Athletes:
1. Helps assess the fit between persons and sports and even positions on a team

2. Helps athletes and coaches value their strengths and become more aware of those areas in which development may be warranted

3. Helps coaches and athletes in a strained relationship analyze the source of the conflict and build a strategy to reduce it

4. Can lead to motivated and committed behavior

5. Useful for the athlete and sports professional in career and life planning, self-management (such as stress/time management) and interpersonal skills areas


The search for a possible personality profile for high-level athletes has always been one of the main objectives for researchers, and this fact led this population to be studied and compared with non-athlete samples. In this context, Auweele et al (2001) assure that the definition, identification and measurement of the predictable behavior functionality of athletes are extremely important in the sports psychology, justifying studies that attempt to distinguish athletes from other populations. Several personality concepts are found in the scientific literature on the topic. It is observed in works of Butt (1987), Cox (1994) and Weinberg and Gould (1995) some personality similarities when pointed to a definition based on the set of psychological characteristics that, altogether, compose the single character of each individual. Demonstrating the complexity of the topic, Allport (in Cox, 1994) defined personality as “the dynamic organization of the individual’s psychophysical systems that determine unique adjustments to his environment”. More recently, Hernández-Ardieta et al (2005) defined personality as the “organization more or less stable and lasting of the character, mood, intelligence and physical composition of an individual who determines his particular way to adjust himself to environment and to interact with it”. The presence not only of psychological characteristics related to personality, but also of physical aspects are observed, corroborating the complexity of this study topic.
Since the decade of 1970, many studies comparing athletes and non-athletes were performed (Backmand et al, 2001; Dobosz and Beaty, 1999; Fletcher and Dowell, 1971; Frederick, 2000; Stephens, 2001; Stoner and Bandy, 1977). This type of psychological characteristics comparison between athletes and non-athletes including athletes from team and individual sports has always been emphasized in these studies. However, Weinberg and Gould (1995) and Saint-Phard et al (1999) indicate that researches involving these populations are still incomplete and inconclusive and what distinguishes athletes from non-athletes is not a single profile, once the differences between groups are not consistent. This characteristic seems to be constant in personality studies, demonstrating that this area is still an open field full of questions to be explored. With regard to researches on the topic, the existence of a personality profile of the competitive athlete has been matter of many controversies among researchers. Vealey (1992) already assured the inexistence of a personality profile for athletes, once there are no distinguishable differences between athletes and non-athletes, fact also corroborated by Guillén and Castro (1994). Auweele et al (1991) performed a meta-analysis and verified that athletes are not different from non-athletes with regard to extroversion in three different instruments (16 PF, EPI and EPQ), becoming a robust result for personality researches. Unlike the authors mentioned above, Butt (1987), Cox (1994) and Saint-Phard et al (1999) reported that the competitive athlete presents some psychological characteristics that distinguish him from other populations. Among these differences, the authors consider that athletes present higher emotional stability, extroversion, self-confidence and present higher mental resistance if compared with non-athletes. Maresh et al (1991) compared a group of runners with a group of non-athletes. The results indicated that these athletes were more withdrawn, thoughtful and presented lower anger levels than nonathletes. With a sample of similar characteristics, however using the POMS (Profile of Mood States) questionnaire, Morgan and Costill (1996) concluded that athletes presented a better iceberg profile, also presenting lower levels of tension, depression, anger, fatigue and mental confusion than non-athletes.
In short, athletes presented more positive characteristics than non-athletes. Weinberg and Gould (1995) and Backmand et al (2001) intended to compare different groups of athletes with non-athletes so that possible differences could be better understood due to largeness of the athletes population. The first authors reported that team athletes were characterized by being more extroverted and dependent on the group and presented lower indication of the ego orientation. Athletes of individual sports also demonstrated to be more dependent from a group than non-athletes; however, they were distinguished by higher objectivity and lower anxiety levels. The findings of Backmand et al (2001) corroborated that athletes are different from non-athletes, but the psychological qualities are common to some groups of athletes and not to athletes as a whole. Other subgroups were also investigated. Comparing the athlete with non-athlete woman, Weinberg and Gould (1995) and Hernandez-Ardieta et al (2005) demonstrated that the athletes are more aggressive, independent, emotionally more stable and more concentrated in work than non-athletes. Using the methodology of comparing ex-athletes with non-athletes, Backmand et al (2001) verified that not many differences were observed with regard to variables extroversion and hostility, unlike some studies previously presented. A difference was found in the lower neuroticism level of non-athletes. Other result to be presented was the study by Dobosz and Beaty (1999) that indicated that athletes presented higher leadership ability than non-athletes. This demonstrates the large amount of variables studied. Analyzing groups of athletes and comparing them with non-athletes, they found that runners presented lower stress, depression and anger levels; that team sports athletes were less neurotic and that endurance athletes were more extroverted than non-athletes.

In the last few years, researchers have performed comparisons between groups of athletes and non-athletes. Kitsantas and Zimmerman (2002) compared groups of volleyball players with non-athletes in the self-regulatory process during the practice of physical activity. Dineen (2003) investigated the personality of athletes and non-athletes who presented higher indexes of neuroticism and lower indexes of extroversion. In another study, Lernieux et al (2002) verified no aggressiveness differences between athletes and non-
athletes. Based on the studies presented, one observes that there are several differences between athletes and non-athletes. However, there is a small consistence due to the large diversity of variables studied and especially due to the difficulty to group athletes and non-athletes into a single group.

Personality is the individual's unique psychological makeup or, more formally, the underlying, relatively stable, psychological structures and processes that organize human experience and shape a person's actions and reactions to the environment. One can describe personality as the sum total or overall pattern of such characteristics and tendencies. Thus, personality traits are basic to sports excellence. It is necessary to identify and cultivate those personality traits which are most conducive to the performance in sports. Personality is an important psychological factor which, to a great extent determine the result of any athletic output and that's why it becomes imperative to examine an athlete's personality profile to underline his weaknesses and strengths.

CASE STUDY

A case study is a written description of a problem or situation. Unlike other forms of stories and narrations, a case study does not include analysis or conclusions but only the facts of a story arranged in a chronological sequence. The purpose of a case study is to place participants in the role of decision-makers, asking them to distinguish pertinent from peripheral facts, to identify central alternatives among several issues competing for attention, and to formulate strategies and policy recommendations. The method provides an opportunity to sharpen problem-solving skills and to improve the ability to think and reason rigorously.

Case study is 1: A detailed analysis of a person or group, especially as a model of medical, psychiatric, psychological, or social phenomena. 2. (a). A detailed intensive study of a unit, such as a corporation or a corporate division, that stresses factors contributing to its success or failure. (b). An exemplary or cautionary model; an instructive example: “Before they lost their independence, (the two companies) were case studies in unsuccessful long-term planning.
The case study offers a method of learning about a complex instance through extensive description and contextual analysis. The product articulates why the instance occurred as it did, and what one might usefully explore in similar situations. Case Studies can generate a great deal of data that may defy straightforward analysis.

Case study refers to the collection and presentation of detailed information about a particular participant or small group, frequently including the accounts of subjects themselves. A form or qualitative descriptive research, the case study looks intensely at an individual or small participant pool, drawing conclusions only about that participant or group and only in that specific context. Researchers do not focus on the discovery of a universal, generalizable truth, nor do they typically look for cause-effect relationship; instead, emphasis is placed on exploration and description.

Yin (2002), explained case study should be defined as a research strategy, an empirical inquiry that investigates a phenomenon within its real-life context. Case study research means single-and multiple case studies, can include quantitative evidence, relies on multiple sources of evidence and benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions. He notes that case studies should not be confused with qualitative research and points out that they can be based on any mix of quantitative and qualitative evidence. This is also supported and well-formulated in (Lamnek, 2005): “The case study is a research approach, situated between concrete date taking technique and methodological paradigm”.

Flyvbjerg (2006) studied a case study is a particular method of having sex qualitative research. Rather than using large samples and following a rigid protocol to examine a limited number of variables, case study methods involve an in-depth, longitudinal examination of a single instance or event: a case. They provide a systematic way of looking at events, collecting data, analyzing information, and reporting the results. As a result the researcher may gain a sharpened understanding of why the instance happened as it did, and what might become important to look at more extensively in future research. Case studies lend themselves to both generating and testing hypotheses.
HOCKEY

Hockey: Fast and furious game

International hockey is a fast, furious game of remarkable complexity, and the variety of skills displayed can bemuse even the most knowledgeable spectator. At the highest level these movements are the result of years of painstaking practice by players who've made many sacrifices in the interests of the sports to reach the game’s premier stage. However, one of the truly great things about the game is the fact that it can be enjoyed by almost everyone with an interest in sporting activity.

Hockey at any level is thrilling game enjoyed by players of all ages. The vast majority play the game primarily for social reasons and do not normally have the opportunity for the sort of coaching that could significantly improve both their individual skills and over all performance. Hockey has become increasingly popular and today there are thousands of hockey clubs in the country and several thousand active players. India ruled the roost for nearly three decades in the men’s game.

The modern game of hockey was imported to India by English new in the early eighties of the last century. “Hockey by skill, foot ball by strength” is a well known saying. Hockey, is our national game, has provided our nation with many proud occasions. Unmatched excellence and incomparable virtuosity brought India a string of Olympic gold medals. The brilliant Indians brought a touch of black magic to their play and ball juggling feats of the Indians were a sheer delight. The Golden Era of hockey in India was the period from 1928-1956 when India won 6 consecutive gold medals in the Olympics. During the Golden Era, India played 24 Olympic matches, won all 24, scored 178 goals (at an average of 7.43 goals per match) and conceded only 7 goals. The two other gold medals for India came in the 1964 Tokyo Olympic and the 1980 Moscow Olympic. In 1956 after India won the last of its six consecutive gold medals, the manager of the Pakistan hockey team, Riazuddin Ahmed said," This is the first time that we played India in the Olympic. The next time we play, the result will be different.” His prophetic words came true in 1960, when after 28 consecutive victories in the Olympic Games; India lost 0-1 to Pakistan in the 1960 Rome Olympic final. India hockey has witnessed only constant decline thereafter,
except few sporadic sports of excellence here and there. This has been the sad story of the India hockey inspite of having produced players like Dhayan Chand, Balbir Singh and other who had mesmerized the world of hockey with their 'magical skill'. In this chain of outstanding players, out of the present day hockey players, the name of Dhanraj Pillay can be very conveniently added.

Development of Hockey

Hockey’s birth place is Asid, and Persia is credited with having devised it about 2000 B.C. It is said that Greeks and Romans played hockey but nothing is known about the nature of the game that they played. The earliest mention of the present day game dates back only to 1527, when the Galway Statutes included 'hokie'-the hurling of little ball with sticks or staves in a list of prohibited games.

Modern hockey, as created in England, resembles closely games once popular in the British Isles and there is no doubt that hockey's immediate fore-runners were the Scottish shinty, the English and Welsh bandy and the Irish hurling. The game has witnessed numerous refinements over the years.

Hockey became popular in India when the British Regiments played the game in India and introduced it in the British India Regiments who quickly picked up the game. The first hockey club was formed in Calcutta in 1885-86 followed by Bombay and Punjab. The Bengal Hockey was the first Hockey Association in India founded in 1908. The second was formed in 1920 in Karachi by the name 'Sind Hockey Association'. In the Olympic games, India played hockey for the first time in 1928 held in Amsterdam. India reached the finals defeating Austria, Belgium, Denmark and Switzerland. In the final, India defeated Holland by three goals to nil.

Last few decades have witnessed tremendous change in the attitude of world towards competitive sports. Society at large is becoming highly concerned for the performance of their athletes and players at national and international levels; thereby transforming sports competition into a highly exciting and challenging enterprise. The prestige of a region or the nation is frequently at stake. The sportspersons are under great pressure to perform their best, create new record, and to win more and more medals. Having
realised the advanced countries of the world are spending huge amount of money, resources and expertise to facilitate new training methods and techniques. Even small countries like Cuba, South Korea, Kenya, Croatia etc. have adopted extensive training programmes for their sports persons and have shown significant increase in their medals tally in various international competitions. However, in our country such a concerted efforts is still lacking and the same is being persistently reflecting in the performance of our sportspersons. For a large country like India, winning only one silver medal in Athens Olympics 2004, one bronze each in Sydney Olympics 2000 and Atlanta 1996 is no consolation. There is urgent need for introspection at all quarters.

In today’s competitive scenario, the sportspersons, coaches, trainers and all other concerned with sports cannot depend only on physical fitness alone, they have to identify and determine psychological attributes which effect the performance. It is necessary to find out the psychological traits required to be winner. Normally, in our country, a person starts taking part in a game or event without any proper guidance. No effort is made from any quarter to determine his hidden talent for any particular or specific game or event. On the other hand, it has become quite common for schools and colleges to compel the outstanding sportspersons to participate in more then one game or event. The narrow and selfish approach has the effect of wasting the talent. It is by sheer chance that one gets to participate in any particular sport that is suitable to his inherent capabilities. In such circumstances, failure is just but inevitable.

The poor performance of Indian athletes and sportsmen in international competitions has been a matter of great concern to all. Decimal performance in sports do produce some half hearted, and off and on efforts to uplift the sports standards, but little success has been achieved so far. It has to be realised that there are numerous factors that are responsible for the performance of the sportsman as it depends not only on his or her suppleness, skill, and training, but also on various other factors of psychological and biochemical nature. The need of the hour is to develop personal psychological profiles of outstanding and great sportsmen and then to systematically analyse and filter out the medal winning formula.
Athletic accomplishments can be attributed to many factors working together in an ideal “intermix”, but none are referred to with more reverence and respect than what the more avid sports enthusiasts refer to as “the mind and the heart.” Other have coined the synonymous phrase, “the will and the gets”. The urge and the ability to achieve is due in part, no doubt a great part, to those many recognized and intangible processes that encompass the previous and present motivational states of the athlete.

The main aim of sport should be for enjoyment, to unwind, to get rid of tensions, to rejuvenate, to increase the body agility, to increase blood supply to brain which cleanses the cobwebs of mind. Sports are necessary to exercise the mind and the body together. Recreative sport regenerates the body and mind, improves the quality of life and prepares a person for the daily battle of survival. Sports are necessary in all periods of life from childhood till old age.

Sports today is closely linked with a country’s image and national pride. Sports in other countries have drawn the kind of public support which has not only made sports self-sustaining, but also a lucrative business for many. Countries which have excelled in sports have pursued a particular strategy. The East European model, for instance, encouraged selection of talented trainees and provided them with excellent facilities and intensive training in a controlled environment.

The present investigator has, therefore, selected to conduct a case study on Sh. Dhanraj Pillay and also to develop his personal psychological profile. The purpose to taking up this research project is to study the qualities of Sh. Dhanraj Pillay which enable him to dominant at national as well as international level as an outstanding hockey player. This study would be of immense value in inspiring and motivating young hockey players and also in providing an insight to the coaches and all others concerned with sports for understanding the psychological make up of a successful sportsman, so as to facilitate in the process of selection and in devising suitable training programmes.
STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Dhanraj Pillay may have become a household name but few know the traits and characteristic of his personality, his humble origin and how hockey became a part of his life. Dhanraj Pillay is one of the most talented hockey player of our country and gifted with a skill that God reserves for a few; such persons are obviously beyond any definition. It was, therefore, considered appropriate by investigator to undertake the present study to depict the holistic portrayal of his life philosophy, his sporting life achievements, his contribution towards the promotion of hockey game, to explore his unique personality attributes and to describe his personality profile so that younger generation of hockey players may draw inspiration and motivation from this legendary hockey player.

The problem selected for the present study was titled as

"PERSONALITY PROFILE OF CHARISMATIC HOCKEY PLAYER PADAM SHREE DHANRAJ PILLAY – A CASE STUDY”.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The study had the following objectives:

1. To trace out the unique characteristics, abilities, traits and qualities of Sh. Dhanraj Pillay’s personality profile.
2. To assess the performance of Sh. Dhanraj Pillay as an outstanding hockey player, as a trainee, as a coach and as a sports promoter.
3. To highlight the achievements of Sh. Dhanraj Pillay and his contributions towards the game of hockey.
4. To explore his level of mental toughness (which keeps an athlete focused in the midst of critical situations).
5. To find out his level of emotional intelligence.
6. To study the level of his self esteem.
7. To evaluate his overall sports personality.
DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study was delimited as follows:

1. The study was delimited to the contribution and achievements of Sh. Dhanraj Pillay in the game of hockey.

2. Sh. Dhanraj Pillay’s professional career was studied with regard to his philosophy, his special qualities, his personality traits and his training schedule.

3. This study covered the distinguished features of Sh. Dhanraj Pillay’s life as a player, as a sports promoter and as a coach. The study covered the period from his birth to till date.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study had the following limitations:

1. The scholar had to depend on the interview with Sh. Dhanraj Pillay to have information regarding his own life style, life philosophy and life achievements.

2. The scholar had to depend upon the information gathered from his family members, his colleagues, and selected contemporaries (Indian as well as foreign hockey players) regarding the performance of Dhanraj Pillay as a hockey player, as a sports promoter and as a coach.

3. Data was collected through various socio-psychological tests and questionnaires, text books, magazines, newspapers, websites etc.

DEFINITIONS AND EXPLANATIONS OF THE TERMS USED

Athlete: A sportsperson competing in any organized sports (team / individual).

Case Study: A case study is an in-depth exploration of a particular context, such as a group or an individual and involves the collection of extensive qualitative data usually via interview, observation, and document analysis.
**Emotional Intelligence:** Emotional Intelligence is the ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and use this information to guide one's thinking and action.

**Mental Toughness:** Mental toughness is having the natural or developed psychological edge that enables the athlete to (i) Cope with demands like competition, training etc. better than the opponents, (ii) be more consistent, determined, focused confident and in control under pressure. (Jones et al. 2002).

**Personality Profile:** For the purpose of this study, this term has been used to include four psychological variables i.e. (i) mental toughness (which has components like self confidence, attention control, visual and imagery control, motivation, attitude control, positive energy etc.), (ii) emotional intelligence (which has dimensions such as self awareness and appraisal, self regulation and responsibility, self motivation, self-confidence, empathy, interpersonal relations and social skills), (iii) Self-esteem (which stems from experiences consciously and might be viewed as a person's overall Judgment of himself to self-competence and self-worth based on reality i.e. total appraisal of the person and his appearance, background and origin, and (iv) Sports personality (which includes factors like competitiveness, adventurerness, sociability, leadership, calmness and risk taking, attention focus, success, persistence etc.

**Personality:** Eysenck (1960) has defined personality as “the more or less stable and enduring organization of a person’s character, temperament, intellect and physique, which determine his unique adjustment to the environment.

**Self-Esteem:** A picture of one’s own self - a picture as a combination of conviction and estimations concerning oneself and what he can do, and how he is estimated by others.

**Sports Personality:** Sports personality can be defined as an integration and merging of the physical, mental, emotional, cognitive and social self of one’s personality so as to depict the way an athlete thinks, feels, behaves and acts in relation to his sports environment.
SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Great philosopher Santayana (1905) expressed the concept with great clarity when he said, “Progress far from consisting in change, depends on retentiveness — those who cannot remember the past are condemned to repeat it”. Therefore, such case study may provide us with a means to work smart. There is no need to “reinvent the wheel” if we utilize history to reveal what had been tried before and why it succeeded or failed. We can then refine those concepts that met with success and avoid those ideas that failed.

This case study will be helpful in depicting a holistic portrayal of Sh. Dhanraj Pillay’s life as an outstanding hockey player. This research work has unfolded the life philosophy, values, unique characteristics and special attributes of Sh. Dhanraj Pillay which have made him a classic player, a category apart from others, and provide information as to how he became a successful performer in hockey. This research will prove helpful in integrating and summarizing key information regarding the sporting life, sporting career and achievements of this charismatic hockey player. It will enable us to learn from his life experiences and to make changes that were both successful and catalytic. It will even help us to utilize the information obtained through this study to understand the making of successful athletes. It will be helpful in highlighting the contributions made by Sh. Dhanraj Pillay toward the promotion of hockey game. This study has also attempted to describe the administrative acumen and professional outlook of Sh. Dhanraj Pillay which will further guide us how to develop these relevant skills.

This study is a valid document of the past and will reveal its historical perspective to the coming generations in the field of hockey. The information derived through this research work will be a very valuable addition to the existing professional literature in physical education and sports. This study will also be of great use to all those concerned with the formulation and implementation of the sports policies for raising the standards of performance in hockey game. The findings of this study will be a great source of inspiration to the budding hockey player and will prompt them to work smart, logically and perpetually. Findings of this study will also serve as a guiding map for future research.