COURSE

GUIDE

KHE 203

BASIC PSYCHOLOGY IN COACHING

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UNIT 1   DEFINITION OF PSYCHOLOGY/SPORTS PSYCHOLOGY

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1.0   INTRODUCTION

Psychology is a field of endeavor that deals with the study of both overt (observable behaviors or behaviors that can be observed e.g. Dancing, singing, eating, laughing and drawing) and covert behaviors (unobservable behaviors or behaviors that are not observable e.g. thinking, feelings, and perception) using empirical or scientific means. Despite the distinctions between overt and covert behaviors, it is possible to infer covert behavior from certain overt manifestations.

For instance happiness and sadness may be deduced or inferred from ones facial expression.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

* Define psychology

* Explain sport psychology

* Defined closure

* Identify the roles of sports psychology/psychologists.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Concept of Psychology

Psychology is believed to have derived its origin from the Greek word 'psyche' which means mind or soul. Therefore, the ancient Greeks saw psychology simply as the science of the mind or soul. Psychology is the study of the mind and behavior. It is the study of mind, how it works, and how it affects behavior. It is the science that seeks to understand and predict human and animal behavior. The application of the knowledge to practical problems is an art. Thus psychology is both a science and an art.

The APA (American Psychological Association) adds that it "embraces all aspects of human experience, from the function of the brain to the action of nations, from child development to care of aged."

Psychologists and psychiatrists work together to help people with mental health conditions, but they are not quite the same.

As a field of study, Psychology can be defined as the scientific study of behavior and mental process. By mental processes, psychology encompasses not just what people do but also their thoughts, feelings, perceptions, reasoning processes, memories, and even the biological activities that maintain bodily functioning (Feldman, 2000). By the use of scientific methods, psychologists venture into

exploring, unraveling, and finding answers to questions about nature of both human and nonhuman animals' behaviors and thoughts processes that will be regarded as far more valid and legitimate than conclusions reached as a result of mere use of intuition and speculation.

Branches of Psychology

Psychology is a diverse field of study with different branches, each branch or field looks at questions and problems from a different perspective. While each has its own focus on psychological problems or concerns, all areas share a common goal of studying and explaining human thought and behavior.

Psychology can be roughly divided into two major areas:

1. **Research,** which seeks to increase our knowledge base
2. **Practice**, through which our knowledge is applied to solving problems in the real world

Because human behavior is so varied, the number of subfields in psychology is also constantly growing and evolving. Some of these subfields have been firmly established as areas of interest, and many colleges and universities offer courses and degree programmes in these topics.

Each field of psychology represents a specific area of study focused on a particular topic. Most of the times, psychologists specialize in one of these areas as a career. The following are just some of the major branches of psychology. For many of these specialty areas, working in that specific area requires additional graduate study in that particular field.

Abnormal Psychology

Abnormal psychology is the area that looks at psychopathology and abnormal behavior. Mental health professionals help assess, diagnose, and treat a wide variety of psychological disorders including anxiety and depression. Counselors, clinical psychologists, and psychotherapists often work directly in this field.

Behavioral Psychology

Behavioral psychology, also known as behaviorism, is a theory of learning based on the idea that all behaviors are acquired through conditioning. While this branch of psychology dominated the field during the first part of the twentieth century, it became less prominent during the 1950s. However, behavioral techniques remain a mainstay in therapy, education, and many other areas.

People often utilize behavioral strategies such as classical conditioning and operant conditioning to teach or modify behaviors. For example, a teacher might use a system of rewards in order to teach students to behave during class. When students are good, they receive gold stars which can then be turned in for some sort of special privilege.

Sports Psychology

Sports psychology is the study of how psychology influences sports, athletic performance, exercise, and physical activity. Some sports psychologists work with professional athletes and coaches to improve performance and increase motivation. Other professionals utilize exercise and sports to enhance people's lives and well-being throughout the entire lifespan.

Biopsychology

Biopsychology is a branch of psychology that is focused on how the brain, neurons, and nervous system influence thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. This field draws on many different disciplines including basic psychology, experimental psychology, biology, physiology, cognitive psychology, and neuroscience.

People who work in this field often study how brain injuries and brain diseases impact human behavior. Biopsychology is also sometimes referred to as physiological psychology, behavioral neuroscience, or psychobiology.

Clinical Psychology

Clinical psychology is the branch of psychology that is concerned with the assessment and treatment of mental illness, abnormal behavior, and psychiatric disorders. Clinicians often work in private practices, but many also work in community centers or at universities and colleges. Others work in hospital settings or mental health clinics as part of a collaborative team that may include physicians, psychiatrists, and other mental health professionals.

Cognitive Psychology

Cognitive psychology is the branch of psychology that focuses on internal mental states. This area of psychology has continued to grow since it emerged in the 1960s. This area of psychology is centered on the science of how people think, learn, and remember.

Psychologists who work in this field often study things such as perception, motivation, emotion, language, learning, memory, attention, decision-making, and problem-solving. Cognitive psychologists often use an information-processing model to describe how the mind works, suggesting that the brain stores and processes information much like a computer.

Comparative Psychology

Comparative psychology is the branch of psychology concerned with the study of animal behavior. The study of animal behavior can lead to a deeper and broader understanding of human psychology. This area has its roots in the work of researchers such as Charles Darwin and George Romanes and has grown into a highly multidisciplinary subject. Psychologists often contribute to this field, as do biologists, anthropologists, ecologists, geneticists, and many others.

Counseling Psychology

Counseling psychology is one of the largest individual subfields in psychology. It is centered on treating clients experiencing mental distress and a wide variety of psychological symptoms. The Society of Counseling Psychology describes the field as an area that can improve interpersonal functioning throughout life by

improving social and emotional health as well as addressing concerns about health, work, family, marriage, and more.

Cross-Cultural Psychology

Cross-cultural psychology is a branch of psychology that looks at how cultural factors influence human behavior. The International Association of Cross-Cultural Psychology (IACCP) was established in 1972, and this branch of psychology has continued to grow and develop since that time. Today, increasing numbers of psychologists investigate how behavior differs among various cultures throughout the world.

Developmental Psychology

Developmental psychology focuses on how people change and grow throughout the entire lifespan. The scientific study of human development seeks to understand and explain how and why people change throughout life. Developmental psychologists often study things such as physical growth, intellectual development, emotional changes, social growth, and perceptual changes that occur over the course of their lifespan.

These psychologists generally specialize in an area such as infant, child, adolescent, or geriatric development, while others may study the effects of developmental delays. This field covers a huge range of topics including everything from prenatal development to Alzheimer's disease.

Educational Psychology

Educational psychology is the branch of psychology concerned with schools, teaching psychology, educational issues, and student concerns. Educational psychologists often study how students learn or work directly with students, parents, teachers, and administrators to improve student outcomes. They might study how different variables influence individual student outcomes. They also study topics such as learning disabilities, giftedness, the instructional process, and individual differences.

Experimental Psychology

Experimental psychology is the branch of psychology that utilizes scientific methods to research about the brain and behavior. Many of these techniques are also used by other areas in psychology to conduct research on everything from childhood development to social issues. Experimental psychologists work in a wide variety of settings including colleges, universities, research centers, government, and private businesses.

Experimental psychologists utilize the scientific method to study a whole range of human behaviors and psychological phenomena. This branch of psychology is often viewed as a distinct subfield within psychology, but experimental techniques and methods are actually used extensively throughout every subfield of psychology. Some of the methods used in experimental psychology include experiments, correlation studies, case studies, and naturalistic observation.

Forensic Psychology

Forensic psychology is a specialty area that deals with issues related to psychology and the law. Those who work in this field of psychology apply psychological principles to legal issues. This may involve studying criminal behavior and treatments or working directly in the court system.

Forensic psychologists perform a wide variety of duties, including providing testimony in court cases, assessing children in suspected child abuse cases, preparing children to give testimony and evaluating the mental competence of criminal suspects.

This branch of psychology is defined as the intersection of psychology and the law, but forensic psychologists can perform many roles so this definition can vary. In many cases, people working in forensic psychology are not necessarily "forensic psychologists." These individuals might be clinical psychologists, school psychologists, neurologists or counselors who lend their psychological expertise to provide testimony, analysis or recommendations in legal or criminal cases. However, there are other experts that specialize specifically in forensic psychology.

Health Psychology

Health psychology is a specialty area that focuses on how biology, psychology, behavior and social factors influence health and illness. Other terms including medical psychology and behavioral medicine are sometimes used interchangeably with the term health psychology. The field of health psychology is focused on promoting health as well as the prevention and treatment of diseases and illnesses.

Health psychologists are interested in improving health across a wide variety of domains. These professionals not only promote healthy behaviors, but they also work on the prevention and treatment of illnesses and diseases. Health psychologists often deal with health-related issues such as weight management, smoking cessation, stress management, and nutrition.

They might also research on how people cope with illnesses and help patients look for new, more effective coping strategies. Some professionals in this field help design prevention and public awareness programmes, while others work within the government to improve health care policies.

Industrial-Organizational Psychology

Industrial-organizational psychology is a branch that applies psychological principles to research on workplace issues such as productivity and behavior. This field of psychology often referred to as I/O psychology works to improve productivity and efficiency in the workplace while also maximizing the well-being of employees. Research in I-O psychology is known as applied research because it seeks to solve real-world problems. I-O psychologists study topics such as worker attitudes, employee behaviors, organizational processes, and leadership.

Some psychologists in this field work in areas such as human factors, ergonomics, and human-computer interaction. Human factors psychology is an interdisciplinary field that focuses on topics such as human error, product design, ergonomics, human capability, and human-computer interaction. People who work in human factors are focused on improving how people interact with products and machines both in and out of the workplace. They might help design products intended to

minimize injury or create workplaces that promote greater accuracy and improved safety.

Personality Psychology

Personality psychology is the branch of psychology that focuses on the study of the thought patterns, feelings, and behaviors that make each individual unique. Classic theories of personality include Freud's psychoanalytic theory of personality and Erikson's theory of psychosocial development. Personality psychologists might study how different factors such as genetics, parenting, and social experiences influence how personality develops and changes.

School Psychology

School psychology is a field that involves working in schools to help kids deal with academic, emotional, and social issues. School psychologists also collaborate with teachers, students, and parents to help create a healthy learning environment.

Most school psychologists work in elementary and secondary schools, but others work in private clinics, hospitals, state agencies, and universities. Some go into private practice and serve as consultants, especially those with a doctoral degree in school psychology.

Social Psychology

Social psychology seeks to explain and understand social behavior and looks at diverse topics including group behavior, social interactions, leadership, nonverbal communication, and social influences on decision-making.

This field of psychology is focused on the study of topics such as group behavior, social perception, nonverbal behavior, conformity, aggression, and prejudice. Social influences on behavior are a major interest in social psychology, but social psychologists also focus on how people perceive and interact with others.

3.2   Sport Psychology

Sports refer to all forms of competitive physical activity or games which, through casual or organized participation, aim to use, maintain or improve physical ability and skills while providing enjoyment to participants, and in some cases, entertainment for spectators. Psychology can be defined as the scientific study of behavior and mental process. Therefore sport psychology refers to the study of how psychology influences sports, athletic performance, exercise, and physical activity. Some sports psychologists work with professional athletes and coaches to improve performance and increase motivation. Other professionals utilize exercise and sports to enhance people's lives and well-being throughout the entire lifespan.

According to John Luther, "Sports psychology is an area which attempts to apply psychological facts and principles to learning performance and associated human behavior in a whole field of sports." According to Burns, "Sports psychology in physical education is that branch of psychology which deals with the physical fitness of an individual through his participation in games and sports." According to Singer, "Sports psychology explores one's behavior in athletics."
Sport psychology is an interdisciplinary science that draws on knowledge from the fields of Kinesiology and Psychology. It involves the study of how psychological factors affect performance and how participation in sport and exercise affect psychological and physical factors. In addition to instruction and training of psychological skills for performance improvement, applied sport psychology may include working with athletes, coaches, and parents regarding injury rehabilitation, communication, team building, and career transitions. Sport psychology is commonly referred to as "sport and exercise psychology," as it is used for team sports as well as individual fitness endeavors.

Sports psychology is the study of how psychology influences sports, athletic performance, exercise and physical activity. Sports psychology is essentially the study of how the mind affects physical activity and athletic performance. According to the American Psychological Association, "sports psychology addresses the interactions between psychology and sport performance, including the psychological aspects of optimal athletic performance, the

psychological care and well-being of athletes, coaches, and sport organizations, and the connection between physical and psychological functioning."

Sport psychology is the understanding of how the mind influences an athlete's performance in their chosen sport. Sports Psychology and mental training teaches effective mental skills to athletes and coaches to improve performance and consistency in sports. The goal of sports psychology is to help athletes and teams overcome negative mindsets and beliefs and use mental toughness, training skills and peak performance strategies to perform well in competition.

Roles of Sports Psychologists

Sports psychologists traditionally approach the discipline from two points of view: (1) academic oriented and (2) practitioner oriented.

When working from the academic perspective, sports psychologists focus on educational pursuits such as theoretical research and teaching. With practitioner oriented, the emphasis is on applied work and research. Though the perspectives may differ, some sports psychologists are able to fill both roles comfortably (Horn, 2008).

Sports psychologists work closely with coaches, athletes and parents on issues such as injury, rehabilitation, communication, team building and career transitions.

The IAAF (International Association of Athletics Federations) states:

Sports psychologists can teach skills to help athletes enhance their learning process and motor skills, cope with competitive pressures, fine-tune the level of awareness needed for optimal performance, and stay focused in the many distractions of team travel and competitive environment. Psychological training should be an integral part of an athlete's holistic training process, carried out in conjunction with other training elements. This is best accomplished by a collaborative effort among the coach, the sport psychologist, and the athlete; however, a knowledgeable and interested coach can learn basic psychological skills and impart them to the athlete, especially during actual practice.

Sports Psychologists may also choose to specialize in the following fields.

Educational sports psychologists instruct their clients on the use of psychological techniques such as goal setting, energy management, relaxation skills, self-talk and positive imagery in order to maximize performances. They usually possess background training in kinesiology (and are thus not licensed psychologists) and become certified through organizations such as the Association for Applied Sport Psychology (AASP).

Clinical sports psychologists are trained in psychology programmes and are licensed by law. Therefore, they can use the term "psychologist" in their title. They apply general psychological theory to their clients' cases and are able to treat severe mental health problems such as eating disorders, depression and drug abuse. Many clinical sports psychologists also seek certification from the AASP. Practitioners who attain certification from the AASP are declared competent in the practice of sport psychology regardless of the type of degree or programme training they possess.

History of Sports Psychology

The history of sports psychology actually dates back to the late 1800s when psychologists conducted research experiments studying athletic performance. For instance n his 1898 research study involving cyclists, Norman Triplett found that cyclists increased their speed when in competition with others, as opposed to cycling alone.

The quest to use psychological knowledge to increase athletic performance carried on until the 1920s when psychologist Walter Miles experimented with techniques to improve the reaction time of football offensive lineman after a ball hike.

Despite various sports psychologist researches in the late 19th and early 20th century, Coleman R. Griffith's research (1893-1966) is commonly recognized as the first sports psychologist

Griffith opened an athletic research laboratory at the University of Illinois in 1925. In 1925 he published an article, 'Psychology and Its Relation to Athletic Competition,' which is considered one of his most important works/writings. He also published a couple of textbooks, namely *Psychology of Coaching* and

Psychology and Athletes. Griffith's progress was stunned when his lab was shut down in 1931 at the beginning of the Great Depression.

Roles and Importance of Sports Psychologist

1. Sport Psychology helps you understand yourself as an athlete
You need to have mental strategies for learning, practice and performance factors. Sport psychology gives you the methods and approaches to become aware of what you need so you and your coach can craft custom interventions.
2. Sport Psychology helps you work better with your parents
Your parents should be part of your success team, at least at some level. It does not necessarily mean they should coach you, but it would be nice to have a solid relationship with them, and excellent communication skills so they can assist you in your career.
3. Sport Psychology helps you work better with your coaches
Your coach is perhaps the most important person on your team. You need a great working relationship with this person. Sport psychology can help you create this relationship, and nurture it.
4. Sport Psychology helps you navigate your sport career
There are many blind alleys, pitfalls and false paths in a sport career. Sport psychology helps you create a vision for success, and goals and objectives, so you can execute that master plan.
5. Sport Psychology helps you prepare your mind
It is critical that you know how to prepare mentally and emotionally for lessons, practices and performances. Sport psychology helps you devise a customized mental readiness process that helps you transit from your normal work, school or social worlds into the special world of competition.
6. Sport Psychology helps you concentrate to enter the optimal performance zone
Attention control is psychologists-peak for concentration or focus. Sport psychology helps you create strong control over where and how you place your attention so you can concentrate on the proper attention cues, and you are able to block out unwanted, distracting cues.
7. Sport Psychology helps you bounce back from set-backs
It is critical that you become resilient to the inevitable problems and set-backs that competitive sport brings. You need solid mental toughness that helps you refocus, reset and re-energize for what is to come.

8. Sport Psychology helps you increase motivation and drive
Successful athletes who have long careers fuel them with exciting goals, a vision for the legacy they want to leave, and dreams of how they will play. Sport psychology helps you craft engaging goals that create positive energy within you, so you have huge amounts of drive and determination to achieve your full potential.

9. Sport Psychology helps you handle stress and pressure
One of the major ways sport psychology helps you is through stress reduction in learning and performance. While some stress is inevitable and natural, levels of stress that are excessive can damage performance. Sport psychology helps you manage stress and turn it into success.

10. Sport Psychology helps you handle the paradox of success
An issue that every athlete faces at some time is the paradox of success. As you become more successful, there are more pressures and more distractions pulling you. Sport psychology helps you address these; stay focused, and helps you continue to sustain your best performances.

SELF ASSESMENT EXERCISE

1.   Briefly explain psychology?

2.   What is sport psychology?

4.0   CONCLUSION

The importance of sport psychology has been realized for decades, however many coaches and athletes pay too little attention to how it can help them perform better. Sports psychology helps in understanding how the mind works and as such provides vast avenues of improving athletic performance through ratiocinative motivation.

5.0   SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit that:-

i)   Psychology is believed to have derived its origin from the Greek word 'psyche', meaning mind or soul. The ancient Greeks saw psychology simply

as the science of the mind or soul. Psychology is the study of the mind and behavior. It is the study of mind, how it works, and how it affects behavior.

ii)   Sports refer to all forms of competitive physical activity or games which, through casual or organized participation, aim to use, maintain or improve physical ability and skills while providing enjoyment to participants, and in some cases, entertainment for spectators.

iii)   Sport psychology refers to the study of how psychology influences sports, athletic performance, exercise, and physical activity. Some sports psychologists work with professional athletes and coaches to improve performance and increase motivation.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   List and elucidate 5 branches of psychology?

2.   Why is it relevant to study sport psychology?

3.   Vividly explain the concept of sports psychology?

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2   CLOSURE

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Mans curiosity to unfold and ascertain as definite answer to some questions gave rise to the concept closure, thus a need for closure is the motivation to find an answer to an ambiguous situation. This motivation is enhanced by the perceived benefits of obtaining closure, such as the increase capacity to predict the world and a stronger basis for action. This motivation is also enhanced by the perceived costs of lacking closure, such as missing deadlines. According to Kruglanski et al., need for closure exerts its effects via two general tendencies: the urgency tendency (the inclination to attain closure as quickly as possible) and the permanence tendency (the tendency to maintain it for as long as possible). Together, these tendencies may produce the inclinations to seize and then freeze on early judgmental cues, reducing the extent of information processing and hypothesis generation and introducing biases in thinking.

The level of the need for cognitive closure is a fairly stable individual characteristic. It can affect what information individuals seek out and how they process it. However, this need can be affected by situational factors like time

constraints. For example, in the presence of a high need for closure (induced using time constraints), individuals are more likely to use simple cognitive structures to process information.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1.   Vividly explain closure.

2.   State the law of closure.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Closure (Need for Closure)

Closure or need for closure (NFC) (used interchangeably with need for cognitive closure (NFCC) are psychological terms that describe an individual's desire for a firm answer to a question and an aversion toward ambiguity. The term "need" denotes a motivated tendency to seek out information or proclivity rather than a tissue deficit (for a similar usage, see Cacioppo & Petty, 1982). It is assumed that the need for cognitive closure is akin to a person's goal (Pervin, 1989).As such, it may prompt activities aimed at the attainment of closure, bias the individual's choices and preferences toward closure-bound pursuits, and induce negative affect when closure is threatened or undermined and positive affect when it is facilitated or attained.

Need for closure or closure refers to the desire or motivation to have a definite answer or knowledge instead of uncertainty or doubt.

Closure (a term used in Gestalt psychology) is the illusion of seeing an incomplete stimulus as though it were whole. Thus, one unconsciously tends to complete (close) a triangle or a square that has a gap in one of its sides. While a person watches a movie, closure occurs to fill the intervals between what are really rapidly projected or still pictures—giving the illusion of uninterrupted motion.

The "figure-ground" illusion is commonly experienced when one gazes at the illustration of a white vase, the outline of which is created by two black profiles. At any moment, one will be able to see either the white vase (in the centre area) as "figure" or the black profiles on each side (in which case the white is seen as "ground"). The fluctuations of figure and ground may occur even without conscious effort. Seeing one aspect usually excludes seeing the other.

Figure 1: Ambiguous figure seen as either a white vase or two black profiles.*Encyclopædia Britannica, Inc.*

Gestalt Laws: Similarity, Proximity and Closure

According to the Gestalt school of thought, humans are naturally capable of perceiving objects as orderly and organized forms and patterns. This refers to "pragnanz", a German word that means "pithiness".

Proposed by the Gestalt psychologists in the early 20th century, the Gestalt laws of grouping involve a set of principles that account for such natural manner of perception. These include six categories, namely: similarity, proximity, good form, closure, common fate, and continuation.

Law of Similarity

The law of similarity holds that a person can normally recognize stimulus that has physical resemblance at some degree as part of the same object. This is in an assumption that all other aspects related to the stimuli are equal. On the other hand, stimuli with different physical properties are part of a different object. One application of the law of similarity is putting flowers of varying colors by row in a large flower bed. The brain utilizes this principle to determine which flowers may be planted adjacent to each other or be placed in the same row based on their colors. Below is another example with which the law of similarity may be applied.

Law of Proximity

Suppose that all aspects related to the stimuli are equal. The law of proximity states that humans perceive stimuli that are close to each other by grouping them and recognizing them as part of the same object. Meanwhile, stimuli that stand far from one another are parts of two or more different objects. The distance that defines how close or far the stimuli are from each other is subjective to every individual.
The principle of proximity enables us to group elements together into larger sets. In addition, this principle relieves us from processing so many small stimuli. Thus, the law of proximity helps us to gain understanding of information much faster. For instance, instead of identifying every single of a large number of dots in a paper, the brain perceives them as clusters of dots.

Law of Closure

Gestalt psychologists believe that the brain tends to perceive forms and figures in their complete appearance despite the absence of one or more of their parts, either hidden or totally absent. This refers to the law of closure. For example, a circle drawn using broken lines is still perceived by the brain as a circle. Through this example, we can infer the brain's tendency to ignore the gaps and see the figure as a circle. Previous experience with the figure or form facilitates our natural tendency to perceive an incomplete or partially hidden object as the same object that's stored in our memory.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. Define closure?

2. States Gestalt law of closure

4.0   CONCLUSION

From the foregoing it is stated that Closure or need for closure (NFC) (used interchangeably with need for cognitive closure (NFCC) are psychological terms that describe an individual's desire for a firm answer to a question and an aversion toward ambiguity. Nevertheless this aids an individual to attain reliable answer to an unknown phenomenon.

5.0   SUMMARY

You learnt in this unit that:-

i)   Closure or need for closure (NFC) (used interchangeably with need for cognitive closure (NFCC) are psychological terms that describe an individual's desire for a firm answer to a question and an aversion toward ambiguity.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What is closure?

2. States Gestalt law of closure?

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UNIT 3   COACHING

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Despites the natural talent of the players, coaches play a pertinent duty by determining and improving the players' performance. Put simply, coaching is a process that aims to improve performance and focuses on the 'here and now' rather than on the distant past or future.

While there are many different models of coaching, here we are not considering the 'coach as expert' but, instead, the coach as a facilitator of learning. There is a huge difference between teaching someone and helping them to learn. In coaching, fundamentally, the coach is helping the individual to improve their own performance: in other words, helping them to learn.

Good coaches believe that the individual always has the answer to their own problems but understands that they need help to find the answer.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

*   Explain coaching

*   Differentiates coaching from, Mentoring and counseling

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Concept of Coaching

Coaching is unlocking a person's potential to maximize their own performance. It is helping them to learn rather than teaching them.

Coaching involves the belief that the individual has the answers to their own problems within them.

The coach is not a subject expert, but rather is focused on helping the individual to unlock their own potential. The focus is very much on the individual and what is inside their head. A coach is not necessarily a designated individual: anyone can take a coaching approach with others, whether peers, subordinates or superiors.

The differences between these various 'learning methods'

Learning method:	Coaching	Mentoring	Counseling
The question:	How	What	Why
The Focus:	The present	The future	The past
Aim:	Improving skills	Developing and committing to learning goals	Overcoming psychology barriers
Objective:	Raising competence	Opening horizons	Building self-understanding

Based on the work of: Clutterbuck, D. & Schneider, S. (1998)

Difference between Coaching and Therapy

Below are the reasons why coaches are different from therapist and psychologist.

1. Coaches deal with the present and the future; therapists deal with the past and the present.

2. Coaches work on creating the future while therapists work to heal the past.
3. If you have an unresolved issue from your past – go to a therapist, not a coach.
4. Therapy tends to focus on issues and feelings. Coaching tends to focus on goal setting and looking to the future.
5. Therapy typically works to help dysfunctional people become more functional. Coaching helps functional people become exceptional.
6. Coaching works with more of an educational model while therapy works on more of a medical model.

What Can Psychological Coaching or coaching Do for You

You're healthy, you're functional, and you dream of achieving more in life. You are the perfect candidate for a coach – a psychological coach.

Here are a few ways that psychological coaching can help you take that giant step forward from functional to exceptional:

* Can work with you to assess your situation
* Can help you identify and clarify your goals
* Can work with you to create a plan of action to achieve your goals
* Can provide support, inspiration, and motivation as you implement your plan.
* Can help you assess your progress.
* Through exercises, active listening, and teamwork, allows you to determine your own solutions to your questions.

What can therapists do for you.

Though therapists and coaches are different, they both work with a client's psyche. Therapy usually works with an unhealthy psyche while coaching tends to work

with much healthier individuals. But, psychology and coaching are much closer than some coaches think.

So, is one better than the other? Well, yes and no. Some people need a therapist while others need a coach. Selecting the right one for your needs is the difference between right and wrong.

They both work to help people master their problems, grow, and become more efficient in their lives. They both are skilled, knowledgeable, and trained to help. However, it is important to select the right one. Don't go to a coach but go to a therapist if you:

• Think you might be depressed
• Battle with paranoia
• Are overly anxious
• Have addiction issues
• Have extreme fears or phobias

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1.   Define coaching?

2.   States 4 differences between coaching and therapy

4.0   CONCLUSION

The term 'coaching' means many different things to different people, but is generally about helping individuals to solve their own problems and improve their own performance.

It doesn't matter whether coaching is used in sport, life or business; the good coach believes that individuals always have the answer to their own problems. They just need help to unlock them.

5.0   SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit that:-

i)   Coaching is unlocking a person's potential to maximize their own performance. It is helping them to learn rather than teaching them.

ii)   Coaching does the following functions;

* Can work with you to assess your situation
* Can help you identify and clarify your goals
* Can work with you to create a plan of action to achieve your goals
* Can provide support, inspiration, and motivation as you implement your plan.
* Can help you assess your progress.
* Through exercises, active listening, and teamwork, allows you to determine your own solutions to your questions.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Define the concept Coaching?

2.   In a tabular form differentiate between coaching, mentoring and counseling?

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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MODULE 2   INDIVIDUAL AND MOB-PSYCHOLOGY

CONTENTS

UNIT 1   INDIVIDUAL   PSYCHOLOGY/ADLER'S   INDIVIDUAL PSYCHOLOGY

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

The term, "individual psychology," is commonly used to refer to the psychology of Alfred Adler. For the psychology of individual differences, body of theories of the Austrian psychiatrist Alfred Adler, who held that the main motives of human thought and behavior are individual man's striving for superiority and power, partly in compensation for his feeling of inferiority. Every individual, in this view, is unique, and his personality structure—including his unique goal and ways of striving for it—finds expression in his style of life, this life-style being the product

of his own creativity. Nevertheless, the individual cannot be considered apart from society; all important problems, including problems of general human relations, occupation, and love, are social.

This theory led to explanations of psychological normality and abnormality: although the normal person with a well-developed social interest will compensate by striving on the useful side of life (that is, by contributing to the common welfare and thus helping to overcome common feelings of inferiority), the neurotically disposed person is characterized by increased inferiority feelings, underdeveloped social interest, and an exaggerated, uncooperative goal of superiority, these symptoms manifesting themselves as anxiety and more or less open aggression. Accordingly, he solves his problems in a self-centered, private fashion (rather than a task-centered, common-sense fashion), leading to failure. All forms of maladjustment share this constellation. Therapy consists in providing the patient with insight into his mistaken life-style through material furnished by him in the psychiatric interview.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

*   Define the concept of individual psychology.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Individual Psychology

Individual psychology is so named to emphasize the understanding that a person is "indivisible," meaning that people should be treated holistically. It was developed by Alfred Adler after he separated from Sigmund Freud's psychoanalytic circle. The approach has wide-ranging goals and visions, regarding people as individual beings in need of harmony within, as well as social beings seeking harmony in relationships with others in all aspects of their lives. The hope of individual psychology is that through encouraging people to strive for socially beneficial goals, they will not only make valuable contributions to society, but will also achieve happiness as individuals.

Adler's Individual psychology

Individual psychology, also known as **Classical Adlerian psychology** after its founder, Alfred Adler, is a value-based, fully-integrated theory of personality, a model of psychopathology, philosophy of living, strategy for preventative education, and technique of psychotherapy. Its mission is to encourage the development of psychologically healthy and cooperative individuals, couples, and families, in order to effectively pursue the ideals of social equality and democratic living. A vigorously optimistic and inspiring approach to psychotherapy, it balances the equally important needs for individual optimal development and social responsibility.

Adler was a pioneer in creating a holistic view of human psychology. He explained human development in the context of the whole—how the human being exists and interacts within the family, society, nation, and world. He defined mental health as a feeling of human connectedness, a desire to develop one fully, and a willingness to contribute to the welfare of others. When these qualities are underdeveloped, an individual experiences feelings of inferiority, or an attitude of superiority which may antagonize others. The perception of superiority leads to self-centered behavior and the individual may become emotionally or materially exploitive of other people. When the feelings of connectedness and the willingness to contribute are stronger, a feeling of equality emerges, and the individual becomes more public minded, self-transcending, and behaves more beneficially to others.

A former colleague of Sigmund Freud's, Adler originally called his work "free psychoanalysis" for a time after their separation. However, he later rejected the label of "psychoanalyst" and his work became known as "individual psychology." Individual psychology also draws upon Abraham Maslow's concept of self-actualization as well as an adaptation of the Socratic Method.

History of the Founder of Individual Psychology

Alfred Adler, (born February 7, 1870, Penzing, Austria—died May 28, 1937, Aberdeen, Aberdeenshire, Scotland), psychiatrist whose influential system of

individual psychology introduced the term *inferiority feeling*, later widely and often inaccurately called inferiority complex. He developed a flexible, supportive psychotherapy to direct those emotionally disabled by inferiority feelings toward maturity, common sense, and social usefulness.

Throughout his life Adler maintained a strong awareness of social problems, and this served as a principal motivation in his work. From his earliest years as a physician (M.D., University of Vienna Medical School, 1895), he stressed consideration of the patient in relation to the total environment, and he began developing a humanistic, holistic approach to human problems.

About 1900 Adler began to explore psychopathology within the context of general medicine and in 1902 became closely associated with Sigmund Freud. Gradually, however, differences between the two became irreconcilable, notably after the appearance of Adler's *Studie über Minderwertigkeit von Organen* (1907; *Study of Organ Inferiority and Its Psychical Compensation*), in which he suggested that persons try to compensate psychologically for a physical disability and its attendant feeling of inferiority. Unsatisfactory compensation results in neurosis. Adler increasingly downplayed Freud's basic contention that sexual conflicts in early childhood cause mental illness, and he further came to confine sexuality to a symbolic role in human strivings to overcome feelings of inadequacy. Outspokenly critical of Freud by 1911, Adler and a group of followers severed ties with Freud's circle and began developing what they called individual psychology, first outlined in *Über den nervösen Charakter* (1912; *The Neurotic Constitution*). The system was elaborated in later editions of this work and in other writings, such as *Menschenkenntnis* (1927; *Understanding Human Nature*).

In 1921 Adler established the first child-guidance clinic in Vienna, soon thereafter opening and maintaining about 30 more there under his direction. Adler first went to the United States in 1926 and became visiting professor at Columbia University in 1927. He was appointed visiting professor of the Long Island College of Medicine in New York in 1932. In 1934 the government in Austria closed his clinics. Many of his later writings, such as *What Life Should Mean to You* (1931), were directed to the general reader. Heinz L. and Rowena R. Ansbacher edited *The*

Individual Psychology of Alfred Adler (1956) and *Superiority and Social Interest* (1964).

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1.   What is Individual psychology?

2.   Who is the pioneer of individual psychology?

4.0   CONCLUSION

Individual psychology maintains that the overriding motivation in most people is a striving for what Adler somewhat misleadingly termed superiority (i.e., self realization, completeness, or perfection). This striving for superiority may be frustrated by feelings of inferiority, inadequacy, or incompleteness arising from physical defects, low social status, pampering or neglect during childhood, or other causes encountered in the course of life. Individuals can compensate for their feelings of inferiority by developing their skills and abilities, or, less healthily, they may develop an inferiority complex that comes to dominate their behavior. Overcompensation for inferiority feelings can take the form of an egocentric striving for power and self-aggrandizing behavior at others' expense.

Each person develops his personality and strives for perfection in his own particular way, in what Adler termed a style of life, or lifestyle. The individual's lifestyle forms in early childhood and is partly determined by what particular inferiority affected him most deeply during his formative years. The striving for superiority coexists with another innate urge: to cooperate and work with other people for the common good, a drive that Adler termed the social interest. Mental health is characterized by reason, social interest, and self-transcendence; mental disorder by feelings of inferiority and self-centered concern for one's safety and superiority or power over others. The Adlerian psychotherapist directs the patient's attention to the unsuccessful, neurotic character of his attempts to cope with feelings of inferiority. Once the patient has become aware of these, the therapist builds up his self-esteem, helps him adopt more realistic goals, and encourages more useful behavior and a stronger social interest.

5.0   SUMMARY

You learnt in this unit that:-

i)   Individual psychology is so named to emphasize the understanding that a person is "indivisible," meaning that people should be treated holistically. It was developed by Alfred Adler after he separated from Sigmund Freud's psychoanalytic circle.

ii)   Individual psychology, also known as **Classical Adlerian psychology** after its founder, Alfred Adler.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Define individual psychology

2.   Briefly outlined the history of the founder of individual psychology

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2 OTHER CONTRIBUTORS TO INDIVIDUAL PSYCHOLOGY

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main content

    3.1 Other contributors to individual psychology

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Individual psychology here is based on body of theories of the Austrian psychiatrist Alfred Adler, who held that the main motives of human thought and behavior are individual man's striving for superiority and power, partly in compensation for his feeling of inferiority. Several of Adler's students, including Rudolf Dreikurs, Lydia Sicher, Alexander Müller, Sophia de Vries, Anthony Bruck, and Henry Stein, continued his work and made unique contributions to the field.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

* identify other people's contributions towards individual psychology

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Other Contributors to Individual Psychology

Below are the contributions of several scholars towards individual psychology.

Rudolf Dreikurs

Rudolf Dreikurs was an American psychiatrist and educator who developed Alfred Adler's system of individual psychology into a pragmatic method for understanding the purposes of reprehensible behavior in children and for stimulating cooperative behavior without punishment or reward. He suggested that human misbehavior is the result of not having met one of four basic human needs: power, attention, revenge, or avoidance of failure.

Dreikurs' main work and theory dealt with misbehavior of pre-adolescents. He reasoned that students "act out" based on four principled "mistaken goals." The first reason for their misbehavior is that they desire attention. If they do not receive the attention they crave through their actions (good or bad, e.g., doing well on a paper or throwing a tantrum), they move onto seeking power (e.g., they may refuse to complete a paper). If their power struggle is thwarted, they seek revenge. If revenge does not produce the desired response, they begin to feel inadequate. Dreikurs' writings detailed many ways to combat these behaviors. His overall goal was that students would learn to cooperate reasonably without being penalized or rewarded. They would cooperate because they would feel that they were valuable contributors to the classroom. Dreikurs' teachings also form the basis for many parent education programs.

Sophia J. de Vries

Sophia de Vries firmly believed Alexander Müller's appraisal that "Adler has not yet been fully understood. He has to be rediscovered from the roots up." She was born in Holland, emigrated to the United States in 1948, and is widely praised for igniting the renaissance of Adler's original teachings and style of therapeutic treatment in the United States.

De Vries' translations of the works of Alfred Adler provided the foundation for the Adlerian Translation Project, a task force dedicated to the publication of *The Collected Clinical Works of Alfred Adler,* as well as the unpublished manuscripts of other Classical Adlerians.

Henry T. Stein

In Stein's presentation, *A Psychology for Democracy,* he made the case that the work of Adler, Maslow, and Socrates provide tools to contribute to the evolution of democracy. He expressed concern that U.S. democracy had eroded badly into unbridled self-interest, while citizens were neglecting their inner spiritual development. His proposed solution was to foster the development of democratic character. The democratic ideal must start within the individual and ultimately spread to family, friendships, school, and the world of work. The result of individual character development prepares citizens for the wider challenges of social responsibility.

How is this accomplished? Stein recommended training parents to develop democratic parenting practices at home that will give children an early experience of a democratic family life. Secondly, teachers should be trained to develop democratic practices in the classroom that address core values and personal morality. In addition, universities and businesses are further opportunities for training in democratic living. While many psycho therapies reinforce self-centeredness, Stein believes that individual psychology, with its emphasis on social equality, mutual respect, cooperation, responsibility, and contribution, provides the means of restoring democratic ideals by addressing the core of the problem: correcting undemocratic character structures. He concluded that Alfred Adler was a man before his time that showed us how to awaken the democratic spirit in every human being and harnesses individual's creative power for the common good. Stein asserts that Adler's psychology of values can provide the solution to many of our social problems, enrich our inner life, and revitalize democracy.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. Highlights Rudolf Dreikurs contribution towards individual psychology

2. Mention at least four contributors of individual psychology

4.0   CONCLUSION

Individual psychology is not a model of the individual in isolation. Adler's psychology is very much a social psychology, in which the individual is seen and understood within his or her social context. In reality, Adler, unlike others, saw no fundamental conflict between self and society, individuality and relatedness, self interest and social interest.

5.0   SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit that:-

i)   Rudolf Dreikurs was an American psychiatrist and educator who developed Alfred Adler's system of individual psychology into a pragmatic method for understanding the purposes of reprehensible behavior in children and for stimulating cooperative behavior without punishment or reward.

ii) In Stein's presentation, *A Psychology for Democracy,* he made the case that the work of Adler, Maslow, and Socrates provide tools to contribute to the evolution of democracy.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Identify Henry T. Stein's impact on individual psychology

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3 CROWD / MOB PSYCHOLOGY

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Crowd psychology is the broad study of how individual behavior is impacted when large crowds group together. This field of social science has progressed from the early examination of negative social groupings to the study of crowds in more socially proactive or emergency-type of environments.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

*   Vividly explain crowd or mob psychology

*   Define herd mentality

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Crowd/ Mob Psychology

Crowd psychology, also known as **mob psychology**, is a branch of social psychology. Social psychologists have developed several theories for explaining

the ways in which the psychology of a crowd differs from and interacts with that of the individuals within it. Major theorists in crowd psychology include Gustave Le Bon, Gabriel Tarde, Sigmund Freud, and Steve Reicher. This field relates to the behaviors and thought processes of both the individual crowd members and the crowd as an entity. Crowd behavior is heavily influenced by the loss of responsibility of the individual and the impression of universality of behavior, both of which increase with crowd size.

Herd Mentality

Herd mentality, mob mentality and pack mentality, also lesser known as gang mentality, describes how people can be influenced by their peers to adopt certain behaviors on a largely emotional, rather than rational, basis. When individuals are affected by mob mentality, they may make different decisions than they would have individually.

Types of crowds

There is limited research into the types of crowd and crowd membership and there is no consensus as to the classification of types of crowds. Two recent scholars, Momboisse (1967) and Berlonghi (1995) focused upon purpose of existence to differentiate among crowds. Momboisse developed a system of four types: casual, conventional, expressive, and aggressive crowds. Berlonghi classified crowds as spectator, demonstrator, or escaping, to correlate to the purpose for gathering.

Another approach to classifying crowds is sociologist Herbert Blumer's system of emotional intensity. He distinguished four types of crowds: casual, conventional, expressive, and acting. His system is dynamic in nature. That is, a crowd changes its level of emotional intensity over time, and therefore, can be classed in any one of the four types.

Generally, researchers in crowd psychology have focused on the negative aspects of crowds, but not all crowds are volatile or negative in nature. For example, in the beginning of the socialist movement crowds were asked to put on their Sunday dress and march silently down the street. A more-modern example involves the sit-ins during the Civil Rights Movement. Crowds can reflect and challenge the held ideologies of their socio-cultural environment. They can also serve integrative social functions, creating temporal communities.

Crowds can be active (mobs) or passive (audiences). Active crowds can be further divided into aggressive, escapist, acquisitive, or expressive mobs. Aggressive mobs

are often violent and outwardly focused. Examples are football riots and the L.A. Riots of 1992. Escapist mobs are characterized by a large number of panicked people trying to get out of a dangerous situation. Acquisitive mobs occur when large numbers of people are fighting for limited resources. An expressive mob is any other large group of people gathering for an active purpose. Civil disobedience, rock concerts, and religious revivals all fall under this category.

The United States Army emphasizes that "*active, expressive, acquisitive, and hostile*" are not acceptable terms used to describe a crowd. These are the motives inferred from the action the crowd takes and no gathering of a crowd is persistently or exclusively active, expressive, acquisitive, or hostile. For the sake of description, crowds can be identified as spontaneous, semi-spontaneous or casual, sighting, agitated, fully organised, mob-like, or polarised. A brief description of each follows below:

a. **Spontaneous Crowds**. A spontaneous crowd forms without any prior arrangement around an event, e.g. the arrest of a person or a quarrel between two persons .This type of crowd is easily established in a society where there is already a sense of unity or commonality (e.g. where a large part of the community feels oppressed by a political system such as Apartheid). The crowded urban environment and especially an environment where people stay very close to one another, where there are often people in the street, is especially conducive to the establishment of such a crowd. Very often the overreaction of the law enforcement or security forces or of an individual in the crowd that sets an example becomes the stimulus for the crowd to proceed to violence. With spontaneous crowds it is usually the leaders that make the first move to initiate violent behavior. Note: These types of leaders are very dangerous and an effort must be made to remove or isolate the leaders from the crowd. Stott, Adang and Schreiber (15) refer to this activity as "targeted interventions".

b. **Semi-organized or Casual Crowds.** Semi-organized or casual crowds are usually identified as individuals or small groups with nothing in common to bind them together. There is, however, an element of prior arrangement and if they have an agenda, it is their own. They arrive separately and leave separately. Semi-organized or casual crowds are made up of individuals or small groups occupying the same common place, such as a shopping mall where these individuals or small groups meet. There is, however, no internal control mechanism that will ensure that the crowd will remain peaceful. The leadership or organizers are not really visible or they are hidden among the crowd and do not accept responsibility for the

crowd's behavior. Very often so-called "-baiters" are purposefully placed in the crowd. Note: During times of civil unrest or internal instability these types of crowds can be exploited by someone who wants to create disorder. It is important to identify the leaders and to remove them from the crowd.

c. Sighting Crowds. There are various similarities between sighting crowds and semi-organized or casual crowds, with one additional element - an event. People migrate as a crowd to sporting events, are attracted to fires and accidents, and attend music concerts. Individuals or small groups gather at these events for the same purpose. It is the event and/or curiosity that compel a crowd to come together.

d. Agitated Crowds. Agitated crowds add responses that are based on the elements of people, space and event. Individuals with strong emotional feelings within a crowd can quickly spread this emotion and infect the rest of the crowd. As more people within the crowd become emotionally involved, a sense of unity can develop, causing changes in the overall demeanor of the crowd. Yelling, screaming, crying and profane name-calling are all associated with an agitated crowd.

e. Fully Organized Crowds. In these instances the organizers usually get prior authorization from the authorities for the meeting or the march. There is usually prior planning with the police, road safety corps members, metro police, traffic authorities and emergency services. In many instance negotiators (marshals) are appointed who have to ensure that the proceedings take place in an orderly manner. The leaders are usually easily recognizable and can most of the time be found at the front of the proceedings. They also take responsibility for the behavior of the crowd. Note: From a crowd-control perspective, it is important that the leaders are identified and that communication with the crowd takes place through them. Under no circumstances should they be removed from the crowd, as people might be provoked if the leadership is taken away against their will.

f. Mob-like Crowds. Mobs have all the elements found in the first four types of crowds, with the addition of aggressive, physical and sometimes violent action. Under these conditions, individuals in a crowd will often say and do things they would normally not do. Extreme acts of violence and damage to property are often part of mob activities. Mobs consist of (or involve) the elements of people and groups being mixed together and becoming fluid.

g. Polarized Crowds. These types of crowds usually erupt spontaneously or are semi-organized. This type of crowd entails two hostile groups that oppose each other. A typical example is the supporters of two opposing political parties or the supporters of two opposing sports teams that are in confrontation with each other. Note: In this instance it is the task of the security forces to keep these groupings apart and to facilitate negotiations between the leaders of the groups to ensure that they part peacefully along separate routes.

Principles of Crowd Control

a. Preventing Crowds from Forming.
b. Regular Assessment of Crowd.
c. Communication with Crowd.
d. Redirecting Crowd's Attention.
e. Show of Force.
f. Use of Extreme Measures of Confusion and Overpowering.
g. Removing Leaders from Crowd.
h. Crowd Control Response Matching Activity of Crowd.
i. Specific Psychological Skills for Each Stage in Crowd Control
j. Avoid Becoming Object of Crowd's Anger.

Theoretical Perspectives

Gustave Le Bon

Le Bon held that crowds existed in three stages: submergence, contagion, and suggestion. During submergence, the individuals in the crowd lose their sense of individual self and personal responsibility. This is quite heavily induced by the anonymity of the crowd. Contagion refers to the propensity for individuals in a crowd to unquestioningly follow the predominant ideas and emotions of the crowd. In Le Bon's view, this effect is capable of spreading between "submerged" individuals much like a disease. Suggestion refers to the period in which the ideas and emotions of the crowd are primarily drawn from a shared racial unconscious. This behavior comes from an archaic shared unconscious and is therefore uncivilized in nature. It is limited by the moral and cognitive abilities of the least capable members. Le Bon believed that crowds could be a powerful force only for destruction. Additionally, Le Bon and others have indicated that crowd members feel a lessened sense of legal culpability, due to the difficulty in prosecuting individual members of a mob.

Le Bon's idea that crowds foster anonymity and generate emotion has been contested by some critics. For instance, Clark McPhail points out studies which show that "the madding crowd" does not take on a life of its own, apart from the thoughts and intentions of members. Norris Johnson, after investigating a panic at a 1979 The WHO concert concluded that the crowd was composed of many small groups of people mostly trying to help each other. Additionally, Le Bon's theory ignores the socio-cultural context of the crowd, which some theorists argue that it can disempower social change. R. Brown disputes the assumption that crowds are homogenous, suggesting instead that participants exist on a continuum, differing in their ability to deviate from social norms.

Freudian theory

Sigmund Freud's crowd behavior theory primarily consists of the idea that becoming a member of a crowd serves to unlock the unconscious mind. This occurs because the super-ego, or moral center of consciousness, is displaced by the larger crowd, to be replaced by a charismatic crowd leader. McDougall argues similarly to Freud, that simplistic emotions are widespread, and complex emotions are rarer. In a crowd, the overall shared emotional experience reverts to the least common denominator (LCD), leading to primitive levels of emotional expression. This organizational structure is that of the "primal horde" – pre-civilized society - and Freud states that one must rebel against the leader (re-instate the individual morality) in order to escape from it. Moscovici expanded on this idea, discussing how dictators such as Mao Zedong and Joseph Stalin have used mass psychology to place themselves in this "horde leader" position.

Theodor Adorno criticized the belief in spontaneity of the masses: according to him, the masses were an artificial product of "administrated" modern life. The Ego of the bourgeois subject dissolved itself, giving way to the Id and the "de-psychologized" subject. Furthermore, Adorno stated the bond linking the masses to the leader through the spectacle is feigned: "When the leaders become conscious of mass psychology and take it into their own hands, it ceases to exist in a certain sense. ... Just as little as people believe in the depth of their hearts that the Jews are the devil, do they completely believe in their leader? They do not really identify themselves with him but act this identification, perform their own enthusiasm, and thus participate in their leader's performance. ... It is probably the suspicion of this fictitiousness of their own 'group psychology' which makes fascist crowds so merciless and unapproachable. If they would stop to reason for a second, the whole performance would go to pieces, and they would be left to panic."

Deindividuation theory

Deindividuation theory argues that in typical crowd situations, factors such as anonymity, group unity, and arousal can weaken personal controls (e.g. guilt, shame, and self-evaluating behavior) by distancing people from their personal identities and reducing their concern for social evaluation. This lack of restraint increases individual sensitivity to the environment and lessens rational forethought, which can lead to antisocial behavior. More recent theories have stated that deindividuation hinges upon a person being unable, due to situation, to have strong awareness of their self as an object of attention. This lack of attention frees the individual from the necessity of normal social behavior.

American social psychologist Leon Festinger and colleagues first elaborated the concept of deindividuation in 1952. It was further refined by American psychologist Philip Zimbardo, who detailed why mental input and output became blurred by such factors as anonymity, lack of social constraints, and sensory overload. Zimbardo's famous Stanford Prison Experiment is a strong argument for the power of deindividuation. Further experimentation has had mixed results when it comes to aggressive behaviors, and has instead shown that the normative expectations surrounding the situations of deindividuation influence behavior (i.e. if one is deindividuated as a KKK member, aggression increases, but if it is as a nurse, aggression does not increase).

A further distinction has been proposed between public and private deindividuation. When private aspects of self are weakened, one becomes more subject to crowd impulses, but not necessarily in a negative way. It is when one no longer attends to the public reaction and judgment of individual behavior that antisocial behavior is elicited.

Convergence theory

Convergence theory holds that crowd behavior is not a product of the crowd, but rather the crowd is a product of the coming together of like-minded individuals. Floyd Allport argued that "an individual in a crowd behaves just as he would behave alone." Moreso, convergence theory holds that crowds formed from people of similar dispositions, whose actions are then reinforced and intensified by the crowd.

Convergence theory claims that crowd behavior is not irrational; rather, people in crowds express existing beliefs and values so that the mob reaction is the rational product of widespread popular feeling. However, this theory is questioned by

certain research which found that people involved in the 1970s riots were less likely than nonparticipant peers to have previous convictions.

Critics of this theory report that it still excludes the social determination of self and action, in that it argues that all actions of the crowd are born from the individuals' intents.

Emergent norm theory

Ralph Turner and Lewis Killian put forth the idea that norms emerge from within the crowd. Emergent norm theory states that crowds have little unity at their outset, but during a period of milling about, key members suggest appropriate actions, and following members fall in line, forming the basis for the crowd's norms.

Key members are identified through distinctive personalities or behaviors. These garner attention, and the lack of negative response elicited from the crowd as a whole stands as tacit agreement to their legitimacy. The followers form the majority of the mob, as people tend to be creatures of conformity that are heavily influenced by the opinions of others. This has been shown in the conformity studies conducted by Sherif and Asch. Crowd members are further convinced by the universality phenomenon, described by Allport as the persuasive tendency of the idea that if everyone in the mob is acting in such-and-such a way, then it cannot be wrong.

Emergent norm theory allows for both positive and negative mob types, as the distinctive characteristics and behaviors of key figures can be positive or negative in nature. An antisocial leader can incite violent action, but an influential voice of non-violence in a crowd can lead to a mass sit-in. When a crowd described as above targets an individual, anti-social behavior may emerge within its members.

A major criticism of this theory is that the formation and following of new norms indicates a level of self-awareness that is often missing in the individuals in crowds (as evidenced by the study of deindividuation). Another criticism is that the idea of emergent norms fails to take into account the presence of existent socio-cultural norms. Additionally, the theory fails to explain why certain suggestions or individuals rise to normative status while others do not.

Social identity theory

The Social identity theory posits that the self is a complex system made up primarily of the concept of membership or non-membership in various social

groups. These groups have various moral and behavioral values and norms, and the individual's actions depend on which group membership (or non-membership) is most personally salient at the time of action.

This influence is evidenced by findings that when the stated purpose and values of a group changes, the values and motives of its members also change.

Crowds are an amalgam of individuals, all of whom belong to various overlapping groups. But if the crowd is primarily related to some identifiable groups (such as Christians or Hindus or Muslims or civil-rights activists), then the values of that group will dictate the crowd's action.

In crowds which are more ambiguous, individuals will assume a new social identity as a member of the crowd. This group membership is made more salient by confrontation with other groups - a relatively common occurrence for crowds.

The group identity serves to create a set of standards for behavior; for certain groups, violence is legitimate, for others it is unacceptable. This standard is formed from stated values, but also from the actions of others in the crowd, and sometimes from a few in leadership-type positions.

A concern with this theory is that while it explains how crowds reflect social ideas and prevailing attitudes, it does not explain the mechanisms by which crowds enact to drive social change.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

1.   What is mob psychology?

2.   State 5 Principles of crowd control

4.0   CONCLUSION

It is noted earlier in this unit that, Crowd psychology, also known as mob psychology, is a branch of social psychology. Crowd behavior is a very complex phenomenon, which is difficult to handle, and if a crowd is not understood within its particular context, it can become very dangerous. Social psychologists have developed several theories for explaining the ways in which the psychology of a crowd differs from and interacts with that of the individuals within it. And as such this helps in analyzing the behavior of fans and participants in other to create violence free environment.

5.0 SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit that:-

i)   Crowd psychology, also known as mob psychology, is a branch of social psychology. Social psychologists have developed several theories for explaining the ways in which the psychology of a crowd differs from and interacts with that of the individuals within it.

ii)   Herd mentality, mob mentality and pack mentality, also known as gang mentality, describes how people can be influenced by their peers to adopt certain behaviors on a largely emotional, rather than rational, basis. When individuals are affected by mob mentality, they may make different decisions than they would have individually.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Explain the concept of mob psychology?

2.   What is herd mentality?

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MODULE 3   PSYCHING UP AND DOWN FOR GAMES

Unit 1   Psyching/Invented U hypothesis

Unit 2   Psyching up/ psyching down

Unit 3   Mental rehearsals/Imagery/Visualization

Unit 4   Goal setting /Meditation

Unit 5   Self talk

UNIT 1   PSYCHING/INVENTED U HYPOTHESIS

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main content

    3.1   Psyching/Invented U hypothesis

4.0   Conclusion

5.0   Summary

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

In sports not all physical activities at a certain period of time require a high degree of energy exertion to accomplish a task, For instance free throw in basketball and during penalty shootout in soccer require a low degree of arousal and force in other not to miss the desired targets. At low levels of arousal, performance will be below par, the athlete is not psyched up. As arousal increases so does performance,

up to an optimal point. After this point, further increases in arousal lead to declines in performance. Each athlete has their own optimal level of arousal. Optimal arousal is higher for more simple tasks and lower for more complex tasks.

An increase in arousal causes improvement in performance up to an optimal point (moderate arousal level). After this point, increased arousal leads to deteriorated performance.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

*   explain in details the meaning of inverted U hypothesis

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Psyching/Invented U Hypothesis

The Inverted U theory was developed in 1908 by Yerkes and Dodson and it is a theory of arousal that considers that optimal performance occurs when the performer reaches an optimal level of arousal.

The Inverted U Hypothesis suggests that optimal performance occurs at an intermediate level of arousal while both low and high levels of arousal will result in impaired performance. This proposal is made based on the Yerkes-Dodson law (named after the researchers who discovered it) which predicts an inverted U-shaped function between arousal and performance (Yerkes, Dodson, 1908).

The theory describes a clear relationship between pressure and performance. In the original research, pressure was exerted by electric shocks – to motivate rats to escape from a maze!

The Inverted-U Theory got its name from the curve created when the correlation between pressure (or "arousal") and performance is shown on a graph.
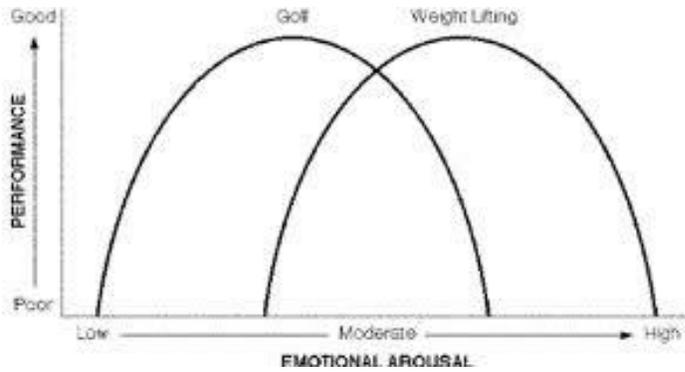
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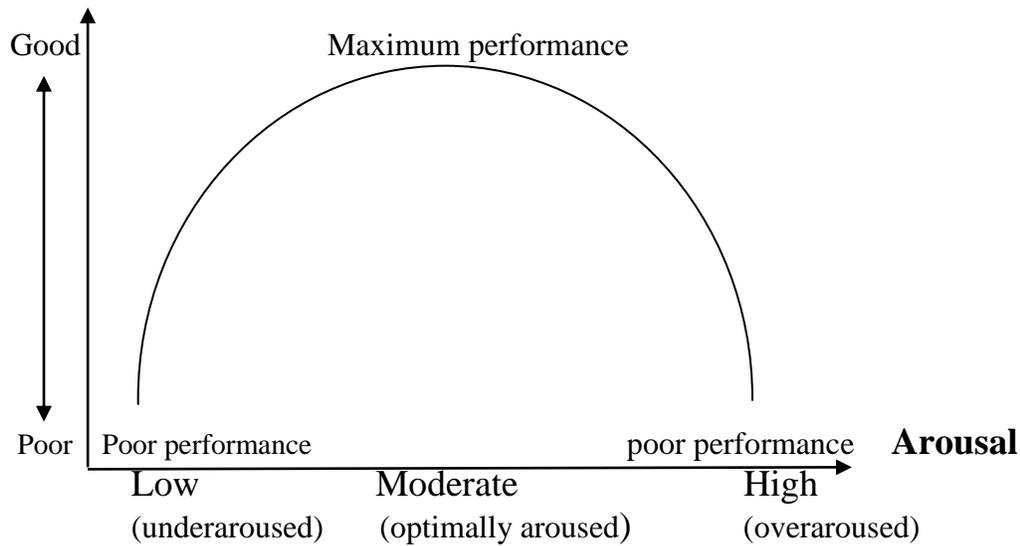
In sport, this means that a little excitement and stress associated with competition can have a positive effect, but a situation that is too stressful is detrimental. However, the optimal levels of arousal vary between people doing the same task. Even more, for the same person doing different tasks optimal levels of arousal may vary. However, in general one could expect that athletes may perform badly

because they are over or under-aroused. In addition, the optimum arousal levels tend to be lower for more complicated tasks.

The Inverted U Hypothesis is an appealing explanation for performance flaws. In many ways this explanation fits into the observations from sport performers but in reality it is too simplistic.

In addition to what the Inverted U hypothesis predicts, it is important to consider that beginners usually need a greater amount of attention to the performance while an expert can perform the same skill more or less automatically. When the beginner has a high level of arousal he/she can get distracted and tends not to give the same amount of attention to the skill. This leads to the deterioration of performance.

Also, beginners tend to rely heavily on cues and signals within the environment to perform the right skills in the right situations and at the right moment. However, when arousal increases their focus on the essential cues and signal declines and they will lose concentration and become unable to react to the proper cues. Therefore novices normally perform better with lower levels of arousal than an expert would need.

Moreover, the optimum level of arousal can also vary in relation to the skill being performed. Sports that incorporate major muscle groups or gross skills such as weightlifting may benefit from having higher levels of arousal, whereas activities which incorporate finer skills and high coordination such as archery or gymnastics may benefit from lower levels of arousal.

Problems with inverted 'U' Theory

- Critics of the theory question whether optimal arousal always occurs at the mid-point of the curve.
- One curve does not explain the different optimal levels of arousal needed for simple and complex tasks.

Understanding the Inverted-U Curve

The left hand side of the graph, above, shows the situation where people aren't being challenged. Here, they see no reason to work hard at a task, or they're in danger of approaching their work in a "sloppy," unmotivated way.

The middle of the graph shows where people work at peak effectiveness, they're sufficiently motivated to work hard, but they're not so overloaded that they start struggling. This is where people can experience "flow," the enjoyable and highly productive state in which they can do their best work. (For more on this, see our article, The Flow Model.)

The right hand side of the graph shows where they're starting to fall apart under pressure. They're overwhelmed by the volume and scale of competing demands on their attention, and feeling a serious lack of control over their situation. They may exhibit signs of hurry, sickness, stress, or out-and-out panic.

The Four Influencers of the Inverted-U Theory

The impact of pressure can be complex. But four key factors, or "influencers," affect how the Inverted-U Theory plays out in practice:

1. Skill Level.

Someone's level of skill with a given task will directly influence their performance, in terms of both their attitude and their results.

For a while, a new task is likely to be challenging enough. Later, if it starts to feel too easy, some form of extra pressure might be needed to help the person re-engage with their role.

Don't worry about people becoming too skilled or too confident. You can use the other influencers to balance this, so that they feel the optimum amount of positive pressure. Increased skill and confidence can only bring benefits to individuals and organizations.

2. Personality

A person's personality also affects how well they perform.For instance, some psychologists believe that people who are extroverts are likely to perform better in high-pressure situations. People with an introverted personality, on the other hand, may perform better with less pressure.

The Inverted-U Theory prompts us to match our own personalities – and those of other people – to appropriate tasks. Observation, detailed knowledge of individuals, and open communication, are all important when we're allocating roles and responsibilities. Although not addressed directly within the Inverted-U Theory, it's important to remember that people can experience various forms of personal pressure (from their family lives, for instance, or from underlying concerns about their role or organization). Try to bear these pressures in mind when setting deadlines and allocating tasks.

3. Trait Anxiety

Think of trait anxiety as the level of a person's "self-talk." People who are self-confident are more likely to perform better under pressure. This is because their self-talk is under control, which means that they can stay "in flow," and they can concentrate fully on the situation at hand.

By contrast, people who criticize or question themselves are likely to be distracted by their self-talk, which can cause them to lose focus in more challenging situations.

The more that people are able to lower their anxiety about a task (with practice, or with positive thinking, for example) the better they'll perform.

4. Task Complexity

Task complexity describes the level of attention and effort that people have to put into a task in order to complete it successfully. People can perform simple activities under quite high levels of pressure, while complex activities are better carried out in a calm, low-pressure environment.

But even when someone's skill levels are high, they may still benefit from a calm environment in which to carry out their most complex work. Conversely, people carrying out low-complexity tasks may need extra stimulation in order to feel motivated and achieve their potential.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1.   Explain the concept of Inverted U hypothesis

2. Who invented Inverted U hypothesis?

4.0 CONCLUSION

From the foregoing the Inverted U theory was developed in 1908 by Yerkes and Dodson and it is a theory of arousal that considers that optimal performance occurs when the performer reaches an optimal level of arousal. The Inverted U theory seems to fit more accurately with observations of performance than the Drive theory. According to the theory performance will improve as arousal increases until it reaches a point where optimum performance is achieved, and arousal is at its optimum level. If arousal increases beyond this point, performance will begin to deteriorate as seen on the image to the right.

5.0 SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit that:-

i)   Inverted U theory was developed in 1908 by Yerkes and Dodson and it is a theory of arousal that considers that optimal performance occurs when the performer reaches an optimal level of arousal.

ii) Problems with inverted 'U' Theory are;

*   Critics question if optimal arousal always occurs at the mid-point of the curve.

*   One curve does not explain the different optimal levels of arousal needed for simple and complex tasks.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   With the aid of a diagram explain the concept of inverted U hypothesis?

2.   Who invented Inverted U hypothesis?

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UNIT 2   PSYCHING UP/ PSYCHING DOWN

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main content

     3.1   psyching up/ psyching down

4.0   Conclusion

5.0   Summary

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Competitive sport is inherently stressful at all levels. Although some people can get very "wound up" about a seaside mini-golf game with a friend, generally as the skill level increases, so do the amount of training and the intensity of competition. At the highest levels in some sports, athletes can gain incredible financial rewards or global immortality. As the importance of performing well increases, both due to objective circumstances and in the minds of athletes, whose identities become inextricably entwined with their sport performance, stress can become a major obstacle to success. The athletes who manage highly stressful situations best are usually the winners of those crucial competitions. Thus, research and applied work in sport psychology have long focused on the question of how to manage high levels of stress, associated with the subjective experience of high anxiety and the physiological reaction of high levels of arousal (Hanton, Neil, & Mellalieu, 2011).Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are the two fundamental factors that induce upward or downward arousal of an athlete, this unit shall probe further to consider psyching up and psyching down in sport.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

*   Explain psyching up in sport

*   psych down a player

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Psyching Up/ Psyching Down

These terms refer to techniques that are used to increase arousal (psych up) or decrease arousal (psych down). The topic is introduced by explaining the central role of arousal in sport. Psyching-up refers to self-directed cognitive strategies used immediately prior to or during skill execution that are designed to enhance performance. Then we consider the relationship of arousal to performance, noting that although precise effects have not been determined, we now consider that there is an inverted-U relationship when cognitive state anxiety is low, but that this breaks down as cognitive state anxiety increases. Arousal is also related to enjoyment, but again the relationship is complex. In some circumstances some people find high arousal pleasant, but for others it is unpleasant. Our conclusion for these two relationships is that it is important to manage arousal level to optimize performance and motivation. To do this it is necessary to measure arousal. We explain that this has not been a simple task. We discussed physiological, self-report, and behavioral measures. We then moved onto the main topic, the discussion of techniques to increase (psych up) and decrease (psych down) arousal. Psyching up techniques are divided into personal and environmental categories. Personal techniques are those where athletes address their own physical and psychological processes. These include breathing techniques, use of arousing words and phrases, behaving in physically arousing ways, and imagining arousing situations in sport. Environmental techniques originate outside the individual. They include arousing behavior of teammates, as well as stimulating music played before or during performance. Psyching down techniques include bodily relaxation techniques (muscle/somatic) that aim to calm the mind by relaxing the body, mental relaxation techniques that focus on calming the mind, so that physical arousal reduction follows, and other techniques that are based on psychological processes used to manage thoughts and feelings. Two important points are worth noting here. First, all these techniques involve learning skills and that is a process

like the learning of sports skills that requires substantial practice. Second, arousal control is a complex process. A trained sports psychologist should be involved to monitor and advise athletes. Even then psyching up and psyching down are still partly science, partly art, and partly trial and error.

Whenever a sport psychologist is asked to think about arousal regulation they immediately think of anxiety and their immediate aim is to reduce that anxiety thereby increase performance. Most of the athletes when interviewed though have little problem with their nerves but more of an issue with the will to win and ability to 'psych themselves up', get a fire in their belly and be ready to fight to the death for a gold medal. Psyching up and developing a will to win is something that have constantly been asked but here attempt to do a little bit of education on psyching up and increasing arousal is made.

Psyching up refers to the self-directed cognitive or behavioral strategies designed to enhance physical performance (Tod, Iredal, and Gill, 2003). It ensures that there is adequate blood flow, oxygen, and adrenaline in the tissues necessary for the strength, agility and stamina you need to perform at your best. It is more regularly found in sports where extreme power is needed such as weight lifting, pole vault, boxing, sprinting, short distance swimming etc. There is a common belief among athletes that these kinds of cognitive and physical strategies will help them to be more powerful and be able to lift heavier, swim faster, jump higher. Research has stated that there is a significant performance advantage to psyching up as opposed to doing no such psyching up activity. It's probably noteworthy here that different sports and different skills within that sport will require a different level of psyching up. For example a dead lift would require significantly more psyching up that a short put on a flat green surface. Each skill in each sport will have a different Zone of Optimal Functioning (ZOF), before then a catastrophic drop off in performance will occur. There are five basic dimensions of zone of optimal function; form, contact, intensity, time, and contact, which are used to describe the individual optimal and dysfunctional dynamics of the emotion and performance relationship. Interestingly each athlete as an individual will also have optimal emotion intensity and to make it even more complicated, each athlete will have a different constellation or recipe of individually optimal and dysfunctional emotions. Below are a few techniques you can use to help in psyching up athletes:

Intense breathing - Just as deep breathing can reduce anxiety, fast, sharp, short breaths can take your body and mind to higher intensity.

Moving around - Often you will see athletes hitting themselves, jumping, running fast on the spot, looking fast and energetic. More often than not these athletes are trying to psych themselves up. This fast movement increases physiological activity which then increases cognitive arousal

High energy self-talk - How often on TV does you sees an athlete muttering something to them, or sees a weightlifter shouting or grunting. These high energy words or phrases can be used to psych yourself up as well as control your anxiety.

Music- Music has been shown to increase and decrease arousal. Music with faster beats increases arousal, music with slow beat, decreases arousal. The sensations of high intensity music will help you to increase your cognitive arousal which will in turn increase your physiological arousal.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1.   Define psyching up in sport?

2.   What is psyching down in sport?

4.0   CONCLUSION

The effective performance of a player is geared toward his or her state of arousal, and as such coaches needs to be aware of the techniques used in increasing and decreasing athlete arousal at different levels to spur athletes performance.

5.0   SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit that:-

i)   Psyching up refers to techniques that are used to increase arousal and improve performance.

ii)   Psyching down refers to techniques that are used to or decrease arousal and improve performance.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Define psyching up?

2.   What is psyching down in sport?

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3 MENTAL REHEARSALS /IMAGERY/VISUALIZATION

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main content

      3.1 Mental rehearsals /imagery/visualization

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Effective and efficient performance is enhanced by a lot of motivational techniques such as mental rehearsals, imagery and visualization. This unit shall discuss about these motivational techniques used by athletes to either increase or decrease their arousal levels and improve athletic performance.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

* Define mental rehearsal

* Explain Imagery

* Explain visualization

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Mental Rehearsals /Imagery/Visualization

Mental rehearsal is the ability to picture a performance or aspects of it in a skill that will enhance performance. Mental rehearsal, visualization and imagery are used by athletes to manage and reduce anxiety during a performance.

Mental rehearsal occurs when a performer rehearses in his or her mind the physical skills that the performer wishes to practice. In this process, there is no visible physical movement. The process involves imagining the performance, and rehearsing the activity in the mind, in an attempt to prepare the mind and body for competition.

Mental rehearsal relates to our ability to practice a process or activity in our minds. Mental rehearsal is used to strengthen or improve behavioral performance, cognitive thinking patterns and internal states. When applied to behavioral performance, mental rehearsal involves creating internal representations, in the form of images, sounds and feelings, of some behavior or performance we desire to enact or improve (as an actor might silently rehearse lines for a play). Mentally rehearsing a cognitive strategy involves repeating the sequence of representational systems, and their accompanying accessing cues, that make up a particular mental programme. To mentally rehearse an internal state, a person would repeat and anchor the physical patterns (posture, gestures, micro movements, etc.) and the cognitive qualities (type of internal imagery, inner voice, kinesthetic sensations, etc.) associated with that state.

Mental rehearsal has been found to be effective both in the acquisition of new sports skills and in the performance of well-learned skills. Many studies have found that a combination of mental and physical practice results in better performances than mental or physical practice alone.

It is believed that mental rehearsal works because imagining an action creates electrical activity in the muscles involved in the movement, and the muscle is thus actually contracting without visibly moving. Mental rehearsal also allows the brain to work out problems and propose alternative solutions and decisions. Good mental imagers not only see the image, they also feel it. It should occur immediately before performance in an attempt to get the athlete focused.

Mental rehearsal is defined as "the cognitive rehearsal of a task in the absence of overt physical movement." Mental practice also has been given a variety of descriptive labels, to include mental rehearsal, implicit practice, imagery, and covert rehearsal. Several studies have demonstrated that mental rehearsal can improve psychomotor and sport performance. While in many instances, performance can be enhanced with a combination of mental and physical rehearsal, physical practice was shown to be more effective than mental practice alone, with mental practice also being superior to no practice at all. It is also possible that a different form of mental preparation is appropriate for strength activities as opposed to different movements such as those that require fine skills of less than

maximum amplitude. This suggests that it would be beneficial to differentiate between varying forms of mental practice according to appropriateness for particular purposes and activities, as opposed to the generalization of the mental imagery process. For example, two types of mental preparation - skill learning and performance preparation - involve disparate processes and are employed for distinguishably different purposes; yet, most sports psychology literature generally does not separate the two.

In general, imagery is visualization; it could entail anything from visualization of victory, execution of a particular skill, to motivational techniques specific to the individual. Imagery is a process by which sensory information is represented in working memory. Imagery produces physiological effects that mirror perceptual processes including muscular reactions, heart rate, and galvanic skin response. The two most popular theories that attempt to explain why athletic performance is improved by imagery are the neuromuscular theory and the cognitive model.

Mental rehearsal is an umbrella term that covers several techniques used by athletes and exercisers to improve performance. I t happens covertly and without any actual movement and typically involves the representation of an action or behavior using nonverbal (e.g., imagery, observation) or verbal processes (e.g., self-talk). For example, an athlete may think (in the "mind's eye") about a skill to be performed using imagery or repeating key words associated with successful execution of that skill using self-talk.

Mental Rehearsing" is often deemed to be synonymous with visualization, this is an incorrect impression. "Visualizing" is observing yourself in specific situation as being seen through the eyes of another person. Mental rehearsing differs from what is described as positive thinking but really it's not possible to apply the concept of "happy thoughts" to a competitive situation.

 Mental rehearsal is a way to simulate a desired performance in the support of providing a positive environment for skill development to occur. Mental rehearsal is also widely used to prepare for job interviews, presentations, cheer leading performances, athletic performances, sales calls, debating, teaching, and managerial behaviors. This allows for the individual to assume different scenarios in which they can practice, plan and deliver the most appropriate response.

Uses of mental rehearsals

1. Skill Development

For skill development, the focus of mental rehearsal should be upon the growth and mastery of skill elements or adapting a skill to specific circumstances.

2. Performance Preparation

For performance preparation, the focus of mental rehearsal should be on factors that can enhance performance, such as motivation or activation.

Mechanisms

Neuromuscular Theory

The neuromuscular theory posits that imagery can excite the same neuromuscular pattern associated with performing a particular skill, but without accumulating fatigue. Without fatigue, athletes can practice skills for longer durations.

Cognitive Model

The cognitive model suggests that physical practice leads to the development of physical nodes. By establishing a replicate mental node and using imagery to strengthen it, the associated physical node will also be strengthened.

Imagery and Visualization

Visualization, or mental imagery, is a mental rehearsal technique that involves the participant creating a picture of one aspect of performance in his or her mind. This makes it different from mental rehearsal, which involves rehearsal of the whole performance. The picture might be an 'internal' picture (with the athlete imagining what it looks like from the athlete's perspective as the performance unfolds) or an 'external' picture (with the athlete imagining the crowd's perspective of the performance). It is also possible to visualize a picture other than one of the actual performance. The picture might be of the environment at the event, of a safe and secure place or of the moment of victory.

Visualization

Visualization is the ability to create pictures in your mind. It is not merely wishful thinking nor is it a form of day dreaming or fantasizing, both of which are passive and unfocused. Visualization is active and purposeful. When you visualize certain changes you wish to take place in your body, they tend to occur, even though you may be unaware of the underlying mechanisms.

In some of the exercises, particularly those based on yoga and Pilates, visualization is encouraged to enhance their effectiveness. Imagery is a flow of thoughts and includes sensory qualities from one or more of the senses, including smell, touch, hearing and taste, in addition to visualization.

Visualization is the cognitive process of purposefully generating visual mental imagery, with eyes open or closed, simulating or recreating visual perception in order to maintain, inspect, and transform those images. There by modifying their associated emotions or feelings, with intent to experience a subsequent beneficial physiological, psychological, or social effect. Such as expediting the healing of wounds to the body, minimizing physical pain, alleviating psychological pain including anxiety, sadness, and low mood, improving self-esteem or self-confidence, and enhancing the capacity to cope when interacting with others.

Anything can be visualized, but not all people find it easy to visualize. First, the person must believe that the strategy is effective. Second, it is a skill that requires practice, patience and time—and might require practice every day. As athletes develop and practice their mental rehearsal and visualization skills their level of performance will improve. As their technique improves, so will their concentration and attention skills. They will gain greater confidence in their ability to perform well.

Visualization is a useful tool to contemplate the appropriate tactics the athlete might employ in a given competitive situation. Visualization is also useful while the athlete is recovering or rehabilitating from an injury. Positive images of either competition or healthy athletic movement can be employed, particularly while the athlete is using a stationary trainer or otherwise exercising, to mentally remove the athlete from the mundane training room or gym to the exciting athletic life.

How to Use Sports Visualization For successful Performance:

1. Visualize the outcome you want – When you mentally rehearse your performance in your head; make sure you see the event as how you want it

to unfold. If your mental images turn negative, stop the mental tape, rewind and restart then visualize again then see the performance you want to see.

2. Use all your senses from a first-person perspective – Visualize your sports performance in detail. What would you see, hear, feel, smell and taste. Feel how your body would feel as you go through the motions of your performance. Try adding in some physical movements that coincide with the visualized images. Feel the excitement of successfully fulfilling your performance goal.

3. Practice frequently – Mental rehearsal for athletes is a skill that becomes better with repetition. Practice your visualization or imagery daily.

4. If you want to take advantage of the power of visualization, consult with a Mental Game Coach about incorporating this essential skill into your training.

Imagery

Imagery (or motor imagery) can be defined as using multiple senses to create or recreate experiences in one's mind. Imagery involves internally experiencing a situation that mimics a real experience without experiencing the real thing. As a conscious process that is deliberately employed by an athlete or exerciser to serve a specific function, it is distinctly different from daydreaming or just thinking about something. The terms *mental rehearsal* and *visualization* are sometimes used to refer to imagery, but this can be misleading for two reasons. First, although imagery is a popular type of mental rehearsal, this term encompasses a variety of mental techniques athletes and exercisers employ such as observation and self-talk. Therefore, imagery and mental rehearsal are not synonymous, but imagery use falls within the category of mental rehearsal. Second, the term *visualization* implies that imagery only contains a visual c omponent. However, it is well known that mentally simulating an experience can involve multiple sensory modalities. As well as being able to see the scenario, imagery allows an individual to feel associated movements and bodily sensations, and experience the sounds, smells, and even tastes related to the actual situation. Consequently, imagery is the most appropriate term to describe this cognitive process.

Imagery involves the experiencing or re-experiencing of a situation through multiple sensory modalities (e.g., visual, kinesthetic). It is well known that when

combined with physical practice, imagery leads to greater improvements of a motor skill compared to physical practice alone. The proposed mechanism underpinning these improvements is the activation of some common neural networks during imagery and actual execution of the same skill. This has resulted in imagery being viewed as an effective mental rehearsal technique that supplements and improves training and can even stand in or be substituted for some amount of actual practice. Beyond these cognitive outcomes, imagery is also well established as a confidence-enhancing technique that enables individuals to manage symptoms associated with anxiety.

When imagery is combined with relaxation, this subtype of mental rehearsal is known as *visual motor behavior rehearsal*. The two-step process begins with relaxation (e.g., take a deep breath) followed by imagery to fully re-experiencing an event or situation (e.g., you are standing on the green again, holding the putter). It can be used to strengthen desirable responses (e.g., you are confident as you take the shot) and/or eliminate undesirable ones (e.g., reducing or reappraising symptoms associated with anxiety). While this standardized training method might be useful for modifying thoughts and feelings, it is not always appropriate to relax individuals before they engage in imagery. This is because activation levels might fall below those typically experienced in the real-life situation, which can make imagery less effective.

How to Use Imagery Step-by-Step Guide
The first time you try imagery, it's helpful to have a skilled facilitator or practitioner to walk you through the process. This is referred to as guided imagery. You can also use CDs or tapes, or record your own script to use as your guide. After you are comfortable with the technique, it's easy to practice these techniques on your own.
1. Sit in a comfortable place where you would not be interrupted.
2. Relax your body and take several long, slow breaths.
3. Close your eyes and create a vivid and convincing image. This image can be one you've previously experienced, or one you simply desire.
4. If you become distracted or find you are thinking about something else, simply acknowledge it and let it go.
5. Focus on your breathing if you lose the image.
6. Maintain a positive attitude.
7. Imagine the sights, sounds, tastes, feelings, and even smells of the experience.

8. Take note of as much detail of the scene as possible. What are you wearing, who is there, what are you hearing, how do you feel?
9. If your imagery session is not going the way you want it to, simply open your eyes and start over with your breathing.
10. Always end an imagery session with a positive image.

Imagery and Sports Athletes have many opportunities to try the various imagery or self hypnosis techniques. From injury recovery to improved sports performance, these techniques are showing promise as a standard part of an athlete's training program.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. What is imagery?

2. Define mental rehearsal?

4.0 CONCLUSION

To sum up, athlete needs to apply mental rehearsals, visualization and imagery in other to effectively carry out an activity.

5.0 SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit that:-

i) Mental rehearsal is defined as "the cognitive rehearsal of a task in the absence of overt physical movement."

ii) Imagery involves the experiencing or re-experiencing of a situation through multiple sensory modalities (e.g., visual, kinesthetic).

iii) Visualization is the ability to create pictures in your mind. It is not merely wishful thinking nor is it a form of day dreaming or fantasizing, both of which are passive and unfocused. Visualization is active and purposeful.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What is visualization?

2.   Briefly explain Imagery

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UNIT 4   GOAL SETTING /MEDITATION

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main content

    3.1   Goal setting

    3.2   Meditation

4.0   Conclusion

5.0   Summary

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

For any endeavor of life to be successful, goals and objectives needs to be highlighted at the inception to serve as a mirror and as such pave way for the attainment for the predetermined objective. Goal setting is therefore the measures adapted to enhance or accede ones desire. Thus meditation aids an individual to think and generate good goals.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

*   Define goal setting

*   Explain Meditation

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Goal Setting

A goal is simply something you are trying to accomplish; it is the object or aim of an action. Although goals can function at an unconscious level, the process of goal setting represents the deliberate establishment and refinement of goals and the evaluation of goal progress. The concept of goals and the practice of goal setting are well known and established within settings where performance enhancement is the objective. It is important to understand goals because they have such a broad function in terms of affecting the thoughts and behaviors of those to whom participation, productivity, and performance are important. In the same vein Goal setting refers to the act of highlighting the aims you are trying to accomplish. Goal setting is an established technique to increase motivation and enhance confidence. It is used widely across all levels of sport, and goals provide essential direction at both an immediate and long-term level. Goals can take a variety of forms, and they have both personal and situational antecedents

A Framework for Effective Goal Setting

As alluded in the previous section, early theorizing in relation to goals provided an immediate stimulus for research in sport. This research did not, as one might have expected, attempt to explain how goals functioned to enhance performance, but rather focused on the specific content of the goal and its effects. Consequently, while not necessarily increasing our understanding of how goals work, this research did offer some clarity into the nature of what might be regarded as effective goals. At the very least, this provided practitioners with a useful framework upon which to base future goal-setting

interventions. The following paragraphs provide a brief summary and critique of this work as it pertains to educating athletes and coaches on the nature of appropriate goals.

Research on goal content in sport has provided some support for the positive effect of goals and highlighted the importance of a number of qualities of effective goals. These aspects are often referred to as the moderators of the goal setting and performance relationship because they are considered pivotal to describing the qualities of goals that enable them to be effective. The aspects of goals include *goal difficulty, goal specificity, goal proximity,* and *goal collectivity.*

One of the earliest conclusions of research in organizational settings on the relationship between conscious goals and task performance was that individuals striving for goals that were both specific and difficult performed better than those who had goals that were specific and easy, those who had goals that were vague (e.g., "I want to do my best"), and those who had no goals. While there are obvious (and widely debated) contextual differences between business and sport settings, research in sport suggests that moderate levels of goal difficulty were most effective in facilitating performance. Furthermore, responses to extremely difficult goals in sport were very different—instead of withdrawing effort, individuals in sports settings, when faced with relatively difficult goals, modified them to ensure they remained relevant and achievable. Similarly, in terms of specificity, while specific goals are more effective than no goals or vague goals, those instructed to "do their best" in sport settings do not perform any worse. It is argued that this is because one of the fundamental differences in sport participants is that they actively engage in personal goal setting in response to this type of ambiguous suggestion.

Goal proximity refers to the time aspect of goals, and this can range from immediate intentions to future aspirations. *Long-term goals* have been described as those whose attainment is 6 or more weeks away, whereas goals of shorter duration are termed *short-term goals*. Goal proximity research conducted within sport settings has been rather limited; however, researchers do suggest that combinations of long-term and short-term goals are more effective than using either type alone. Arguably, much of the limited research in this area simply illustrates that having goals is better than

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not having goals. Nevertheless, in terms of effectiveness, the overriding mes sage is that long-term objectives are most likely to facilitate performance and motivation when short-term goals represent flexible and controllable stepping stones to achieving them. In other words, long-term goals provide direction, while shorter term goals appear to provide opportunities to develop confidence and maintain motivation in pursuit of more distal objectives.

The study of *goal collectivity* concerns itself with the effects of team or group goals on collective performance. Early work on team goals in sport suggested that these goals can facilitate group performance and, in addition, promote team satisfaction, cohesion, and motivation. Specifically, team goals are argued to offer direction for the team and help individual members establish appropriate personal goals to support team objectives. Furthermore, it is logical that team goals should be accompanied by individual goals to ensure task focus and effort levels are maintained by individuals within the team. These individual goals should be based on the individual roles that each player needs to fulfill in order to maximize unit (e.g., a defensive group), and in turn, team effectiveness.

3.2   Meditation

Meditation is a mental exercise of regulating attention. It is practiced either by focusing attention on a single object, internal or external (focused attention meditation) or by paying attention to whatever is predominant in your experience in the present moment, without allowing the attention to get stuck on any particular thing (open monitoring meditation).

Athletes Who Exemplify the Power of Meditation

Only a small amount of research will actually turn up a number of famous athletes who have succeeded by way of meditation. Many if not most successful sports figures practice yoga these days, which is certainly a form of meditation. But others have credited the idea of clearing their minds and learning to focus more directly.

LeBron James – James remains at the top of his game as a basketball player. He's openly talked about practicing yoga, appears to be an increasingly calm and

spiritual figure, and has been seen apparently meditating in the past. He's a terrific example simply because of his ability to "block out the noise" so to speak and focus on single tasks.

Novak Djokovic – Djokovic has fallen off a little bit, but at the outset of the year 2019 he was coming off of years-long reign in professional tennis. He and Andy Murray were odds-on favorites with the bookies to win the Australian Open before he ultimately struggled and succumbed to injury later in the season. But he's still one of the world's most dominant athletes when healthy, and he's credited with dominance largely with changes he made to his diet and mindset. Djokovic has been very open about the importance of meditative practices.

Derek Jeter – Jeter is now retired, but he ended his baseball career as one of the best of all time. He's a Yankees legend alongside names like Babe Ruth, Mickey Mantle, and Joe DiMaggio, and he won five World Series titles in his time. More remarkable than his on-field success however was always Jeter's ability to handle the pressures of New York stardom in a seemingly inhuman manner. He floated above controversy and criticism and kept his cool in the craziest of moments. It's unsurprising that he too relied on meditation, having mentioned it as a regular part of his off-day routine.

Positive Effects of Meditation

We think of meditation as having a generally calming effect, and that's certainly accurate. But sometimes the specific benefits get lost in that generalization. Here's a little bit on what you might expect to gain from it, particularly as an athlete.

Stress Reduction – Meditation is proven to reduce stress, which is important for all of us in today's world. Particularly for an athlete, however, this can be an invaluable effect. Whether in training, competition, or simply the ongoing effort to improve, athletes experience a great deal of stress. Meditation can do away with it to some extent, freeing the mind and emotions to focus on more important things.

Improved Concentration – A woman practicing meditation who was quoted in a Huffington Post article on this very topic noted that she was more centered and focused in everything she did when she was meditating. This is one of the most common benefits you hear about, and another invaluable one for athletes. The chance to focus more effectively on training or performance can lead to drastically improved results.

Better Self-Awareness – We tend to brush over the idea that meditation can lead to more "centered" emotions or outlooks. What this really means is that we can simply and calmly look inward and in doing so recognize our own tendencies and emotions. For an athlete, this could mean identifying a destructive habit or something similar, and then acting on improving it.

5 Meditation Exercises for Athletes

1. Diaphragmatic Breathing Exercise with Power Pose
2. Mindful Body Scan
3. Full-Body Progressive Muscle Relaxation
4. Soccer Visualization
5. Mindful Walking Meditation

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. What is a Goal?

2. Define Meditation?

4.0   CONCLUSION

To sum up it was stated in this unit that; Goal setting is an established technique to increase motivation and enhance confidence; therefore coaches as well as player should develop fundamental knowledge and effective methods of meditation that is geared toward their goal achievement.

5.0   SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit that:

i)   Meditation is a mental exercise of regulating attention. It is practiced either by focusing attention on a single object, internal or external (focused attention meditation) or by paying attention to whatever is predominant in your experience in the present moment, without allowing the attention to get stuck on any particular thing (open monitoring meditation).

ii)   A   goal   is   simply   something   you   are   trying   to accomplish; it is the object or aim of an action.

iii)   Goal setting refers to the act of highlighting the aims you are trying to accomplish.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   What is goal setting?

2.   Briefly explain the concept of Meditation?

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UNIT 5   SELF TALK

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main content

        3.1   self talks

4.0   Conclusion

5.0   Summary

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Self-talk refers to the thoughts and words athletes and performers say to themselves, usually in their minds. Some of the self talks discourage us while other encourages us to do things.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this, you should be able to:

*   define Positive self talk

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Self Talk

Self-talk refers to the thoughts and words athletes and performers say to themselves, usually in their minds. Self-talk phrases are used to direct attention towards a particular thing in order to improve focus or are used alongside other techniques to facilitate their effectiveness. For example, a softball player may think "release point" when at bat to direct her attention to the point where the pitcher releases the ball, while a golfer may say "smooth stroke" before putting to stay relaxed. Research suggests either positive or negative self-talk may improve performance, suggesting the effectiveness of self-talk phrases depends on how the phrase is interpreted by the individual. However, the use of positive self-talk is considered to be more efficacious

Self-talk are statements that athletes and exercisers address to themselves; these might represent automatic verbalizations or more deliberate forms of speech. Or Self-talk is the process of which an individual may guide him/herself to accomplish a goal. Although such statements can be said aloud, most self-talk is said covertly as a silent voice in one's mind. The nature of self-talk can also reflect positive (e.g., I can do this) or negative (e.g., don't screw it up) verbalizations. However, there is also an interpretative element associated with self-talk, which is idiosyncratic and potentially more important than the content of self-statements per se. For instance, while two exercisers might say the same phrase to themselves when fatigued (e.g., this is tough going), one may view the statement as an indication to give up, whereas the other might interpret it as a sign that the intensity she is working at is the appropriate level and to keep going. Self-talk is sometimes referred to in the research literature as private speech, verbal rehearsal, or inner dialogue.

Pathways to Influencing Performance

In terms of the mechanisms explaining how self-talk might influence performance, four main pathways are highlighted: cognitive, motivational, behavioral, and affective. Although conceptualized as separate pathways, it is likely that the underpinning explanations actually work in combination. First, the category of cognitive mechanisms refers to processes such as information processing, concentration, attention control, and attention foci. Athletes report using self-talk to aid concentration and to direct and redirect attention to selective and important aspects of the skills being executed. Specific cue words have been implicated in the deliberate changing from one attention focus to another (e.g., prior to the start of a race, a sprinter pulling her attention away from the cheering crowd and on to the immediate task at hand— driving as quickly as possible out of the blocks after the gun blasts). There is also some evidence that self-talk can reduce the occurrence of more internally oriented distractions such as interfering thoughts (e.g., task-irrelevant thoughts, such as What am I going to have for dinner?) while performing sport skills.

In terms of motivational mechanisms, self-talk may improve performance by triggering enhanced effort and/or greater long-term persistence. For example, self-talk may act as a form of verbal persuasion, improving an athlete's self-confidence, which in turn causes them to invest greater effort for longer periods. However, to date, controlled experiments have found equivocal support for the role of confidence in the self-talk to performance relationship. Nonetheless, the use of specific motivational self-talk phrases (e.g., I can) has resulted in increases in athletes' confidence levels. Alternatively, motivation and, in turn, performance might be influenced by the interpretation of self-talk such that self-talk viewed as reinforcing ability and choice ought to be beneficial and phrases which are self-critical, increasing pressure will likely have detrimental effects.

Behavioral or biomechanical mechanisms underlying the effect of self-talk on performance have perhaps greater evidential support. Changes in athletes' form and movement patterns have been shown to result from the use of either cue words (e.g., "knee" referring to keeping one's knee over the ball when executing a low driven shot in soccer) or longer instructional phrases. Typically, these types of self-

talk focus on segmented parts of a movement or action (e.g., phases of a tennis forehand or golf swing); however, some movement changes have been noted following the use of more generic instructional commands—for example, the use of the phrase *drive up* as an attempt is made at a vertical jump.

Last, self-talk may influence performance through a variety of mechanisms concerning the regulation of affective states (e.g., positive and negative moods) and arousal (e.g., being "psyched up"). Different patterns of self-talk are associated with a number of different mood states including depression, anger, anxiety, and so on, and counseling techniques often emphasize changing the nature of self-directed statements as a way of enhancing mood state. Although athletes frequently report using self-talk as a psyching-up strategy to increase levels of arousal, the effectiveness of self-talk for this function has not been experimentally determined. There is, however, so me evidence linking the use of self-talk (e.g., cue word *calmly*) to the effective control of anxiety levels.

Typologies of Self Talk

Self talk is categorized into positive and negative self talk.

Positive Self-talk

As previously noted, self-talk is meant to serve as a guide for individuals to achieve goals and the initial approach of the goal helps set the foundation for future success. Unlike negative self-talk, positive self-talk applies positive encouragement (e.g., I can, I will) followed by positive reinforcement (success vs. non-success). Positive encouragement helps assist in motivating an individual by creating a sense of purpose. Take golf for example…."Could I make this putt?" or "I *can* make this putt." By stating the word 'can' instead of 'could', one is creating a sense of purpose, to make the putt. Whereas using the word 'could' is the first step in casting doubt which, in turn, may produce lower performance. Others may argue that positive self-talk only creates reinforcement through positive results. If one were to use positive self-talk and see negative results (e.g., failing to make the putt), self-talk doesn't work. While this argument makes some sense at face value, statistically speaking, it is false.

Research surrounding self-talk revealed that not only can motivation and performance be increased, but physical feelings of strength and self-efficacy as well (Slimani & Cheour, 2016). Among the 44 combat sports practitioners participating in Slimani and Cheour (2016), results revealed that pre-motivational talk enhanced performance through strength training and physical counter movements. This relationship debunks the notion that self-talk only works post activity during the first trial applications.

Additional research conducted by Malouff and Murphy (2006) revealed a positive relationship between instructional self-talk and performance. The use of pre-performance positive self-talk in golf revealed enhanced putting performance and personal satisfaction both during and after the play.

Overall, positive self-talk can prove to be a valuable asset for anyone interested in performance. Paired with goal setting and visualization, self-talk may be even more effective in promoting positive outcomes.

Steps for Developing a Positive Self Talk Habit

1. **Choose a mantra:** To get started with creating more positive self-talk, choose one of two mantras you can use during your training. This could be a simple affirmation, such as "I feel strong," or the mantra "Go, Go, Go," or another simple, positive phrase you can repeat over and over.
2. **Practice multiple scenarios:** Once you have developed the habit of repeating this phrase during practice to the point where it is automatic, start expanding the dialogue so that you have familiar and comfortable statements for a variety of situations during your sport. For example, if you are cycling and reach a hill, you might say, "I'm a great hill climber," or "I've done this before and it's doable." If you get dropped from the pack you can say, "Anything can happen, and I'm definitely not out of this. Don't let up."
3. **Create a positive mental image or visualization:** The phrases and words you choose should be those that you can immediately call up and create a visual picture of yourself doing exactly what you say. The image along with the words is a powerful combination that creates a positive message tied to a belief.

Negative Self-talk

Unlike positive self-talk, negative self-talk is the use of negative words such as 'cannot', 'will not', 'could have', and 'should have'. All of these phrases cast doubt and have shown to create increased semantic (physical) and cognitive anxiety (Hatzigeorgiadis & Biddle, 2008). Anxiety such as this creates debilitative performance systems such as increased heart rate, irregular breathing, self-doubt, and lack of focus. Results from Hatzigeorgiadis and Biddle (2008) have shown that positive self-talk help to mitigate pre-performance anxiety and can be used a predictor of negative self-talk.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1.   What is self talk?

2.   What are the steps for developing positive self talk habit

4.0   CONCLUSION

From the foregoing, Self-talk refers to statements that athletes and exercisers address to themselves; these might represent automatic verbalizations or more deliberate forms of speech. Although such statements can be said aloud, most self-talk is said covertly as a silent voice in one's mind. In addition coaches and athletes are advised to imbibe positive self talk and as such abhor negative self talk for effective performance.

5.0   SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit that:

i)   Self-talk refers to statements that athletes and exercisers address to themselves; these might represent automatic verbalizations or more deliberate forms of speech. Although such statements can be said aloud, most self-talk is said covertly as a silent voice in one's mind.

ii)   Negative Self-talk: Unlike positive self-talk, negative self-talk is the use of negative words such as 'cannot', 'will not', 'could have', and 'should have'. All of these phrases cast doubt and have shown to create increased semantic (physical) and cognitive anxiety (Hatzigeorgiadis & Biddle, 2008).

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Define Positive self talk?

2.   What is self talk?

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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MODULE 4   SUPERSTITIOUS BELIEFS ABOUT PERFORMANCES, PSYCHOMETRICS

Unit 1   Superstitions

Unit 2   Causes and alleviation of Superstitions

Unit 3   Rituals and Superstition in sports Performance

Unit 4   Superstition and other disciplines

Unit 5   Psychometrics

UNIT 1   SUPERSTITIONS

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Individuals are ascribed by believing in certain notions, perhaps human beings opine that everything or event that takes place in their life in one way or the other is related to their beliefs. Therefore superstition entails false notions concerning a particular phenomenon.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

*   Define superstition.

*   Explain the power of superstition.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Superstition

Superstition is any belief or practice that is considered absurd, fallacious, irrational or supernatural: for example, if it arises from ignorance, a misunderstanding of science or causality, a positive belief in fate or magic, or fear of the unknown. This is in many cases welded to beliefs and practices surrounding luck, prophecy, and

certain spiritual beings, precisely the belief about predicting future events. Superstition is also defined as a widely held but irrational belief in supernatural influences, especially as leading to good or bad luck, or a practice based on such a belief.

The Surprising Origins of Common Superstitions

"It's bad luck to open an umbrella indoors."

Though some historians tentatively trace this belief back to ancient Egyptian times, the superstitions that surrounded pharaohs' sunshades were actually quite different and probably unrelated to the modern-day one about raingear. Most historians think the warning against unfurling umbrellas inside originated much more recently, in Victorian England.

In "Extraordinary Origins of Everyday Things" (Harper, 1989), the scientist and author Charles Panati wrote: "In eighteenth-century London, when metal-spoke waterproof umbrellas began to become a common rainy-day sight, their stiff, clumsy spring mechanism made them veritable hazards to open indoors. A rigidly spoke umbrella, opening suddenly in a small room, could seriously injure an adult or a child, or shatter a frangible object. Even a minor accident could provoke unpleasant words or a minor quarrel, themselves strokes of bad luck in a family or among friends. Thus, the superstition arose as a deterrent to opening an umbrella indoors."

"It's bad luck to walk under a leaning ladder."

This superstition really does originate 5,000 years ago in ancient Egypt. A ladder leaning against a wall forms a triangle, and Egyptians regarded this shape as sacred (as exhibited, for example, by their pyramids). To them, triangles represented the trinity of the gods, and to pass through a triangle was to desecrate them.

This belief wended its way up through the ages. "Centuries later, followers of Jesus Christ usurped the superstition, interpreting it in light of Christ's death," Panati explained. "Because a ladder had rested against the crucifix, it became a symbol of wickedness, betrayal, and death. Walking under a ladder courted misfortune."

In England in the 1600s, criminals were forced to walk under a ladder on their way to the gallows.

"A broken mirror gives you seven years of bad luck."

In ancient Greece, it was common for people to consult "mirror seers," who told their fortunes by analyzing their reflections. As the historian Milton Goldsmith explained in his book "Signs, Omens and Superstitions" (1918), "divination was performed by means of water and a looking glass. This was called catoptromancy. The mirror was dipped into the water and a sick person was asked to look into the glass. If his image appeared distorted, he was likely to die; if clear, he would live."

In the first century A.D., the Romans added a caveat to the superstition. At that time, it was believed that peoples' health changed in seven year cycles. A distorted image resulting from a broken mirror therefore meant seven years of ill-health and misfortune, rather than outright death.

"When you spill salt, toss some over your left shoulder to avoid bad luck."

Spilling salt has been considered unlucky for thousands of years. Around 3,500 B.C., the ancient Sumerians first took to nullifying the bad luck of spilled salt by throwing a pinch of it over their left shoulders. This ritual spread to the Egyptians, the Assyrians and later, the Greeks.

The superstition ultimately reflects how much people prized (and still prize) salt as a seasoning for food. The etymology of the word "salary" shows how highly we value it. According to Panati: "The Roman writer Petronius, in the Satyricon, originated 'not worth his salt' as opprobrium for Roman soldiers, who were given special allowances for salt rations, called salarium 'salt money' the origin of our word 'salary.'"

"Knock on wood to prevent disappointment."

Though historians say this may be one of the most prevalent superstitious customs in the United States, its origin is very much in doubt. "Some attribute it to the ancient religious rite of touching a crucifix when taking an oath," Goldsmith wrote. Alternatively, "among the ignorant peasants of Europe it may have had its beginning in the habit of knocking loudly to keep out evil spirits."

"Always 'God bless' a sneeze"

In most English-speaking countries, it is polite to respond to another person's sneeze by saying "God bless you." Though incantations of good luck have

accompanied sneezes across disparate cultures for thousands of years (all largely tied to the belief that sneezes expelled evil spirits), our particular custom began in the sixth century A.D. by explicit order of Pope Gregory the Great.

A terrible pestilence was spreading through Italy at the time. The first symptom was severe, chronic sneezing, and this was often quickly followed by death. [Is It Safe to Hold In a Sneeze?]

Pope Gregory urged the healthy to pray for the sick, and ordered that light-hearted responses to sneezes such as "May you enjoy good health" be replaced by the more urgent "God bless you!" If a person sneezed when alone, the Pope recommended that they say a prayer for themselves in the form of "God help me!"

"Hang a horseshoe on your door open-end-up for good luck."

The horseshoe is considered to be a good luck charm in a wide range of cultures. Belief in its magical powers traces back to the Greeks, who thought the element iron had the ability to ward off evil. Not only were horseshoes wrought of iron, they also took the shape of the crescent moon in fourth century Greece for the Greeks, a symbol of fertility and good fortune.

The belief in the talismanic powers of horseshoes passed from the Greeks to the Romans and from them to the Christians. In the British Isles in the Middle Ages, when fear of witchcraft was rampant, people attached horseshoes open-end-up to the sides of their houses and doors. People thought witches feared horses, and would shy away from any reminders of them.

"A black cat crossing your path is lucky/ unlucky."

Many cultures agree that black cats are powerful omens but do they signify good or evil?

The ancient Egyptians revered all cats, black and otherwise, and it was there that the belief began that a black cat crossing your path brings *good* luck. Their positive reputation is recorded again much later, in the early seventeenth century in England: King Charles I kept (and treasured) a black cat as a pet. Upon its death, he is said to have lamented that his luck was gone. The supposed truth of the superstition was reinforced when he was arrested the very next day and charged with high treason.

During the middle Ages, people in many other parts of Europe held quite the opposite belief. They thought black cats were the "familiars," or companions, of witches, or even witches themselves in disguise, and that a black cat crossing your path was an indication of bad luck a sign that the devil was watching you. This seems to have been the dominant belief held by the Pilgrims when they came to America, perhaps explaining the strong association between black cats and witchcraft that exists in the country to this day.

"The number 13 is unlucky."

Fear of the number 13, known as "triskaidekaphobia," has its origins in Norse mythology. In a well-known tale, 12 gods were invited to dine at Valhalla, a magnificent banquet hall in Asgard, the city of the gods. Loki, the god of strife and evil, crashed the party, raising the number of attendees to 13. The other gods tried to kick Loki out, and in the struggle that ensued, Balder, the favorite among them, was killed.

Scandinavian avoidance of 13-member dinner parties, and dislikes of the number 13 itself, spread from south to the rest of Europe. It was reinforced in the Christian era by the story of the Last Supper, at which Judas, the disciple who betrayed Jesus, was the thirteenth guest at the table.

Many people still shy away from the number, but there is no statistical evidence that 13 is unlucky.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1.   What is superstition?

2.   Explain the power of superstition

4.0   CONCLUSION

From the foregoing, Superstition is any belief or practice that is considered absurd, fallacious, irrational or supernatural: for example, if it is arises from ignorance, a misunderstanding of science or causality, a positive belief in fate or magic or fear of that which is unknown.

5.0   SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit that:-

i) **S**uperstition is any belief or practice that is considered absurd, fallacious, irrational or supernatural: for example, if it is arises from ignorance, a misunderstanding of science or causality, a positive belief in fate or magic, or fear of that which is unknown.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   What is superstition?

2.   Briefly describe the power of superstition.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT2   CAUSES AND ALLEVIATION OF SUPERSTITIONS

CONTENTS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Superstition is defined as a widely held but irrational belief in supernatural influences, especially as leading to good or bad luck, or a practice based on such a belief. But you can adjust your mindset, make it stick that such beliefs don't have basis and that they don't exist to reduce superstitious beliefs.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At end of this unit, you should be able to:

*   state the causes of superstition

*   identify ways on how to stop been superstitious

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Causes of Superstitions

Have you ever wondered why superstitions work? Have you ever wonder what are the causes of superstitions, what beliefs, what actions, what thoughts, what are the actual things which cause superstition? Have you ever wondered why people become uncomfortable when they see a black cat crossing their way, have you ever wondered why Forwarded chain messages " Send this message to 24 people to avoid bad luck" scares most of the people have you ever thought what are the actual reasons which cause such superstitions belief in us?

The reason the causes of superstition is "People's beliefs". People believe in the inherent power and charm of superstition, Most of the people think that people who are religious are mostly superstitious, But I personally feel that being Religious and being superstitious is completely two different things, You can be religious but you can avoid being superstitious, You can Be Logical Religious, Who believes in Humanity and wisdom, let's talk about superstitions, How we indulge in superstitious behavior, what causes such Superstitious behavior,

Actually superstitious behavior can include rituals in which you get engage to produce a specific outcome, we must understand that we indulge in superstitions because we believe in it, we believe that certain beliefs or certain rituals will benefit us, and that believe makes us superstitious,

Now let's understand what causes of superstitions? What action and thoughts gave rise to such superstitious beliefs?

1) False bias

False bias is the backbone of superstitions, False bias thinking is the major cause of superstition false bias means we link two situations or events to each other for example Suppose you were walking and suddenly black cat crosses your way, and when you reach your school to collect your results you see you failed your exam, After collecting your result you feel that the reason you failed your exams is that black cat, You link your result with black cat and such false bias, such negative linking will make you and your brain superstitious.

You failed because you didn't study well, not because the black cat crossed your way, similarly, I have heard people saying that if crow shits on your head or on your left or right shoulder something good will happen, suppose if you are going to your friend's birthday party and if crow shits on your shoulder or on your new dress, will it be a good luck? It's all in our minds, hence don't be superstitious be logical.

2) To put blame

Many people behave superstitiously because they love to play a blame game, another very important cause of Superstition belief is blame game. so that they can blame other things for their unsuccessful life, for example, I am not successful because I am not lucky or I wasn't able to do it because my luck wasn't with me, or god doesn't want to help. This kind of superstitions is also there in the modern world and these superstitions allow other evil and cold-hearted people to fool us, most people superstitions belief allow others to fool them.

3) Superstitions in Sports

Another reason which arises Superstitious belief or can say which causes or give rise to superstition belief is Cause and Effect, for example, suppose a man wears a blue t-shirt while watching football, and that day if his favorite team wins, then he

will associate that blue color t-shirt with luck, and from next time onwards he will wear a blue color t-shirt on every important day. This superstition happens in India. But color has nothing to do with winning, it was just a coincidence, and coincidence can happen sometimes, but not every time, hence believing that after wearing blue t-shirt you can pass your exams or presentations without working hard, to have such belief is not only a myth or foolishness but it will also be harmful to your mind and heart, hence always have a logical believe.

Causes of superstitions are Believes, we believe that it has some inherent power and charm, and such belief is what makes us illogical and lazy, stop believing that some rituals can give you everything, Actions, plans, self-believe, hard work and smart work gives you everything, Superstitions only makes us illogical and bias, To overcome superstitious belief start gaining knowledge, read useful books which gives you wisdom, stop believing in things which has nothing to do with reality.

3.2   How to Alleviate Superstitions

Have you become a slave to superstitions? Do you run to the other side of the street when you see a black cat? Do you cringe any time you accidentally step on a crack, or feel convinced that your day will be ruined because of it? Have you ever cracked a mirror, and felt devastated that your life was going to be horrible for the next seven years? If this sounds like you, then it's time to break those superstitious habits and to learn that you have the power to make your own luck.

1 Adjusting Your Mindset

(a) Learn the origins of the superstitions you believe in. One way to overcome your superstitious beliefs is to learn where they come from to begin with. For example, did you know that the belief that it's bad luck to walk under a ladder came from the idea that it was dangerous to walk in an area where work tools are likely to fall? The more you debunk these superstitions, the more you'll see that while they may be fun to believe in, they have no foundation in reality. Here are some other surprising origins of common superstitions:

> o   In 18th century London, umbrellas with metal spokes became popular, and opening them indoors became a hazard. Therefore, it became common knowledge that opening an umbrella indoors was considered "bad luck," though this was really done to keep people safe!

o The superstition that spilling salt was considered bad luck began in 3,500 B.C., with the ancient Sumerians. However, this came about because salt was such a prized commodity back then, not because spilling salt has any inherent power to influence your luck.

o Black cats were actually considered to be good luck among some cultures. The ancient Egyptians considered it good luck when a black cat crossed your path, and in the 17th century, King Charles even kept a black cat as a pet. Unfortunately, many people associated cats with witches during the middle Ages and during the time of the Pilgrims, which makes some people think they are bad luck today.

(b) Realize that there's no rational proof that these superstitions can affect your life. Is there any real reason that the number 13 should be unlucky? Why should black cats be more unlucky than any other cat? Can finding a four-leaf clover really cause good fortune to rain down upon your head? If a rabbit's foot were really lucky, wouldn't the original owner (that is, the rabbit) still own it? Though you may believe that thinking rationally is beside the point when it comes to superstitions, if you want to beat your obsession with them, then you have to use critical thinking to get there.

 Superstitions lie in age-old traditions. Like many traditions, they continue to be enacted, but they don't really serve a purpose.

(c) Consider which superstitions cause regular inconvenience to you. Are you constantly staring at the ground to avoid stepping on cracks to the point of bumping into people on the street? Do you take winding detours in order to avoid crossing the path of a black cat? The superstitions which cause trouble for you on a regular basis are the ones you should focus on first. Maybe you spent ten extra minutes walking to work because you think that you're taking the "lucky" path. Maybe you run back home and are late for a dinner date to put on your "lucky" earrings. If you really think about it, you may find that your superstitious beliefs are actually causing you harm instead of bringing you luck.

- Ask yourself if the anxiety you associate with following different superstitions is really bringing you any good energy.

(d) Avoid superstitious beliefs when making decisions. When making decisions, rely on common sense and a sound pattern of reasoning as opposed to weird feelings and supposed supernatural signs. If your friend asks you to meet her at a certain place, take the path that makes the most sense instead of the "lucky one." When you walk to work, wear the clothing that is most appropriate for the weather instead of your "lucky" coat when it's 80 degrees outside. Let reason govern your choices, not superstition.

- Start small. First, if you spill some salt, don't throw it over your shoulder and see what happens. Then, you can build toward avoiding superstitions that scare you more, such as petting a black cat or walking under a ladder.

(e) Realize that you have the power to make your own luck. While you can't control all the circumstances in your life, you can control how you react to them and what you do about it. This is far more important than being lucky or unlucky. Everyone deals with bad luck from time to time — some people more than others, unfortunately — and while you can't control the less-than-ideal circumstances you may face, you do have power over trying to face them with a positive attitude, and of making a plan to improve your circumstances, instead of thinking superstitions or rituals can affect the outcome of your life.

- It can be comfortable to believe in superstitions because this makes it harder for you to take control over your own life. If you accept that you have the power to make yourself succeed or fail, you'll naturally be scared or hesitant to move forward.

(f)Expect the best instead of the worst. Another thing you can do to get into the mindset that superstitious beliefs are irrelevant is to expect the best things to happen for you instead of only imagining the worst possible outcomes in any given situation. If you're convinced that everything is going to go wrong for you, then you'll be much more likely to experience a conflict or a setback. If you think that you're going to have a great day, then it's much more likely that it will happen for you, and you won't need to follow any superstitions to get there.

- o Many people believe in superstitions because they think their lives are filled with bad luck everywhere they turn, and that they need to follow certain superstitions, like not whistling indoors, to ward off the bad

luck. If you believe that there is goodness and love everywhere you turn, then you would not need superstitions to give your life meaning.

2 Taking Action

(a) Prove that these superstitions have no basis in reality. Leave your rabbit's foot at home and see how your day goes. Go ahead and step on a few cracks. Pass on by the clover patch. Incorporate the number 13 into your day (spend 13 dollars at the store, send 13 emails to your friends, edit 13 wikiHow articles, etc.) If this is too hard for you to do at once, work on proving just one superstition wrong at a time and see how far you go.

- o You can even adopt a black cat, if you're really committed to breaking your superstitious habits. These lovable creatures are the least adopted kitties in the pound and are therefore euthanized the most. If you have your own lovable black kitty, you'll see that he brings you nothing but good luck and that superstitions have no basis

(b) Wean yourself off of your superstitious beliefs — or go cold turkey. This depends on what works best for you. It may be challenging for you to decide that you're going to completely break your superstitious beliefs in one day, though you can certainly try it. You can also decide to drop your superstitious habits one by one, to ease the pain. You can leave your lucky rabbit's foot at home one week, and then, once you've gotten over that, you can go up to the thirteenth floor of a building, and so on.

- o You can keep building up to dropping the most challenging superstitious beliefs for you. It may take months to fully stop following these traditions, but you will be able to make it work.
- o You may find that it'll take your mind a while to catch up with you. That is to say, you may drop the superstitious habits but you may find yourself still believing in their power. Give your mind time to catch up with your actions.

(c) Be positive. Another way to stop being superstitious is to work on having a positive energy throughout your day. If you have a smile on your face and have hopes for the future, then you won't be in search of rituals or superstitions that can make sure your day goes smoothly. You should know that you have the power to

make good things happen instead of being a victim to rituals and actions with no foundations.

- o When you talk to people, talk about the things you're excited about instead of complaining.
- o Write down 5 good things that happened to you at the end of each day.
- o Make a habit of being positive and your superstitious beliefs will feel superfluous.

(e)Learn to ignore the urge to act on a superstitious belief. You may be watching your favorite sports team and may have the urge to cross your fingers, take three sips of your beer, or do whatever you think works to make your team win. Simply throw that nagging thought away and think about something else. After you've ignored the urge, take note of how little effect it had on the outcome of the situation. Talk it through with the person you're sitting next to so you can have confirmation that you should ignore it.

- o If you have to, just count to ten, or up to a hundred in your mind. Focus on something else as you wait for the urge to pass.

(d) Know that a superstition only works because you believe in its inherent charm and power. Though a study proved that certain athletes, such as Ray Allen, who are incredibly superstitious about their pre-game rituals do actually perform better when they stick to their superstitions, this isn't actually because of the rituals these people followed, but because of their belief in the power these rituals have to influence their performance. They may think they're going to play a great game because they shot 37 free throws from the same place in a row, or because they're wearing their lucky socks, when in fact, the belief that these things give them power is what makes them do well, not the actions themselves.

- o This means that your lucky rabbit's foot won't have any effect on your test performance. It will, however, put you into a positive mindset that allows you to perform well on your test. You need to realize that your mind has the power to generate these positive feelings without the help of any superstitions.
- o The same goes for believing a superstition brings you bad luck. If you pass a black cat, you may get it into your head that you're going to

100

have a terrible day at school, and you're thereby almost guaranteeing that this will happen.

3 Making It Stick

(a) Spend time with people who are not superstitious. It can also be a big help to hang out with people who have no superstitious beliefs whatsoever. Watch sports with people who don't have the need to wear their lucky jersey for their team to win. Hang out with someone who lives on the 13th floor of a building. Walk with someone who steps on every crack in the sidewalk without even noticing. Getting used to the idea that other people can go about their daily lives without caring at all for superstitions can show you that it can be possible for you, too.

> * You can even pick their brains about how they're able to go about their daily lives without worrying about cracked mirrors and the like. You may even learn some new strategies for stopping your own superstitious beliefs.

(b) If you plan on sticking to cultural superstitions, make sure you know it's only symbolic. Some cultures are full of superstitious rituals that make daily life possible. In Russian culture, for example, people believe that hugging in a doorway will cause people to fight, or that stepping over a person who is lying down will keep him from growing. While you may not be able to break these habits, you should make sure you know that you're just doing them because of a cultural habit, not because they will actually have any effect on what happens. You can still do them, while knowing that they have no power at the same time.

> • If you participate in these rituals with other people of your culture, have a talk to them about how you're trying to break your superstitious habits. They may be hurt or try to discourage you, at first, but they should understand.

(c) Seek help if your superstitious beliefs are an indication of OCD (Obsessive Compulsive Disorder). It's one thing if you're just terrified of black cats or have a few rituals that you can't break. But if you feel like your life is governed by a series of rituals and that you can't go about your daily life without following a very specific routine and panic if you have to do something unexpected, then your superstitious beliefs may actually indicate that you suffer from obsessive-compulsive disorder. If this is the case, then you may not be able to stop being superstitious on your own, and your best bet may be to see a doctor to discuss the

next steps in anxiety management. Don't be ashamed of admitting that you have a real problem and that rituals have taken over your life. The sooner you get help, the better.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1.   List the causes of superstition

2.   How can the act of being superstitious be alleviated?

4.0   CONCLUSION

From the foregoing, Superstition is defined as a widely held but irrational belief in supernatural influences, especially as leading to good or bad luck, or a practice based on such a belief.

5.0   SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit that:-

i)   The causes of superstition include; False bias, to put blame and Superstitions in Sports.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   List the causes of superstition

2   How can the act of being superstitious be alleviated?

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3 RITUALS AND SUPERSTITIONS IN SPORTS PERFORMANCE

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main content

   3.1   Rituals and Superstitions in Sports Performance

4.0   Conclusion

5.0   Summary

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Most players believe in superstition, stories are told about the baseball player with his lucky socks or the hockey player with his favorite stick. To the onlooker, it may seem silly and strange, but in sports, superstition and ritual are widespread and a fairly common practice. In fact, for some players, these patterns may actually influence their success on the field of play.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

*   Define ritual in sport.

*   Explain the power of superstition in sport.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Rituals and Superstitions in Sports Performance

Ritual in sports can be defined as 'a certain behavior or action that a sports performer carries out with the belief that these behaviors have a specific purpose, or power, to influence their performance, many sports performers believe that performing a specific ritual before a competition improves the outcome of their performance. These rituals can range from the clothes they wear. For example Tiger woods' wears a red polo shirt on Sundays at golf tournaments, the foods a sports person eats or drinks, the warm up they perform or even the music they listen to pre-game. On the other hand a superstition can be defined as 'something that is initially developed or mindset, almost by accident and then becomes required in future events. A superstition arises when a sports person has a particularly good or bad performance and then tries to establish the "cause and effect" by reviewing the facts of the day. The sports person will look back and notice things like what they ate or wore and they'll notice anything unusual that happened such as getting a haircut, having a shave or hearing a certain song. If they have a great performance they attribute their success to these unusual circumstances and attempt to recreate them before every competition.

Schippers and Van Lange (2006) researched the psychological benefits of superstitions and rituals in sport. They examined the circumstances at which top-class sports people are most likely to be committed to enacting rituals prior to a game; they called this 'Ritual Commitment'. Schippers and Van Lange's (2006) results suggested that 'Ritual Commitment' is greater when uncertainty and the importance of the game are high rather than low. Player's personalities also have an effect with sports people who have an external locus of control exhibiting greater levels of 'Ritual Commitment' than the players with an internal locus of control. This was taken further by Damisch, Stoberock and Mussweiler (2010) who conducted research into superstitions; they took the suggested assumption that superstitions are typically seen as creations of irrational minds. However they wanted to know why many sports people rely on superstitious thoughts and practices in their daily routines in order to gain 'good luck' or optimum performance. Damisch, Stoberock and Mussweiler (2010) researched the performance benefits of these superstitions and tried identifying their underlying psychological mechanisms. There results suggested that activating good-luck-related superstitions through a common saying or action (for example 'break a leg' or 'fingers crossed') or by a lucky charm improves the subsequent sports performance in golf, motor dexterity, memory, and anagram games. They also suggest that these performance benefits are produced by changes in the sports people's perceived self-efficiency, which activates a superstition boost in a sports person's confidence in successful completion on the upcoming tasks; this in turn improves their individual performance. Finally they suggest that this increased task persistence constitutes self-efficiency and is enhanced by superstition, which improves performance.

Ritualistic Behaviors in Sports

Superstition has persisted throughout human history, and has been present in virtually every human society throughout history (Vyse, 1997). It permeates the entire sporting world. Sport is one permeated by collective adherence to a number of various superstitions and rituals (Lawrence, 2005; Miller, 2008). Individual athletes also are known to practice certain superstitious or ritualistic behaviors of their own, apart from a collective body, such as their team. As an example, Michael Jordan wore blue University of North Carolina shorts under his Bull's uniform for good luck while Tiger Woods always wears red on Sundays as his mother believes it is a lucky color for him (Wargo, 2008).The broader aim of this study was to ascertain the psychological functions of these beliefs and if they impact on the athletes coping and control strategies. The study intended to establish if positive and negatives serve the similar or different psychological

functions. Several researchers have analyzed sports practice as ritual performance (Archetti, 1999; Birrell, 1981), sport fans behavior as ritualistic (Cottingham, 2012) and ritual behavior by athletes and teams(Broch, 2013; Gmelch,2004). Ritual performances by athletes are thoroughly documented. For instance, soccer players engaged in team rituals, lucky numbers, lucky charms and clothing rituals(Ofori, Biddle and Lavallee, 2012), wrestlers always walking with the left foot first onto the mat (Kristiansen, Roberts and Abrahamsen, 2008), Catholic athletes painting an imaginary cross before every game (Gmelch, 2004). There is emerging evidence to suggest that some athletes use superstitious practices as both a coping mechanism to deal with stress and anxiety and to facilitate performance enhancement in sport (Park, 2000). Superstitious practices also provide a means for athletes to gain confidence and feelings of control in competitive situations (Becker, 1975). Thus, superstitious behaviors function as a sort of "psychological placebo" (Neil, 1980), reducing anxiety, building confidence, and helping athletes to enhance their performance. For example, professional footballers who played at the top level engaged in superstitious rituals to cope with competitive stress (Ofori, et al, 2012). Past research has differentiated between superstitious behaviors and pre-performance routines (Cohn, 1990). Pre-performance routines (PR) are learned, behavioral, and cognitive strategies intentionally used by athletes to facilitate physical performance (Cohn, 1990). Generally speaking, a major difference between superstitions and PR are that athletes control the PR, while athletes often feel controlled by superstitions. Superstitious behaviors differ from a pre-performance normal routine in that the person gives the action a special, magical significance. Superstitious behaviors and rituals are different from pre-performance routines (PR) by their means of acquisition, and its measureable impact it has on performance. More so, superstition often offers no logical progression to facilitate skill performance. PR usually has a specific benefit, or provides a warm-up (psychological and/or physical) routine, for the performance of a skill. Superstitious rituals are encouraged by the social influence of people around us. It normally grows, develops and maintains out of accidental reinforcement or social influence, combined with accidental reinforcement. For example athletes may learn their superstitions from team mates and family members (Ofori, 2013). However, the distinction between superstition and preparing for a game is not always clear. For example an athlete engaging a meditation before a game may be described as superstitious whereas to the athlete such behavior forms part of his pre-performance routine. Superstitious behavior is an act that has no clear cut technical function in execution of skill, yet the actor believed it has a power to control luck and /or other external factors (Morgan, 1996). Superstitious beliefs are thoughts that are initiated by anxious individuals with strong need for control, in an attempt to overcome perceived uncertainty in

their environment (Kienan, 2002).The distinction between superstitious belief and superstitious behavior is rather subtle, since one is sometimes defined in terms of the other. Belief, like attitude, is an intervening variable, (i.e. it cannot be directly observed but must be inferred from variables which are (themselves) observable). Superstitious beliefs may serve as the initiation of superstitious rituals but superstitious behavior will serve as maintenance of superstitious rituals. People act, and perceive things in accordance with their belief systems and these beliefs can influence emotional states (Jones and Swain, 1995) and attention processes (Wiseman, 2004). Mechanisms of Action Superstition has an influence on performance because of the perceived increased optimism and decreased stress (Damisch et al., 2010), and perceived control (Keinan, 1994; Whitson, &Galinsky, 2008). These are considered next: Increased optimism. Superstitious thinking might increase an athlete sense of optimism through self-fulfilling prophecy (Wiseman & Watt, 2004). This is because a belief that an athletic context can be won as a consequence of some superstitious rituals, may increase the athlete confidence. Superstition can help an athlete understand what is happening in his or her athletic milieu because it offers explanations and reasons for occurrences that are otherwise baffling or unfamiliar. This makes the athlete's world more understandable, predictable, and controllable. For instance, the belief that making the sign of the cross before entering the field of play will bring good luck or improve the footballer's chances of scoring a goal. This can eventually enhance the athlete's self-confidence, and decrease stress. Superstitions fulfill a general cathartic function for those who believe in them. Superstitious beliefs invoked during instances of uncontrollability may prevent or interrupt subsequent performance impairment (Dudley 1999). Previous studies in health care have also shown beneficial physiological effects, such as pain relief (Thompson 1981; Wager, Riling, Smith, et al. 2004) and reduction of stress (Kiecolt -Glaser, 1995). An increasing number of studies suggest that people adopt superstitious beliefs and strategies as a coping mechanism when in situations of uncertainty and stress (Case, 2004; Keinan 1994; Keinan 2002). The illusion of control and superstition, although seemingly irrational, may be an adaptive response to an uncertain world (Haselton and Nettle, 2006). Superstition helps its users to cope with anxiety, uncertainties and uncontrollable outcomes. Lazarus and Folk man (1984) examined two types of coping: active coping, which involves solving stress-related problems by removing stressors, and palliative coping, which aims to regulate or reduce the emotional stress resulting from stressors. These researchers found that when action can result in productive outcomes people tend to employ active coping strategies and when conditions are uncontrollable people rely on palliative coping strategies (Case, 2004). Perceived control is the belief that one has the ability to influence outcomes that are beyond one's reach (e.g., perceived influence over outcomes that

are largely determined by chance; (Langer, 1975; Taylor & Brown, 1988; Thompson, Armstrong, & Thomas, 1998). Prior research has shown that illusory control is caused by the presence of cues related to having control (Langer, 1975; Thompson, 1998). It is well established that an absence of perceived control leads to depression, pessimism, and withdrawal from challenging situations (Peterson & Seligman, 1984; Price, Choi, & Vinokur, 2002) and the feeling of control or stability can help calm an athlete before a contest (Ofori, Tod, & Lavallee, in press). Possessing a general sense of control leads to self-esteem, optimism, and agency (Bandura, 1989; Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994; Skinner, 1995) and allaying excitement and anxiety, while also increasing perceived confidence (Becker, 1975). Given the importance of these effects on athletes performance and well-being, it is not surprising that scholars have invested a great deal of effort in identifying the determinants of perceived control (Heckhausen & Schulz, 1995; Skinner, 1995). Perceived control can have psychological benefits, as in the case of superstitious rituals in sports (Schippers and Van Lange 2006). It is argued that the uncontrollability of conditions is a crucial factor in determining whether or not superstitions reduce anxiety. Athletes do not respond to all forms of stress with superstitious responses, presumably because some stress is elicited by conditions that appropriate action can rectify. Superstitious beliefs are anticipated to emerge under conditions in which one lacks control and instrumental responses are limited. Researchers like, Rothbaum, Weisz, and Snyder, (1982) contended that when attempts are made to change outcomes instrumentally, the process of control is primary. Primary control striving refers to an athlete's attempts to alter the external world so that it fits with their delicate needs and desires. Instances of primary control striving are evident and persistent in goal striving or the investment of time and effort, if difficulties emerge. Nonetheless, the process of control is secondary when attempts are made to achieve a feeling of control when actual control is perceived as implausible. Athlete may attain this feeling of control by accommodating existing realities (e.g., adjusting expectations, finding meaning in events, activating superstition). Secondary control striving is normally targeted at the internal world and involves individuals' endeavours to influence their own motivation, emotion and mental representations (Rothbaum, 1982). Morling and Evered (2006) defined secondary control as people's attempt to adjust some aspect of the self and accept circumstances as they are. Heckhausen, Wrosch, and Fleeson(2001) operationalized secondary control into two categories. First, selective secondary control (SSC) help athletes stay focused on chosen primary control goals. An example of operationalization of SSC from an athlete perspective will be 'Once I decide what I need to do to improve my performance, I avoid behaviors that could distract me from achieving my goals.' The second category of secondary control in their model, compensatory secondary control (CSC) help

athletes regain motivation for primary control when faced with a challenge. Examples of operationalizations of CSC from an athlete perspective will be 'When something becomes too difficult, I can put it out of my thoughts' and, 'When things don't work out for me, I tell myself it was just bad luck. 'These items make theoretical sense, in accordance with their view that CSC compensates for lost primary control in order to motivate further primary control. Case, Fitness, Cairns, & Stevenson's (2004) findings divulged that superstitious beliefs act as a backup when primary control decreased. Locus of control (LOC) is the extent to which an athlete reports a sense of personal control. LOC has been dichotomized as internal or external (Rotter, 1966). Athlete with an internal LOC judges an event occurs as a product of his/her own ability, effort, or actions. An athlete with an external LOC reckons that an event is the product of chance, luck, or the influence of outside forces. In a related vein it can be said that 'Internalizers' attempt to gain control by approaching the problem or the situation head on (instrumentation) without seeking external assistance (supernatural forces). One essential attribute of 'Externalizers' is that they have diminished.

Predictors of Superstitious Beliefs nonexistent primary control measures; hence they perceive reliance on superstition as a secondary control strategy (Ofori, Tod, & Lavallee, in press). Findings by Van Raalte, Brewer, Newmer and Linder (1991) illustrated that psychology students believed the more their actions allowed them to take some control over chance events, the more likely they were to exhibit superstitious behavior in a golf putting task. Peterson (1978) found a positive relationship between an external locus of control and belief in self-oriented superstitions. Whereas Groth-Marnat and Pegden (1998) found that an internal locus of control was related to stronger beliefs in superstitions. Tobacyk, Nagot and Miller (1988) found that greater personal efficacy control and greater interpersonal control corresponded with less belief in superstition. What is unclear from this literature is the type of superstitious beliefs (positive or negative).

The Power of Rituals in Sports

A ritual is a certain behavior or action that an athlete performs with the belief that these behaviors have a specific purpose, or power, to influence their performance. Many athletes believe that performing a specific ritual before competition improves their performance. These rituals range from the clothes they wear to the foods they eat or drink; the warm-up they perform or even the music they listen to.

The Power of Superstition in Sports

Superstition is generally something that is initially developed in hindsight, almost by accident and then required in future events. A superstition arises when an athlete has a particularly good (or bad) performance and then tries to establish "cause and effect" by reviewing the facts of the day. They will notice things like what they ate or wore and they'll notice anything unusual that happened such as getting a haircut, receiving a gift or hearing a certain song. If they have a great performance they attribute their success to that unusual circumstance and attempt to recreate it before every competition.

The 5 Biggest Superstitions of NFL Fans

Below are some of the superstitions of NFL fans.

1.   Staying in the Same Spot

Have you ever been sitting in the same spot the whole game, then when you finally get up and move your team turns the ball over? That was obviously cause and effect. So if things are going well, you're not going anywhere. Not for food, not to go to the bathroom, not to let your wife sit down on the couch next to you. You can't risk it.

On the flip side, if things are going sideways, you may wear out your living room trying to find an acceptable seat where good things will actually happen.

2.   The Lucky Outfit

For many fans it's not just a shirt or a jersey, if their team is on a winning streak they'll try to keep as much of their outfit from the past week the same. They will not take same underwear or anything; they will just not wear a jacket if they were not wearing a jacket last time they won.

Of course for some fans, this is just a time honored tradition no matter if the team wins or loses. They have to wear their special game-day uniform, just like the team does. It might be a stretch to say Redskins fans dress up like hogs for good luck considering their record over the last decade, but with RG3 aboard now, they're probably not going to stop anytime soon.

3.   The Perfect Meal

Some NFL fans need to have just the right tailgate food before a game. Maybe it's a bowl of their lucky cereal. Maybe it's exactly 17 wings because the last time you

ate exactly 17 wings before a game they won the Super Bowl. It may not be sane, but you better believe it's important.

4.   Pump up Music

It's important to get in the right mindset before a game, and nothing helps us accomplish that quite like the right music.

Maybe you need to hear We Are The Champions before a game. Maybe Phil Collins' In The Air Tonight is your lucky jam. Even if the team can't hear it, you're hearing it for them and that makes all the difference.

5   The Token

Even non-sports fans have a rabbit's foot that they rub for good luck. Sports fans will take that one further.

It might be your favorite football card from when you were a kid, it might be that signed picture from your favorite athlete. No matter what it is, as long as you have it with you when the game starts, everything is going to be okay.

10 Most Superstitious Athletes

A lot goes into being a pro athlete—hard training, raw talent, the ability to perform under pressure. But for some stars, a little superstitious reasoning is the added edge they need to get into the zone.

Whether it's drinking urine or talking to goal posts, these 10 athletes have used weird rituals to help take their game to the next level.

Michael Jordan

You wouldn't think the greatest professional basketball player of all time would rely on superstition, but even Michael Jordan himself was known for a specific quirk. While leading the Chicago Bulls to six NBA championships during his legendary career, the five-time MVP wore his University of North Carolina shorts under his uniform in every game. Jordan led UNC to the NCAA Championships in 1982 and believed the mesh marvels brought him luck. In order to cover his lucky pair, Jordan began wearing longer shorts, which inspired a trend in the NBA.

Björn Borg

Unlike the other athletes on this list, Swedish tennis legend Björ rn Borg had superstitions that related to one specific event—Wimbledon. Known as the Ice Man for his steely confidence on the court, Borg would always prepare for the annual tournament by growing a beard and wearing the same Fila shirt. These quirks helped him net an amazing five straight Wimbledon titles from 1976 through 1980. Surprisingly, the Stockholm native's "lucky beard" has become one of sport's most popular superstitions and has been adopted by many in the NFL and NHL, including the 2009 Detroit Red Wings and Ben Roethlisberger during the Steelers 2006 Championship season.

Kevin Rhomberg

While this left fielder's 41-game stint with the 1982 Cleveland Indians was largely forgettable, his unusual quirks left behind a lasting legacy. According to a long list of pros that played with him, Rhomberg had the compulsion to touch someone if they touched him. Word of this tic quickly spread through the majors, making life a living hell for Rhomberg. Players would touch Rhomberg and run, sending him into panic. In fact, an umpire once had to halt a game between New York and Cleveland, because Yankees players refused to stop touching Rhomberg.

Serena Williams

While her on-court aggressiveness and competitive nature have given her a reputation as one of the greatest and most feared female tennis players of all time, Serena Williams believes much of her winning ways are the result of closely followed routines. For the 27-year-old, these quirks include bringing her shower sandals to the court, tying her shoelaces a specific way and bouncing the ball five times before her first serve and twice before her second. The three-time Wimbledon champ will even wear the same pair of socks during a tournament run. Williams is so set in her superstitions, she has chalked up major losses to not following her own routine correctly.

Jason Terry

Easily the most superstitious player in the NBA, Dallas Maverick shooting guard Jason Eugene Terry's list of quirks includes eating chicken before games like Wade Boggs and wearing five pairs of socks while playing, but the 32-year-old's most bizarre habit occurs while he's sleeping. The night before every game, Terry goes to bed while wearing the shorts of the next day's opposing team. This

compulsion has left JET desperately tracking down the right trunks on a bad night, but a network of equipment managers and fellow players usually hook Terry up.

Wade Boggs

There's a fine line between superstitious and obsessive compulsive and Hall of Famer Wade Boggs crossed it every night. The 12-time All Star attributed much of his success to a daily routine and refused to alter his habits. These everyday customs including eating chicken before each game (earning him the nickname "Chicken Man"), always taking batting practice at 5:17 and running sprints at 7:17 and drawing the word "Chai" (Hebrew for "life") in the dirt before coming up to bat. Boggs' undying allegiance to his superstitions helped lead him to one of the finest pro baseball careers of all time.

Patrick Roy

Perhaps the greatest goaltender in the history of the NHL, Patrick Roy was a firm believer in the power of superstition. Before every game, the former Montreal Canadian would skate backwards towards the net before turning around at the last second—an act he believed made the goal shrink. During the game, he would converse with the posts, thanking them when a puck was deflected and often touching them. This almost spiritual relationship with his goal earned him the nickname St. Patrick—and an unprecedented three Conn Smythe trophies.

Jason Giambi

While his hitting power has cooled in recent years, Colorado Rockie Jason Giambi was a pitcher's worst nightmare in his prime. But even in his heyday the Giambino was prone to slumps. His solution for turning things around "A golden thong" "That's right". Whenever the 6-foot-3 first baseman found himself in a funk, he'd slip his 240-pound frame into a tiny pair of butt floss before playing. More often than not, Giambi's weird superstition actually worked. In fact, his bikini bottoms became so well thought of, the five-time All-Star's teammates would often borrow them to break out of their own slumps.

Lyoto Machida

It's unclear whether UFC Light Heavyweight Champion Lyoto Machida's daily habit is a form of superstition or self-tortures, but every morning the Brazilian Shotokan karate master drinks his own urine. Revealing that he picked up the practice from his father, himself a karate master, the 31-year-old Brazilian has said

he believes urine is a natural medicine that cleanses his body. While it sounds disgusting, Machida may be onto something—The Dragon has yet to lose a round in his professional mixed martial arts career.

Turk Wendell

To put it bluntly, former New York Mets reliever Turk Wendell was a full-blown maniac when it came to superstition. A shortlist of the right hander's many eccentricities includes always leaping over the baselines when walking to the mound, chewing black licorice while pitching and brushing his teeth between innings. The Massachusetts native would also wear a necklace decorated with the sharp teeth of wild animals he had hunted and killed. Wendell's quirks extended off the field, too. In 2000, the reliever asked that the New York Mets make his contract for $9,999,999.99, in honor of his uniform number of 99.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. What is ritual in sport?

2. List four superstitions of NFL fans.

4.0 CONCLUSION

To sum up, the real value in superstition or ritual is the boost of confidence and the sense of control that they provide a sports person. If the sports person believes that doing a specific action or behavior will make them perform better, then they can do it to perform better. Many sports people use different rituals such as visualization or guided imagery, to recreate a particularly successful race, match, putt or free kick to try and recreate that experience and the feelings they had then, as though they are happening now. This recall and visualization prepares them both mentally and physically for a successful competition.

5.0 SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit that:-

i) Ritual in sports can be defined as 'a certain behavior or action that a sports performer carries out with the belief that these behaviors have a specific purpose, or power, to influence their performance' many sports performers

believe that performing a specific ritual before a competition improves the outcome of their performance.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Define ritual in sport?

2.   List at least 5 most known superstitious athletes and their beliefs.

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UNIT 4   SUPERSTITION AND OTHER DISCIPLINES

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction

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3.0   Main content

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1.0   INTRODUCTION

Superstition as a false notion can found in every phases of life, and as such psychologists tries to explore the effect of superstition on individual's behavior. Thus superstition have both positive and negative effect on the individuals life style because certain erroneous conceptions may deprive an individual's from a comfortable life, For instance in Nigerian, certain religions acquiesced to female circumcision, and also in Nigerian political realm, it is surreptitiously believed that before you get a political appointment you must have a political Godfather. This unit shall delve in to explaining the relationship of superstition to disciplines; such as psychology, religion and politics.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

*   define politics

*   define political superstition

*   define psychology.

*   define superstition.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Superstition and Politics

Politics refers to a set of activities associated with the governance of a country, or an area. It involves making decisions that apply to members of a group. It refers to achieving and exercising positions of governance—organized control over a human community, particularly a state.

Political superstition refers to widely held but irrational political beliefs influences, especially as leading to good or bad luck, or a practice based on such a belief.

Ancient Greek historian Polybius in his *Histories* uses the term *superstition* explaining that in ancient Rome that belief maintained the cohesion of the empire, operating as an *instrumentum regni.*

Barack Obama is also superstitious. He plays basketball on every Election Day because it is said to bring him luck. The only time he failed to do so, he lost the New Hampshire primary election. And before presidential debates, he habitually dines on steak and potatoes.

Superstition is everywhere in China. The number 8 is considered lucky, so it was no accident that the Communist Party chose 8pm, August 8, 2008 for the launch of the Beijing Olympic Game.

PM Lee Hsien Loong tweeted that he found a surprise visitor in the Istana in the form of a barn owl "which had flown into the building overnight, and perched itself comfortably high up out of reach". In the native Cherokee culture, as well as many other Native American cultures and even in many of the Nigerian cultures, owls are a very bad omen.

Soon afterward, Singapore's first riot in 40 years broke out, ending the year on a bitter note. The riot also stole the thunder from the ruling PAP, which held a weekend convention to launch its new manifesto. The public interest was focused on the riot, not the PAP manifesto. On hindsight, we could see the owl as indeed a bad omen, or we could still dismiss it as plain coincidence.

Whatever the case, whether or not one is superstitious, it's hard to disagree with the late Dr Goh Keng Swee who once said that it is better to be born lucky than smart.

Opposition to Superstition

Opposition to superstition was first recorded in ancient Greece, where philosophers such as Protagoras and the Epicureans exhibited agnosticism or aversion to religion and myths, and Plato – especially his Allegory of the Cave – and Aristotle both present their work as parts of a search for truth.

In the classical era, the existence of gods was actively debated both among philosophers and theologians, and opposition to superstition arose consequently.

The poem *De rerum natura*, written by the Roman poet and philosopher Lucretius further developed the opposition to superstition. Cicero's work *De natura deorum* also had a great influence on the development of the modern concept of superstition as well as the word itself. Where Cicero distinguished *superstitio* and *religio*, Lucretius used only the term *religio*. Cicero, for whom *superstitio* meant "excessive fear of the gods" wrote that "*superstitio, non religio, tollenda est*, which means that only superstition, and not religion, should be abolished. The Roman Empire also made laws condemning those who excited excessive religious fear in others.

During the middle Ages, the idea of God's influence on the world's events went mostly undisputed. Trials by ordeal were quite frequent, even though Frederick II (1194 – 1250 AD) was the first king who explicitly outlawed trials by ordeal as they were considered "irrational". The rediscovery of lost classical works (The Renaissance) and scientific advancement led to a steadily increasing disbelief in superstition. A new, more rationalistic lens was beginning to see use in exegesis. Opposition to superstition was central to the Age of Enlightenment. The first philosopher who dared to criticize superstition publicly and in a written form was Baruch Spinoza, who was a key figure in the Age of Enlightenment.

3.2   Superstition and Religion

Religion is a cultural system of designated behaviors and practices, morals, worldviews, texts, sanctified places, prophecies, ethics, or organizations that relates humanity to supernatural, transcendental, or spiritual elements.

Religious superstition are dogmatic and transcendental widely held but irrational belief in supernatural influences, especially as leading to good or bad luck, or a practice based on such a belief.

Greek and Roman polytheists, who modeled their relations with the gods on political and social terms, scorned the man who constantly trembled with fear at the thought of the gods, as a slave feared a cruel and capricious master. Such fear of the gods was what the Romans meant by "superstition" (Veyne 1987).

Diderot's *Encyclopédie* defines superstition as "any excess of religion in general", and links it specifically with paganism.

In his *Prelude on the Babylonian Captivity of the Church*, Martin Luther (who called the papacy "that fountain and source of all superstitions") accuses the popes of superstition:

For there was scarce another of the celebrated bishoprics that had so few learned pontiffs; only in violence, intrigue, and superstition has it hitherto surpassed the rest. For the men who occupied the Roman See a thousand years ago differ so vastly from those who have since come into power, that one is compelled to refuse the name of Roman pontiff either to the former or to the latter.

The current *Catechism of the Catholic Church* considers superstition sinful in the sense that it denotes "a perverse excess of religion", as a demonstrated lack of trust in divine providence, and a violation of the first of the Ten Commandments. The *Catechism* is a defense against the accusation that Catholic doctrine is superstitious:

Superstition is a deviation of religious feeling and of the practices this feeling imposes. It can even affect the worship we offer the true God, e.g., when one attributes an importance in some way magical to certain practices are otherwise lawful or necessary. To attribute the efficacy of prayers or of sacramental signs to their mere external performance, apart from the interior dispositions that the demand is to fall into superstition. Cf. *Matthew 23:16–22* (2111).

3.3   Superstition and Psychology

Superstition is also defined as a widely held but irrational belief in supernatural influences, especially as leading to good or bad luck, or a practice based on such a belief. As a field of study, Psychology can be defined as the scientific study of behavior and mental process. By mental processes, psychology encompasses not just what people do but also their thoughts, feelings, perceptions, reasoning processes, memories, and even the biological activities that maintain bodily functioning (Feldman, 2000). By the use of scientific methods, psychologists venture into exploring, unraveling, and finding answers to questions about nature of both human and nonhuman animals' behaviors and thoughts processes that will be regarded as far more valid and legitimate than conclusions reached as a result of mere use of intuition and speculation. Psychologist had gone a long way by studying the effects of superstitious beliefs on human mental behavior.

Origins

Behaviorism Perspective

In 1948, behavioral psychologist B.F. Skinner published an article in the *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, in which he described his pigeons exhibiting what appeared to be superstitious behavior. One pigeon was making turns in its cage; another would swing its head in a pendulum motion, while others also displayed a variety of other behaviors. Because these behaviors were all done ritualistically in an attempt to receive food from a dispenser, even though the dispenser had already been programmed to release food at set time intervals regardless of the pigeons' actions, Skinner believed that the pigeons were trying to influence their feeding schedule by performing these actions. He then extended this as a proposition regarding the nature of superstitious behavior in humans.

Skinner's theory regarding superstition being the nature of the pigeons' behavior has been challenged by other psychologists such as Staddon and Simmelhag, who theorized an alternative explanation for the pigeons' behavior.

Despite challenges to Skinner's interpretation of the root of his pigeons' superstitious behavior, his conception of the reinforcement schedule has been used to explain superstitious behavior in humans. Originally, in Skinner's animal research, "some pigeons responded up to 10,000 times without reinforcement when they had originally been conditioned on an *intermittent reinforcement* basis." Compared to the other reinforcement schedules (e.g., fixed ratio, fixed interval), these behaviors were also the most resistant to extinction. This is called the *partial reinforcement effect*, and this has been used to explain superstitious behavior in humans. To be more precise, this effect means that, whenever an individual performs an action expecting reinforcement, and none seems forthcoming, it actually creates a sense of persistence within the individual. This strongly parallels superstitious behavior in humans because the individual feels that, by continuing this action, reinforcement will happen; or that reinforcement has come at certain times in the past as a result of this action, although not all the time, but this may be one of those times.

Evolutionary/Cognitive Perspective

From a simpler perspective, natural selection will tend to reinforce a tendency to generate weak associations or heuristics - rules of thumb - that are over generalized. If there is a strong survival advantage to making correct associations, then this will outweigh the negatives of making many incorrect, "superstitious"

associations. It has also been argued that there may be connections between OCD and superstition. This may be connected to hygiene.

A recent theory by Jane Risen proposes that superstitions are intuitions that people acknowledge to be wrong, but acquiesce to rather than correct when they arise as the intuitive assessment of a situation. Her theory draws on dual-process models of reasoning. In this view, superstitions are the output of "System 1" reasoning that are not corrected even when caught by "System 2".

Mechanisms

People seem to believe that superstitions influence events by changing the likelihood of currently possible outcomes rather than by creating new possible outcomes. In sporting events, for example, a lucky ritual or object is thought to increase the chance that an athlete will perform at the peak of their ability, rather than increasing their overall ability at that sport. Consequently, people whose goal is to perform well are more likely to rely on "supernatural assistance" - lucky items and rituals - than are people whose goal is to improve their skills and abilities and learn in the same context.

Psychologist Stuart Vyse has pointed out that until about 2010, "most researchers assumed superstitions were irrational and focused their attentions on discovering why people were superstitious." Vyse went on to describe studies that looked at the relationship between performance and superstitious rituals. Preliminary work has indicated that such rituals can reduce stress and thereby improve performance, but, Vyse has said, "...not because they are superstitious but because they are rituals.... So there is no real magic, but there is a bit of calming magic in performing a ritualistic sequence before attempting a high-pressure activity.... Any old ritual will do."

Occurrence

People tend to attribute events to supernatural causes (in psychological jargon, "external causes") most often under two circumstances.

1. People are more likely to attribute an event to a superstitious cause if it is unlikely than if it is likely. In other words, the more surprising the event, the more likely it is to evoke a supernatural explanation. This is believed to stem from a reflectance motivation - a basic desire to exert control over one's environment. When no natural cause can explain a situation, attributing an

event to a superstitious cause may give people some sense of control and ability to predict what will happen in their environment.

2. People are more likely to attribute an event to a superstitious cause if it is negative than positive. This is called *negative agency bias*. Boston Red Sox fans, for instance, attributed the failure of their team to win the World Series for 86 years to the curse of the bambino: a curse placed on the team for trading Babe Ruth to the New York Yankees so that the team owner could fund a Broadway musical. When the Red Sox finally won the World Series in 2004, however, the team's success was attributed to skill of the team and the rebuilding effort of the new owner and general manager. More commonly, people are more likely to perceive their computer to act according to its own intentions when it malfunctions than functions properly.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1.   What is political superstition?

2.   What is Religion?

3.   Define religious superstition?

4.0   CONCLUSION

From the foregoing, Political superstition refers to widely held but irrational political beliefs influences, especially as leading to good or bad luck, or a practice based on such a belief. In addition politics and superstition are interwoven because, certain politician belief and takes superstition as a factor that led them to win or lose election. In addition superstition and psychology are related because both of them deals with humans behavior and beliefs.

To sum up, Religious superstition are dogmatic and transcendental widely held but irrational belief in supernatural influences, especially as leading to good or bad luck, or a practice based on such a belief, This entails that certain religion imbibe some superstitious beliefs.

5.0   SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit that:

i)   Politics refers to a set of activities associated with the governance of a country, or an area. It involves making decisions that apply to members of a group. It refers to achieving and exercising positions of governance— organized control over a human community, particularly a state.

ii)   Political superstition refers to widely held but irrational political beliefs influences, especially as leading to good or bad luck, or a practice based on such a belief.

iii)   Religion is a cultural system of designated behaviors and practices, morals, worldviews, texts, sanctified places, prophecies, ethics, or organizations that relates humanity to supernatural, transcendental, or spiritual element.

iv)   Religious superstition are dogmatic and transcendental widely held but irrational belief in supernatural influences, especially as leading to good or bad luck, or a practice based on such a belief

v)   Psychology can be defined as the scientific study of behavior and mental process.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Define political superstition.

2.   What is religion?

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 5   PSYCHOMETRICS

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main content

      3.1   Psychometrics

4.0   Conclusion

5.0   Summary

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Psychometrics is used by Coaches to expand the range of psychological assessment tools from which they can draw to assist players build the self-awareness that is necessary to identify new career and life goals, and to enhance their performance at work. The burgeoning psychological testing industry has produced a myriad of measures enabling coaches to support players to better understand their behavior, their preferences and their capabilities as they relate to work and life. Personality tests, aptitude tests and questionnaires assessing values, interests, leadership and motivational needs represent some of the kinds of tests currently available on the market internationally.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

*   define psychometrics

*   state the items for coaching evaluation

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Psychometrics

Psychometrics refers to the use of psychological tests to measure intelligence, abilities, attitudes, and personality traits. Practitioners of psychometrics are described as psychometricians.

Psychometrics is a field of study concerned with the theory and technique of psychological measurement. As defined by the US National Council on Measurement in Education (NCME), psychometrics refers to psychological measurement. Generally, it refers to the field in psychology and education that is devoted to testing, measurement, assessment, and related activities. Some psychometric researchers focus on the construction and validation of assessment instruments such as questionnaires, tests, raters' judgments, and personality tests. Others focus on research relating to measurement theory (e.g., item response theory; intra-class correlation).

Historical Foundation

Psychological testing has come from two streams of thought: the first, from Darwin, Galton, and Cattell on the measurement of individual differences, and the second, from Herbart, Weber, Fechner, and Wundt and their psychophysical measurements of a similar construct. The second set of individuals and their research is what has led to the development of experimental psychology, and standardized testing.

Victorian stream

Charles Darwin was the inspiration behind Sir Francis Galton who led to the creation of psychometrics. In 1859, Darwin published his book "The Origin of Species", which pertained to individual differences in animals. This book discussed how individual members in a species differ and how they possess characteristics that are more adaptive and successful or less adaptive and less successful. Those who are adaptive and successful are the ones that survive and give way to the next generation, who would be just as or more adaptive and successful. This idea, studied previously in animals, led to Galton's interest and study of human beings and how they differ one from another, and more importantly, how to measure those differences.

Galton wrote a book titled "Hereditary Genius" about different characteristics that people possess and how those characteristics make them more "fit" than others. Today these differences, such as sensory and motor functioning (reaction time, visual acuity, and physical strength) are important domains of scientific psychology. Much of the early theoretical and applied work in psychometrics was undertaken in an attempt to measure intelligence. Galton often referred to as "the father of psychometrics," devised and included mental tests among his anthropometric measures. James McKeen Cattell, who is considered a pioneer of psychometrics, went on to extend Galton's work. Cattell also coined the term *mental test*, and is responsible for the research and knowledge which ultimately led to the development of modern tests. (Kaplan & Saccuzzo, 2010)

German stream

The origin of psychometrics also has connections to the related field of psychophysics. Around the same time that Darwin, Galton, and Cattell were making their discoveries, Herbart was also interested in "unlocking the mysteries of human consciousness" through the scientific method (Kaplan & Saccuzzo,

2010). Herbart was responsible for creating mathematical models of the mind, which were influential in educational practices in years to come.

E.H. Weber built upon Herbart's work and tried to prove the existence of a psychological threshold, saying that a minimum stimulus was necessary to activate a sensory system. After Weber, G.T. Fechner expanded upon the knowledge he gleaned from Herbart and Weber, to devise the law that the strength of a sensation grows as the logarithm of the stimulus intensity. A follower of Weber and Fechner, Wilhelm Wundt is credited with founding the science of psychology. It is Wundt's influence that paved the way for others to develop psychological testing.

20th century

L. L. Thurstone, founder and first president of the Psychometric Society in 1936, developed and applied a theoretical approach to measurement referred to as the law of comparative judgment, an approach that has close connections to the psychophysical theory of Ernst Heinrich Weber and Gustav Fechner. In addition, Spearman and Thurstone both made important contributions to the theory and application of factor analysis, a statistical method developed and used extensively in psychometrics. In the late 1950s, Leopold Szondi made an historical and epistemological assessment of the impact of statistical thinking onto psychology during previous few decades: "in the last decades, specifically psychological thinking was almost completely suppressed and removed, and replaced by a statistical thinking. Precisely here we see the cancer of testology and testomania of today."

More recently, psychometric theory has been applied in the measurement of personality, attitudes, and beliefs, and academic achievement. Measurement of these unobservable phenomena is difficult, and much of the research and accumulated science in this discipline has been developed in an attempt to properly define and quantify such phenomena. Critics, including practitioners in the physical sciences and social activists, have argued that such definition and quantification is impossibly difficult, and that such measurements are often misused, such as with psychometric personality tests used in employment procedures:

> "For example, an employer wanting someone for a role requiring consistent attention to repetitive detail will probably not want to give that job to someone who is very creative and gets bored easily."

Figures who made significant contributions to psychometrics include Karl Pearson, Henry F. Kaiser, Carl Brigham, L. L. Thurstone, Anne Anastasi, Georg Rasch, Eugene Galanter, Johnson O'Connor, Frederic M. Lord, Ledyard R Tucker, Arthur Jensen, and David Andrich.

Evaluating Coaching Assessments/Instruments

When evaluating coaching assessments or instruments, Peltier (2010) opines that:

(1) Check the construct – "the basic concept that the instrument supposedly tests…Tests do not always test what they sound like they are testing"

(2) Validity – "Is this test measuring what it says it measures? Is it accurate? … Was this instrument developed for people similar to your client?"

(3) Reliability – Is the instrument stable? "Can you use it and get the same results that the designers get?" Are the results consistent when using with different types of clients.

(4) Standardization – Also known as norming. "To whom or to what is your client compared?" For example, a test that was created using a White, wealthy, highly educated as a norm group may not be as applicable to others.

Psychometrics refers to the use of psychological tests to measure intelligence, abilities, attitudes, and personality traits.

SELF ASSEMENT EXERCISE

1.   What is psychometrics?

2.   State the items for coaching evaluation?

4.0   CONCLUSION

This unit had highlighted that; Psychometrics refers to the use of psychological tests to measure intelligence, abilities, attitudes, and personality traits. Practitioners of psychometrics are described as psychometricians. Nevertheless coaches with the use of psychometrics are able to assess players' ability as such explore measures to improve athletic performance.

5.0 SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit that:-

i)   Psychometrics refers to the use of psychological tests to measure intelligence, abilities, attitudes, and personality traits.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT is the father of psychometrics

1.   Who is the father of psychometrics?

2.   What is psychometrics?

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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MODULE 5   SPORTS PERFORMANCE AND THE COACH

Unit 1   Sports performance/coaching

Unit 2   The coach

Unit 3   Coaching styles

UNIT 1   SPORTS PERFORMANCE/COACHING

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main content

       3.1   Sports Performance/Coaching

4.0   Conclusion

5.0   Summary

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Coaching refers to the act of unlocking a person's potential to maximize their own performance. Despite the natural talent of an athlete, the effective performance of an athlete depends on how well his or her coach is able to train him or her. Coaching will impact sport performance, either positively or negatively, in two separate ways. Coaches provide the primary direction to an athlete in terms of training, tactics, nutrition, and sport technique. It is the coach who must keep current with respect to all advances in the sport. A lack of appropriate coaching direction in any of these aspects will prevent the athlete from achieving the best result. As importantly, a coach is one of the athlete's primary emotional supports, due to the intensity and the immediacy of the relationship.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

*   define sport performance

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Sports Performance/Coaching

Sport performance refers to Carrying out of specific physical routines or procedures by one who is trained or skilled in physical activity. Performance is influenced by a combination of physiological, psychological, and socio-cultural factors.

Sport performance is the manner in which sport participation is measured. Sport performance is a complex mixture of biomechanical function, emotional factors, and training techniques. Performance in an athletic context has a popular connotation of representing the pursuit of excellence, where an athlete measures

his or her performance as a progression toward excellence or achievement. There is an understanding in sport that athletes interested in performance tend to be competitive or elite; athletes interested in simple participation, for broader purposes such as fitness or weight control, are most often recreational athletes who do not set specific performance goals.

On one level, the determination of sport performance in most sport disciplines is a simple matter. In those activities where the result is measurable and defined, such as a race, a jump, or an object to be thrown, the end result is quantifiable. In these sports, it is the quest for performance improvement that drives the analysis of the individual components of performance. When an athlete and the coach can isolate areas on which to focus in training, the ultimate result is likely to be improved.

The neuromuscular component of sports performance is subdivided into its own discrete elements. Each of these elements must be the subject of specific training approaches, including body type. Many sports lend themselves to a particular, generically predetermined physical frame or stature; American football linemen and rugby forwards must have a significant degree of physical size. Unless the athletes have a natural predisposition to having a large build, they cannot competitively succeed at these positions. Similarly, large-build athletes will not be successful distance runners or high jumpers as their genetics are essentially a disqualification from the serious pursuit of such sports; they will be limited, no matter what passion they may possess for the sport, to more recreational participation in such pursuits. In many sports, such as gymnastics and basketball, athletes with desirable natural physical attributes are directed into these pursuits.

Another neuromuscular component is muscular strength, both in terms of muscle mass and muscle power. While body type will tend to significantly influence the ability of an athlete to develop muscle strength, training will permit strength development in all athletes; strength, whether in terms of discernable power or as a function of the core strength, there is neatly counter-balanced relationship between the upper body and lower body musculoskeletal structures when in movement.

Endurance, which is the ability of the body to perform over time, is essential to success in all sports. In high-intensity sports of a short duration, such as sprinting and weightlifting, endurance is similar to a backbone to the activity, assisting in the speedy and efficient recovery from the stress of the event or training. In sports where endurance is a central aspect, such as distance running or cross-country skiing, maximal endurance, as reflected in the ability of the athlete to consume and process oxygen, expressed as the athlete's VO_2max, is of prime importance.

Flexibility is the counterpoint to muscular strength; the greater the range of motion presents in the joints of an athlete, the greater the ability to move dynamically. An inflexible athlete is unlikely to ever achieve outstanding athletic performance. Inflexibility in human joints creates imbalance in the connective tissues and muscle structures, which will reduce the ability of the muscle to achieve maximum power, and will increase the risk of injury.

The ability of the body to respond to external stimuli in sport, such as the movement of an opponent or the starter's gun, requires the development of aspects of the athlete's motor control. These specific neuromuscular abilities include the feature of reaction time.

Agility, balance, and coordination are three interrelated concepts. These aspects of sport performance are also influenced by heredity and body type to a significant degree, but all can be enhanced through training. Most sports have specific drills developed to further each of these areas, such as the simple running drills where an athlete must run through a pattern laid out on the running surface. When the drills are run in reverse or in varying sequences, the drill is intensified. Each of these neuromuscular features of sport performance is less influenced by the strength of the musculoskeletal system, and more impacted by techniques and repetition.

Speed is built by training that is focused on the development of the fast-twitch fibers of the skeletal muscles. The distribution of fast-twitch fibers through the muscles of the body is also regulated by genetics, but training can maximize the fast-twitch effect.

In many sports, the ability of the athlete to develop a rhythm to the performance will be crucial to success. Running, cross-country skiing, cycling, and speed skating are sports where the establishment of an effective rhythm or cadence will keep the athlete organized and physically efficient. The development of a rhythm is the imposition of a cadence on musculoskeletal activity.

Mental control and the related psychological factors in sport performance are intangibles that are reflected in the final result of an athlete's effort. In many respects, the mental elements of sport are the most difficult to master, as they usually require a high level of athletic experience and maturity to reach fruition. Examples abound in every sport of the supremely physically gifted athlete who is said to "choke" or "fold under pressure," because the athlete was not able to master emotions during competition. This development of athletic emotional control is capable of being examined from a number of perspectives, including intelligence,

which is a valued commodity in an athlete. Logic and analytical power assists an athlete in any sport to dispassionately review where they must improve.

The ability of an athlete to self-motivate is essential to success, both in competition and training. Additionally, creativity is also an intangible that will separate the successful athletes from the merely talented. Creativity manifests itself in team games through clever or well-conceived tactics. In individual sports, creativity is often reflected through the athlete's approach to training routines.

Discipline is a factor in both practice and games. Undisciplined performance will inevitably lead to error; a failure to adhere to practice schedules by the athlete will usually result in substandard performance.

The level of alertness and mental acuity that the athlete brings to performance is a function of a number of combined factors, including physical fatigue or stresses unrelated to sport, such as personal circumstances, education, or employment pressures.

Environmental factors are rarely within the athlete's personal control; the ability of the athlete to adapt to unexpected environmental factors is often determinative of performance success. There are important environmental factors that can affect success. Playing conditions are the same for all competitors, be it the surface of an Alpine ski run, a sudden rainstorm soaking a rugby pitch, or unexpected heat in a distance race. An athlete seeking to maximize performance must not only exercise the mental control to avoid being upset by weather or the condition of a playing surface, the athlete must examine ways to make the conditions work in the positive.

Equipment will sometimes impact performance. A broken hockey stick or a baseball bat that fractures on impact in a tied baseball game can dramatically affect an outcome; deficient equipment can also take a psychological toll on an athlete. The 2006 Winter Olympics provided a remarkable example of an equipment failure becoming a motivating factor for an athlete, when Canadian cross-country skier Beckie Scott had a ski pole break during the women's relay, mentally deflating Scott and crippling her efforts. As Scott fell behind the pack, the Norwegian national director of cross-country skiing ran out to Scott and provided her with an extra pole. Scott raced ahead with renewed vigor; Canada ultimately won the silver medal.

Coaching and external support for the athlete is as important as any factor in sport performance. For young athletes, if there is not a parent or organized sport group

providing direction and assistance to the aspiring competitor, success is unlikely. In certain disciplines, such as skiing or figure skating, when there are significant expenses with respect to securing practice time and specialized coaching, an athlete's opportunity to progress is eminent but the absence of parental or other support is highly detrimental to performance.

7 Secrets to Increase in Athletic Performance

The fundamental tips used by athletes to improve their sport performance include;

1. Eating the right food at the right time

Food plays a crucial role in athletic performance. An athlete can't afford to eat anything and expect the best results from their bodies. An athlete's meal should be cleaner than the meal of an average man. Serious athletes can't regularly eat junk foods.

This is why there are nutritionists specific for athletes. Nutritionists can create meals that are designed for different functions. Depending on the time when the food is consumed, it plays a different role. It can easily be a recovery meal, or a meal which will be used as fuel for performance.

One of the most basic things that athletes need to do is to have a healthy breakfast. A healthy breakfast can stop your body from catabolizing the muscles, and even jump start your metabolic rate. If you are not used to eating breakfast, you can always start eating a small meal first thing in the morning, then move up to a full and complete breakfast.

It is also important to choose the right meal before a workout. It should contain not only carbohydrates that can be used for fuel, but sufficient amounts of protein which could prevent catabolism during intense workouts.

2. Eat the right supplements at the right time

There are instances when you just can't only rely on the food that you eat. There are times when you will need to consume supplements to provide your body with the necessary macronutrients, vitamins and minerals.

The most basic supplement that you can have is vitamins. This way, you don't have to eat so much food just to fill in the vitamin and mineral requirements of the body.

Whey protein is a popular pre- and post-workout supplement among athletes. Whey provides and replenishes protein in an athlete's body, allowing faster recovery and muscle development. Together with whey are branched chain amino acids (BCAAs). BCAAs are known to be anti-catabolic and are easily absorbed by the skeletal muscles.

There are also fat supplements, such as conjugated linoleic acids, used to increase metabolic rate and to prevent muscle catabolism. Some invest in stimulant-based pre-workouts in order to boost mental alertness. Of course, before you invest in supplements, you should be aware of the side effects. Supplements are only a secondary source of nutrients among athletes.

3. Focus on functional exercises

In order to hone athletic abilities, it is imperative to have the right workout for the right sport. In most situations, isolation exercises won't get the job done. The usual regimen of bodybuilders won't be beneficial for athletes. Body sculpting is the least of an athlete's concern. In fact, there are athletes who don't look muscular.

That is when functional exercises enter the picture. Functional routines aim to mimic the movements needed in an athlete's usual activity. Its focus is not only to improve movements, but to augment possibilities of an injury.

Samples of functional exercises include goblet squats, deadlifts, Olympic lifts, split squats and variant isolation exercises that have been combined with each other. The reason why it is called functional exercise is because of the inclusion of different muscle groups.

4. Drills

Another important detail that athletes should take into consideration is the way they train. One of the best ways to improve athletic performance is by repeating the same movements over and over again. This helps improve the neuro-muscular reaction among athletes.

If you ever wondered how athletes react so fast to different scenarios, it is because of the specific drills that they have been doing over and over again. It helps them reduce the lag time in certain scenarios.

5. Mix-up your workout every three weeks

Muscle memory is your body adapting to the stressful scenario that it encounters. For athletes, workouts, drills and regimens are considered stress. Muscle memory explains how you master certain movements when done repeatedly. Unfortunately, sticking to the same workout over and over again may not give you the best results.

Muscle confusion can produce significant results to an athlete. Changing your workout every three weeks can help the body get the most results, especially when you feel that you are already used to performing the different routines and drills.

6. Log your performance and improvement

Athletes need to have an idea how much they've accomplished. Did you become a bit faster? Did you become stronger? Keep track of your performance, how much you've improved, and what you still need to work on. This gives you a concrete idea on how much work still needs to be done. This can also give you an idea of the things that you can improve on.

7. Include conditioning in your routine

Athletes take their time to improve and refine their techniques. For example, basketball players perform shooting practices for hours, while soccer players are doing the same kick over and over. Instead of simply focusing on technique, it is also a good idea for athletes to focus on conditioning.

By incorporating conditioning exercises during these routines, you train the body to nail the activity even when you are already tired.

If you wish to improve your performance as an athlete, it isn't enough that you are just dedicated to your craft. It is equally important to work smart on how you approach training, nutrition and even rest. With what we have today, it is possible to maximize your athletic ability to the fullest.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1.   Define sport performance?

2.   List 7 secrets to improve sport performance

4.0   CONCLUSION

From the foregoing; sport performance refers to Carrying out of specific physical routines or procedures by one who is trained or skilled in physical activity. Performance is influenced by a combination of physiological, psychological, and socio-cultural factors. Where as athletic performance is highly influenced by the coach methodologies as well as the athlete enthusiasm to learn new skill.

5.0 SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit that:-

i) Sport performance refers to Carrying out of specific physical routines or procedures by one who is trained or skilled in physical activity. Performance is influenced by a combination of physiological, psychological, and socio-cultural factors.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What is sport performance?

2. List the distinct aspects of sport performance

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UNIT 2   THE COACH

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3.0   Main content

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4.0   Conclusion

5.0   Summary

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Coaches have many different roles, which include teacher, mentor, role model, friend, and community leader. All these roles have an enormous effect on the development of athletes. Every successful student got his training from a teacher and as such every successful player has a coach that serves as his or her mirror in his sporting career, therefore a coach is someone who nurtures an athlete to maximize his or her performance.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

*   define a coach

*   states the types of coaching

*   State the qualities of a good coach.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   The Coach

Coach is a person involved in the direction, instruction and training of the operations of a sports team or of individual sport man and woman. A coach may also be a teacher. In addition to teaching sport-specific skills, coaches must teach and instill life skills such as leadership, teamwork, and character building to their athletes. These are important skills to promote the development of positive human functioning. Coach John wooden defines a coach as someone who gives correction without resentment.

A coach is a person who is responsible for managing and training a person or a team .The roles of the coach are many and varied, from instructor, assessor, friend, mentor, facilitator, chauffeur, demonstrator, adviser, supporter, fact finder, motivator, counselor, organizer, planner and the Fountain of all Knowledge. In relation to sports, the role of the coach is to create the right conditions for learning to happen and to find ways of motivating the athletes.

History

The original sense of the word *coach* is that of a horse-drawn carriage, deriving ultimately from the Hungarian city of Kocs where such vehicles were first made. Students at the University of Oxford in the early nineteenth century used the slang word to refer to a private tutor who would drive a less able student through his examinations just like horse driving. Britain took the lead in upgrading the status of sports in the 19th century. For sports to become professionalized, "coacher" had to become established. It gradually professionalized in the Victorian era and the role was well established by 1914. In the First World War, military units sought out the coaches to supervise physical conditioning and develop morale-building teams.

Key Coaching Skills

Goal-setting

Coaching is a goal-focused (or solution-focused) approach, so the ability to elicit clear, well-defined and emotionally engaging goals from a coachee (player) is one of the most important skills for a coach to possess. Like many aspects of coaching, there are both formal and informal versions of this skill.

On the formal side, a coach needs to know how and when to introduce goal-setting into the coaching process, and will usually be familiar with models such as SMART goals (a SMART goal is Specific, Measurable, Attractive, Realistic and Timed).

On the informal side, a coach will typically have the habit of thinking and asking questions from a goal-focused mindset. For example, "How does doing x help you reach your goal?" helps the coachee to evaluate whether what he or she is doing will help or hinder him or her.

Another common habit of a good coach is reframing problems as goals – e.g. if a coachee talks about the problems he is having with a 'difficult' colleague, the coach might ask "What needs to be happening for you to have a workable relationship with this person?"

Looking

A good deal is rightly written about the importance of listening in coaching, but looking is often (ahem) overlooked. When running coaching skills seminars, what to say to the trainee coaches is "The answer is right in front of you". Meaning that the person's body language tells you a huge amount about her emotional state and

level of commitment, yet it's so easy to ignore that if we are too focused on our own ideas about what needs to happen next.

Another obstacle to looking is a company culture in which people have been conditioned to focus on processes and tasks at the expense of human relationships, so that people can stop seeing each other as human beings, but merely 'managers', 'staff' or directors. This is often compounded (in the UK at least) by a general sense that "it's rude to stare" – with the result that the coach literally stops seeing what is in front of their eyes, and misses valuable information about how the coachee is thinking and feeling.

The good news is that as soon as new coaches are encouraged to actually *look* at the person in front of them, they nearly always 'get' how the other person is feeling straight away, and this opens up new options for moving the conversation forward.

Listening

This is often referred to as active listening to emphasize the difference between passively taking in what the other person is saying and actively engaging with them and showing that you are giving them your undivided attention. This involves putting your own concerns and idea 'in a box' while you listen, but can be particularly challenging for manager-coaches, however, it's a skill well worth developing.

You can probably remember the last time someone put everything else aside and gave you their full attention – it's a powerful experience, partly because it's so rare. By listening intently to someone else, you send a powerful double message – firstly, that you are there to support them in whatever they are doing, secondly, that you are paying attention and expect them to follow through on any commitments they make.

There are various techniques and models used to teach active listening, but the easiest and most genuine approach is simply to become *genuinely interested* in the other person and curious about what they can achieve.

Empathizing

Empathy develops naturally out of looking and listening. If you do this attentively, you can start to get a sense of the other person's emotional state. Some people experience empathy as a powerful physical sensation – they literally seem to feel

the other person's emotions. (Scientists have linked this phenomenon to the operation of mirror neurons.) For others it's more like being able to imagine what it's like to be 'in the other's shoes'.

The ability to empathize is critical for a good business coach, as it not only helps the coach to accept the other person on their own terms, but also sometimes to 'tune in' to emotions and thoughts of which the coachee is not fully aware. For example: I'm starting to feel quite angry when I hear you talk about what your boss said to you – was that how you felt?"

Focusing on someone else for a sustained period can be tiring at first, but if you stay with it you will experience one of the great secrets of coaching – that empathizing with another person can be a fascinating and enjoyable experience for *you* as well as the coachee.

Create time to find yourself looking forward to coaching sessions partly because you know it will take you outside your usual self-oriented state – at the end of the session, when you come back to your own concerns, you are likely to see them with a fresh eye.

Questioning

If I had to pick one thing that distinguished business coaching from other approaches to communication, management and learning, I would say "Questions". At the heart of coaching is a willingness to put aside one's own ideas about the 'best/right/obvious way' to do something, and to ask a question to elicit someone else's ideas about how to approach it.

For me as a coach, asking questions is an expression of my curiosity about life in general and human creativity in particular. For coachees, being asked a question can do three very important things:

1. **Focus attention** – questions are not directives but they are influential. They prompt the coachee to look for a new idea or solution in a particular area. Experienced coaches are adept at using questions to help people step outside the 'problem mindset' and look for answers in unexpected places.
2. **Elicit new ideas** – however 'obvious' the answer may seem to the coach, it's amazing how often a coachee will come up with several different and often better alternatives. Unless you ask the question, you risk leaving the coachee's creativity untapped.

3. **Foster commitment** – there's a huge difference between doing something because someone has told you to or suggested it, and doing something that you have dreamt up yourself. Even if a coachee comes up with the same idea the coach had in mind, the fact that she has thought it through her means she will have a much greater sense of ownership and commitment when putting into practice.

Giving feedback

This is always a hot topic when running coaching seminars. It's a big subject, but the key to delivering effective coaching feedback is that it is **observational and non-judgmental**. If you provide clear, specific feedback about the coachee's actions and their consequences, then the chances are that the coachee will be perfectly capable of evaluating his performance for himself.

Giving 'negative feedback' is often a delicate process, but the following principles will make it easier and more effective for everyone concerned:

- **Make sure you've already given plenty of positive feedback.** If you have a track record of giving open, honest praise to someone, it makes it far easier than if you only jump in to criticize when things go wrong.
- **Appreciate (or at least acknowledge) the person – deliver feedback on specific behavior**. You don't need to rebuild someone's personality to help them learn and change; merely to them do something different.
- **Focus on the future more than the past.** Sometimes it's helpful to analyze the past and what went wrong, but beware of getting stuck in accusations and defensiveness. If this happens, switch to finding new options for the future.
- **Avoid blame, make requests**. Faced with blame, all we can do is defend ourselves. Faced with a request, we have the option of accepting, rejecting or negotiating. One keep us stuck, the other may get us unstuck.

Intuiting

Like empathy, this is either an innate ability or emerges from practicing the other coaching skills. Sometimes during a coaching session you can get a sudden thought or feeling about the coachee or the subject under discussion – it's as if something is prompting you to ask a question or share what you're thinking/feeling.

It doesn't matter whether you call this a hunch, intuition, a sixth sense, mirror neurons or your unconscious mind – what does matter is how willing you are to trust this feeling and act on it, in the hope that it might help the coachee.

Sometimes the effect can be like a thunderbolt – the other person can't believe how you've 'picked up' something vitally important that they hadn't been fully aware of. Other times, the coachee looks at you blankly and it turns out your 'insight' is either obvious or useless. Because of this uncertainty, it's very important not to get too attached to our coaching intuition, and to always check whether it matches the coachee's reality.

Checking

This is not always seen listed as a separate skill in coaching books, but it's one of the most important habits for a coach to get into, and it can take considerable skills to know what, when and how to check. It might seem pedantic or boring relative to the ideas and energy generated elsewhere in the coaching conversation, but if you don't keep checking, you risk letting all that creativity and enthusiasm evaporate.

Here's a brief (ahem) checklist of things to typically check in coaching sessions:

- **Checking understanding**. Making sure that I've understood what the coachee is saying. Often involves asking dumb questions and summarizing the answers in the coachee's own words.
- **Checking that the client is happy**. A verbal agreement is no good unless the person is also enthused or at least congruent in taking action on the goal. It is good to constantly checking this by looking and listening for nonverbal cues, but at key points also ask directly "Are you happy with this?"
- **Checking that all the bases have been covered.** Exploring some areas in depth can mean that other areas are overlooked. The coach can help overcome this tendency by asking questions such as "Is there anything else you need to consider?", or "Do you know enough to move forward on this?".
- **Checking whether the coachee has taken action**. If the coachee commits to doing something, you need to have an agreed means of reporting on this. Ideally the client should own this process, but the coach also needs to keep an eye on it, to ensure that things don't get forgotten.
- **Checking whether the set goal has been reached**. This might sound obvious, but sometimes coachees can get so involved in working on a goal that they don't register when they have achieved what they set out to do.

Alternatively, they may have a sense of 'problem solved' but on closer inspection, there's still more to do. So a coach can perform a valuable role by asking some probing questions towards the end of the coaching process, to check whether the client has achieved the set goal and is happy with the outcome.

Types of Coaching

The two types of coaching are:

1.   Life coaching: These coaches deal with clients wanting to enhance an aspect of their personal lives.

2.   Business coaching: with the aid of their own corporate experience, would offer guidance and insight to clients looking for a change or improvement of their work performance

Qualities of a Good Coach in the Workplace

Good coach posses the following characteristics.

1. A good coach is self-aware. To understand oneself, one's coaching style, and how it is perceived and received by employees, is a critical first step to becoming a valuable and effective coach. Self-awareness is a journey unto itself.

2. A good coach brings specific and well-defined issues to the attention of others.
Being unspecific about problem areas, or failing to bring them up with the appropriate parties, suggests a reluctance to affect positive change and a lack of leadership.

3. A good coach prepares for each session with information, examples, ideas, etc., and is ready for discussion. Coaching sessions should be scheduled in advance, and the coach should have a solid agenda for each session that lays out the mission for the day. Without structure, the coaching session can devolve into a casual conversation with no real substance or direction.

4. A good coach treats individuals as partners in the organization, encouraging their input and trusting them to carry out assignments. Some coaches are fans of "tough love," while others are more lenient, but what all good coaches have in common is respect for their mentees. Contempt and

resentment have no place in an effective coaching relationship, and only breed further conflict.

5. A good coach knows the strengths and weaknesses of his or her employees. Much like the coach of a sports team, he or she knows how to tap into the individual strengths of employees to get the most out of them and to get the greatest amount of productivity from the team, collectively and individually.

6. A good coach makes expectations clear at the beginning of the coaching session.
Both the coach and the employee must have a sense that this meeting has a distinct purpose, and must agree on what that purpose is, for the session to precede smoothly.

7. A good coach allows enough time to adequately discuss issues and concerns. Blocking out enough time for a solid session, rather than squeezing it in and rushing through, shows respect for the employee's time and allows them to participate more thoughtfully.

8. A good coach seeks out ideas and makes those ideas part of the solution. Take it as a red flag if a coach is not willing to hear ideas, suggestions, or thoughts from other members of the team. A coach is there to serve the employees, not for the employees to serve his or her ego.

9. A good coach listens to others and tries to understand their points of view. Rather than assigning blame or delivering unhelpful criticism, he or she allows the employee to explain things from the other side, which can often uncover the root of a misunderstanding or miscommunication.

10. A good coach expresses encouragement and optimism when both easy and difficult issues are discussed. Sometimes an issue can be the elephant in the room that nobody wants to talk about. It's the coach's job to make this issue less intimidating by modeling a constructive attitude that brings the team together to address it.

11. A good coach directly asks for a commitment to solutions that have been agreed upon. Coaches can't be wishy-washy about their expectations. If the employee isn't held accountable for improving, it becomes a waste of everyone's time to continue coaching.

12. A good coach provides the resources, authority, training and support necessary for others to carry out solutions. Coaching doesn't end when the session ends. It is up to the coach to follow through with any additional guidance the employee might need to move forward.

13. A good coach offers support and assistance to those he or she is coaching to help them implement change and achieve desired goals. Professional development is a team effort. It's usually not wise to simply cut the employee free after a session and expect him or her to achieve everything on their own.

14. A good coach follows up on coaching sessions in a timely manner. It's all too easy for coaching to fall down the priority ladder among all the other demands of a manager's day-to-day job duties. At the end of each coaching session, it's a good idea to go ahead and schedule the next one, and to hold to that commitment when the time comes around.

15. When solutions do not turn out as expected, a good coach proactively helps to define alternative actions. If at first the employee does not succeed, it could be that there was a misunderstanding, or it could be that the original solution was a mismatch for that particular employee. A good coach is open to having a backup plan (or two).

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1.   Who is a coach?

2.   State two types of coaching?

4.0   CONCLUSION

Coaching your employees is an important step in developing an internal culture that supports the customer experience. Sometimes coaching can happen "on the fly" when learning opportunities present themselves, but formal coaching sessions provide a great benefit to employees, who get the chance to ask questions, practice skills, and set goals against which they can measure their progress over time.

5.0   SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit that:-

i)   Coach is a person involved in the direction, instruction and training of the operations of a sports team or of individual sports men and women.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Who is a coach?

2.   List 6 qualities of a good coach.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3   COACHING STYLES

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main content

    3.1   Coaching Styles

4.0   Conclusion

5.0   Summary

6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment

7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Not all coaching styles are useful in attaining all objectives, thus certain coaching styles my work better for some goals than others; some styles works better with certain personality types.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

*   define coaching styles.

*   State coaching styles.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Coaching Styles

Coaching styles refers to the overall direction of each session - determine which coaching style on what you and your players want to achieve and how they wish to get there. Coaching styles can vary. Coaches may have a preferred style of coaching, which is normally based on their personality, but they need to be adaptable and to be able to use different styles according to the situation and the needs of the performers.

Coaches have a lot of styles which they employ to deliver effective training to their coahees (players). Below are some of the coaching styles used by coaches.

Authoritarian coaching

Also know as autocratic coaching – is almost like teaching. The coach tells the client what to do, as in how to use a new technique or when to use it. This coaching style is generally used in sports, the forces and businesses. In general life coaching situations a softer coaching approach used to encourage a coachee.

Democratic coaching

Democratic coaching encourages the coachee to adopt a 'self-coaching' attitude. The coach's role in this process is to allow the client to suggest ways of how they may reach them.

Holistic coaching

Holistic coaching looks at the client as a whole. This ensures that when one problem is addressed all the things around it are also worked on. The concept is that everything sits in a web of interconnected causes and effects. There by changing one there will be knock-on effect. Holistic coaches tend to look at a clients' whole life and encourages: greater sense of purpose, a healthier mind and body, calmer disposition and more satisfaction with life in general.

3D coaching

Based on the idea that coaches should focus on the 3 'Ds'.
Debugging – a technique to remove anything standing in the way of future development.
Direction – setting and agreeing to certain objectives.
Development – the learning and changes made by the client as they work towards their objectives.

Solution-focused coaching

Solution-focused coaching will question a client about their goals in order to clarify: what they really want; how are they going to get there; what happens once they do get there

Then focus only on the solutions to get there.

Vision coaching (Really part of Solution-focused coaching)
The concept of vision coaching is; the more we focus our minds on a visualization of an outcome the more likely we are to achieve it. The process of visualization prepares the mind and body for the task just as any rehearsal does. As we can see our self completing the task, feelings of doubt are greatly reduced.

Meditation and Mindfulness coaching

Many businesses are hiring meditation and mindfulness coaches to help employees become calmer and gain a heightened state of awareness of the self and of the

world. The basic premises are to: develop better relationships, be less stressed, increase concentration and have a healthier work/life balance.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. Define coaching style?

2. List any 3 coaching styles

4.0 CONCLUSION

Sports coaches assist athletes in developing to their full potential. They are responsible for training athletes in a sport by analyzing their performances, instructing in relevant skills and by providing encouragement. But you are also responsible for the guidance of the athlete in life and their chosen sport, therefore coaches should be able to apply the best style in other to inculcate and instill effective skills to the players.

5.0 SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit that:-

i) Coaching styles refers to the overall direction of each session - determine which coaching style on what you and your players want to achieve and how they wish to get there.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What is coaching style?

2. List and explain 3 coaching styles

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