CHAPTER – I
INTRODUCTION

When the imagination sleeps,
Words are emptied of their meanings

— Albert Camus

Ever since his evolution, man has always been ambitious. He has always strived hard for excellence and to be better than others, be it in the field of intellectual accomplishments and quests, or in the area of physical prowess and efficiency. Sports and varied forms of physical activities were being constantly devised and being constantly upgraded by the man to exhibit his physical superiority. Apart from wars, only sports arena satisfied the perpetual desire of the man to outclass his other fellow beings and to exert his this superiority and supremacy. It is this desire, urge and inborn compulsion that has driven man to devote restless days to the play grounds, and sleepless nights to the improvisation. This untiring effort has enabled him to achieve today what seemed beyond his reach yesterday. In human body, mind is the sports science’s last frontier as all other biological systems have already been used extensively to improve the athletic performance.

Mind is the theatre with unlimited opportunities and undefined boundaries. Someone extended his grasp towards the moon in his dreams, and today, journey to moon and back has not only been realized but has prompted man to look much for beyond the horizon. This is equally true in the field sport sciences where limits of horizon are being constantly extended. To dream is to visualize and to attempt
is to achieve. Images generated by the mind when transferred into action provide basis for their reproduction by the muscles as stimulus produces response. Therefore, visualizing successful attempt not only motivates, but as well produces positive neuromuscular response.

Body is a beautifully evolved sporting machine, comprising, among other things, muscles, that can be trained to a peak of fitness and nerves that control the muscles. The nerves are massively linked in our brain; vast number of nerve cells are linked with a hugely greater number of interconnections. Much of the process of learning and improving sporting reflexes and skills is the laying down, modification, and strengthening of nerve pathways in our body and brains. Some of these nerve pathways lie outside brain in nerves of the body and spine. These need to be trained by physical training. Many of the pathways, however, lie within the brain. These pathways can be effectively trained by the use of mental techniques. The muscles of the body involuntarily and instantaneously respond to thoughts, feelings and ideas. This phenomena is referred to as Ideomotor Activity. In practical terms what this means is that negative thoughts and emotions tend to have a negative effect on our muscles while positive thoughts tend to have a positive effect. In almost every situation of equal or nearly equal ability and preparation the more successful player is usually the one who maintains the most consistently positive attitude and pattern of thought. Basketball players can and should learn to shape their attitude and thought pattern into one of predominantly positive and confident thinking. Many proven mechanisms exist that can help players and coaches to effectively develop, sustain and enhance a consistent and unshakable winning attitude.
Sports careers are filled with fluctuations of fortune that allow athletes to experience both the thrill of victory and the agony of defeat within their own career. Sports is viewed as a good tool to develop positive psychological, sociological as well as physiological traits. Some athletes repeatedly fail in competition in spite of good results during training. In contrast, some athletes are able not only to transfer their achievement from training to competition, but often surpass them and achieve even better during competition. Other athletes are less consistent in the transfer of performance during training and competition.

There are not many players who can honestly say that their game is never affected by mental or psychological factors. Almost everyone who competes or attempts to do their 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 we perform. The more we understand the complex inter-relationship between mind and body the more it becomes clear that in order to perform at our best physically we must properly prepare and use both body and mind. Research and experience have proven that structured scientific mental training can help us learn to prepare and use our mind to improve our competitive performance.

**EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE**

Many scholars have emphasized the rivalry between heart and mind or head. Emotional intelligence is also related with this theory of heart and head because emotions are concerned with feelings and feelings are concerned with heart and intelligence is concerned with head or mind.
The random mental activity and imagery of players moulded their emotional states and the way they approach physical effort. To varying degrees, players attempt to manage their mental lives in order to better control both their emotions and performance qualities on which these emotions rest. What a player at any given time is a combination of activity that just comes and activity modifications that the athlete imposes on himself or herself with varying degrees of success.

Emotional Intelligence is the capacity to effectively perceive, express, understand, and manage our emotions and the emotions of others in a positive and productive manner. If we have a high EI, we're probably more successful in relationship and viewed as an effective leader. We can develop your EI with a few simple measures and a lot of practice. Improving EI requires a heightened level of consciousness and vigilance to implement new ways of doing things.

The concept of emotional intelligence is an umbrella term that captures a broad collection of individual skills and dispositions, usually referred to as soft skills or inter and intra-personal skills, that are outside the traditional areas of specific knowledge, general intelligence, and technical or professional skills. Most of the authors on the optic note that in order to be a well adjusted fully functioning member of society, (or family, member, spouse, employee, etc), one must possess both traditional intelligence (IQ) and emotional intelligence (dubbed as EQ). Emotional intelligence involves being aware of emotions and how they can affect and interact with traditional intelligence.
Emotional intelligence has often been conceptualized (particularly in popular literature) as involving much more than ability at perceiving, assimilating, understanding, and managing emotions. These alternative conceptions include not only emotion and intelligence but also motivation, non-ability dispositions and traits, and global personal and social functioning (e.g. Bar-on, 1997; Goleman, 1995) such broadening seems to undercut the utility of the terms under consideration. We call these mixed conceptions because they combine together so many diverse ideas. For example, the Bar On Emotional Quotient Inventory includes is self-report scales that measure a person’s self-regard, independence, problem solving, reality-testing, and other attributes (Bar-On, 1997). Such qualities as problem solving and reality testing seem more closely related to ego strength or social competence than to emotional intelligence.

According to Goleman’s book, “Emotional intelligence is basically a different way of being smart”. It involves a set of skills that Slovey and Mayer (1990) proposed, along with some additions. What’s more, Goleman claims that emotional intelligence skills are much better predictors of a person’s future success than the skills traditionally measured by IQ. This, of course, is not a new idea. We recognize the concepts underlying emotional intelligence concept when words like “nerd” and “gulk:” but describe people who may have book smarts, but are socially inept. Conversely, we call people “charismatic”, “popular” or “charming”, if we find that they have the set of people skills we deem important. But somehow that conventional wisdom has gone ignored in modern psychological circles. Emotions have traditionally been thought of as disruption that should be minimized and regulated because they disturb the thought process whatever the reason, emotions are seldom mentioned in connection
with intelligence. Indeed, traditional intelligence researchers continue
to be openly hostile to the idea that emotions constitute a part of
intelligence. As a result, the idea that we possess an emotional
intelligence is nothing short of revolutionary.

Emotional intelligence deliberately places itself in the midst of an
already heated elevate over intelligence. Goleman’s definition of
emotional intelligence lends itself to theories of behaviour modification.
Unlike the IQ test, which attempts to rate the purely genetic
component of intelligence, emotional intelligence incorporates social
influences. The solution, Goleman says, is to teach it to our children in
schools. The first skill of emotional intelligence is the ability to identify
and articulate one’s own feelings. This is taught starting in
Kindergarten, where children learn to give “I message” – statements
that begin with “I feel” Training in using the vocabulary of feelings
continues in various from through the sixth grade. By learning to
verbalize feeling in this way, children master the first skill of EQ.

A second important skill is empathy. Goleman (1997), calls this
“knowing what it’s like on the other side”. Empathy is practiced in the
fourth and fifth grades in games such as “making faces”, in which one
player received a card with a “feeling word” and mimes it, charades –
style. The other players are then challenged to read this facial
expressions and body language to guess what feeling is being
represented. The idea is that in a crisis situation, if each child is able to
tell how the other feeling and to understand the other’s situation, they
will be more likely to resolve the conflict peacefully.

Goleman third skill is motivation – what he calls “Maintaining
hope and optimism in the face of setback and adversity”. Students are
taught motivation through a six-step process that includes "say the problem and how you feel", "set a positive goal", think of lots of solutions", and finally, "go ahead and try the best plan". Children are also taught how to administer "warm-fuzzies" a sure way to cheer up their classmates.

The last skill, and according to Goleman the most important, is impulse control, which is drilled into students early and often. A poster hanging in a classroom depicts a stoplight and reads – "Stop, calm down, and think before you act". The hope is that students will learn to think through their actions, rather than let their anger move them to do something rash. Ideally, when confronted with a real life situation, students will have already internalized the steps to a non-violent solution, and will be able to resolve the conflict peacefully of course, no one can deny that a program that teaches children to be better problem - solvers, to negotiate difficult interpersonal situations, or, as Salovey (1990) puts it, "basically to learn how to share the basketball rather than punch the other guy and take it" is useful. Goleman’s skill will increase public awareness about the potential effectiveness of such programs.

According to Mayer (1997) emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for an intelligence. Emotions are internal events that coordinate many psychological subsystems including physiological responses, cognitions and conscious awareness. Emotions typically arise in response to a person's changing relationships. When a person’s relationship to a memory, to his family, or to all of humanity changes, that person’s emotions will change as well. For example, a person who recalls a happy childhood memory many find that the world appears brighter and more joyous. Because
emotions track relationships in this sense, they convey meaning about relationships. Emotional intelligence refers to an ability to recognize the meanings of emotions and their relationships, and to reasons and problem solve on the basis of them. Emotional intelligence is involved in the capacity to perceive emotions, assimilate emotion-related feelings, understand the information of those emotions and manager them (Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Salovey and Mayer, 1990).

Emotional intelligence is the ability to use emotions effectively; emotional intelligence is absolutely necessary when athletes are asked to carry the burden of tremendous expectations. Emotional intelligence is a very important aspect to possess in the world of athletics. It is the ability to maintain control, despite the burden of tremendous pressures and expectations. Emotional Self-Control is the key to competitive success. Great athletes know when to act and when to be patient. Controlling fear, anger, frustration and confidence is an athlete's responsibility, and he should work as hard on emotional intelligence as on the physical part of our sport. It doesn't matter if we are in a bad or unfair situation or if we are under real pressure. We may not be able to understand real pressure. We may not be able to change our environment, but can change our response to it.

A coach can help athletes develop emotional intelligence by acknowledging that a situation is tough, but emphasizing that there are many ways to respond. Ask the athlete to develop two responses, one that helps and one that hurts performance. Ask them to make a choice; don't do it for them. Players job is to control as much of the environment as possible and model positive responses to the things they can't control. It helps if coaches work regularly to enhance their own emotional intelligence.
The ability conception of emotional intelligence was developed in a series of articles in the early 1990s (Mayer et al., 1990; Mayer and Salovey, 1993). For example, the first empirical study in the area demonstrated that people’s abilities to identify emotions in three types of stimuli; colors, faces, and designs, could be accounted for by a single ability factor – which we supposed was emotional intelligence (Mayer et al., 1990). Another study examined the understanding of emotion in stories; this latter study provided further indications that the underlying factor “looked like” an intelligence. Simultaneous with this empirical work, we have honed our definition of emotional intelligence and the abilities involved (e.g., Mayer & Salovey, 1997). The present articles a culmination of this work, testing our most highly developed conception of emotional intelligence by operationalizing it according to 12 ability tests of emotional intelligence. The present study can help answer important questions about emotional intelligence, among them; whether emotional intelligence is a single ability or many, and how it relates to traditional measures of general intelligence and other criteria.

Just like intelligence, emotional intelligence must meet stringent criteria in order to be judged as a true intelligence. This criteria can be divided into three fairly distinct groups; conceptual, correlational, and developmental. The first conceptual criteria includes that intelligence must reflect mental performance rather than simply preferred ways of behaving, or a person’s self-esteem, or non-intellectual attainments (Mayer & Salovey, 1993); moreover, mental performance should plainly measure the concept in question i.e. emotion-related abilities. The second, correlational criteria, describe empirical standards; specifically, that an intelligence should describe a set of closely related abilities that are similar to, but distinct from, mental abilities.
described by already established intelligence (Carrol, 1993, Neisser et al, 1996). The third developmental criterion, states that intelligence develops with age and experience.

Emotional intelligence represents an alternative grouping of tasks to social intelligence. On one hand, emotional intelligence is broader than social intelligence, including not only reasoning about the emotions in social relationships, but also reasoning about internal emotions that are important for personal growth. On the other hand, emotional intelligence is more focused than social intelligence in that it pertains primarily to the emotional (but not necessarily verbal) problems embedded in personal and social problems. For example, reasoning about a sequence of internal feelings, or about the feelings in a relationship can be readily distinguished from general questions about democracy. This increased focus means that emotional intelligence may be more distinct from traditional verbal intelligence than is social intelligence. There remains a third criterion an intelligence must meet; that it develops with age and experience, from childhood to adulthood which is focused on studying developmental issues in emotional intelligence.

Emotional intelligence is being able to monitor our own and others feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this to guide our thinking and actions (Salovey & Mayor, 1990). The emotionally intelligent person is skilled in four areas; identifying, using, understanding, and regulating emotions. According to Goleman (1995) emotional intelligence consists of five components: knowing our emotions (self-awareness), managing them, motivating ourselves, recognizing emotions in other (empathy), and handling relationships.
Richardson and Evans (1997) explored some methods for teaching social and emotional competence within a culturally diverse society, their purpose was to help students connect with each other in order to assist them in developing interpersonal, intrapersonal and emotional intelligences, arguing that these intelligences are essential for personal accomplishment.

Here are a few of the reasons our emotions are important in our lives. Emotional intelligence, have a good presentation on evolution and emotions. Nature developed our emotions over millions of years of evolution. As a result, our emotions have the potential to serve us today as a delicate and sophisticated internal guidance system. Our emotion alert us when natural human need is not being met. Our emotions are a valuable source of information. Our emotions help us make decisions. Studies show that when a person’s emotional connections are severed in the brain, he cannot make a even simple decisions. When we feel uncomfortable with a person’s behaviour, our emotions alert us. If we learn to trust our emotions and feel confident expressing ourselves we can let the person know we feel uncomfortable as soon as we are aware of our feelings. This will help us set our boundaries which are necessary to protect our physical and mental health.

The dominance is possible because for more neural fibers project from our brain’s emotional centers up into the logical / rational areas than the reverse. A sudden emotional stimulus can thus easily and immediately stop the field activity – and it’s then neurologically difficult to get students so rationally shut off their emotional arousal and resume what they were doing. Effective physical education teachers, realizing that the disruptive emotional arousal will continue
until the problem is resolved, simply take the time to resolve it before resuming what they were previously doing.

Damasio (1999) suggest that feeling emerge in our brain when we become conscious of our unconscious emotional arousal to a potential danger / opportunity. As indicated above, emotions can often be publicly observed, but our feelings remain a private mental experience of the emotion. Feelings, which lead us to conscious thought and exploration of the current challenge, are thus useful, since they allow us to go beyond innate since they allow us to go beyond innate programmed behaviours, to rationally design solution to a variety of contemporary challenges that evolutionary development didn’t cover. Feeling allow us to step into the arcane world of consciousness the mysterious mental process that abandons us when we go to sleep, and magically reappears when we awaken.

Emotional intelligence is a type of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and other’s emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one’s thinking and actions. Emotional intelligence involves abilities that may be categorized into five domains: (i) Self-awareness: Observing ourself and recognizing feeling as it happens. (ii) Managing Emotions: Handling feeling so that they are appropriate; realizing what is behind a feeling; finding ways to handle fears and anxieties anger, and sadness. (iii) Motivating oneself: Channelizing emotions in the service of a good; emotional self control; delaying gratification and stifling impulses. (iv) Empathy: sensitivity to other’s feelings and concerns and taking their prospective, appreciating the differences in how people feel about things. (v) Handling relationship: Managing emotions in others; social competence and social skills.
The ability of the individual to control mental and emotional elements assists task performance as well as creating a psychological foundation for confidence and well-being. When the individual feels as though they possess a degree of self-mastery in relation to psychosomatic function, this serves to motivate continued efforts in attempting to increase performance. However when the ability of the individual to control their psychological state in diminished, especially during the time of injury or incapacitation, there is a risk of a decrease in self confidence, well being and future performance. Thus as its first premise, mental skills training relies on a methodology of self-mastery, generated through self knowledge, to enhance the psychological state of the individual.

"Emotional Intelligence" has recently been recognized as an important life skill. A combination of important traits (including self-discipline, ability to handle anger appropriately, self-esteem, empathy, and social skills), emotional intelligence allows one to handle life’s frustration and to "work and play well with others". These skills are more important than IQ as predictors of success in one's personal relationships and career. It teaches parents how to raise their children to have emotional intelligence. It sees children’s problems and frustrations as opportunities for “emotion coaching” helping them learn how to deal with their emotions. It also identifies four “parenting styles” – two of these styles react negatively to children’s negative emotions, one style accepts that emotions teaches the child what to do with them. It can create greater understanding between parent and child, and will help the child grow up to be an emotionally healthy adults.
SELF-ESTEEM

Most people’s feeling and thoughts themselves fluctuate somewhat based on their daily experiences. The grade we get on a exam, how our friends treat us, ups and downs in an emotional relationship – all can have a temporary impact on our well being. Self-esteem, however, is something more fundamental than the normal “ups and downs” associated with situational changes. For people with good basic self esteem, normal “ups and downs” may lead to temporary fluctuation in how they feel about themselves, but only to a limited extent.

Where does self-esteem originally come from? Are people born feeling inferior or superior ? Is it genetic – a matter of body chemistry? Some people seemed predisposed to be more or less sensitive to a emotional issues affecting self-esteem. Young people are great at modeling what they see around them. Their self-concept downs slowly, and if they have good models of esteem and aren’t made to feel inferior or superior by parents, siblings and peers, they are more likely to have a healthy self image. Mothers are the all-time instillers of original self-esteem. During the child’s formative years, they accept the child, love it, make it feel worthy of all it receives simply by giving freely to it, and make it feel part of something, a contributor.

Self-esteem is based on our ability to assess ourselves accurately (know ourselves) and still be able to accept and to value ourselves unconditionally. This means being able to realistically acknowledge our strength and limitations (which is part of being human) and at the same time accepting ourselves as worthy and worthwhile without conditions or reservations.
Our self esteem develops and evolves throughout our lives as we build an image of ourselves through our experiences with different people and activities. Experiences during childhood play a particularly large role in the shaping of our basic self esteem. When we are growing up, our success and failure and how we were treated by the members of our immediate family, by our teachers, coaches, contribute to the creation of our basic self-esteem.

Self-esteem has been defined as the “level of global regard one has for the self, or how well a person "prizes, values approves, or likes” him or himself. Self-esteem is defined as “the experience of being capable of meeting life’s challenges and being worthy of happiness. Exercising greatly enhances a person’s self esteem and mental outlook while reducing stress. Self esteem is a critical component of any program aimed at self-improvement programme. It offers hope to correcting these problem and close relationship has been documented between low self-esteem and such problems as violence, alcoholism, drug abuse, eating disorders, school dropouts teenage pregnancy, suicide, and low academic achievement.

Self esteem which means feeling about self, effects every moment of life, either consciously or subconsciously. Even if everything is outwardly going in our way, we will be unable to experience much happiness if we are thinking that we are sub standard, incompetent or undeserving person. Everything can be viewed either positively or negatively. People often think that their self criticism is somehow justified, or something necessary to motivate themselves to improve, but this is never the case with any activity, we can choose either to focus on how good we are at it or on how bad we are at it. With no exception anywhere, we do everything better when
we focus on how good we are it. Self-esteem refers to an individual's satisfaction with his identity; his over-all judgement of himself. It may range from high to low esteem. The way in which an individual perceives himself is of real importance to the character of his behaviour. There is no easy recipe for raising the esteem, but parents peers and teachers or coaches have considerable effect on how children perceive themselves. Individuals sometimes evaluate themselves on the basis of information conveyed within the family and school. Many educational programs are competitive and provided numerous opportunities for children to measure themselves against others in terms of intelligence, physical skills and popularity. This measurement can have both positive and negative effects on self-image.

The concept of self-esteem is rooted in social cognitive theory and is concerned with human agency or human change. With human agency, individuals exercise control over their lives. Self-esteem or self-efficacy, or self-mastery, refer to perceptions of competence in a specific domain. Self-efficacy involves individuals' judgements of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performance.

Esteem beliefs play a vital role in how well individual organize, create, and manage the circumstances that affect their life directions. The degree of perceived self-esteem individuals possess in a given areas has a significant impact on their thoughts, feelings and actions. The present study aimed to identify how self-esteem, social support and coping style can act as protective factors against the potentially deleterious effects of negative performance in competitive sport. It is never too late to start a work out programme to best build toward our
goal of improved self image, and always too early to stop exercising. Exercising is necessary for physical and mental health. Most people agree that even though they may not look forward to doing a workout, they tend to feel better after they do, and equally better to assume their rightful place at work. It should never bother you to take the relatively minor steps necessary to improve your health; especially when doing so can only upgrade your self-esteem along the way.

Self efficacy means to see ourself as having a lot of control over what happens in our life. “Believe in ourself” is common advice. Americans are more likely to believe they can control their lives than the people in other cultures. When asked why one person succeeds while another with the same skills and training fails, about 1% of Americans say it is a fate or God’s will, while 30% of people in developing countries give this explanation (Sears, Peplan, Feedman and Taylor, 1988). Perhaps this difference between culture is due to we are having more opportunities to do what we want or due to our greater need to blame the poor for their poverty or due to our thinking more of ourselves as individuals having free will or due to different religious views or due to some other factors.

Self-esteem is elusive because we have learned in our culture to value one person more than another. We see ourselves on this grand scale of how important we are relative everyone else. We learn to do this from others who indicates to us the value of people in our society. People do earn their place, but the focus is on importance, not on people and their values. Self-esteem is not learning that we are valuable because of what we can do, or how smart we are, or that we are unconditionally loved, or that you have done so much for the world. Self-esteem built on these is false esteem. These are our ways
of trying to build our own self-esteem. These are the things that drive us in a never ending flurry of activity to keep proving that we are as good as or better than everyone else. Always trying to prove how smart we are. Always trying to prove we can do something better. Always trying to prove we are unconditionally loved by doing something worse than we did before to see if we are still loved. Always in competition, but there is always someone better.

No one can love us enough to give us self-esteem. No counselor can talk to us enough to help us find self-esteem. No good deeds will ever be enough. Efforts to prove our value will generally become increasingly warped and destructive because nothing we do can ever be enough. Proving our worth is a trap. Self-esteem is really more a construct of society part of the values in the meaning framework that we give to each other, and that focusing on self-esteem creates a problem where none needs to exist. Instead of focusing on building self-esteem, build self-confidence. One is valuing ourselves – the other is believing in ourselves. Self-esteem is relative and elusive. Self-confidence is built on achievement and is concrete. Self-confidence empower us to do self-esteem empowers us to worry. Self-esteem begins with accepting ourselves as we are. We’ are imperfect, but so is everyone else. Everyone of us has done things we’re not proud of. Everyone of us is in need of improvement. Every one of us can find some other person who is better than we are.

Bednar et al (1989) define self-esteem “as a subjective and realistic self-approval” They point out that “self-esteem reflects how the individual views and values the self at the most functional levels of psychological experiencing” and that different aspects of the self create a “profile of emotions associated with the various roles in which
the person operates and (that self esteem) is an enduring and effective sense of personal value based on accurate self-perceptions". According to this definition, low self-esteem would be characterized by negative emotions associated with the various roles in which a person operates and by either low personal value or inaccurate self-perceptions. The authors suggest that a theory of self-esteem must take into account the important role of an individual's "self-talk and self-thought" as well as the perceived appraisal the others. They conclude that "high or low levels of self esteem ... are the result and the reflection of the internal, affective feedback the organism most commonly experience". Thus a significant aspect of the development and maintenance of self-esteem must address how individuals cope with negative feedback.

Kohn and Gleghorn (1993) said that the main argument put forward is that, while the development of self-esteem is an important concern for parents and teachers of young children, many of the practices currently intended to enhance it are more likely to foster preoccupation with oneself and with the way one appears to others. He have suggested that practices which engage children's minds in investigating those aspects of their own experiences and environments which are worth knowing more about can help children develop realistic criteria of self-esteem. Self-esteem cannot be achieved through direct instruction or exhortations to "feel good" about oneself. Coaches are more likely to foster healthy self-esteem when they help athletes cope with occasional negative feedback, frustration and reverses. While it is clear that athletes need positive feedback about their behaviour and their efforts, feedback is most likely to strengthen their self-esteem when it is provided at an optimum rather than maximum level, and when it is specific and
informative rather than in the form of general praise. Athletes are more likely to enhance their sense of self-confidence and self-worth when the learning environment provides a wide variety of activities and tasks, when they have opportunities to make meaningful decisions and choices, and when optimum challenge rather than quick and easy success is available. Athletes should also have opportunities to work in groups in which they are encouraged to make and seek suggestions to and from each other, and in which individual can contribute in their own ways to the groups efforts. As children grows, they can also be encouraged to evaluate their own efforts on realistic and meaningful criteria. Teachers are also most likely to foster healthy self-esteem when they maintain and communicate their respect for the self-esteem criteria children experience at home and in their community, while they help them to adopt the criteria of the classroom learning environment and the school. Such practices are more likely than trivial practices which engender self-preoccupation to build in children a deep sense of competence and self-growth that can provide a firm foundation for their future.

According to Bandura (1986) self-efficacy judgements, i.e. one’s belief in his / her ability to effectively control specific events in his / her life, play a role in almost everything we do, think and feel. Hundreds of research studies support this notion and hundreds of wonderful children’s stories, like the little engine that could illustrate the importance of a positive attitude. The average persons agrees that self-efficacy influences our action we’d call it confidence or belief in ourselves or a sense of personal power. However self-efficacy is not used by most researchers as a global concept; it is not a single score applied to all aspects of our life. Self efficacy is a judgement about our competence in one specific situation.
Bandura (1986) stated in his study that there are some results of self-esteem practice which are based on past performance and prediction and one’s intuitive feelings by realizing that a professional basketball players, averaging 76% of his foul shots, may consider himself a poor free throw shooter and lack faith in his ability to make his next shot, whereas as 8th grader averaging about 40% of his/her shots may think of himself as a really good shot and feel pretty cocky about the next shot. Both skill (percentage of shots made) and confidence (self-efficacy) are related to actual performance, but skill, of course, is much more important in case of shooting baskets. (Naturally, skill and confidence are usually closely related). Confidence is probably more important than skill in other situation, such as deciding to approach someone for a date. Most studies have not here to fore distinguished between these situations, but recent work underscores the difference between intellectual rational assessment and emotional intuitive judgement about one’s efficacy.

The following discussion of finding (mostly from Bandura, 1986) are based or research using each subjects single rating of self-efficacy, not both their intellectual and emotional beliefs. People who believe they are efficacious tend to see their success are resulting from high ability and their failure as resulting from a lack of effort on over estimation of athlete’s ability might encourage him or her to test their limits and maximize the effects of positive expectations. If they can accept some failure and also feel generally confident in their self-help ability, they will feel less stress, take more risks, and try harder and longer to make the changes desire. The harder he or she try, the more success they will have. Being successful increase self-efficacy, one then wants to learn more useful skill. Success and confidence alter athlete’s goals. Eventually, athlete can gain self-control and “produce
their own future" according to Bandura. In a similar way, managers, coaches, and teachers think that the athletes and students perform better when their leaders expect them to do well; i.e. "I think you can". This becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy. Bandura (1986) stated that low efficacious people, similar to depressed people, think they lack the ability to help themselves which makes them nervous and further impairs their performance.

Where does belief in or doubts about our self-efficacy come from? How can self-efficacy be increased? Bandura (1986) cites research suggesting past successes or failures – as judged by us resulting from our efforts in relevant areas are primarily responsible for our efficacy judgements. It’s not easy to change our self-appraisals. To increase our confidence we need to repeatedly (not once) handle a difficult (not an easy one) situation without working too hard and without outside help. If we have to work much harder than others seem to, we may doubt our abilities. Many people find it so hard to become and stay efficacious that they lose hope, give up personal control, and start depending on others.

Feeling efficacious has no consistent relation to feeling good about yourself e.g. a person may feel effective but take no pride in such activities or feel incompetence (as an artist, mathematician or right rope walker) without feeling low-esteem. Being an effective self-helper in most cases raises our self-esteem as well as our feelings of self-efficacy. In order to feel able, in most situations need to learn to be able.

Schwarzer (1992) says that research evidence piles up suggesting that self-efficacy is related to good health, satisfying
relationships, and success. What is not clear, yet, is how much obtaining these outcomes in life is responsible for raising your faith. Our ability to control our life Vs. how much the faith alone should be given credit for producing these outcomes. That is, which comes first the confidence or the accomplishment? Clearly it works both ways. So, raising our self-efficacy is a good idea, but there have to be accomplishments too.

MENTAL SIMULATION ABILITIES

The object of the psychology is to understand, to get an insight into, to interpret, to throw light on the mind, its process and behaviour, it does not simply address itself to what transpires in the core of mind. It does also discuss how internal states of body and mind modify the external behaviour and vice-versa. Mind, which an organized system of mental and purposive forces, plays a key role in the internal mechanism of behaviour as well as in directing external activities. It helps to understand, describe and explain the behaviour of sports person in athletic setting, both practice and competitive, with a view to enhance performance.

Human mental activity may also be divided into thoughts and feelings that arise depicting “special states” of unreality and thoughts that occur during various levels of consciousness. The most important context in which to consider individual differences of mental life is one that reflects different modes of representation. Our thoughts vary in the ways are represents them to ourselves. At times we may engage in internal self-talk. Socrates described thinking as “a discouragement that the mind carries on with itself”. At other times, our thoughts may be represented by visual images. Moreover, the type of imagery may vary
markedly between people or within a single person from time to time. Finally our thoughts may be constituted of both visual images and simultaneously occurring self talk.

Sensation, perception and learning function together in a dynamic way for evolving the thoughts process. This takes places only in humans, because it needs the development of complex nervous system, and man alone has it. The thoughts process appears in the form of mental images. The seeing of an object in the outside world forms the images of the object in the mind and when a name in the form of a word is associated with the object the very mention of the word makes an image of the object in the minds. Thus the ideas relating to the objects or events may appear in the form of images. All mental images are the reproduction of elements of the past sensation, perception, learning and experiences.

In sensation, perception and learning the human memory plays an active role what has been experienced and learned are not lost totally. They are all stored in our memory by way of impressions. These impressions are not always active. By providing suitable cues or stimuli it is possible to bring out certain ideas from our memory. These, we may call memory images. Memory images are the past learned or experienced materials which may come into play in the form of mental activity. When we discuss about mental process or activity we are also coming across the concepts like the images. Imagery, mental images, memory images, after, images eidetic imagery, associated imagery and so on. But all these are in the processes of thinking.
Simulation, in fact, is the process of simulating sensory experiences in the mind in the absence of external stimuli. Whenever a tennis player day dreams of or imagines hitting an ace, the player is using his simulation abilities. While visualization typically describe simulation of visual stimuli, simulation is such a mental activity which may involve the simulation of many factors; sound, touch, body awareness psychological states such as confidence and numerous other mental and physical experiences. However, many coaches and sport psychologists use simulation, imagery and visualization as synonymous terms.

A right mindset through simulation training is one of the determinants of an athlete’s performance, right along with his or her physical condition and technical skills. Just as there is a set of well known physical characteristics of a champion (i.e. strength, speed and stamina), there is a set of mental factors identified as part of a winner’s mindset. They are confidence, concentration, consistency and control. Midset is important for several reasons. It is often the factor that sets apart the best from the good. Research has revealed that at least 50 percent at athletic performance success and even more athletic performance errors and failures are due to mental factors. Often times, talents, plus physical and technical training can take athletes and teams only so far before they reach a performance plateau. It is mental training such as visualization, mental simulation and imagery enhancement.

Mental simulation or mental imagery is a familiar aspect of most people’s every day experience (Galton, 1880; Betts, 1909; Doob, 1972; Marks, 1972, 1999). There are a few people, perhaps found in disproportionate numbers amongst scientists and other intellectuals
(Galton, 1880; Betts, 1909) who say that they rarely, or even never, experience imagery, but, for the vast majority of us, it is a familiar and commonplace feature of our conscious mental lives. The English language supplies quite a range of idiomatic ways of referring to visual mental imagery: ‘visualizing’, ‘seeing in the mind’s eye,’ ‘having a picture in one’s head’, ‘picturing,’ having / seeing a mental image / picture,’ and so on. There seem to be fewer ways to talk about imagery in other sensory modes, but there is little doubt that it occurs, and the experiencing of imagery in any sensory mode is often referred to as ‘managing’ (the appearance, feel, smell, sound, or flavor of something). Alternatively, the quasi-perceptual nature of an experience may be indicated merely by putting the relevant sensory verb (‘see’, ‘hear’, ‘taste’, etc.). Despite the familiarity of the experience, the precise meaning of the expression ‘mental imagery’ is remarkably hard to pin down, and differing understandings of it have often added considerably to the confusion of the already complex and fractious debates, amongst philosophers, psychologists, and cognitive scientists, concerning nature of simulation / imagery, its psychological functions (if any), and even its very existence.

Imagery is popular in tennis and basketball and it positively improves performance. Factors believed to improve on individual’s ability to benefit from imagery include the ability to form vivid images, control the images and relax before producing images. Imagery is used to help tennis and basketball players to anticipate and solve problems, prepare for tournament, rehearse particular skills and tactics, and reinforce positive performance. Imagery may be performed individually or in a group, and it may be guided by a sport psychologist or a coach like all mental skills imagery and visualization
must be practiced by athletes consistently and correctly to produce positive effects.

Any other way in which the expression ‘mental imagery’ may be misleading in that it may tend to suggest that we are thinking only of quasi-visual phenomena. Despite the fact that most scholarly discussion of imagery, in the past and today, does indeed focus mainly or exclusively upon its visual aspect, in fact, other modes of quasi-perceptual experience are just as real, and, very likely, are just as common and just as psychologically important (Newton, 1982). Contemporary cognitive scientists generally recognize this, and interesting studies of auditory imagery, kinaesthetic (or motor) imagery, olfactory imagery, haptic (touch) imagery, and so forth, can be found in the recent scientific literature (e.g., Segal & Fusella, 1971; Reisberg, 1992; Klatzky, Lederman, and Matula, 1991; Jeannerod, 1994; Bensafi et al, 2003). (Although such studies still remain vastly outnumbered by studies of visual imagery). ‘Imagery’ has become the generally accepted term, amongst cognitive scientists, for quasi-perceptual experience in any sense mode (or any combination of sense modes).

During the 60’s and 70’s the studies conducted on mental imagery were rather inconsistent due to different confounds such as lack of subjects and reliable controls. In addition, researcher used a variety of skills because they were not exactly sure what the subjects should do when they engage in mental practice.

Imagery is defined as using all the senses to recreate or create an experience in the mind. It is a mental technique that “programme” the human and mind to respond as programmed. The evidence
supporting the positive influence of imagery on sport performance is impressive. Both scientific and experimental accounts of the use of imagery to enhance sport performance report positive results.

Imagery is generally stated as imageries in plural form in literary works for symbolic representations. Imagery means images in groups. When we want to state images collectively we state it by the concept imagery. Therefore, a group of collective images is called imagery. Imageries are the materials involved in the general processes of imagination. Imagery is the distinctive type of mental images formed by a particular individual. Psychologically, imagery also refers to the mental experiences of something that is not immediately, present to our senses. A series of mental images may be also called as imagery. Therefore, we have various kinds of mental images through our sensor experiences, such as visual images, auditory images, olfactory images, gustatory images, tactual images, kinesthetic images and so on. However, certain images are dominant over other images, it depends upon the individual’s nature of experience.

We are able to imitate the actions of others because our mind “takes a pictures” of the skill that we use a blueprint for our performance. In essence, this is imagery. Imagery is based on memory, and we experience it internally by reconstructing external events in our minds. Imagery is also useful to recreate our own performances and identify strengths and weakness. Another powerful imagery techniques is to recall previous outstanding performances and recreate them through imagery to increase confidence for an upcoming competition. Thus, imagery involves recreating experience or reconstructing external events in our minds to imitate others or to recall our own past experiences.
According to Terry Orlick (1986), creating an image on the screen of mind, of perfect and flawless execution of a sports skill and, retaining it there in all its vividness, for as long as is possible and repeating the same exercise for a number of time without any physical manifestation of the same, would etch a certain pattern of natural impulses in the brain. This would, in turn create specific neural tracks and plug the same with a positive performance programme in such a way that the body and the being would follow the same just about naturally and as a matter of habit, to obtain the desired results in achieving excellence of actual physical performance.

Imagery is the process by which athletes can create, modify or strengthen pathways important to the coordination of muscles, by training purely within their mind. Imagination is the driving force of imagery. Imagery rests on the important principles that athlete can exercise these parts of their brain with inputs from their imagination rather than from their senses. The parts of the brain that athletes train with imagery experience, imagined and real inputs, with the more vivid experiences so that even in its least effective form athletes can use imagery as a substitute for real practice to train the parts of their mind. Imagery allows to practice and prepare for events and eventualities which one can never expect to train for in reality but with imagery practice it is possible to enter a situation which they have never physically experienced with the feeling that they have been there before and achieved whatever they are trying to achieve. Similarly, imagery allows the athletes to prepare and practice their response to physical and psychological problems that do not occur normally, so that if they occur, athletes can respond to them competently and
confidently. Imagery can be used to train in sports psychology skills to deal with factors such as stress and distraction management.

Visual imagery advocates purport that this technique increases energy and avoids injuries as well. Not only will visualization improve athletic performance but it will enhance motivation and overall enjoyment of the sports. For peak performance in sports, an athlete needs “latest methods in sports psychology”, one of them being mental imagery, which will elevate game to a new level. Imagery will increase confidence, focus and self-composure which will in turn, improve athletic performance.

Fitts (1964) describe the stages of motor learning as (a) the ‘cognitive phase, i.e. consciously learning a new skill, (b) the associate phase, i.e. making minor adjustments to the newly learned skill in striving for perfection, and (c) the autonomous phase, i.e., the newly learned skill is capable of being executed unconsciously. However, even if the cognitive and associated phases are properly performed the autonomous phase may not be sufficiently reinforced within neural structures to allow proper unconscious activation. Practiced mental rehearsal can help to reinforce the appropriate neural coordination to allow the specific motor patterns to be retrieved and used. If not conscious process may still have to intervene and slow down, or even destroy the coordination process.

Paivio (1985) found that Imagery training or cognitive rehearsal enables sports persons to develop perfect necessary habits, analyse the whole movement and find out mistakes likely to crop up at the most crucial moment of actual performance for one reason or the other. Images starts sailing through the mind in rapid succession, from
the point of general picture of the performance of a sport skill as a whole and, gradually develop into a minute detailed sequence from where the entire motor structure of the exercise is thrown into the mind against the most appropriate background. It was in this connection that talked of and gave currency to the phenomenon of ideo-motor reactions in the second half of the 19th century. In simpler language it would mean that deliberate formation of an image in the mind, its retention there for as long as is possible and the frequent repetition of this mental exercise is bound to create, enhance and strengthen the tendency for its realization in actual life. But this does not mean that this phenomenon has nothing to do with sudden spontaneous and impulsive actions.

Many sports such as golf, tennis, basketball and skating, not only require skills but a strong mental game as well. Most coaches preach the line that sports are 90% mental and 10% physical. Especially in sports where hundredths of a second or tenths of an inch separates the champions from the mediocre athletes, an extra edge can be extremely crucial. Hence, numerous athletes are turning towards mental imagery to take their game to the next level. Different uses of imagery in sport include mental practice, confidence, positive thinking, problem solving, controlling arousal and anxiety, performance, and maintaining mental freshness during injury.

Imagery allows to pre-experience the achievement of goals. This helps to give confidence that these goals can be achieved, and so allows to increase athletes abilities to levels they might not otherwise have reached. Practicing with imagery helps to slow down complex skills so that athlete can isolate and feel the correct component movements of the skills, and isolate where problems in technique lie.
There is no correct way to practice mental imagery, it is all left up to individual preferences and the present circumstances. It can be done on or off the field, very short (within a few minutes or seconds), of a long duration, sitting up, lying low, in complete silence, with a stereo, eyes closed or they can be open. A shorter vision of imagery is best implemented during match play. For example, a tennis player may take a few seconds to visualize him or herself hitting the perfect serve in the place where he or she wants or a quarterback can go through a play in his mind just before calling the play. Longer, specific guided visualizations are usually designed for a quiet room prior to competition. In this case the player should be in a relaxed and receptive state in order for the image to go deeply into the mind. It is recommended to do visualization two or three times per week. Another way that many athlete practice imagery during bike rides, lifting weights, shooting and rowing etc. Since one is exerting physical energy while doing mental rehearsal, it helps facilitate actual competition. Some individuals are better at forming pictures in their heads than others. Or some people may excel in certain sensory experiences and not others.

Generally, images means a representation, or likeness of a person or object especially in sculpture or in painting. For example, the status, effigy, the sculptured figure, portrait, picture, a carving and the like may be called as image. Image may also mean a visually formed reproduction of an object such as one formed in a mirror. Image also refers to a person or a thing that resembles closely refers to a person or a thing that resembles closely another. It is exactly a copy of the other object or person. Psychologically, image means a mental representation of an object, an idea or a picture produced by a person.
from his part experience in his imagination. It is the personality characteristics presented to others by a person.

While we are seeing an object sometimes, we fix our eyes on the object or person or on the event for few seconds or even few minutes. We are doing like this if the object or person or event has something to do with our personality, or if we are more interested in the object. The object puts strong impressions in our senses and these impressions do not fade away from our eyes for a few seconds or even after its disappearance. This is because while we fix our eyes on the object for long time the sensory nerve stimulate the brain centre and if take a few seconds for the brain centre to dissolve the impressions, which means the impressions fade away gradually and finally disappear. The sensory impressions takes a few seconds to stimulate the brain centre and therefore, it takes few seconds to the brain centre to leave away the impressions. As result of this, the image remains in the brain centre for a few seconds even after the object is disappeared and retains the object in our eyes. This development sometimes is called as after image. Every one might have had such experience in the everyday life. We sometimes says that “it still stands before my eyes”.

Feltz and Landers (1983) conducted a meta-analytic to examine 60 studies in which mental practice was compared to control conditions. Their analysis yielded 146 effect size with the overall average effect size of 48 position that mental imagery practice “influence performance more than no practice,” but consistently less effective than physical practice. On average, the effect sizes were larger with the studies which used cognitive takes. Overall, the cognitive rehearsal conditions showed a better performance.
Martin (1995) found that not only does mental imagery seem to enhance athletic performance, but it has been shown to enhance intrinsic motivation as well. His study tested who would spend more time practicing a golf putting task and who would result in having higher self-efficacy. Thirty nine beginner golfers were grouped into an imagery or control group. For 3 sessions, both groups were taught how to hit golf balls. The imagery group practiced in an imagery training session designed for this specific golf skill. As a result, the imagery group spent significantly more time practicing the golf putting task than the control group. In addition, the subjects in the imagery group had more realistic self-expectation, set higher goals to achieve, and adhered more to their training programs outside the experimental setting.

Roure et al (1998) examined six specific automatic nervous system (ANS) responses that correlated with mental rehearsal thereby improving sports performance. The subject were placed into an imagery group and a control group. The task measured in each group was based on their ability to pass an opponent's server to a given teammate, in the sport of volleyball. The experimenters measured the variations of the ANS during the motor skill and during the mental rehearsing sessions. The ANS parameters tested included skin potential and resistance, skin temperature and heat clearance, instantaneous heart rate, and respiratory frequency. The results of the test revealed a strong correlation between the response in a actual physical tasks (both pre- and post-test volleyball) and during the mental imagery session. There existed a difference in the skills between the imagery and the control group, the former being the better. In addition, no clear difference was present between the pre-
and post-tests in the control group. This study showed the mental imagery induces a specific pattern of automatic response. These include decreased amplitude, shorter duration and negative skin potentials when compared to the control group. As a consequence of the ANS, the imagery group was associated with better performance in light of this experiment may help in the construction of scheme which can be reproduced, without thinking, in actual practice.

According to Murphy (1984), it is the 'mind's eyes'. This is taking place without any effort on the part of the individual. This type of after images are also stated as memory images. This type of images are sometimes stated as sensory impressions and they may be differentiated from memory images. In the first stage the images are called sensory impressions and in the second stage they are called memory images. If the sensory impressions are rearoused or made again to appear, then they are called memory images. The impressions of the object are rearoused and the object is seen again, if this process takes place, it may be also called mental images.

Many investigations have conducted experimental studies on after images have reported interesting results. Ellson (1952) and Reik (1945) in their studies of various types of after images, have observed that the visual images were found to be very vivid and also were quite common. They have also observed that person who were high in one type of after images were also found to be high in other type of images. There were individual variations in reporting the sensory after images. The painters and sculptors are supposed to be having very vivid visual after images than others. So also the musicians and the instrumentalists have vivid auditory after images than the adults.
Concrete objects and strange objects may produce better after images than the normal objects and abstract ideas.

Highlen and Bennett (1983) paid attention to the mental practice of the ‘open’ skills. Traditionally mental research has focused on invariant, well established consistently performed “closed skills” such as free throw shooting in basketball, shot put and the like. But the potential for improving open skills in which the performer must react in a variety of ways to unexpected conditions and to an opponent, may also be improved various types of mental practice. Magic Johnson of the Los Angeles Lakers Basketball team is said to have enhanced his performance by imagining numerous possible situations that might occur during opportunities to execute a fast break. Mental activity of the athlete, therefore, has purpose that goes beyond mere skill enhancement.

The focus on the peak performance in sports and to know how the mind interacts with the body in ultimately producing performance mental factors plays a effective role. Most athletes and coaches will knowledge that at least 40% to 90% of success in sports is due to mental factors. The higher the skill level, the more important the mental aspects become.

Schmidt (1975, 1976) developed Schema Theory in which he describes movement as being primarily controlled by central structures with minimal input from sensory information that stress pre-programmed commands in the for of generalized motor patterns that are retrieved and executed upon demand. However these commands, once executed, especially during quick movement, requires an almost absence of sensory information, otherwise , disruption of the motor
pattern becomes inevitable and execution malformed. This is because conscious intervention is too slow to accommodate changes in motor coordination, and thus, unconscious execution is desirable. By mentally rehearsing the specific motor pattern the psychological "script" becomes more explicit in its expression, and tendencies to intervene at critical moments can be alleviated when the requisite cues have been made aware to the individual. Without awareness of the script, or motor pattern, to allow execution from start to finish without intervention, motor skills may not be effective.

Cohn (1990) describes some of the practical implications of mental rehearsal. Depending upon the nature of the task (closed or open skill) and the skill level of the individual, the advantages of mental rehearsal are two-field. First, mental rehearsal can be used to reinforce unconscious processes executing specific motor skills to increase skill efficiency. This is because conscious control of quick and/or complicated movements are too slow in their intervening power, and thus, contribute to disrupting, or destroying the intended movements. Secondly, initiation of a specific skill requires specific psychological conditions for optimal performance, such as specific arousal and attention processes. Therefore, the motor skill component and the pre-skill, or pre performance lead-up, need to be rehearsed for efficient execution. Cohn provides evidence of pre-performance routines used to facilitate sports performance in open and closed-chain skills that include golf (Boutcher & Crews, 1987; Cohn, Rotella, & Wayd, 1990), tennis service (Moore, 1986; Moore & Lioyd, 1986), Basketball Freethrow (Lobmeyers & Wasserman, 1986; Wrisberg & Anshel, 1989), Soccer (Vealoy, 1986), Volleyball Service (Heishman, 1989; Kolscher, 1984), bowling (Kirschenbaum, Ordaman, Tomarken, & Holtzbaucer, 1982), Gymnastics (Mahoney & Avener, 1977),
Wrestling (Gould, Weiss, Weinberg, 1981), Skiing and skating (Orlick, 1986), and diving (Highlen & Bennett, 1983). Cohn et al (1990) showed that cognitive intervention improved adherence to preshot routines in golf, and follow-up measures revealed that performance improved in actual competitions. In follow-up interviews, golfers, reported that the intervention helped to improve concentration as well as deciding which club to select and the type of shot to be hit, and that it improved confidence and deceased controlling tendencies.

Among basketball players, mental imagery is an important term which reflect upon their whole performance in the game. How they think, how they react, how they adjust themselves according to the games situation, their attitude towards their opponents and their team mates, their personality view, how they attend and perceive, their vision, psychological stress and their personal and social factors which effects their performance are the main components of their mental imagery. This study is being, therefore, directed to explore the imaginative dimensions of a segment of sports persons.

Athletes and coaches spend thousand of hours in physical practice session attempting to develop physical skills to perfection. However they devote very little time to the development of psychological skills because they believe these skills are innate and untrainable (‘you either have it or you don’t) or because you don’t know how to practice psychological skills. Actually psychological skills are trainable and in this study the use of imagery as a psychological tools to facilitate sports performance and personal development is discussed. Imagery is a mental technique that ‘Progams’ the human mind to respond as programmed. All sports persons possess the ability to use imagery, but they do not use it systematically and often
are unable to control their imagery. Evidence supports the effectiveness of imagery in improving sport performance, but only through controlled, systematic practice.

Thus, the purpose of this study is to guide the athletes in the systematic, controllable use of mental simulation in sport. It is well settled by now that peak performance is consequence of both physical and mental factors. Mind and body cannot be separated. Athletes those who are having good simulation abilities can use simulation to gain awareness of their ideal performance state. This technique is effective during the off season, during practice and training and even in actual competition situations. Simulation is used to re-live previous excellent performance, with particular attention given to identifying what feelings, arousal level, thoughts, muscle tension, attentional focus, and so forth might have occurred. There also may be merit in simulating previous bad performances in order to contrast.

Simulation helps to train all parts of athlete's brain and body by helping them to physically perform the skill being trained under a physical environment that recreates all the stresses and distractions of competition. This helps them to develop the mental skills that stop them hoaxing under pressure stress management, distraction management, goal focus and imagery. It enables athletes to actually feel that you have been in a novel situation before.

**STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

Emotional Intelligence and self-esteem are two such socio-psychological variables which influence the sports performance to a great extent and it appears that these can be further strengthened by employing appropriate mental simulation training and by improving the
mental simulation abilities among the sportspersons. By undertaking the present study an attempt has been made to explore the efficacy of such training on these selected variables as well as on the selected basketball skills among the grass root level young basketball players belonging to the various schools situated in the State of Uttranchal Pradesh.

Therefore, the problem selected for the present study has been titled as:

_Efficacy of Mental Simulation Training on Emotional Intelligence and Self-Esteem of Basketball Players._

**OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The study had the following objectives:

1. To study the impact of mental simulation training on the socio-psychological variable Emotional Intelligence among basketball players.

2. To study the impact of mental simulation training on the socio-psychological variable Self-Esteem among basketball players.

3. To find out the gender differences among basketball players pursuant to mental simulation training on the variable Emotional Intelligence.

4. To find out the gender differences among basketball players pursuant to mental simulation training on the variable Self Esteem (including its subs scales of Personally Perceived and Socially Perceived Self Esteem as well as on Overall Self Esteem).
5. To evaluate the effects of mental simulation training on the mental simulation abilities of the basketball players.

6. To evaluate the effects of mental simulation training on the three selected basketball skills i.e. single hand set-shot, jump shot and lay up shot.

7. To make suggestions for developing appropriate and desirable training programme for basketball players and for further research on the basis of the findings of the study.

**HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY**

The following were the hypotheses of the study:

1. It was hypothesized that there would be significant post test differences between control and experiment groups on the variable Emotional Intelligence.

2. It was hypothesized that there would be significant post test differences between control and experiment groups on the variable Personally Perceived Self-Esteem.

3. It was hypothesized that there would be significant post test differences between control and experiment groups on the variable Socially Perceived Self-Esteem.

4. It was hypothesized that there would be significant post test differences between control and experiment groups on the variable Overall Self-Esteem.

5. It was hypothesized that there would be significant post test differences between control and experiment groups with regard to their Overall Mental Simulation Abilities.
6. It was hypothesized that there would be significant post test difference between the control and experiment groups with regard to the three selected basketball skills i.e. single hand set shot, jump shot and lay up shot.

7. It was hypothesized that pursuant to the mental simulation training there would be significant gender differences within the experiment group on the variable Emotional Intelligence.

8. It was hypothesized that pursuant to the mental simulation training there would be significant gender differences within the experiment group on the variable Personally Perceived Self-Esteem.

9. It was hypothesized that pursuant to the mental simulation training there would be significant gender differences within the experiment group on the variable Socially Perceived Self-Esteem.

10. It was hypothesized that pursuant to the mental simulation training there would be significant gender differences within the experiment group on the variable Overall Self-Esteem.

11. It was hypothesized that pursuant to the mental simulation training there would be significant gender differences within the experiment group with regard to their Overall Mental Simulation Abilities.

12. That pursuant to the mental simulation training, there would be significant differences within the experiment group on the three selected basketball skills.
13. It was hypothesized that there would be no significant differences between pre and post test status of overall control group on all the selected variables of the study pursuant to their routine training and practice.

14. That there would be significant differences between pre and post test status of overall experiment group on all the selected variables of this study pursuant to mental simulation training programme.

**DEFINITIONS AND EXPLANATIONS OF THE TERMS USED**

**Control Group:** This group comprised those basketball playing boys and girls who were not subjected to any mental simulation training and merely continued with their routine training and practice schedule.

**Emotional Intelligence:** Emotional intelligence is the ability to monitor one's own and others feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and use this information to guide one's thinking and actions (Salovey and Mayer, 1990).

**Experiment Group:** This group comprised those basketball playing boys and the girls who were subjected to mental simulation training as per the programme specifically designed for this study.

**Selected Basketball Skills:** This term has been used in this study to refer to three selected basketball skills i.e. single hand set shot, jump shot and lay up shot.

**Mental Simulation Abilities:** This term has been used in this study to refer to sensory abilities such as seeing, feeling, hearing, recollecting
the various climatic and environmental conditions, or experiencing the feel of bodily movements.

**Mental Imagery:** For the purpose of this study, this term has been used to refer to the process whereby the subject sees, feels and creates the pictures and images in his mind.

**Mental Simulation Training:** In the context of the present study this type of training involved mental imagery training and the simulated visualization processes.

**Self-Esteem:** Self-Esteem means one's feeling about oneself. It is based on one's ability to assess oneself accurately and still be able to accept and to value oneself unconditionally. This means being able to realistically acknowledging one's strength and limitations and at the same time accepting oneself as worthy and worthwhile without conditions or reservations.

**Personally Perceived Self-Esteem:** For the purpose of this study, this term has been used to refer as to how one perceives himself or herself in his or her own opinion.

**Socially Perceived Self-Esteem:** For the purpose of this study, this term has been used to refer to one's own opinion as to how others think about him.

**LIMITATIONS**

The study had the following limitations:

1. Factors such as socio-economic status, religious, cultural and family background of the subjects could not be controlled which were a limitation of his study.
2. The investigator could not control the daily routine, school environment and time table of the subjects which was a limitation of this study.

3. The investigator was also not able to control the genetic make-up, interests, likes and dislikes of the subjects and the same was a limitation.

4. No sophisticated equipment or apparatus was used for the purposes of the study.

5. Literature and training design regarding mental simulation training suitable to Indian conditions and norms was not much available, which was another limitation of this study.

**DELIMITATIONS**

The study was delimited as under:

1. The study was delimited to subjects studying in the selected Senior Secondary Schools situated at Dehradun in the State of Uttranchal Pradesh.

2. The study was delimited to two dependent socio-psychological variables i.e. emotional intelligence and self-esteem, performance in the three selected basketball skills i.e. single hand set shot, jump shot and lay up shot, and the independent variable Overall Mental Simulation Abilities.

3. The experiment and control groups were restricted to male and female basketball players between the age group of 15 to 19 years.
4. The study was restricted to administration of mental simulation training specifically designed for this study to the experiment groups only.

**SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

In today's sports scenario, records are being created to be broken in the next meet. Emphasis that is being placed on skills acquisition and its improvement is just unbelievable. Today, perfection is the target, be it in individual events, or in team sports. In the game of basketball, employing mental simulation for perfection of skills and regulating emotional intelligence and self-esteem can have far-reaching implications. The present study may also prove useful for understanding the level of emotional intelligence, emotional competency, self-worth, self-esteem and mental simulation abilities among basketball players which may also be helpful in enhancing their sports performance. This study will be a great help to the sports psychologists, physical education teachers and administrators of educational institutions and schools for selecting and devising appropriate training programmes regarding basketball players and in understanding the phenomena of emotional intelligence, self-esteem and mental simulation abilities among them. This study may pave way for evaluating and regulating the efficacy of such or similar training programmes which may be designed for promoting other socio-psychological variables among sportspersons.