CHAPTER - I

INTRODUCTION

Track & Field consists of running, hurdling, jumping, and throwing events, held between individuals and teams at indoor and outdoor meets. The running and hurdling competitions make up the track events, while the jumping and throwing contests comprise the field events. In many countries the sport as a whole is called athletics.

The first organized track-and-field meet that is called Olympic Games began in 776 BC in Greece. Coroebus, who won the first sprint competition, was regarded as the first Olympic champion. For many years the main Olympic competition was the pentathlon, which consisted of discus, javelin, foot racing, long jumping and wrestling. Other contests, including foot races for men clad in full armor, later joined the games. Notwithstanding, the Roman conquest of Greece in 146 BC, Olympic contests continued to be held for more than 500 years. But the Roman emperor, Theodosius I, discontinued it in 393 AD; because, he treated the Olympic contests as a pagan activity. For eight centuries thereafter, no organized track-and-field competitions occurred.

The uncovering of the ancient athletic site at Olympia and the knowledge gathered from various books relating to the inspiring history of the ancient games influenced the intellectual circle of the world in the 19th century. At this time, it was felt that bringing together of youth, in the spirit of ancient Olympic competitions, would not only contribute to the development of healthy youth, but also lay a foundation of peace in the world.

The credit of reviving the ancient Olympic Games goes to a French Baron, Pierre de Coubertin, who was born in Paris on 1st January 1863. As a young man, Coubertin had refused careers in literature and history. He had chosen to work in the field of sociology and education. He believed that intelligence cannot exist without training of the body. For this reason, he was a great admirer and propagator of
school sports. Due to this effort, the first inter-school athletic games were held in Paris in 1889. This was his first step in the direction of revival of Olympics on an international level. According to Prof. Carl Diem of Germany, it was the love of peace and respect for life that drove Coubertin to the idea of reviving the Olympic Games. Coubertin, due to his untiring efforts, succeeded in organizing a “Congress” on 23rd of June 1894 that decided to revive the ancient Olympic Games from the soil of their birth i.e., Greece in 1896. Thus Coubertin had won at last. It was in 1896 in the stadium at Athens (Greece) that the first Olympic Games of the modern era were held.

The roots of athletics in India in its present form can be traced back to the last decade of nineteenth century. Nothing much is known of its early stages, till first known participation of Norman G. Pitchard in 2nd Olympic Games in 1900 at Paris, where he won a Silver Medal in 200m. History does not speak much of this sport between 1900 and 1920. However, athletic competition was held as Inter Provincial Athletic Championship every two years. With the formation of Indian Olympic Association in 1926, its affiliation with IOC in 1927 and taking over the reigns of IOA by late Maharaja Bhupinder Singh as President and Prof. G.D. Sondhi as Secretary in 1928, Athletic Championship became a part of Indian Olympic Games held every two years.

India in the meantime participated (unofficially) in 1920 Olympic Games at Antwerp (Belgium) with 4 Athletes and 1924 Olympic Games at Paris with 8 Athletes under the leadership of H.C. Buck of YMCA Madras. The official participation of Indian athletes started in the 1928 Olympic Games at Amsterdam with a seven member team. Since then India participated under the IOA Banner in 1932 Olympic Games at Los Angeles and 1936 Olympic Games at Berlin with 3 and 5 athletes respectively. Mr. M.C. Dhawan, who participated in 1932 Olympic Games at Los Angeles, became the Secretary of Amateur Athletic Federation of India in 1950.
However, the Amateur Athletic Federation of India was formed in 1946 at the initiative of Maharaja Yadvindra Singh, the then President of Indian Olympic Association, with Prof. G.D. Sondhi as its first President. It got affiliated to IAAF (International Amateur Athletic Federation) in the year 1946. But it followed the IOA for holding the National Athletic Championship once in two years. It was only in 1949 that AAFI took the decision of holding the National Athletic Championship every year. The AAFI for the first time selected 8 athletes (6 men and 2 women), who participated in 1948 Olympic Games at London. It was for the first time Indian women competed in the Olympic Games. From that time onward India is participating continuously in all Olympic and other games i.e. Asian games, Commonwealth games, SAF games etc.

The poor performance of Indian track-and-field athletes at the International level has been a cause of great concern, especially to the coaches, physical educationists and sports scientists. Efforts have been made to improve the standard of our sportsmen for long, but little success has been achieved so far.

It is important to note that in contemporary India the choice of sports is determined by the child’s interest, facilities available and popularity of the sports in that particular society, but it is immaterial whether, his body structure is fulfilling the mechanical requirements of the game or not. If he chooses a wrong activity for which his body structure is not suited a limit is set beyond which, his performance cannot be improved, however, hard he and his coach may try.

However as man develops from birth to maturity some of the most observable changes in his body are those of his physical characteristics - his height, weight, shape and proportions. The patterns of growth of these characteristics result from the interaction of both inborn (genetic) and environmental factors, which are responsible for the performance of a sportsman. The physique and body composition including size, shape and form are known to
play a significant role on the performance of an athlete. The performance of a sportsman in any game is also dependent on his suppleness, skill, training and motivation and on various other factor of physiological and bio-chemical nature. Age, sex and physical growth have also been noticed to influence a person’s capacity for physical activity.

Sport psychology as an applied psychology is considered as the greatest boon of the modern day sports. In a very short time, sports psychology has completed long steps. The knowledge which we have in all the field of human hard working sector, especially of behaviour has increased to such a level that we find ourselves helpless in order to discuss one’s character of behaviour with out giving the reference of others. Singer has rightly remarked that “sports psychology explores one’s behaviour in athletics”. At present, in the sports, the psychological aspects are getting more and more importance and getting the most important place in the study of psychological characteristics of time limit of performance of an individual in a high level of competition.

We consider of psychological area in physical education and sport with motor performance, motor learning and motor acquisition. We have a clear large swing toward a loser, more phenomenological approach to the psychology of physical activity and sport and it is shown by an increasing interest in the behaviour of the participant in comparison of his performance. So, if we make a behavioural analysis of the psychology of the sport, we find in general terms that psychological, social and emotional aspect of an individual are in a context of physical activity and athletics.

The best way of developing the skill of an individual in a competitive situation is working. In the game of football we find several physical challenges. We may find two players having same skill but their performances can be different due to their physical and mental response.
This brief review of stress and psychological recovery restoration process to the role of the physical environment tries to attract more and more attention. As the daily interaction with the physical settings, enhancing the physical environment or stress can bear it. "Stress" individual environment transactions lead the individual to experience a discrepancy when it is found that the condition can be defined as the demands of a situation and the individual, biological, psychological or social resources between the (real or not ).

The negative effects of stress can be measured in different ways in and out of the lab and these measures fall into three categories: (1) Neuro-anatomical or physiological changes in the person experiencing stress, (2) the performance or behavior is dependent on those changes and by individuals (3) self-reports. The present paper reviews the literature to date, and each region, discussed separately. In psychology, stress effects due to low performance of most theoretical accounts both with high and low level of arousal, orgasm related to the performance of the inverted U-hypothesis called for a change.

However, other theories have attention and attentional capacity to deploy resources more weight with stress, especially on attention allocation, account for the effects of stress on cognition. Except for social assistance and research in environmental psychology point to some sort of principles also environment, health psychology focus away resources that could be used to combat environmental factors is directed (mainly family, socio-cultural and economic conditions In terms of operating) that has the potential to facilitate the recovery of depleted resources.

Request tension between environmental conditions and health-related system environment preceding factors: the human adaptive capacity, stress, work as an environmental stress, or as a coping strategy, between environmental demands and personal resources is to restore balance. People rarely use coping strategies rather passive response to stressful situations. Thus heightening the physical environment or harm to themselves or to reduce stress, coping resources can develop.
Nature of stress and mental fatigue restoration of experimental research have found evidence that the risk is related to. Natural environment to protect people against the effects of environmental stress and physical, emotional and attention to the restoration of the urban environment and provide greater. And behavioral and cognitive functioning and emotional states more positively-toned, positive changes in physical activity levels allow a shift towards the natural places, restorative environment is called.

For practical and theoretical reasons green vegetation dominated by a relatively high success rate, with a view of nature, has been studied most often between restorative environments. in contact with nature arousal / activation level, and has a positive impact on both cognitive overload, which is a coping strategy. Arousal theories recuperate from excessive stimulation of low levels of arousal must be more rapid means of setting. Natural settings, such complexity, intensity and urban environment as compared to the arousal properties of the lower level of movement, tend to be relatively strong effects on the stress should be.

Why recuperate overload Behav alternative approaches offer a different interpretation. Science. 2014, 4396 is relatively low external stimulus can be more quickly following a stressor. Increasing complexity and other urban settings typical of high excitation properties, place demands tax processing and more than nature settings elicit sustained attention; Accordingly hampered restoration of cognitive overload. Research on environment within the firm has developed two complementary theoretical positions: Stress Recovery theory (SRT) and attention restoration theory (ART); After the former, while a psychologist functionalist, is a psychological evolutionary theory. Evolutionary approach developed over a long period of human natural environment as urban settings as opposed to, people physiologically and psychologically adapted to natural perhaps that somewhat.

Functionalist to concentrate human and natural materials (eg, vegetation, water) for the positive feedback and development were favorable for the existence of the characteristic configuration setting is an uneducated mess. Both theories are
harder than the natural environment, urban or artificial environment, they place a strong drive to different people: the art of mental fatigue while SRT is the physical stress. These principles in the high physical stimulation, complement each other and can be negative in the absence of mental fatigue stress (SRT) featuring influence. In contrast, high arousal or attentional fatigue is always negative (ART) and is not affected; attentional fatigue as a result of stress and stress increases the risk that a condition can be treated as.

Research related to these two theories agree on two findings: (1) the needs of people affected by environmental preference is to restore; (2) are considered natural environment, such as the urban environment than artificial or become harder. In fact, research shows environmental restoration related to choice, but the direction of the effect is not clear; Restorative properties like the place and the environment positive linear relationship between the perception of the general preference for the natural environment "psycho-physical" restoration of the natural environment is simple and can be explained by the conviction that the person might suggest. Maintain or enhance psychological well-being of those places that allow physical, because in practice people prefer the natural environment.

Mental fatigue urban environment gives a high priority to more natural. The nature of our involuntary attention is particularly suited to engagement; Content designed to capture the attention on the opposite dramatically, requiring attention to remove. Drawing attention to the quality of the natural settings of the art "soft love" is known as. Nature of people's attention, attention is directed to ease controls that capture the executive system, the pessimistic views are blocked, and negative emotions positive ones are replaced by. Among the attractions, which work closely with nature attraction called restorative factors other properties, is also through.

Indeed, in a world where over a large enough capacity renewal "coherence" and "being in scope, ie, a physical and / or psychological being" away "from the demands on the guided meditation," to the extent " More information is with a sense of to see, between the persistence and environmental demand "environment is
considered, and" compatibility ". In the natural environment may experience research firm that does not claim, nor is it the restorative qualities of urban environments that the state is lacking.

They are dangerous is considered as for example, the possibility of a natural environment Behav, not restorative. Science. 2014, 4397, and some urban environments, such historic environment, the museum, or monasteries, to some extent, because the restoration can maintain restorative properties, can be reached easily So with a little free time and are consistent from, the majority of residents.

Accordingly involuntary process attentive urban environment can be activated with a view, but the information about the environment, engaging only in nature, ie, attentive system does not overload. ART illusory nature of time so appropriate urban artificial solution can fill the gap of lack of information processing related to an environment that is characterized by a strong claims.

Until the physical condition, like weather and speed of the greens might be more suited to one golfer than another on a same day, it is much more likely that the discrepancy in the two scores is again due to psychological factors. These factors are motivation, effort, concentration, confidence and so on but one consistent and main factor is the ability to handle the stress of competition.

When people compete they are confronted with a variety of situational demands. These demands, which may pertain to performance evaluation, skill, acquisition and improvement, and social interaction, represent “call for action” to which an individual must respond. Many people view these demands primarily as sources of challenge and excitement. Although these individuals may sometimes experience anxiety or the negative effects while competing, they typically perceive competition as relatively non-threatening and non-stressful. For some people, however, the challenge and excitement of competition often are accompanied or supplanted by anxiety or other stress responses. They frequently become tense and apprehensive prior to or during competition; instead of attending to the task at hand,
they focus on their heightened emotional arousal or become pre-occupied with worry.

We can experience the conditions of athletes at a time of poor performance. At this time, they are uptight and anxious. The nature of anxiety is shown by a feeling of apprehension and uncertainty and the experiencing of physical symptoms like butterflies in the stomach, sweaty palms and a thumping heart. More than anything else, during the competition one can feel these anxiety symptoms. The tendency for individuals to remain anxious in sport has made ready investigators to attempt to identify the sources of anxiety and to know how different individuals perceive them.

Anxiety experienced during competition, known as competitive anxiety, can be defined as the feeling of apprehension an individual may experience in response to perceived threats during competition (Martens, 1977). Clearly there are situations in sport where athletes will doubt their own ability to put across a desired impression, either because of their own perceived lack of ability or due to external factors. For example, a skilled athlete who feels he needs to win to demonstrate his ability may still lose to a better competitor or because of factors beyond his control such as illness or injury. In these situations the inability to convey the desired impression may be perceived as a threat to athletes, social-identity, which may result in feelings of anxiety.

Anxiety is considered as one of the greatest problems of modern trends in scientific knowledge, cultural conflicts and economical problem of man. Due to these reasons, the level of anxiety is increasing. Anxiety factor tells us the emotional condition of a mind and in this mind; we find a fear of danger of loss or suffering as a prominent feature. More than anything else, a fear which is not known to us is the reason of anxiety which creates tension and disturbance.
This issue of competitive anxiety and performance is of great interest to both researchers and athletes, and emphasis has been placed on the importance of understanding anxiety and the factors which contribute towards it (Martin & Mack, 1996). It has been suggested that through understanding the influences on competitive anxiety psychologists and sport practitioners will be able to more effectively help athletes manage their apprehension.

Although Trait & State Anxiety are considered different, these are inter-related, since it is believed that individuals with greater trait anxiety will respond to threatening situations with more intense state anxiety.

Gould, Horn, and Spreeman (1983) conducted a study on 446 junior elite wrestlers participating in a National tournament in the United States. Gould et. al. found major differences in the degree of competitive stress reported by the wrestlers. In comparison to the high trait anxious wrestlers the low trait anxious wrestlers were also superior in terms of: (1) Their perception of personal ability. (2) Their pre-tournament confidence, (3) The percentage of all matches in which they did not Worry, and (4) The trouble (lack o difficulty) they had in sleeping.

Orlick (1986) says that, when consulted with coaches, he found that the first concern to be discussed was, almost always, the psychological preparation for the competition. He often had the feeling that, the was the most critical issue because; it was one that confronted coaches and athletes almost daily in the training, outside training, while traveling and in competitive.

Rathore and Singh (2012) says that Athletes who participate in individual sports have also been found to experience more anxiety than those who play team sports. Common sense suggests that being part of a team alleviates some of the pressure experienced by those who compete alone. Finally, there is evidence that in team sports, when a team plays at the venue of the opposition (known as an "away" game) anxiety levels tend to be higher than when playing at home.
Again, common sense would indicate that having greater fan support and more familiarity with the venue plays a role in anxiety levels during competition. Anxiety disturbs psycho-physiological functioning of the organism in numerous ways. For instance, anxious individuals are said to have reduced attention focus. Individual's judgment

Rathore Vishan Singh and Singh Arvind Bahadur studied on 40 male (20 intervarsity and 20 national level) volleyball players of Chhattisgarh who participated in East zone intervarsity and national volleyball championships held at chitrakoot (MP) and Raipur (CG) respectively Session- 2012 were recruited as the subjects. For measuring the multidimensional trait anxiety of the subjects, questionnaire developed by Martens (1977) was used. It is a likert type five points scale having a maximum 31 score of 84 and a minimum score of 21. The higher scores show a high and lower score shows low level trait anxiety. The collected data were put to statistical treatment by computing to find out the differences if any, between the experimental groups on the level of multidimensional trait anxiety. The results of this study it is evident that significant differences were not found between north zone intervarsity and national level volleyball players of Chhatisgarh on their level of multidimensional trait anxiety. Singh&Tiwari (2009) who compare sports competition anxiety of male and female north zone intervarsity badminton players and observed no significant difference between male and female north zone intervarsity badminton players in their anxiety level. Another similar study examined by Razeena (2004) on the comparative relationship of state anxiety and aggression of defensive and offensive women hockey players and found no significant difference between defensive and offensive women hockey players on state anxiety and aggression. Hatzigeorgiadis and Chroni (2007) who have examined to explore relationships between pre-competition anxiety and in-competition coping in swimmers. Thye give the conclusions On the basis of the results obtained from the present empirical investigation, it may be concluded that the intervarsity and national level volleyball players of Chhatisgarh did not differ on their level of multidimensional trait anxiety. Furthermore it may also be inferred that both
intervarsity and national level volleyball players of Chhatisgarh have a similar level of anxiety during the competition.

Self-efficacy to perform the behavior of the individual in his or her own capacity is defined as belief. With more and more individuals Level of self-efficacy in the context of a task, successfully may face difficulties in completing the task. Besides that, Individuals with high self-efficacy to achieve their goals for a long period of time to work to devote more effort than those with low self-efficacy are more likely. Self-efficacy action plan and is required to start to execute action.

On the other hand, a person's level of self-efficacy beliefs, change in prevalence and strength. Shows the level Simplicity or individual able to perform the task complexity. The amount of individual self-efficacy Present work is measured against the amount of offers that seem to challenge. The prevalence of self-efficacy refers to Able to fulfill the functions of individual range. Some individuals feel capable of handling a wide range of the Work, others more specific areas may feel especially competent. Refers to the amount of power that faith Be able to complete the task at hand feels different. Do not have a very strong sense of self-efficacy A person participating in a work that is meant to be more likely, it does lead to greater rigor in the face Odds. Efficacy faith makes life is influenced by factors shown below:

1) Performance Experience: failure or success of a person in relation to the notion of personal experiences influence abitity. Self-efficacy can reduce the failure.

2) Vicarious experience: self-efficacy beliefs of others can influence the behavior and the consequences of those actions An individual.

3.) Imaginal experience: a person in a difficult situation effectively treat yourself / himself can imagine. This It can also promote self-efficacy.
4) Verbal persuasion: efficacy beliefs may be influenced by verbal encouragement and explain words. World of mouth incentives can reduce negative self-efficacy.

5) Physical and emotional states: nervousness, anxiety, sweating may cause the work requires the ability to win. Increased heart rate. The ability to physically uncomfortable physical sensations may be less comfortable. Conditions may also be in favor of competence, self-efficacy beliefs. Academic researchers believe the approach/avoidance was found to affect the level of task persistence and performance as well as in academic domains. Importance prevalence of self-efficacy has been recognized in many domains, including health and athletics.

The construct of self-efficacy has provided the impetus for research studies across a number of domains. Self-efficacy describes the belief one has in being able to execute a specific task to obtain a certain outcome (Bandura, 1997). It is not concerned with the skills an individual has but rather with the judgments of what one can do with whatever skills he or she possesses. Self-efficacy, then, can be considered a situationally specific self-confidence (Feltz, 1988a). Self-efficacy is theorized to influence the activities individuals choose to approach, the effort they expend on such activities, and the degree of persistence they demonstrate in the face of failure or aversive stimuli (Bandura, 1997). More specifically, the greater the efficacy, the greater the pursuit of challenge, and the higher the goal striving. Bandura's (1977) theory of self-efficacy has been the most extensively used theory for investigating self-confidence in sport and motor performance. This theory, developed within the framework of a social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986a), poses self-efficacy as a common cognitive mechanism for mediating people's motivation and behavior. People's judgment of their capability to perform at given levels affect their behavior (i.e., choice of activities, effort expenditure, persistence), their thought patterns, and their emotional reactions in demanding or anxiety-provoking situations. Self-efficacy is a major determinant of behavior.
when proper incentives and the necessary skills are present. Bandura (1997) noted that disparities in observed relationships between self-efficacy beliefs and action might stem from assessment deficiencies. He advocated a micro-analytic approach that involved measuring efficacy in terms of particularized judgments of capability that vary across realms of activity, under different levels of task demands within a given activity domain, and under different situational circumstances. The purpose of this investigation was to investigate Self-Efficacy Measurement, in a competitive ultraendurance triathlon setting, using measures that are sensitive to the orientation of performance and outcome and to explore the relationships between these measures and performance in an Ironman™ Triathlon. The actual predictions of performance (self-estimations) made by the triathletes, were more accurate predictors of triathlon performance. The performance orientation self-efficacy scale was the only scale that was significantly related to performance, in each of the three races when multiple regression analyses (MR) was used to determine their specific individual relationships. High inter-correlations existed between the two task specific self-efficacy scales.

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In terms of the testing of self-efficacy theory, the present study allowed the investigation to remove ambiguity concerning the direction of causality via the use of path analysis. According to Bandura’s self-efficacy theory, it was hypothesised self-efficacy affects subsequent performance both directly and indirectly through its effects on past performance. The results of the path analysis indicated that self-efficacy and past performance operated as determinants of triathlon performance in these events. A specification search (Schumacker& Lomax, 1996) was conducted to alter conceptual model that was ”best fitting” in some sense and yields parameters having practical significance and substantive meaning. As noted previously, this procedure allows non-significant variables (<1.96 critical ratio) to be removed from the analysis. The results of the overall ‘fit indices’ for the parsimonious model indicated that the model did fit the data well and the overall fit indices confirm a satisfactory model fit. The relationship between anxiety and athletic performance is one of the most widely discussed issues in sport and exercise psychology but the most difficult to pin down. In conceptual analyses, what begins as anxiety quickly fades into general arousal, psychic energy, or mental alertness or gets carved up into foreboding thoughts, somatic activity and tense behaviour. Despite innumerable studies, the empirical issue remains just as unsettled as the conceptual one. Anxiety over athletic activities is often attributed to trait anxiety. Competitive situations
presumably activate the personality trait, which then arouses anxiety that impairs performance. Therefore, much attention in the literature is devoted to reducing anxiety. This study did not provide evidence to support this view. What ever effects physiological arousal might have are likely to depend more on how much attention is paid to it and whether it is interpreted as being psyched up or as being distressed (Weinberg & Gould, 2011). Level of autonomic arousal was not related to performance, although perceived autonomic arousal was related to efficacy beliefs. To the extent that perceived arousal affects performance, it does so indirectly through the influence of efficacy belief. This study provides evidence to support the causality of efficacy beliefs influencing both anxiety and performance but that anxiety does not contribute independently to performance.

The competitive setting of distance running is similarly predicted by efficacy belief but not by anxiety level (Martin & Gill, 1991). This pattern of results suggests that efficacy beliefs enhance athletic performance mainly by affecting motivation and thought processes. The issue of past performance in causal analyses warrants brief comment. In studies in which individuals perform the same routine in rapid succession, efficacy beliefs contribute independently to performance, but adding prior performance increases the predictiveness of subsequent performance. The research paradigm used in the two studies provided evidence that performance is not a cause of performance. Performance will correlate with one another to the extent that their determinants are the same on the different occasions. As long as the underlying determinants remain unspecified, knowing that prior performance predicts subsequent performance says nothing about causation. The aim of the current research was to advance the understanding of psychosocial contributors to triathlon performance by a systematic analysis of its multiple determinants. Such analysis is achieved by extracting the various socio-cognitive determinants from the conglomerate set that governs performance and assessing their relative contribution.

The more determinants that are removed from the conglomerate, the greater the predictive shrinkage of past performance as it becomes the proxy residue of
fewer and fewer remaining determinants. A judgment on the success of this research will highlight its attempt in shifting attention from performance as a determinant of itself to the actual determinants of performance. Bandura (1986) hypothesised that self-efficacy beliefs mediate the effect of other determinants of performance on subsequent performance; that is, when these determinants are controlled, self-efficacy judgments are better predictors of performance. Bandura also argued that constructs such as self-concept, perceived usefulness, and anxiety are “common mechanism” of personal agency in the sense that they, like self-efficacy beliefs, also influence outcome. However, these mechanisms are, to a great extent, the result of self-efficacy judgments - their influence is largely due to the confidence with which individuals approach a task. Consequently, although strong correlational relationships are observed between these mechanisms and related outcomes, the relationships are mostly due to the influence of self-efficacy on the common mechanisms. Self-efficacy judgments mediate the effects of prior experience on the common mechanisms; that is, when prior experience are controlled, self-efficacy is a strong predictor not only of a related outcome but of common mechanisms such as anxiety, confidence, and attribution. The purpose of this study is to discover whether self-efficacy beliefs play the mediational role ascribed to them by Bandura (1986) and social cognitive theory, and whether these beliefs are stronger predictors of performance than are other presumed determinants and common mechanisms.

The focus on the influence of self-efficacy on triathlon was founded on a broader interest in athletes and athletic performance. The results would nevertheless inform social cognitive theory and its claims about self-efficacy in general. The results indicate that fewer misleading interpretations will occur when using methodologies that allows for investigation of the possible hierarchical relationships among variables and performance than from studies that fail to test for causal relationships. The results of the path analysis was consistent with earlier causal studies in motor performance in that self-efficacy was found to be an effect of performance (Feltz, 1988; Feltz&Mugno, 1983). Feltz&Mugno (1983) also found that the influence of performance on self-efficacy increased over time, while the
influence of self-efficacy on performance decreased over time. The support found for Bandura’s (1977) model under such a variable environment provides support to the utility of self-efficacy theory in actual sport settings. As previously noted, most of the previous research examining the causal elements in Bandura’s model have employed nonathletic populations engaging in novel tasks under controlled conditions (e.g. Feltz, 1988; McAuley, 1985). Other studies have examined athletes performing in competitive settings, but examined only the correlation relationships between self-efficacy and performance. Still other studies have undertaken causal investigations of athletes performing in contrived situations (Fitzsimmons et al., 1991; Haney, 1991). The present study examined the causal relationships hypothesised in Bandura’s model, using athletes competing in their chosen sport, and replicated the causal and meditational effects of self-efficacy on performance found in controlled settings. Field based support for the causal mechanism of self-efficacy theory had been missing in the literature relating to sport and motor performance prior to the present investigation. Task specific measures of self-efficacy (outcome and performance) did display criterion and predictive validity. The actual predictions of performance (self-estimations) made by the tri-athletes, were more accurate predictors of triathlon performance. The establishment of a set of predictive variables, concurrent validity and predictive validity indicates that this study was successful in understanding those sport psychological constructs that are related to triathlon performance. Results of this study also demonstrated that analyses such as path analyses or structural equation modelling are required if substantive questions are to be more clearly answered. When simpler correlational or multiple regression analyses were used, the plethora of significant relationships may have led to conclusions that would have been both unclear and misleading. Based on these findings coupled with practical applications to triathlon sport psychology training, the sources of confidence may fall into three broad areas. First, athletes gain confidence from ‘achievement’, which includes both mastery and demonstration of ability. Second, athletes gain confidence from ‘self-regulation’, which includes physical/mental preparation and physical self-presentation. Third, athletes gain
confidence from a positive and achievement-nurturing ‘climate’, which includes the sources of social support, coaches’ leadership, vicarious experience, environmental comfort, and situational favourableness. That is, athletes gain confidence when they achieve their goals, engage in effective self-regulation of cognitions and behaviour, and train and compete in a competitive climate that is supportive, challenging, comfortable, and motivating. Future research should continue to engage in field-based, causal investigations that examine athletes competing in their chosen activities.

The general term achievement motivation and achievement in all fields is used to cover. With the an individual shown by the degree of competition which means leaning towards individuality inspiration competitiveness. Achievement links sport-specific achievement motivation, led psychologists to focus on the game. This failure (less NAF) associated with the need to avoid the low (high Nach) a high need to achieve: The main focus which an individual achievement motivation that determine the extent to which success. two personality traits is to get motivated. With these characteristics, the desire to succeed far outweighs the fear of failure. These artists are high in achievement motivation and failure (high NAF) the need to avoid is associated with a high (low Nach) needed to achieve low to high achievers.2 is sent. With these characteristics So far outweighs the desire for success is the fear of failure. These artists are low in achievement motivation and are referred to as low achievers.

Achievement motivation can be examined in terms of achievement behavior in competitive sport (Gill, 1993, 2000; Gill & Deeter, 1988; Gill & Dzewaltowski, 1988). Using the theoretical underpinnings advanced by Spence and Helmreich (1978) and Helmreich and Spence (1983), achievement motivation has been conceptualized as multidimensional, with mastery, work, and competitiveness dimensions. This implies that some people approach achievement situations with the desire to strive for excellence, others emphasize competition, and still others desire to outperform other people (Gill & Williams, 2008). According to Gill and Williams
achievement behavior is central to sport and exercise endeavors, and understanding individual differences in motivation orientation is a key to understanding achievement. Achievement behavior, and specifically competitive achievement behavior, is one of the most prominent features of sports and exercise activities (Gill & Deeter, 1988). However, many explanations for individual differences in achievement behavior exist. Some emphasize personality and others stress perceptions and interpretations, but nearly all stem from the classic work of Atkinson (1964) and Atkinson (1974).

According to Atkinson (1964) and Atkinson (1974), the tendency to approach success is a function of the person’s motive to approach success as well as the situational factors. High achievers are most likely to strive to achieve when their motive for success is high and there is a 50% chance of success, which would make the victory the most rewarding. People with a strong motive to avoid failure tend to avoid these situations. When forced into an achievement situation, a low achiever will choose either very easy or very difficult tasks (Gill & Williams, 2008; Weiss & Chaumeton, 1992). Competitiveness reflects enjoyment of competition and desire to strive for success in competitive situations.

Gill (1993) identified three competitive orientations in sport: win, goal, and ego. A win orientation reflects an emphasis on interpersonal comparison and winning. A goal orientation emphasizes personal performance standards. In ego orientation the competitive situations however, provide the opportunity to demonstrate superiority. However, in sport, competitive behavior is actually refers to achievement motivation (Helmreich & Spence, 1983; Gill & Deeter, 1988). A general achievement motivation is widely recognized as a capacity to experience pride in accomplishment or a disposition to strive for success across varied achievement situations and standards (Atkinson, 1964; Atkinson 1974). Thus, another important component of achievement in the physical domain involves competition. Research in this area has focused on comparing the competitive orientations of different groups, including groups based on gender, athlete status, and disability status (e.g. Gill,
Dzewaltowski & Deeter, 1988; Kang, Gill, Acevedo & Deeter, 1990; Skorkilis, 2003). Overall, the results are fairly consistent. Although males are more competitive and win oriented and females are more goal oriented, these differences seem to be related to the competitive experience (Gill, 1988, 1993). Additionally, athletes tend to be more competitive than non-athletes; however, athletes are more likely than non-athletes to endorse performance goals and less likely to emphasize winning outcomes. Gill (1993) concluded that although athletes generally score higher on both general and sport-specific achievement motivation, the orientation that best distinguishes athletes from non-athletes is sport-specific competitiveness. Interestingly, athletes do not uniformly emphasize a win orientation; they put greater emphasis on performance than on outcome. Hence, to understand achievement behavior, we must consider individual differences. As such, continued research may provide a greater understanding of individual differences and contextual factors in people’s motivation in sport and exercise settings.

The coach-athlete relationship is one of the most important influences on athletes’ motivation and subsequent performance (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003). Mageau and Vallerand (2003) focused on presenting a motivational model of the coach-athlete relationship that describes how coaches influence athletes’ motivation. In line with the motivational model by Mageau and Vallerand (2003), Kish and Woodard (2003) revealed that coaches that exhibit positive actions impact player achievement because they have impacted the athlete’s motivation which in turn leads to higher levels of performance. However, much of the previous research done on this area has focused on the positive impact coaches can make on athletes, but it is also just as possible that coaches can negatively impact their athletes. Alfermann, Lee and Wurth (2005) conducted two studies with adolescent athletes in which coach behavior and motivation climate was investigated. The purpose of their study was to determine the impact of coach behavior on athletic motivation. Based on the findings, Alfermann, Lee and Wurth (2005) concluded in their studies as follows:
“There is no doubt that coaches have an enormous impact on athletes’ physical and psychological welfare and their motivation. Coaches have been shown to influence young people’s sports involvement, enjoyment and withdrawal, athletes’ perceived competence and skills and self-esteem. Interviews with elite level athletes reveal the tremendous positive, but sometimes even destructive influence coaches may have on the athletes’ sport career and their physical and psychological welfare” (p. 15). Meanwhile, Bortoli, Robazza and Giabardo (1995) pointed out that the coaches’behaviours, attitudes and communications skills strongly influence the sport experience in athletes. They had stated that ‘a good coach-athlete interaction tends to enhance motivation, induce pleasant emotions, and create satisfactory and positive climate’ (Bortoli, Robazza, & Giabarda, 1995, p. 1217). These statements are especially true in competitive sport environments where the coaches play a significant role in athletes’ life and off the field/court. As Officer and Rosenfeld (1985) postulated that this coach-athlete relationship is very unique in that the coach is part teacher, part friend, part counselor, and part parent while the athlete plays the roles of student, friend, client and offspring. Additionally, the coach-athlete-interaction, especially the leadership behaviour of coaches, plays a crucial role in the development of athletes’ sport performance. Previous studies revealed that the coaches’ leadership style is an important factor affecting the performance of athletes (Chelladurai, 1980, 1980; Carron & Chelladurai, 1978; Horne & Carron, 1985; Weiss & Frieddrich, 1986). According to the multidimensional model of leadership behaviour in coaching, there are three areas of leader behaviour namely, required behaviour, actual behavior and preferred behaviour (Chelladurai, 1990). These areas should be congruent for the athletes to be satisfied and perform well. The model has been empirically confirmed (Chelladurai, 1984; Chelladurai & Carron 1983; Weiss & Friedrich, 1986; Schliesman, 1987). In the related study by Black and Weiss (1992) found significant relationships for male and female between perceived coaching behaviors and motivation in competitive swimmers.

The findings also indicated that variables contributing most importantly to the relationships differed depending upon gender and age groups. They concluded
that young athletes’ self-perceptions and motivation are significantly related to the quantity and quality of coaching feedback they receive for performance successes and errors. Likewise, Lim’s (1995) study in the local contexts in Malaysia found that rewarding and democratic behavior of coaches contribute significantly to athletes’ satisfaction and achievement motivation. Thus, in regard to the findings, it seems to support the notion by Gordon (1986), which disclosed that coaches who exhibit technical competence, positive feedback in a direct but supportive and friendly manner are more likely to be regarded ‘effective’ by athletes. However, a study by Omar and AbdMajid (2004) regarding the relationship between coaches’ profile and athletes’ performance shown that coaches’ skills will not only help athletes in enhancing their physical, technical and psychological ability, but may educate athletes in their social and spiritual life.

A qualitative approach (interview, document analysis and observation) was employed to compile data on coaches’ profile, training program and athlete’s achievement. The outcomes of the study revealed that experience and qualification in coaching is imperative as determining factor towards athletes’ performance either in individual or team sports. Thus, coaching style should be tailored based on situational factor in order to secure success in sports. Coaches’ individual philosophy, work ethics and professionalism with proper communication style will contribute significantly to the success in any sports and competition (Martens, 1987, 2004). Increased motor drive and the performance of specific principles for the game that exists apply psychological concepts.

**Extrinsic motivation**:-Extrinsic motivation that comes from an external source of inspiration. The trophies or medals, including such as financial or other material rewards, is tangible. At the expense of other aspects of the game tangible extrinsic motivation are focused on materialism, which is not ideal for athletes required. Abstract extrinsic motivation can often be enough to motivate athletes who admire, respect and achievement are included.
**Intrinsic motivation:** Intrinsic motivation comes from within the athlete or player. This is a repetition of skills to overcome the challenges and pleasures, including a natural desire. Especially during grueling practices - these factors why they participate in certain sports athletes can remember. Internal motivation is often the best that they win or enhanced skill sets are in competition, is supported by a series of goals

Achievement or success of a defect with achievement motivation theory can be interpreted in many ways. Some artists, for example, a long jump athlete to win an events a victory over others as a success. These people are called ego goal orientation. Believe that the ability of those with ego orientation and the Criteria for success against others. For example, a second long jump ego goal orientation can see success as an athlete, it also improves the functions based on individual 'product' goal is to judge other artists Achievement of a better performance. These people are called to task orientation. If they try to work with the orientation value that internal goals and compare ourselves to believe that the success criteria. Task orientation 'performance' or 'process' goals can be achieved through Achievement motivation that the two personality traits: (High Nach) need it to achieve a high failure (less NAF) and is associated with less need to avoid. With these characteristics, the desire to succeed far outweighs the fear of failure. These artists are high in achievement Motivation and referred to as the high achievers. (Low Nach) also failure to obtain required two short (high NAF) and is associated with a high need for escape. Desire for success far outweighs these characteristics fear of failure. These artists are low in achievement Motivation and referred to as the low achievers.
Gill (1993) identified three competitive orientations in sport: win, goal, and ego. A win orientation reflects an emphasis on interpersonal comparison and winning. A goal orientation emphasizes personal performance standards. In ego orientation the competitive situations however, provide the opportunity to demonstrate superiority. However, in sport, competitive behavior is actually refers to achievement motivation (Helmreich & Spence, 1983; Gill & Deeter, 1988). A general achievement motivation is widely recognized as a capacity to experience pride in accomplishment or a disposition to strive for success across varied achievement situations and standards (Atkinson, 1964; Atkinson 1974). Thus, another important component of achievement in the physical domain involves competition. Research in this area has focused on comparing the competitive orientations of different groups, including groups based on gender, athlete status, and disability status (e.g. Gill, Dzewaltowski & Deeter, 1988; Kang, Gill, Acevedo & Deeter, 1990; Skorkilis, 2003). Overall, the results are fairly consistent. Although males are more competitive and win oriented and females are more goal oriented, these differences seem to be related to the competitive experience (Gill, 1988, 1993). Additionally, athletes tend to be more competitive than non-athletes; however, athletes are more likely than non-athletes to endorse performance goals and less likely to emphasize winning outcomes. Gill (1993) concluded that although athletes generally score higher on both general and sport-specific achievement motivation, the orientation that best distinguishes athletes from non-athletes is sport-specific competitiveness. Interestingly, athletes do not uniformly emphasize a win orientation; they put greater emphasis on performance than on outcome. Hence, to understand achievement behavior, we must consider individual differences. As such, continued research may provide a greater understanding of individual differences and contextual factors in people’s motivation in sport and exercise settings.

Depression affects many different aspects of the human race is the most common disease. The depression, genetic, biochemical, environmental, or any number of different reasons stemming from psychological sources. It can be the result of what is called a chemical imbalance in the brain such as the endogenous
factors, including factors. There may be a combination, a depression, personal or social problems, stressful situations, or such as assault or death of a loved family history of traumatic events. Depressive disorders result reduced mobility, an increased risk of depression may be due to pressure from the rapidly growing university students are the future of the region will be the manufacturers of depression among students at the university, according to research conducted, a deep social issues. Unfortunately leads and stress they face. Their health, safety, and sports performance can be affected at all because it is a major concern risk. In addition, the maladaptive coping behaviors and mental health than other populations conflict less likely to seek help and more likely to turn. This growing awareness is a greater understanding of personal experiences and treatments that have been suggested to be helpful in improving. University experience depressive symptoms in the population for a number of reasons to be of great concern. Important one, the typical age of onset for depression is a significant risk for a number of colleges and universities and the increasing number of reports of depression reporting appear to be on the rise in recent years group. As depression, which is the mid-twenties Iran's population is relatively young, having regard to the fact that suicidal ideations and intentions on their mental health facilities, and for prevention and treatment of diseases such authorities should pay more attention. Mental health among this generation is a necessity, identification, prevention and mental disorders and the low cost and minimal side effects with the use of appropriate methods to keep finding ways to treat. In this regard, the researcher, the right to employment of youth mental condition to alert the authorities in order for the treatment and prevention of depression and lower health care costs between the athlete and non-athlete male Tabriz Islamic Azad University of depression among students and finally decided to compare the rate of emotional family and to prevent the loss of financial and human resources. Nowadays, more attention should be methods for the treatment of mental disorders. One of these new methods is exercise, but more research to get the best results with more accurate statistical information and knowledge needs. The relationship between depression and sports participation to achieve a more complete
understanding and a critical need for more research, is not. A significant reduction of the current research in the field of IT is a combination that can be concluded Depression and sports, especially focusing on the experiences of male university students. The number of studies of the psychological benefits associated with participation in sports has suggested that different sources of stress that acts as a buffer against Depression affects people that is a very common mental health conditions Different ways and is much less, or may be severe and permanent. The usual Symptoms of depression include loss of interest in activities less sense, you used Feeling bad about yourself and energy reduction, to enjoy. This condition affects At some point, nearly 1 in 10 people.

Depression is a significant risk factor for suicidal ideations and attempts, highlighting the critical importance of appropriate attention and intervention (ACHA, 2008; NIMH, 2009b, Sisk, 2006). This need may be especially pressing in collegiate sport because college students, and athletes in particular, underutilize mental health support resources available to them, leaving them susceptible to potentially harmful outcomes (Andersen, Denson, Brewer, & Van Raalte, 1994; Cogan, 2000; Glick & Horsfall, 2005; Mentink, 2001; Sisk, 2006; Watson, 2005; Yang et al., 2007). Understanding the symptoms, prevalence, and associated risk factors of mental illness is vital in ensuring proper attention and care (Andersen et al., 1994; Glick & Horsfall, 2005). Obtaining an in-depth understanding of the experience of depression from the point of view of the athlete can also provide valuable assistance in treating this at-risk population.
Bipolar disorder (manic depression):-Formerly known as manic depression, bipolar disorder, is a chronic disease Extreme highs (mania) and characterized by unusual and dramatic changes in mood, Lows (depression). This condition affects about one in every 100 people. Borderline Personality Disorder (BPD):- Borderline personality disorder (BPD) is a mood disorder. Symptoms include Emotional instability, mood swings, feelings, you can not cope, distressed and Impulsive behavior. If you have BPD complications, including problems, may cause With substance abuse and self-harm. This condition affects about 1 in 100 people.

Schizophrenia: Schizophrenia affects the way someone has a chronic mental health condition Thinks. Experiencing symptoms associated with schizophrenia include Hallucinations, confusion, mood changes, becoming confused ideas Withdrawn. Despite common misconceptions, people suffering from schizophrenia Is likely to be violent than the general population. This condition affects Almost one in every 100 people.

As a neurotransmitter, Serotonin is important in transmitting nerve impulses. Scientific research has shown that a lack of Serotonin may be one of the main causes of depression and drugs designed to combat The work of the disease by reducing the amount of hormones in the blood is absorbed again. Brisk walking, running, cycling and swimming endurance sports are shown for positive effect of chasing away the blues. It is considered the practice of these games Fresh air is especially beneficial. In the case of physical activity to reduce psychological Disorders and depression in people, especially young students can be prevented. Are endurance sports Is a cure for depression, they are practicing the week three times provided. So, Games often depression, the source of, or salvation took on the role as a new and complex. Collegiate athletes at an increased risk of depression may be due to pressure Stress they face. The risk to their health, safety, and the game is a big concern because of Performance may be affected at all. In addition, maladaptive coping behaviors collegiate athletes and mental health than other populations conflict less likely to seek help and more likely to turn. This growing awareness is a greater understanding
of personal experiences and treatments that have been suggested to be helpful in improving. Therefore, the aim of the present study depression in female collegiate athletes was to explore the lived experience. In-depth, unstructured interviews with 10 current and former female collegiate athletes was conducted. The interview, recorded in writing, and were analyzed using phenomenological research methods. Thematic analysis (exhaustion out of control, self-doubt, and nowhere to go), a ground (game play) and four general categories revealed. Direct quotes from the participants are used to illustrate these categories, and are suitable for the connection of relevant research. Practical implications and recommendations for athletes, coaches, and families are made. Suggestions are given for future research studies. The results of the study of depression among female college athletes experience will contribute to increased awareness and sensitivity that is hoped. Including the use of anabolic potential of a wide range of mental disorders, depression, anxiety, bipolar disorder, attention deficit / hyperactivity disorder, disordered eating, including substance abuse and, as a result of these diverse and significant stress within the Athletic population Steroids can be. Board of Depression-depth research on the experiences of athletes lack was chosen as the focus of the current study. The presence of clinical depression include five or more of the following: Symptoms during the same two-week period: (a) depressed mood most of the day, nearly Every day; (B) is clearly in the interest or pleasure at all, or almost all, activities; (C) Significant weight loss or gain, or decrease or increase in the diet; (D) insomnia or Hypersomnia; (E) psychomotor agitation or retardation; (F) fatigue or loss of energy; (G) worthlessness or excessive or inappropriate feelings of guilt; (B) reduce the potential for Think or concentrate, or indecisiveness; (I) recurrent thoughts of death, recurrent suicidal Ideas without a specific plan, or a suicide attempt or a specific plan for committing Suicide.
Today, if you want to get success in the field of performance of physical education activity or sports, you will have to accommodate yourself to systematic training to develop physical and psychological variables on the one hand and training and consideration of psychological characteristics on the other. The crucial factor influencing development of physical fitness through participation in physical education and sport appear to be psychological characteristics of student and their socio-economic back-ground. To appear in physical education activities besides developing physique gives contribution in building self-confidence, reduction of anxiety level and outgoing tendency or extroversion as such proficiency may lead to increase success in physical task that is valued in one’s group.

In this manner, psychological skill training methods emphasize education in the conceptual rational for procedures and personal acquisition of mental skill to place the athlete in control. Specifically, psychological skill training has three following parts (a) relaxation training, (b) self-instructional training to reduce negative, ill thoughts and emotions during learning and practicing positive, adaptive self-statement and (c) attention, concentration control veering around the concept is the fact of the consistency, confidence, concentration, anxiety, positive attitude and will are the basic psychological skill which when we have learnt and practiced become the most conducive factor in the enhancement of athletic performance.

Use of psychological knowledge to improve the development, performance and satisfaction of athletes- it’s comparatively a recent global development. Sport psychologists are seriously concerned with this incident both in the west and orient has achieved success par excellence.

Confidence gets us moving toward success instead of trying to avoid failure when confident we tend to focus our thoughts and images on coping with the environment and our opponent, on mastering the task and on the rewards that will accrue from success, rather than worrying and catastrophe sizing about performing below par and the consequence of doing poorly. As a result, was are mentally
rehearsing successful action, rather than imaginably practicing (and thereby programming in) poor performance

The mind-body connection is a very powerful one. For everything you think in your mind, the body has a reaction. One goal of psychological intervention in sports is to help athletes realize their talent. Achieving and maintaining peak performance in competitive sports is an important goal for all athletes, coaches and others associated with the sport. According to Privette (1983), the study of “Peak performance is useful for understanding human potential and for an examination of qualities common to all experiences that significantly tap human power”. Peak performance requires two things, first, good form and technique and the second element are mental skills.

The performance of man in the sports or any other area, depends on his movement-oriented behavior—all those action which can note by other or without the aid of instruments and which have their roots in the biological phenomena. We can also say that the performance of an individual is the result of the integrated and harmonious functioning of the several moving process of the body. Several environmental conditions can affect the performance of an individual in which climate, attitude, temperature, humidity are examples. There are some ‘performance variables’ which are those conditions that supposedly affect performance i.e. they may depress or elevate performance and are quite transient in nature like fatigue, warm-up superstitious behaviour, pain tolerance, over load effect.

Walker (1980) captures such psychological interaction with these words “A person who doubts himself is like a man who would enlist in the ranks of his enemies and bear arms against him self. He makes his failure certainly himself being the first person to be convinced of it.” On the other hand the over confident athlete, actually over confident is nusmomer. Athletes cannot be over confident if the confidence is well founded in their abilities. When we refer to some one being over-confident we really mean they are falsely confident; their confidence is greater than their competencies warrant.
The self-confidence that the individual develops in the process of interaction with people and environment leads to comparing himself with his peers in competition and also the feelings of confidence and courage as a result of success or failure in his endeavors.

Martinek, Cheffers and Zaickhousky (1978) studied the effect of organized physical activity on the development of specific motor skill and self-concept. They concluded non-significant correlation between motor skill and self-concept.

Mahoney and Avener (1977) found that successful gymnasts were those, who prior to competition expressed higher level of self-confidence than did those who were less confident of success.

Successful athletes are supposed to be not only Physically Tough but Mentally Tough as well. The reason for this originates out of the realization that top sports is a ruthless, cold, and hard business, where there is no place for the tender-spirited. Tutko’s (1974) characterization of such trait indicates that the “Mentally Tough” athlete can take rough handling; is not easily upset about losing, playing badly, or being spoken to harshly; can accept strong criticism without being hurt; and does not need too much encouragement from his coach.

The three basic principles of mental toughness are: (1) Control what you think. (2) Control what you visualize and (3) Control how you look. The central nervous system cannot tell the difference between the thought and the actual event. Your muscles undergo a 1/3 contraction every time you visualize an action. The more vivid, detailed and real the visualization, the more powerful will be the effect. Mental toughness depends on controlling your emotional response to events. Control the situation rather than letting the situation control you. You can’t control winning, but you can control your mental state, which will help you perform better. Performing better will help you win.
Many a time sportsmen are accused of not having mental toughness which is indispensable for high level performance. Thus, mental toughness becomes one of the most important aspects to be developed. Therefore, it has become the need of the hour to assess the degree of mental toughness in order to take necessary steps to improve the performance.

There are certain moments during competition that appear to carry great psychological significance, when the momentum starts to shift in one direction or another. These situations require athletes to remain completely focused and calm in the face of difficult circumstances. Tennis players talk of the ‘big’ points during a tight match, such as a fleeting chance to break serve; for an athlete, it could be the final triple-jump in the competition after seriously under performing; for a footballer, it could be how you react to a perceived bad refereeing decision or to going behind in a match your team is expected to win. Think about times when things have not gone quite as per plan and how you reacted. The journey towards peak performance is rarely a perfectly smooth road and we learn from our mistakes – or should do. Mo setbacks shake your self-belief and lower your motivation or act as a catalyst for even greater effort? Even great athletes and teams suffer setbacks. Olympic athlete Backley (1996) is a prime example. In this book, “The Winning Mind”, Backley cited his psychological strengths and, at time, his weaknesses as major determinants of whither he performed near to or below his own strict targets in competition. He talks of the transition from young up-and-coming javelin thrower to major international competitor when, after experiencing success so often as a junior, he found himself under prepared for the mental hurdles and barriers created by higher-level competitions. Backley says that psychological strategies were the key to help him to deal with competitive stress.
HEART RATE:

The number of cardiac contractions in one minute is called heart rate. The number of contractions ranges from 60 to 80 b. min$^{-1}$ the rate and intensity of the cardiac contractions is affected by exercise, long-term training, age, disease, stress, environmental temperature etc. However 72 b. min$^{-1}$ is generally considered as a normal resting heart rate. However, lower resting heart rates than 72 b. min$^{-1}$ are recorded in the trained individuals.

Both the heart rate variability (HRV) and pulse rate variability (his) heart noninvasive means for evaluation of autonomic nervous control. However, to achieve this either by hand or not, they may hire of HRV, is not fixed. Electrocardiographic signals recorded by the index finger of both hands and pulse waves obtained from these measures HRV measures and monotonous and Altman method using linear regression analysis were compared to normal subjects. Highly significant correlation (P <0.001, 0.89 <R <1.0) corresponding to the HRV measures and these measures were found between both hands. However, HRV, right between pairwise comparisons among these measures were inadequate agreements and heart rate and ultra-low frequency power (ULFP) except they have left. Or manually close to them, but is not the same as HRV in healthy subjects. HRV, right and left, they left their heart rate and ULFP are surrogates of each other in normal subjects. HRV is generally a matter for the assessment of autonomic nervous modulation is accepted as the standard method, either by hand in the heart of their subject matter may not be suitable for the assessment of autonomic nervous modulation. This research study Nivique 5 minutes to record ECG data acquisition system was using the case-control study included 200 cases of diabetic patients and the control group, which includes the group of 400 persons, including 200 healthy individuals. 5 minutes of ECG Frequency domain analysis of heart rate variability data collected and analyzed parasympathetic activity and sympathetic portrayal of activity which was subject to different parameters. HbA1c levels were estimated by high-performance liquid chromatography. In the present study the parameters of heart rate
variability and heart rate variability parameters of parasympathetic modulation illustration (HF high frequency, low frequency-LF power, the power-TP. And LF / HF ratio of the power of ) that are lower than those normally observed in diabetics sympathetic modulation (LF) when compared to the parameters of heart rate variability illustration heart (HF) and more are reduced. It also subjects HbA1c values and that there is a negative correlation between the parameters of HRV was found. The results of the long-vagal fibers axonal degeneration can be attributed to the early parasympathetic damage and axonal degeneration of the most elevated levels of blood glucose caused.

**BLOOD PRESSURE**

Blood pressure is the lateral pressure exerted by the moving column of blood on the walls of the blood vessels, with pumping action of the heart the pressure raises to a maximum during systole and falls to a minimum level during diastole. The pressure in the arteries is thus pulse tile, and is due to the fact that the content are more than the capacity at any given time.

Systolic pressure: - This is the maximum pressure exerted on the walls of the vessels during systole

Diastolic pressure: - It is the minimum pressure in the vessels during the diastole of heart.

Pulse pressure: - This is the difference between systolic pressure and diastolic pressures.

The general physical fitness of top ranking athletes has been evaluated. Proposals are coming up for the selection of potential athlete with the designs of tests and the body size predictions. Human growth and performance is also an important field in this regard. DeGaray et al. and Klissoras have worked out the genetic aspect of performance.
In this paper an individualized central aortic blood pressure (BP) waveform to assess the relative performance of alternative strategies presents a comparative study. (ITF 1), a complete representation of individual central aortic-radial arterial line transmission line based on two partly individual (ITF two and ITF 3), and a fully nonindividualized (NITF) transfer function (ie, frequency dependent on central aortic BP relationship-radial) Nine pigs were constructed using experimental data collected from the subjects. These transfer functions estimated from the root-mean-squared waveform of central aortic BP waveforms error and performance measures associated with systolic and pulse pressure with absolute errors, the measured were compared against the gold standard. Overall, non-individualized modest but important advantage of the approach was more personal. The average face value of the pulse transit time wandering about the superiority of their non-individualized increasingly personalized approach to equivalent, non-nominal or was declared under extreme physical conditions. The result is a completely individual transfer function (ITF 1) the use of partially strongly (ITF two ITF 3) or even completely nonindividualized transfer function (NITF) under the nominal yield acceptable performance One can, for the non-nominal physical conditions that suggest physical conditions recommended.

**Hypertens (1998)** conduct the study on Blood pressure measurement in epidemiological studies: a comparative analysis of two methods. Data from the EPIC-Potsdam Study. European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition. The objectives of his study are to investigate the impact of a device replacement in blood pressure measurement in epidemiological studies on comparison and interpretation of epidemiological data by replacing traditional aneroid manometry with automated oscillometric devices. The design of his study Within the context of a continuing epidemiological study (EPIC-Potsdam Study), blood pressure measurements were performed simultaneously with an aneroid sphygmomanometer and an automated oscillometric device for each subject. We randomly selected 400 men and women from the main study population and one observer performed three consecutive blood pressure measurements for each subject according to a
standardized procedure. In total, 10 oscillometric devices of the same type were used. Demographic and anthropometric data for each subject were obtained by trained interviewers. The statistical analysis revealed the mean difference between the aneroid and the oscillometric measurements of systolic blood pressure was 0.2 +/- 5.6 mmHg (aneroid value greater, NS), whereas the mean difference in diastolic blood pressure, 0.5 +/- 3.5 mmHg (aneroid value smaller), attained statistical significance (P = 0.0001). Estimates of prevalence for hypertension differed by 0.4% for women, and by 2.9% for men. Associations with the differences between methods were observed with age, blood pressure, lean body mass, upper arm circumference and specific devices without indicating a strong and consistent pattern. Thus he concluded use of automated oscillometric devices in epidemiological studies introduces a bias of very small magnitude compared with use of the aneroid method. The effect of the change to this automated measurement procedure on prevalence estimates is small but might affect comparability of data. Minor differences in measurement performance between devices of one type might affect population parameters.

TEMPERATURE

The body temperature is a complex, non-linear data point, and external changes. Based on these sources of variation is much evidence that would represent a significant departure from the practice of medicine in favor of oversimplifying complex issues and explain the temperature data, disregarding knowledge is entangled. Part 1 of this review of the historical work Wunderlich on temperature and a healthy normal temperature 98.6 °F / 37.0 °C Wunderlich's findings and methodology are reviewed and the results are in contrast to the findings of modern.

During exercise the body produces a great deal of heat. In extreme circumstances, this can elevate its core temperature from 37°C to beyond 40°C. When the surrounding air is cool, heat can be lost from the body by the process of radiation (transfer of heat by electromagnetic waves), convection (by air movement),
conduction (by contact), and evaporation (by sweating). As the surrounding temperature increases it becomes more and more difficult to lose heat by radiation, convection, and conduction. Hence, the predominant source of heat loss in warm to hot conditions is from the evaporation of sweat on the skin surface. Sweat losses exceeding 6 liters have been recorded in marathon runners. These deficits constitute a body weight reduction of 8-10 percent and a body water loss of 13-14 percent (Costill, 1979). Team-game players performing in warm to hot conditions can sweat at a rate of 2 liters per hour. During a game this can amount to a loss in body weight of 5 percent and a reduction in body water of more than 10 percent (Pyke & Hahn, 1981). Losses in body weight of 2 percent have been shown to result in reductions in endurance performance as well as increase heart rate by 5 bpm. The requirement for copious sweating places a heavy load on the circulation to provide blood flow to both the muscles to maintain work rate and to the skin for cooling. As the body progressively dehydrates the circulation is further compromised and heat storage exceeds heat removal. The resultant strain is indicated by increased heart rate, sweat rate, and core and skin temperatures. Collapse can occur if work is continued.

The original design concept clinical thermometry. Measurement, circadian, menstruation, and annual biological rhythms, health, and aging site variability due to temperature changes, the endogenous sources are discussed. Part 2 disease states, body temperature, the temperature can affect the findings that environment, diet, or lifestyle will review the impact of external factors exogenous masking agents-external factors in the environment, diet, or lifestyle that can influence body temperature, as well as temperature findings in disease states. A widely accepted therapy for the concept of a normal body temperature of a healthy adult is approximately 98.6 ° F / 37.0 ° C core of this concept is generally freely in the 19th century to the research conducted by two separate groups is credited for - Becquerel and Breschet, 33 years later, followed by Wunderlich. Both groups being contributed to 98.6 ° F, while the concept of "normal" temperature, medical historians as the definitive work on primarily, Wunderlich and his book, Krankheiten der slave VerhaltenEigenwarne (temperature in the course of the disease) work giving credit
to the topic, 98.6 ° F / 37.0 ° C in your particular clinical importance in medicine. 98.6 ° F / 37.0 ° C can be traced Wunderlich since the origin, what he did and what he observed it is important to understand. Wunderlich formed the basis for his book on these patients clinic. The temperature data recorded at the University of Leipzig, the medical care of patients is considered to be about 25,000. In addition to the above-mentioned comment organism is in a normal state ..., body temperature 98.6 degrees F. physical point of 37.0 ° C = maintains itself, "wrote that, Wunderlich body temperature within Consider the 99.5 ° F / 37.5 ° C, 97.2 ° in general F / 36.2 ° C, there is a limit. Wunderlich body temperature, mental stress, constipation, and urinary retention observed with the increase. He also temperature slightly higher than that observed in women than in men, and significantly (0.9 ° F / 0.5 ° C) temperature is lower in older persons.

The final thought for those that were not calibrated equally Wunderlich are compatible with the hypothesis of large amounts of data collected, however, that medical historians of the statistical found no evidence to suggest the principles to be used with existing technology or on the raw data analysis, a small fraction of the total data set can be analyzed over. The process used to analyze the data was not mentioned in the actual raw data to allow for statistical analysis has not been published in full. Wunderlich, while clinical thermometry to contribute an average number (98.6 ° F / 37.0 ° C) for their comments oversimplification fails to accurately represent your work, and the temperature can be misleading when there are medical monitoring, cannot be overstated. Attention to modern thermometryOral armpits, and more precisely on the sites, including cavities for rectal thermometer calibrated calibrated by using the required readings. Calling into question the accuracy of the data set Wunderlich modern thermometry with calibrations using precision equipment has data on several sites.

For example, 148 healthy men and women 18-40 years of age, Shigella vaccine development at the University of Maryland Center participate in vaccine trials, the use of an electronic digital thermometer 1-4 times daily for three
consecutive days, measured was oral temperature. The observed mean oral temperature 98.2 ° F / 36.8 ° C was also a 6:00 Nadir conclusion, a 4-6 pm at the peak, and a mean of 0.9 ° F with amplitude variability, diurnally diverse group average temperature signal Instead of monitoring the temperature of the C-Class gets reported /0.5° oral However, the researchers observed.

Time-of-day and Wunderlich temperature oscillation amplitude changes in temperature as the same type; However, the daily mean temperature in the range has been moved quite lower. Sund-Levander et al normal temperature by means of data from studies published between 1935 and 1998. The findings of the largest systematic review conducted using the temperature and runs for men and women. The comprehensive review of the literature of the actual observations similar to Wunderlich, normal temperature is within a range of values depending on the site of the monitor, which indicates. Meeting the inclusion criteria for the accuracy and reliability of the data set, only seven to 37 or 98.6 ° F / 37.0 ° C above body temperature equal to the AV-erage values reported; Six of the seven reported rectal temperature data. He is also the summary of the available data from different studies, "... a mean value, regardless of the place of measurement, 37.0 ° C was over." Reported that the report is in the range reported by Wunderlich on several sites that had more extensive involvement with the temperature of a lower spectrum of values. For example, Wunderlich 98.6 ° F 36.2 to 37.5 ° C, after reviewing the literature, Sund- Levander reported a slightly wider range 97.2- 99.5 ° F / temperature class and the average temperature on the value of the site ranging from 95.9 to 98.6 degrees F was reported / 35.5 to 37.0 ° C; However, the high point of the Wunderlich range was consistent with the mean value of the data. Overall, the review shows that each site has its own limits, and found next to the normal range is significantly lower than that reported by Wunderlich. The use of clinical thermometry based on a better understanding of these site-specific differences that need to be made to find appropriate. A predictable cycle in the female menstrual
cycle normally vary manner across body temperature. Unlike most other sources temperature of a biological rhythm is known as a circamensal rhythm and length of a menstrual cycle is approximately equal duration. There are statistically significant circamensal body temperature rhythm. acrophase (overall highest body temperature period) ovulation after several days that can extend from just east of the border, luteal phase is during. Before waking body temperature and activity, with an increase in temperature is measured immediately after 0.5-1.0 °F / °C from 0.25-0.5 is typically observed around ovulation.

**Objectives of the study**

1. The objective of this study is to acquaint the coached and trainers of athletics.
2. To make athletes understand steps for enhancement of performance in athletics
3. To make players choosing the appropriate events of athletics
4. To differentiate the psychological characteristics of different level runners, throwers and jumpers.
5. To differentiate the physiological characteristics of different level runners throwers and jumpers.

**STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM:**

After critically evaluating the various aspects of the study, the researcher had stated the problem as “A COMPARATIVE STUDY ON PSYCHO-PHYSIOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF DIFFERENT LEVEL ATHLETES OF INDIA”.
HYPOTHESIS:

After a painstaking review of the related literature and keeping in view the objectives of study, it is hypothesized that significant differences shall be observed in Psychological and physiological parameters of middle and long distance runners.

LIMITATION:

1. Questionnaire research has its limitations. As such any bias that might have crept into the subject response on their account may be considered as limitation.

2. The test were administered at different points of times considering the availability of the subjects, their mood states as a result of winning or losing a particular match might have influenced their response pattern on a particular scale/instrument. This was another limitation imposed on the study inadvertently.

DELIMITATION:

Enlighten of resources available the study is delimited to-

Different level male athletes –Hundred each male throwers, Male Jumpers and Male Runners were Selected from Intercollegiate, University and All India Intervarsity Level Tournaments.

In view of our objectives and facilities available at our disposal, the study is confined to Following Psychological Variables of Indian different level male athletes.
(1) Trait anxiety  
(2) State anxiety  
(3) Stress  
(4) Self efficacy  
(5) Sports Achievement Motivation  
(6) Depression  

Following **Physiological variables** of elite Indian male middle and long distance runners.

(1) Heart rate  
(2) Blood Pressure  
(3) Temperature  

**SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY:**

The study will be useful to coaches in track and field. As hard empirical facts obtained by us may form the basis of talent selection in the very field. It is also to be noted that not much empirical work has been done to study the Psychological and physiological differences between various runners’ jumpers and throwers of India. This research shall highlight the psychological and physiological characteristics of different level athletes of India. It will also study their psychological in relation to the mental training requirement of the jumps, running and throwing events. So that children with these inherited psychological and physiological characteristics may only be recommended for appropriate events of athletics.