A Psycho-Educational Programme
for
Cricket Players
Using Neuro-Linguistic Programming

Dawn Elizabeth Saunders

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Declaration

By submitting this dissertation electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own original work, that I am the owner of the copyright thereof (unless to the extent explicitly otherwise stated) and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

Signature   Date
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Abstract

There has been a greater awareness in the psychological aspects of sport over the past few decades, and in particular, how the psyches of the players affect their performance. The game of cricket has been no exception. Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP) has been used successfully in the business world, but very little research has been done in the sport milieu. The motivation for this research was two-fold. First, there was the need for a cricket team to be mentally prepared to play at their highest potential on provincial level; second, the researcher was curious about NLP techniques being successfully applied in sport.

NLP is the study of human excellence. It describes human functioning, and focuses on experience and experimenting rather than prescription; it can focus on how to intervene, transform and improve human functioning. NLP uses modelling to identify particular skills in successful people. (They like to say: "If he can do it, then I can do it too".)

Neuro refers to the nervous system and how it processes particular codes in the body through the five senses. *Linguistic* refers to the use of language and how it gives meaning to the neural processes through communication and symbolic systems. *Programming* refers to how a person sequences his actions to achieve his goals.

The literature study reflected on psycho-education as a theoretical framework, and NLP as a model by referring to ten identified skills. A situation analysis was done, goal setting was implemented, strategies were applied (intervention programme) and feedback was given.

After the official cricket trials (arranged by the Gauteng North selectors) a U/19 A and B-team were selected. Because of the selection allocation, the researcher used a sample of convenience.

The Gauteng North U19 A-team (N=15) was allocated to the experimental group, and the B-team (N=15), selected at the same time, was allocated to the control group.

In the situation analysis, the cricket team recognised shortcomings in their mental approach. To reach a desired state, mental skills could be developed. These skills were identified by Cooper and Goodenough (2007) in elite athletes who were performing from their highest intention, working hard, setting goals, trusting and inner knowing, distinguishing between self-esteem and self-confidence, dealing with set-backs, managing anxiety and confidence, using language effectively in self-talk and communication, and preparing mentally and managing flow state.

The researcher used a pre-post test experimental design. Both groups were evaluated through pre- and post-tests on the ten identified skills, the cricket self-concept and cricket performance. The intervention was done over a twelve-week period during which the NLP techniques were taught to the cricketers.

The experimental group demonstrated significant improvement in all the skills in which they were trained and in the official cricket matches. In the control group there was no significant increase in skilled play.

It can therefore be stated that the intervention programme using NLP as a model, had a positive influence on the performance of the players.

Key words: Neuro-Linguistic Programming, Sport Psychology, cricket.

Opsomming

Die afgelope paar dekades het daar 'n groter bewustheid ontstaan in terme van die sielkundige aspekte in sport en spesifiek hoe die psige van die speler sy spel en prestasie beïnvloed. Krieket is geen uitsondering nie.

Neuro-linguïstiese Programmering (NLP) word in die besigheidswêreld met sukses aangewend, maar baie min navorsing is op sportgebied gedoen. Die motivering vir hierdie studie was tweeledig; eerstens het 'n krieketspan 'n behoefte uitgespreek om sielkundig voorbereid te wees om op provinsiale vlak deel te neem en tweedens was die navorser nuuskierig om te sien of NLP-tegnieke met sukses in sport aangewend kon word.

NLP is die studie van uitnemende menslike gedrag. Dit beskryf menslike funksionering en gebruik die subjektiewe ervaring en eksperimentering van individuele gedrag eerder as voorgeskrewe riglyne en kan dus fokus op intervensie, transformering en verbetering van menslike funksionering. NLP gebruik modellering om sekere vaardighede in suksesvolle mense te identifiseer. 'n Stelling wat gemaak word, is "as iemand sukses bereik in iets, kan 'n ander persoon dit ook doen".

Neuro verwys na die sentrale senuweestelsel en hoe dit sekere kodes in die liggaam prosesseer deur die vyf sintuie. *Linguïsties* verwys na die gebruik van taal en hoe die neurale prosesse betekenis gee deur kommunikasie en simboliese sisteme. *Programmering* verwys na hoe 'n persoon sy gedrag kan modifiseer ten einde sy doelwitte te kan bereik.

Psigo-opleiding is as teoretiese raamwerk in die literatuurstudie beskryf vir die gebruik van NLP as model. Die tien geïdentifiseerde vaardighede is ook binne sportverband bespreek. Psigo-opleiding het vier stappe behels. 'n Situasie-analise is gedoen, doelwitte is geïdentifiseer, strategieë is uitgewerk (intervensie-program) en terugvoer is gegee.

Twee spanne, Onder-19 A en B is gekies deur die Gauteng-Noord keurders na die offisiële Gauteng-Noord proewe. Die navorser het geen keuse gehad in die toewysing van die spanne nie, daarom is 'n gerieflikheidssteekproef gebruik. Die Gauteng-Noord Onder-19 A-span (N=15) is toegewys as die eksperimentele groep terwyl die B-span as die kontrolegroep aangewys is.

Tydens die situasie-analise het die krieketspan besef dat daar sekere leemtes in hul sielkundige vaardighede is. Cooper en Goodenough (2007) het sekere vaardighede wat deur elite sportlui gemoduleer is in hul navorsing vasgestel en daar is besluit om van die vaardighede te gebruik. Die tien geïdentifiseerde vaardighede was: deelname vanuit die speler se hoogste doelvlak, harde werk (werksetiek), doelwitstelling, innerlike vertroue, onderskeid tussen eie-waarde en selfvertroue, hantering van terugslae, regulering van angs en selfvertroue, die gebruik van taal in selfspraak en kommunikasie, sielkundige voorbereiding en die hantering van vloei.

'n Voor-en natoets kontrolegroep ontwerp is gebruik. Beide groepe is getoets op die tien vaardighede, die krieket selfkonsep en krieketprestasie. Die intervensie het twaalf weke lank geduur waartydens die NLP-tegnieke aan die spelers oorgedra is.

Binne die eksperimentele groep was daar 'n beduidende verbetering op al die vaardighede asook die offisïele krieketuitslae, maar geen beduidende verskil is binne die kontrolegroep gekry nie.

Daar kan dus afgelei word dat die intervensie-program wat NLP as 'n model gebruik het, 'n positiewe invloed op die spelers gehad het.

Sleutelwoorde: Neuro-Linguïstiese Programmering (NLP), Sportsielkunde, krieket.

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Chapter One
Statement of the Problem

Introduction

Sport psychology is an exciting area in sports performance that has fast been evolving since the 1950s, but the first experiments date as far back as 1898 (Weinberg & Gould, 1999).

Sport psychology is a scientific study that seeks to understand and modify the behaviour of people involved in sport and exercise; whether it is those who participate for personal enjoyment or those who pursue a specific sport at an elite level. It involves topics such as personality, motivation, arousal, stress, aggression, leadership, self-confidence, team cohesion and spectator influence (Silva, 1984). Wann (1997:4) defines sport psychology as "the primarily scientific study of behavioural, affective and cognitive reactions to sport settings including the reactions of both participants and fans".

One of the aspects sport psychologists focus on is how performance can be enhanced through mental toughness and achieving a flow state in order to reach peak performance.

Many sports psychologists have explained mental toughness, each with a different perception of what it really is. It has been described as an ability to overcome or rebound from failures (Dennis, 1981; Goldberg, 1997), the possession of superior skills (Bull, Albinson & Shambrook, 1996) and a refusal to quit (Dennis, 1981; Goldberg, 1997). Loehr (1982) states that mental toughness is the ability of the athlete to remain calm and relaxed because of two learned skills: to use positive energy in a crisis and to think in a specific way during pressure situations and competition. Certain characteristics have been described as indicators of mental toughness such as optimism, confidence, self-belief and self-esteem (Bull et al. 1996; Loehr 1982). On the other hand, Raglin (in Clarkson, 1999) is of the opinion that many athletes are

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motivated by lack of confidence, and this insecurity drives them to optimal performance.

Jones (2002a) found in his study of elite performers, that certain attributes lead to mental toughness and peak performance. They are self-belief, desire and motivation, focus (performance related), focus (lifestyle-related), dealing with competition-related pressure (external), anxiety (internal), and emotional and physical pain. From the results of his study Jones (2002a) suggests that mental toughness can be defined as: coping better than your opponents do with the demands of sport, being more consistent, and better at remaining determined irrespective of adversities. The definition explains the end state of being mentally tough, while the attributes reflect the specific detail of how to achieve peak performance.

Peak performance can also be linked to 'flow state' or 'being in the zone'. Flow state is described by Csikszentmihalyi (1990) as a state of optimal performance, which is reached by being completely immersed in a challenging activity. According to Cooper and Goodenough (2007), most athletes and coaches see flow state as elusive and something that happens by chance. Flow state can however be applied to sport and any other activity once a person is trained in the skill (Cooper & Goodenough, 2007; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Jennings, 1993; Millman, 1999). Once the athlete can achieve flow state, he realises that he has a great deal of control and choice over reaching this mental state (Cooper & Goodenough, 2007; Hall, 2007; Kimiecik, 2005).

Elite athletes and recreational sportspeople often seek psychological help in order to achieve peak performance, some with positive results, and others with a more negative impact.

Psychological skills training (PST) has been used with good effect (Patrick & Hrycaiko, 1998) as was shown in studies with gymnasts (Cogan & Petrie, 1995), field hockey (Bakker & Kayser, 1994), tennis (Daw & Burton, 1994) and cricket (Bull, 1995). Conversely, there are often negative reactions to sport

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psychologists (Van Raalte, Brewer, & Linder, 1992). Researchers (Tod & Andersen, 2005) believe that interventions are often overrated and not always as effective as they are claimed to be. Orlick and Partington (1987) found that although sport psychologists seemed caring, made the most of follow-up sessions and kept contact, some athletes found that at times the work presented in interventions did not apply to the sport they were doing and feedback was not given. There seems to be a need for effective psychological interventions in a nurturing environment.

In sport, participants are usually healthy people, who need training or guidance to achieve peak performance. Every sportsperson's experience is unique and therefore an intervention should be implemented according to that person or team's needs (Griffiths, 1999).

As sport psychology has grown in South Africa over the last decade, national teams, provincial teams, sport academies, university teams and even sport teams at school level have started making use of the expertise of sport psychologists. Athletes have come to realise the importance of the mind and the body-mind connection in sport (Griffiths, 1999; Jennings, 1993). O'Connor (2001) makes it clear by stating that bodies on their own do not compete, but people with their bodies, minds and emotions do.

In a survey of the *Titans Cricket Academy* conducted in 2001 about psychological intervention, cricket players and coaches expressed the following needs:

- A more relaxed, playful model to teach practical psychological skills for performance enhancement.
- Shorter interventions, with more direct guidelines.
- Practical exercises; not only theoretical aspects.
- A caring nurturing environment.
- Feedback on their progress.

To meet these sportspeople's needs, Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP) was considered as it fits their requirements by being exciting, fun, natural and playful (McDermott & Jago, 2002). It is therefore suitable for sports participants (O'Connor, 2001). Mental toughness and flow state could be taught to the players through a skills-training intervention program which could lead to the enhancement of cricket performance.

McDermott and Jago (2001:7) define NLP as "the study of human excellence; which makes available a body of knowledge about how human beings go about making sense of their experience and interacting with others." NLP is a new way of thinking and understanding how a person creates his own world—in this case, the world of cricket.

Neuro refers to the way we think; *linguistic* refers to the words we use and how we say them and *programming* refers to how we act to achieve our results (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999; McDermott & Jago, 2001; Molden, 2007).

Neuro-Linguistic Programming has been used in the business world (Thompson, Courtney & Dickson, 2002) and some aspects of the model have recently been applied to sport (Alder & Morris, 1996; Garrat, 1999; O'Connor, 2001).

The interaction between business and sport is a normal phenomenon, as certain mutual themes can be identified in peak performers in both areas. Jones (2002b) relates his experience as a sports psychologist who made a transition into business. He identified five major areas that were found in both worlds. They were stress and coping, leadership and how it related to performance, a model of high performance teams, team building and one-on-one coaching. The ten skills identified in this study for performance enhancement can be used in sport as well as in the business environment (Cooper & Goodenough, 2007).

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NLP uses various skills as building blocks to generate peak performance and they are all interrelated (Cooper & Goodenough, 2007). No one skill is superior to the other; they work together towards improving performance. As each person's needs are different, NLP allows for the uniqueness of each individual. NLP describes subjective experience, and for the NLP model to be useful, it must be applied as a whole (Dilts, 1983b). The central argument being investigated in this study is whether NLP, as a model of excellence, has an effect on the player's performance in cricket.

Aim of the study

The aim of this study is to use NLP to enhance sports performance of cricket players within a psycho-educational framework. This will be accomplished through:

- constructing an intervention program for enhancing sports performance in cricket players with the use of NLP
- evaluating this programme

Contribution of the study

The value of the current study for cricket players is based on the following:

Theoretical

- NLP sheds a new and refreshing light on sports performance. Although it uses sport psychology skills, it is playful and entertaining
- The program gets off to a quick start. NLP immediately engages with the way a person thinks. Changing communication with oneself and others has an immediate effect on behaviour. The player begins to feel in control
- The programme enables a player to use NLP techniques without becoming dependent on a therapist
- The program is evaluated within a 'natural environment'; cricket players in training and competition and not in a laboratory set-up
- The programme can be applied to the individual and the team

Practical

- Any one, or all ten skills that were identified for the study can be used daily by a cricket player on the field, depending on his individual needs
- The player learns to 'live' peak performance, instead of only knowing about it

Limitations

- This study does not describe the NLP model in all its aspects nor is it an in-depth study of NLP; it focuses only on those aspects that are relevant in developing the programme
- This study does not deal with the debate of NLP being a pseudo-science or not. It supports the opinion of Dilts (1983) who states that NLP is an outcome-orientated model. Its usefulness does not lie in its truthfulness, but is determined by the effectiveness of the intervention
- The literature and research in NLP in the sports domain is very limited
- The masculine term is used throughout this study as all the cricket players involved in the study are male. However, this study is not limited to male sportspeople only, but can also be applied to female participants

Methodology

Research question

What is the influence of psycho-education using an NLP model on the performance of cricket players?

Participants and procedures

The researcher made use of a sample of convenience. The Gauteng North Under-19A cricket team (N=15) was used as the experimental group, while the Under-19B cricket team (N=15) was used as the control group.

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Experimental design

A pre-test post-test control design was used. The experimental group and the control group were both tested before and after the intervention. Only the experimental group was trained in the NLP skills.

Development of the programme

The psycho-educational programme was based on the psycho-educational framework using situation analysis (identifying certain needs within the team), goal setting (identified skills), selecting strategies (NLP techniques) and feedback (performance).

Data collection

The following three aspects were tested:

1. Benchmarking the ten identified skills

All participants in the control and experimental group were pre-tested through benchmarking on ten skills (see Appendix B). The experimental group went through the NLP program over a twelve-week period. Both the experimental and control groups were post-tested through benchmarking on the ten skills.

The ten skills are:

1. Performing from one's highest intention
2. Working hard
3. Setting goals
4. Trusting and inner knowing
5. Distinguishing between self-confidence and self-esteem
6. Dealing with setbacks
7. Managing anxiety and confidence
8. Using language effectively in self-talk and communication
9. Preparing mentally
10. Managing flow state

(See Chapter four)

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2. The subjective experience of the 'cricket self-concept'

All participants in the control and experimental groups were pre-tested through their subjective experience on the following themes: batting, bowling, fielding, mental aspects, fitness, team and personal aspects as a cricketer. This was referred to as the 'cricket self-concept'. After the twelve-week period, both groups were tested again on their subjective experience relating to these themes.

3. Cricket scores

The batting and bowling averages of each player were noted in the experimental and control groups before and after the intervention.

Data analysis

An Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was done on the data to determine whether there were any differences between the means of the experimental and control groups on the pre- to post-tests. The Bonferroni correction for multiple testing was applied. A 5% (p<0.05) was used as a guideline for judging the differences within the groups.

Outline of the study

Chapter one: In chapter one, the statement of the problem, the aim of the study, the methodology and the contribution of the study with its limitations were described.

Chapter two: Psycho-education as a theoretical framework was outlined. Attention was given to the systems theory and cybernetics. The task of the psycho-educator, psycho-educational methods, and learning through experience were explained. Information was given on how psycho-education can be used in sport.

Chapter three: This chapter covered all aspects of NLP that were used in the study. The NLP systems and techniques, the language model and the neurological model were briefly described. Included is a critical overview of positive as well as negative criticism on research in NLP.

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Chapter four: Modelling excellence as a framework for sports people was discussed. The ten identified skills were presented in detail.

Chapter five: The methodology of this study was covered here with attention being given to its research design, experimental design and sampling. The collection and analysis of the data were described. The development of the programme within the psycho-educational theoretical framework and the selected strategies were made clear. The content of each session and meeting were clarified and the ethical issues were set out.

Chapter six: The results were evaluated on each skill through descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation) to identify any significant differences between the experimental and control groups. The Bonferroni test was also applied to judge significant differences within the group.

Chapter seven: The discussion of the results was done in terms of the benchmarking, cricket self-concept and performance scores. An evaluation of the programme was given and recommendations were offered. An NLP model for enhancing sport performance was presented and described.

Summary

This chapter dealt with the statement of the problem and described the aim, contribution and limitations of the study. The methodology was set out with reference to the participants, sampling, the research question, data collection and data analysis. An outline of the study was presented.

The following chapter will describe psycho-education as theoretical framework for the NLP model.

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Chapter Two
Psycho-Education: A Theoretical Discourse

Introduction

Ivey and Simek-Downing (1987) define psycho-education as a model that is directed at the prevention of mental health problems and towards the development of human potential. It includes the training of individuals and groups in skills, insights and competencies for them to live more meaningful and goal-directed lives.

Psycho-education was originally based on individual psychology, a holistic approach to understanding what being human meant (Morse, 2004). Individual psychology covers three major areas. First, dynamic psychology, which is the study of the emotions (fears, purpose and perceptions); second, it deals with how a person acquires new knowledge and skills; third, it covers developmental psychology, which studies the development of the human being during a lifespan (Morse, 2004).

Psycho-education does not see education as linear, but as a cyclical process. It finds its roots in the systems theory and in cybernetics (Schoeman, 1983).

The systems theory

Human behaviour cannot be ascribed to a single element. It is a function of interdependency between elements of a system and of that system and other systems (Rademeyer, Schoeman, Wessels & Lamprecht, 1977). Once a system is understood the desired outcomes can be identified, and changes can be achieved (Gillies, 1982).

Klir (1972) defines the systems theory as a formal theory, a methodology, a way of thinking and looking at the world, a search for an optimal simplification, an

educational tool, a meta-language and a profession. According to Heylighen and Joslyn (1992) the systems theory investigates the principles of complex entities and the models that can be used to describe them.

A system is a unit that is built up from different sub-systems, they are interlinked and in interaction with each other (Schoeman, 1983).

Goals of the general systems theory

Von Bertalanffy (1973) reacted against reductionism and attempted to revive the unity of science. He states that real systems are open to, and interact with their environments, and can acquire new properties resulting in continual evolution. Von Bertalanffy emphasises the unity of the different sciences and that they should be integrated.

The human body is used as an example. Instead of reducing an entity (the human body) to the properties of its parts (cells), the system theory focuses on the relations between the parts that connect them as a whole. The same concept underlies the different disciplines, namely physics, biology and technology (Heylighen & Joslyn, 1992).

The development of complex systems

According to the systems theory, a complex living structure can be ordered into hierarchal levels. Miller (1978) organises the complex living systems on the following seven levels:

1. Cells
2. Organs (togetherness of certain cells)
3. Organism (an independent form of life)
4. Groups (committees, work groups, families)
5. Organisations (schools, cities)
6. Communities (ethnic groups, nations)
7. Supra-national systems (systems from combined communities)

Miller (1978) states that interaction takes place between the different levels. The reason for this is that the systems are open systems and consist of different sub-systems (Roux, 1986).

In the systems theory one can distinguish between two types of equilibrium: a non-equilibrium state and a progressive-equilibrium state (De Bruyn, 1983). An equilibrium state is where no development takes place; the system therefore remains static (Miller, 1978). In a progressive-equilibrium state, interaction in terms of information takes place within and outside the system. Equilibrium is reached, but it differs from the original state that allows the system to grow and develop (Miller, 1978). The feedback process is important for living systems in order to grow (De Greene, 1970; Gillies, 1982; Miller, 1978). The feedback system and the control of this feedback, is called cybernetics within the systems theory (Heylighen & Joslyn, 1992).

Cybernetics

Rademeyer (1978) describes cybernetics as a science of controlling complex systems through the interaction of information. A system at a certain time is in equilibrium. When there is a difference within the real goals and the identified goals, the system is disturbed and must renew its goals. To achieve this, certain action plans or strategies are put in place (Schoeman, 1983). The system then gets feedback in order to see whether equilibrium was reached and whether the goals were accomplished.

Figure 2:1 shows a situation analysis, followed by setting realistic goals. To reach these goals, certain behaviours (strategies) need to change which leads to feedback. Once the identified goals are reached through the feedback, a new level of functioning is reached and a similar process can be followed for another cycle. The interaction between a living organism and the environment follows a cybernetic cycle.
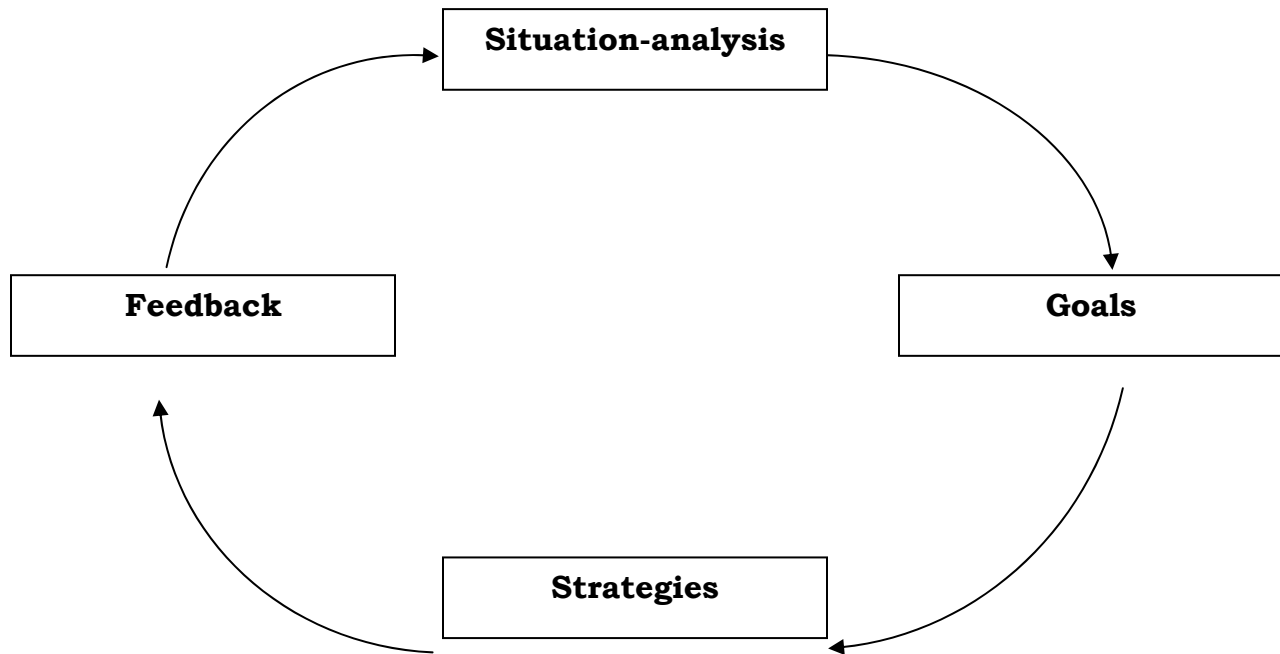
Figure 2:1. The cybernetic cycle

Psycho-education

The principles of the systems theory and cybernetics form the basis of psycho-education in the field of health psychology (Schoeman, 1983). Psycho-education focuses on the prevention of mental illness and the development of human potential.

A short history of psycho-education

Psycho-education has a long and complex history and dates back to the work of Pestalozzi (1746-1827), Itard (1775-1838) and Howe (1801-1876) (Chrystal, 2008).

Pestalozzi focused on the intellectual development of the child as well as his affective and social awareness. Pestalozzi emphasised learning through doing, through self-discovery and the dignity of an individual. Itard's interest was on the long-term development of the child and Howe is known for his devotion to human rights and social justice (Chrystal, 2008).

As a result of the 'human hygiene' movement, the humanistic approach strengthened and psycho-education developed (Chrystal, 2008). Other people who contributed to the development of psycho-education were Freud, Piaget, Horney and Wineman. More recent contributors are Morse, Wood, Curwin, Redl and Mendler (McIntyre, 2006).

Theories that influenced the development of psycho-education include: the existential-humanistic model, the behaviourist approach, Roger's theory, Skinner's work on the influence of environmental manipulation and the cognitive-emotional model of Ellis (Chrystal, 2008). Wood, Brendtro, Fecser and Nichols (1999) suggest that cognitive psychology contributes to psycho-education as it can make a person aware of finding alternative ways of maladaptive thinking.

Existential-humanistic theory

According to this concept, the human being is free and responsible, can set goals and achieve them and strive for self-actualisation. This approach encourages a climate for growth and development as a model for human development is created (Wood et al. 1999).

New behaviourist theory

This assertion claims that behaviour is a product of learning and conditioning and that the manipulation of the environment influences behaviour.

Cognitive theory

The theory focuses on basic thinking and emotional self-regulation that makes the person aware of his experiences (Wood et al. 1999).

Differences between psycho-education and psychotherapy

In psychotherapy the focus is on abnormality, diagnosis, prescription, therapy and cure (Schoeman, 1983). By contrast, psycho-education is a therapeutic approach that does not focus on healing, but on identifying dissatisfaction, goal setting, skill teaching and goal achievement (Authier, 1977; Authier, Gustafson, Guerney & Kasdorf, 1975). This view is supported by Ivey and Simek-Downing

(1987) who state that people should be educated in skills, insights and competencies to live more meaningful and goal directed lives.

In traditional psychotherapy one finds a linear explanatory model: abnormality, diagnosis, prescription, therapy and cure. In Figure 2:2 the linear approach to psychotherapy is demonstrated.

Abnormality→ Diagnosis → Prescription → Therapy→ Cure
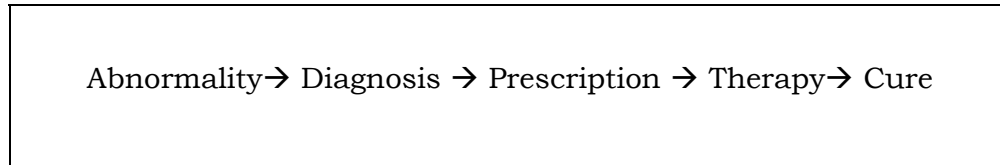
Figure 2:2. Psychotherapy: A linear approach

By contrast to this model, psycho-educators prefer a cyclic process comprising: client dissatisfaction, goal setting, skill teaching and goal achievement. Following goal achievement, feedback is possible for further goal setting or to work on a following ambition (Authier et al. 1975). Figure 2:3. illustrates this concept.

Situation-analysis
Client's need

Goals
Formulating

Strategies
Training

Feedback
Goal-accomplishment
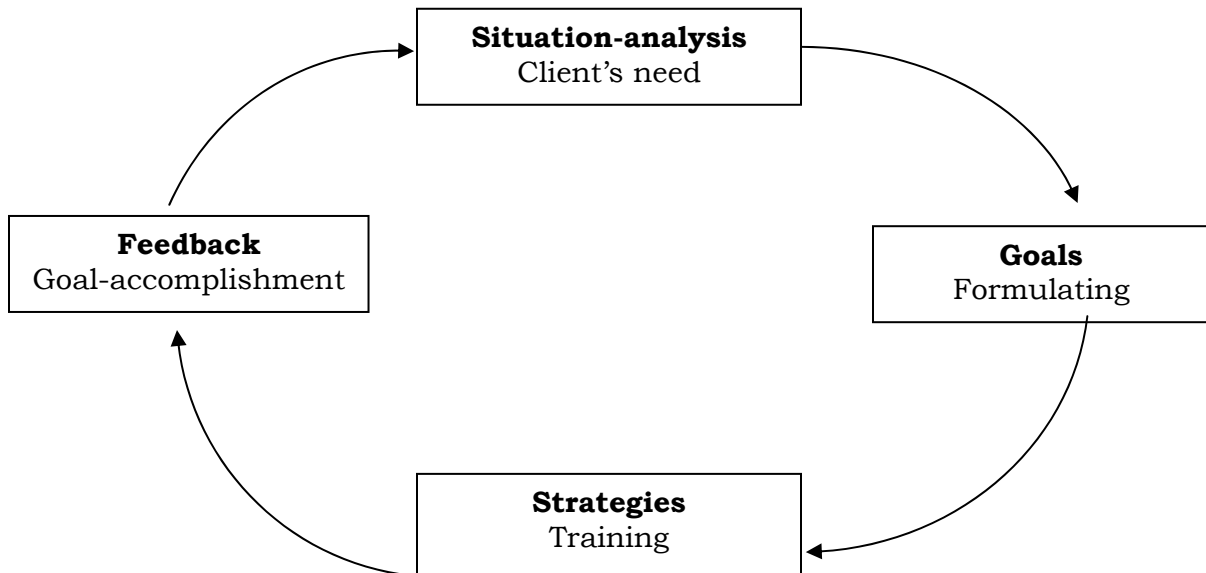
Figure 2:3. Psycho-education: A cybernetic cycle

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From these two figures, it is possible to see the difference in approach between psycho-education and the traditional psychotherapy model. Psycho-education may be seen as a cyclical process, similar to the process found in systems theory (Schoeman, 1983). This implies that each system is seen as self-regulated and goal-orientated. Also, the system can monitor its behaviour with self-regulating cybernetic cycles.

Theoretical aspects of the psycho-educational model

Prevention and life skills

Psycho-education works preventatively, and enables the person to become educated in skills to promote mental health (Schoeman, 1983).

Colom and Lam (2005) state that psycho-education focuses on compliance enhancement, early identification of prodromal signs, life-style regularity, exploring an individual's health beliefs and enabling the individual to understand the interaction between symptoms, personality and interpersonal environment. Hayes and Gantt (1992) found that the benefits of psycho-educational programmes enhance participants' sense of dignity, self-esteem and provides an increased level of empowerment. Mowbray and Megivern (1999) agree with this. They educated a group of people with mental problems using problem solving and role modelling. The result was an increased feeling of empowerment.

Colom, Vieta, Sanches-Moreno, Martinez-Aran, Reinares, Goikolea and Scott (2005) worked with people who had bipolar disorder. Their psycho-educational programme taught recurrence identification and improved life-style. The programme was successful in improving illness awareness and treatment adherence. Other successful psycho-educational programmes were done with depressed individuals with late-life depression (Klausner, Clarkin, Spielman, Pupo, Abrams & Alexopoulos (1998); post-traumatic stress disorder (Gray, Elhai & Frueh, 2004); and schizophrenia (Ascher-Svanum & Whitesel 1999).

Psycho-education can be used in all fields of psychology (Schoeman, 1983). In this study psycho-education is used in sport psychology to improve mental skills in cricket.

Psycho-education focuses on human development

Psycho-education focuses on the meaningful development of man during his entire lifespan. Developmental psychology with its more specific life-span approach becomes an important explanatory model for psycho-education (Schoeman, 1983). The key developmental tasks of the individual within a certain lifespan can become a goal for psycho-education (Chrystal, 2008; Schoeman, 1983).

An adolescent cricket player playing for his country would have goals that may differ from those of the young married man with a family. It is important to note that the individual's developmental tasks are interrelated with the complex family system. In these scenarios the family system and parent system could be the goal for psycho-education in the promotion of health

Psycho-education and the development of complex systems

The systems theory is ideally used as meta-theory for psycho-education. Therefore, psycho-education is appropriate in developing more complex systems (Schoeman, 1983). Gillies (1982) states, that in the past fifty years, the concept 'system' has become part of our daily lives. One refers to systems such as: a body system, family system and information system.

Figure 2.4 displays Miller's vision of a complex system with its seven levels. Considering the principles of the general systems theory, psycho-education should pay attention to individuals, groups, organisations and communities. The focus should be on complex systems within health psychology: individuals (individual sport performance); groups (team work, families of sport participants), organisations (schools, institutions) and communities. This leads to an explanation of the psycho-educator's tasks in the framework of living systems.

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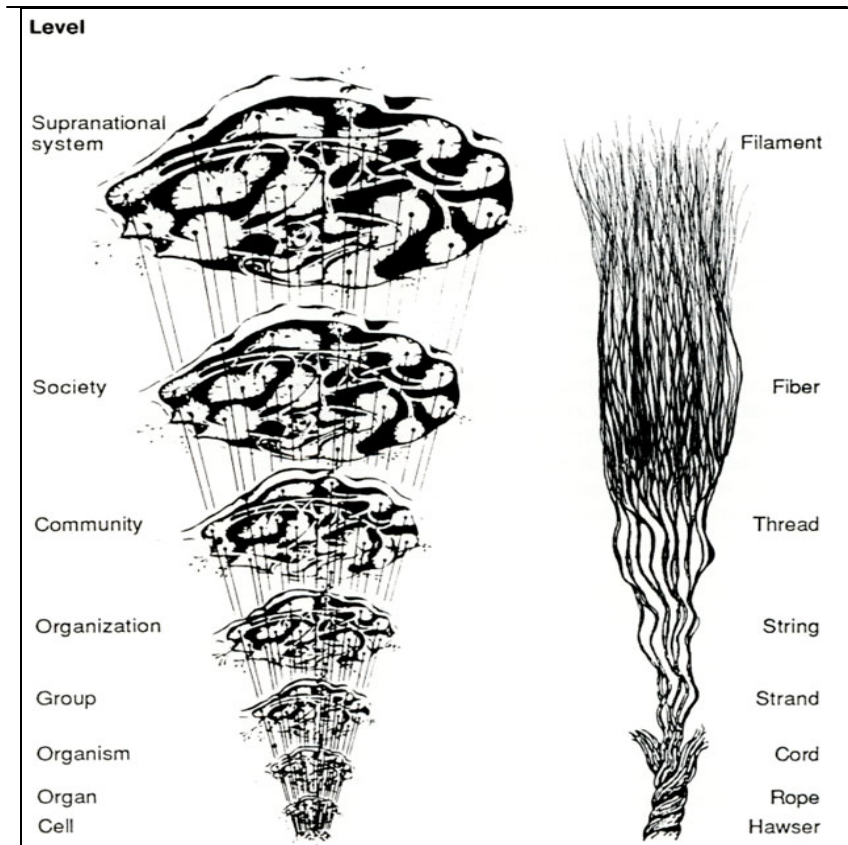
Figure 2:4. Miller's schematic representation of hierarchically ordered living systems
(Schoeman, 1983:6)

The task of the psycho-educator

Individual organism

A human person can be seen as a living system. Knowledge about a person can be integrated and used to his advantage. This information includes the development of his personality, his motivation, his life cycle and sport. In a study done by Thelwell, Greenlees and Weston (2006) on the effects of psychological skills intervention on the individual midfielder in soccer, the participants found that the psycho-educational intervention was appropriate to their needs. The study focused on relaxation, self-talk and imagery.

Groups

The complex system of groups creates a unique challenge for psycho-educators. Wood et al., (1999) state that group interventions were done where the group learned from each other. These studies were done at camps with groups of teenagers from homes of safe-keeping, and with psycho-educational programmes in the prevention of HIV and AIDS.

A study done by Markowitz, Klerman and Perry (1992) on HIV-positive outpatients, showed that patients recovered from their depression as they learned about coping skills, exploration of options and changing dysfunctional behaviour patterns.

Organisations

The psycho-educator can develop forms of behaviour to improve health, for example, through building stress resilience (Ryan-Bannermann, 2008). Sharpley, Fear, Greenberg, Jones and Wessely (2007) remain unclear on the effect of teaching people about stress reactions when they are about to be exposed to hazardous situations. The study was done on marine personnel who were deployed in the Iraqi war in 2003. There were no significant differences between the control and experimental groups in terms of health outcomes, common mental health disorders, post-traumatic stress disorder and alcohol misuse. Attendees reported higher morale and cohesion but these effects disappeared following their demographic and military adjustments. No differences between the two groups were apparent in experiencing problems after the war or in their marital relationships.

Communities

The psycho-educator can develop communities in mass participation that leads to a better understanding of health. A mental Health Information Centre was initiated at Stellenbosch University to educate people on psychiatric illnesses such as depression and obsessive-compulsive disorder. It was found that psycho-education is an increasingly important component of health care (Stein, Wessels, Van Kradenberg & Emsley, 1997).

The psycho-educator can implement his knowledge by teaching survivors of national disasters how to be pro-active and resilient. Lukens, O'Neill, Thorning, Waterman-Cecutti, Gubiseh-Ayala, Abu-Ras, Batista and Chen (2004) describe the goals and implementation of a brief group model of integrative psycho-education, designed to ameliorate the impact of community trauma. The model was developed in New York City for members of the community who were directly or indirectly affected by the events of September 11, 2001. This intervention consisted of manuals and was presented in four sessions. It focused on building strength, resilience and collaboration across cultural groups. Through the integrative psycho-educational groups, participants learnt to identify and differentiate between the ranges of stress reactions to traumatic events, varying from normal reactions to the pathological. Participants learned the value of pro-active, culturally-relevant, mental health strategies. They also became aware of building resilience and hope and to enhance personal and community awareness. Through this intervention they became more open and aware of the potential for mental health services.

The different levels are illustrated in Table 2:1.

Table 2:1. Different levels for psycho-education

	Individual	→	better individual sport performance
	Groups	→	better team sport performance
Psycho-education →	Organisations	→	better sport awareness in the corporate world
	Communities	→	better sport performance in communities

In the current study, the development of performance enhancement through a psycho-educational programme in sport (cricket) is used. It can be used for the individual or teams.

Psycho-education: A cyclical process

Figure 2:3 demonstrated that before a psycho-educational programme can be developed, an in-depth assessment of the perceived problem must be done (situation-analysis). Aspects to consider are who the clients are, what their needs are, how they perceive these needs and on what level they are functioning (Hayes & Gantt, 1999). Based on the results of the assessment, a psycho-educational programme may be devised with the purpose of either developing a programme or working preventatively. A strategy is then developed for the needs, which can for example, include modelling, group activities, lectures, movies or testing (Hayes & Gantt, 1992; Jones, 2002a).

The last step in the cycle is feedback through the participants to see whether their needs were met (Kopelowicz & Liberman, 2003). Their progress can also be measured in terms of the sportsman's performance on the field – as was done in this study.

Psycho-educational methods

Psycho-education focuses on the following three methods (Schoeman1983):

1. Direct training
2. Consultation training
3. Psycho-technology

Direct training

This involves training individuals and other systems in specific skills, insights and competence. The psycho-educator and his client are in a direct training relationship that differs from the traditional psychotherapy approach (Hayes &

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Gantt, 1992; Schoeman, 1983; Wood et al., 1999). In psychotherapy the patient receives therapy to heal, in psycho-education the client receives direct skills training to perform better.

Consultation training

Consultation training involves training clients who are responsible for the development and prevention within a system, such as coaches in sport (Johnson & Gilbert, 2004). This can involve educating parents on how to guide their children in sport (Doughty & Hausenblas, 2007). It could also focus on educating coaches in sports where the psycho-educator acts as a consultant to them (Haslam, 2002).

Psycho-technology

Psycho-technology involves the development of technical aids that the psycho-educator uses during training (Hayes & Gantt, 1992; Stein et al. 1997). It may be incorporated with other training methods or as a programme on its own.

A variety of self-help programmes are available on the Internet. Examples are emotional support and suicide prevention (Barak, 2007); diabetes self-management (Barrera, Glasgow, McKay, Boles & Feil, 2002) and dealing with cancer (Beaudoin & Tao, 2007).

Psycho-technology

Workbooks or manuals are usually handed out to attendees at a course. It serves as a guideline for the course and as a self-help manual at home.

Audiovisual aids and video models

Audio or video models can be used in a lecture. Team cohesion can be illustrated through a movie (Cool Running), bouncing back from defeats (For the love of the game) or work ethics (Sea Biscuit). A video can also be utilised for modelling, stress handling, goal setting or the use of positive language. From the Internet aspects of psycho-education can be downloaded and used. These include family therapy, adolescent therapy, mental illness and sport.

Mass media

The Mental Health Centre has established that an intense need for information on mental health exists. It has reached many people through pamphlets, referrals to mental hospitals and to websites on the Internet for health care (Stein et al. 1997).

Learning through experience

Introduction

Psycho-education has as goal the development of people through education and learning, and more specifically, learning through experience. Experiential learning involves a direct encounter with the phenomena being studied, rather than merely thinking about it. The person has the opportunity to acquire and apply knowledge, skills and feelings in an immediate and relevant setting (Kolb, 1984). Learning through experience allows the person to organise new material in selected situations. The learning process therefore becomes easier (Mullins, 1993).

Definition of learning through experience

Kolb (1984) defines learning through experience as putting a learning theory into place; this gives a holistic, integrated perspective in terms of experience, perceptions, cognitions and behaviour.

This definition implies that the person will be more involved in the experience of learning; the learner can imagine himself in different situations. Interaction skills are taught, and learning will take place as the intervention is set up to mimic the person's real life experiences (Meyer, 1985). McMullen and Cahoon (1979), state that this way of learning can be so unstructured, that not all the necessary aspects are covered. To prevent this circumstance, it is important that specific goals should be identified beforehand (Chesser & Martin, 1976; Kolb, 1984).

Process and structure of experiential learning

Kolb and Fry (1975) created a model for experiential learning. It consists of four elements: concrete experience, observation and reflection, the formation of abstract concepts and testing in new situations. They represent these in the experiential learning circle in Figure 2:5.

Concrete experience
EXPERIENCE

Testing in new situation
APPLICATION

Observation and reflection
PROCESS

Forming abstract concepts
GENERALISATION
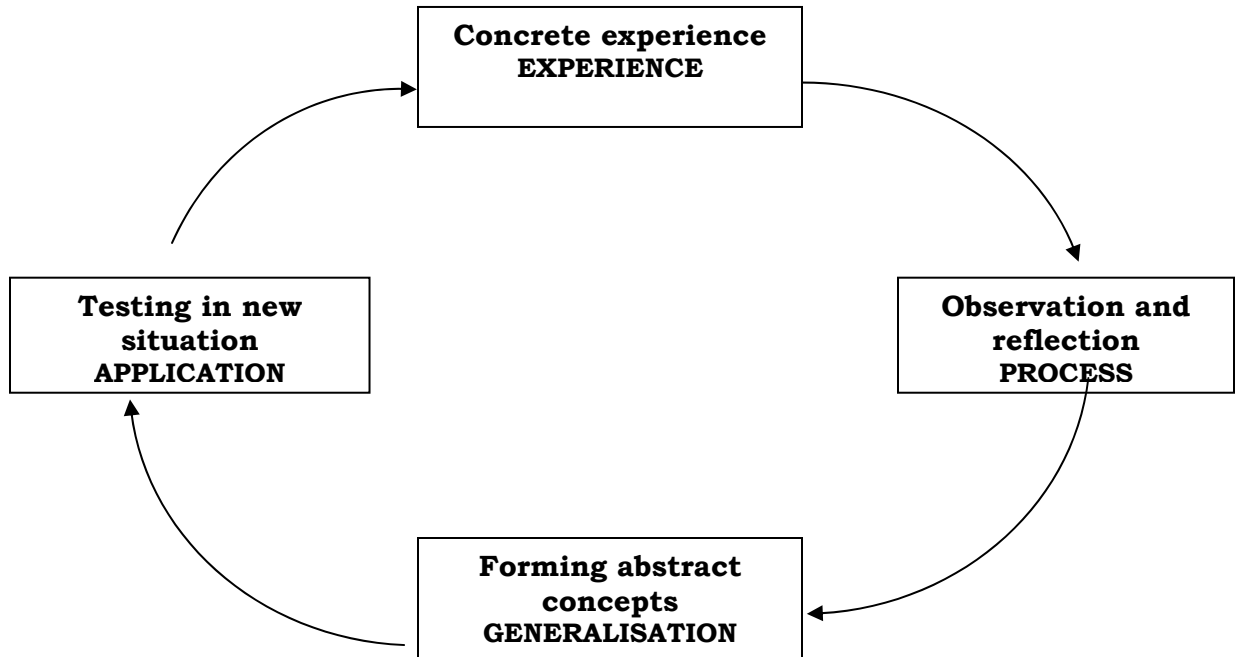
Figure 2:5. The experiential circle of learning

Kolb and Fry (1975) argue that the learning cycle should be seen as a continuous spiral and can begin at any of the four points. Concrete experience refers to the direct, immediate experience such as participating in a case study, role play, watching a movie or completing an exercise. It involves the stimulation of feelings and senses and becoming aware of the total environment.

The second stage is to observe and reflect. Both cognitive and affective reactions are discussed. Differences or similarities are pointed out so that the person becomes aware that if the same action were taken in the same circumstances it would be possible to anticipate what would follow from the action.

The third step in this pattern would be to form generalisations and conclusions. In this stage the learner comes to conclusions about how the theories of the previous steps can be applied in 'real life'. These conclusions imply the learner has the ability to see a connection between the actions and effects over a range of circumstances (Kolb, 1984).

The fourth step is application. Drawing from the insights of the previous three steps, the learner can now apply new insights for more effective behaviour in the future.

In reality, if learning has taken place, the process could be seen as a spiral. The action takes place in a different set of circumstances and the learner is now able to anticipate the possible effects of the action.

Learning style

Effective learning entails the possession of four abilities (Kolb & Fry, 1975; Gibbs, 1988):

Concrete perceivers: Information is absorbed through direct experience, by doing, acting, sensing, and feeling.

Abstract perceivers: Information is absorbed through analysis, observation, and thinking.

Active processors: Sense is made from an experience by immediately using new information.

Re-active processors: Information gets compared with previous experience.

Psycho-education in sport

Psycho-educational programmes have been developed for the individual, team, coach and organisations.

A programme was provided for golfers. A situational analysis was done in which emotions and performance were assessed within the zone of optimal

functioning. This resulted in enhanced emotional self-regulation skills and improved golf performance (Cohen, Tenebaum & English, 2006).

A programme was developed and called the psychological UNIFORM. It focuses on seven aspects: setting goals, eliminating mistakes, providing learning opportunities, imagery, focus, being overtly positive, relaxation and making use of routines. It was specifically developed for coaches to enhance athletes' performances, as sport psychologists are not always available (Johnson & Gilbert, 2004).

Other programmes that were developed include: skills education in young athletes (Haslam, 2002); imagery for marathoners (Weber, 2007); psychological skills training for soccer performance (Thelwell et al. 2006); team building interventions (Holt & Dunn, 2006) and psycho-educational programmes for coaches (Abraham, Collins & Martindale, 2006).

Summary

In this chapter the theoretical background of psycho-education was presented. The systems theory and cybernetics (which serve as framework for psycho-education) were discussed.

Psycho-education was explained in light of its history, its theoretical approach and the theoretical implications. The task of the psycho-educator was described and the methods that can be used were mentioned. A short description of learning through experience was given.

The theoretical framework of psycho-education can be used for the development of a programme to enhance performance in cricket, using the NLP model.

Chapter Three
Literature Overview of NLP

Introduction

The study of Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP) is too extensive to cover its entire scope in this research. A brief overview will be given on the aspects used in this study.

NLP makes no commitment to theory, but it has the status of a model – a set of procedures where usefulness, not truthfulness, is the measure of its worth (Dilts, 1983). NLP has specific tools that can be applied effectively in any human interaction. Certain techniques can be organised and re-organised in a client's subjective experience to define and subsequently secure behavioural outcome (Alder, 1994; Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999; Garrat, 1999).

Background

John Grinder (professor of linguistics at the University of California) and Richard Bandler, who was a student of mathematics and computers at the same university founded NLP in the early 1970s. It is therefore a relatively new discipline (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999; Dilts, 2007; Garrat, 1999).

Although NLP has been used overseas for some time, in South Africa it has been practised only since the last decade. The NLP Institute in South Africa was established in 2000 and is called the Southern African Association of Neuro-Linguistic Programming (McIntosh, 2001). Owing to the infancy of this field in South Africa, literature studies are restricted, as indicated by Bester, Nainaar and Roodt (2000) and Steyn (1999).

Bandler and Grinder realised that every field had its own set of specialists. Their aim was to investigate the reasons for this expertise and to provide a model to work with.

Bodenhamer and Hall (1999) and Dilts (2007) pointed out that Bandler studied the teachings of Fritz Perls and his Gestalt Therapy and found that he could detect and replicate patterns. He furthermore identified the 'seven patterns' of Virginia Satir in family therapy

Bateson, a British anthropologist and writer on communication, introduced Bandler and Grinder to Milton Erickson, the renowned developer of Ericksonian hypnosis. Bandler and Grinder modelled both Erickson and Satir and found similar results in their therapy.

Their intention was not to introduce a new school of therapy, but to use theories that worked in practice and which could be taught (Alder, 1994). They started with the communication model in psychotherapy (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999) that was a combination of linguistics, neurology, psychology and cybernetics (Kruger, 1999). Their initial discoveries were reported in four books. In *The Structure of Magic* 1 and 2 they identified the verbal and behavioural patterns of Fritz Perls and Virginia Satir. In *Patterns of the Hypnotic Techniques of Milton* 1 and 2, Erickson's behaviour and verbal patterns were identified. From this, they developed NLP and described their own modelling techniques in two books, *Frogs into Princes* (1997) and *Reframing* (1982).

According to Gunn and Scarborough (1981), Judith DeLozier and Leslie Cameron-Bandler were also contributors. Bandler and Grinder studied the works of Chomsky and Korzybski to gather further information on language patterns (O'Connor & McDermott, 1996).

From the initial models, NLP ventured into two complementary directions: first, towards a process of discovering patterns of excellence in any field; and second,

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the way people of excellence think and communicate (O'Connor & Seymour, 1990).

Since its introduction, NLP has undergone various changes. Dilts brought in a spiritual dimension with his logical levels (Alder 1994); and Hall (2007) focused on the emergence of NLP into Neuro-Semantics.

Perls, Satir and Erikson's works will be discussed as the foundation of NLP and in terms of the aspects used in NLP.

Fritz Perls

Bandler became an editor of Fritz Perls' books in Gestalt therapy and familiarised himself with his techniques. He discovered that he could model Perls' therapeutic procedures and began to experiment with them. The following techniques were replicated with the same results:

The here-and-now

Gestalt therapy does not deny the past, but concentrates on experiencing the here-and-now in terms of verbal and non-verbal behaviour, for example breathing, body movements and facial expressions (Gilliland, James & Bowman, 1994).

Contact

The interaction between the client and therapist is unconditional and the uniqueness of the individual is respected (Clarkson, 1989).

Learning through experience

Experiencing the situation in both NLP and the Gestalt is of utmost importance (Clarkson, 1989).

Responsibility and choice

The person is responsible for his own experiences and choices (Clarkson, 1989).

Virginia Satir

Bandler also experienced with the theory of Satir and found that similar results were found once her theory was correctly modelled (Cottone, 1992; Woods & Martin, 1984). He focused on:

Deletions

A word and what it means to a specific person is investigated, for example *they* do not think I am good *enough.* The meaning of 'enough' and 'they' for the person will be examined.

Reframing

A new positive interpretation is given to a negative experience.

Anchoring

This is a learned association between a stimulus and response. When the stimulus is initiated, the associated response will follow (Alder, 1994).

Erik Erickson

Erickson developed the model of communication which is known as 'Ericksonian hypnosis'. The techniques were successfully modelled by Bandler and Grinder and are now extensively used in NLP.

Resources

The person has all the inner resources to bring about change (O'Connor & Seymour, 1990).

Rapport

The therapist must be sensitive to the way the client organises his experiences. He must be prepared to get to know the 'map' of the client (Alder, 1994).

Pacing

The therapist gets to know the world of the client and can sense and feel and think in terms of the client's world. Pacing is matching behaviour and tone of voice to the way the client responds. Pacing lies outside conscious awareness; it communicates subconcoiusly (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999).

Linguistics

Erickson used phrases that gave animals or inanimate objects human characteristics. He used metaphors and tag questions with his stories to advance the learning process.

Bodenhamer and Hall (1999) contend the best way to understand NLP is through experience. The authors emphasise modelling, experimenting and

testing as opposed to theorising. The objectives of NLP are to model special and exceptional abilities and to make them transferable to others (Dilts, 2007).

The term Neuro-Linguistic Programming

NLP studies three areas:

Neurology

Neurology refers to the mind and how a person thinks. Neuro refers to the nervous system and how it processes codes in the body. Experiences are processed by means of the five senses: visual, auditory, kinesthetic, olfactory and gustatory.

Linguistic

Linguistic refers to the use of language and how it affects a person. The neural processes are coded and ordered. Symbols are used to create language. It enables us to give meaning to the neural processes and give meaning to the sensory representations. It uses abstract categories such as language, communication systems (feelings, sounds, pictures, smells) and symbolic systems (grammar, music, mathematics).

Programming

Programming refers to the way a person sequences his actions to achieve his goals. It is the ability to organise parts, for example sights, sounds and sensations that lead to a person's desired outcome. Programming generates the strategies for functioning and results in our skills, habits and abilities (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999; Gunn, 1981; Hall, 2007; O'Connor, 2001). Bodenhamer and Hall (1999) state that the heart of NLP lies in the way a person takes control of his own mind.

Presuppositions

Theoretical assumptive presuppositions

NLP is a model, not a theory. The difference is that a theory explains *why* a system works; a model describes *how* to use the model. Therefore NLP uses presuppositions that are announced 'up front'. The presuppositions can not demonstrate as being 'true' or 'right', nor do they comprise any 'ultimate reality', but they are accepted. The reason for the acceptance is that the presuppositions are useful in the task of making changes and accomplishing goals (Bodenhamer & Hall 1999).

The NLP presupposition beliefs

A belief describes a basic structure in the model of the world that is seen as true. These beliefs are called core beliefs (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999; Dilts, 1990; O'Connor & Seymour, 1990).

Beliefs act as filters that determine how we perceive external reality. A person's beliefs (of what he sees as important or not) powerfully shape his perceptions (Dilts, 1990).

The operating system of presuppositions

Mental processing presuppositions

Maps and filters

When a person describes his world he uses two levels: an external objective reality and an internal subjective reality. In NLP, "The map is not the territory" is frequently quoted (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999:66). 'Territory' is reality and 'map' describes what exists in a person's head – the mental understanding of the territory (Alder, 1994; Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999; McDermott & Jago, 2002). The world is complicated, therefore each person gives it a simplified meaning (Bandler & Grinder, 1975).

'Map making' is how a person gives meaning to his world; to simplify it, some information is eliminated. The map a person makes normally relies on what is

noticed and gives a good indication of where his awareness is (O'Connor & Seymour, 1990). When a person thinks of an event, it is not the real event; it involves the perception of that event. When a person wants to make sense of an experience, he constructs internal representations of it (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999).

Maps consist of beliefs, values, attitudes, language and other psychological filters and these are experienced as thoughts. The internal representational maps interact with a person's physiology and in this way states are produced. These states produce behaviour or actions (O'Connor & McDermott, 1996). The perception of the world operates as a projection that determines our actions. A person must change his internal map before he can change his thinking, emotions or behaviour (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999).

When a therapist understands a person's map and filters, he can understand that person's actions. The person can then be influenced to change his behaviour and reach his goals (Alder,1994; O'Connor & Lages, 2004). The reason people see the world differently does not lie in the world, but because of the different filters through which each person sees his world (O'Connor & Seymour, 1990). NLP seeks to change the map, not reality.

People respond according to their maps
A person perceives the world through filters in order to make meaning for himself. Narrow beliefs can make the world small and dull; the same world can be rich and full of potential when beliefs are broadened (Alder 1994; Bandler & Grinder 1975; O'Connor & Seymour, 1990).

The filters that a person uses for his perceptions determine the world he lives in. The world has always more to give than the ideas we have about it (O'Connor & Seymour, 1990).

Meaning operates context-dependently

Words have no meaning when they stand on their own. Only when words are put in context do they give some kind of message. The context or frame in which a word is used controls its meaning.

A player may say, "I am not very committed". The word 'committed' could mean many things to many people. O'Connor and Seymour (1990) state the question that should be asked to clarify the meaning is: "To whom or to what are you not committed?"

Mind-and-body inevitably and inescapably affects each other

Everything a person does involve the use of his mind. The more completely he understands the basic simple functions of his mind, the more effectively he can use it in the development and performance of his abilities. A person's mind-and-body is one integrated system and communicates verbally and non-verbally, consciously and subconcoiusly (McDermott & Jago, 2002).

A person's thoughts control his body. The placebo effect was explained through the body-mind connection. Experiments with placebos and real medicine left many doctors stunned by the effect the placebos had as they sometimes out-performed the active drug (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1990).

There are approximately one hundred billion individual nerve cells in the body. These nerve cells connect neuro-chemically through a synapse. Within this synaptic connection the neuron-chemicals are used to transmit an electrical nerve impulse from one neuron to another (Goodwin, 1988; Groves & Rebec, 1979).

Neuromuscular responses of an imagined skill can be detected in a specific muscle while executing the skill. These tests were done by Edmund Jacobson in 1932, Arnold in 1946 and Suinn in 1980. Goodwin (1988) ascertained that these findings established a strong chemical communication between the body and the mind.

Individual skills function by developing and sequencing representational systems
Skills are dependent on how a person uses his representational systems (his senses). The mind stores information that is experienced through the senses.

The representational system has two key components: sub-modalities and strategies. The representational system functions as the building blocks of behaviour. According to Bodenhamer and Hall (1999) and O'Connor and Seymour, (1990), the brain uses senses to form its modes of awareness. NLP suggest these representational systems as

V	Visual (images, pictures)
A	Auditory (sounds, tones)
A_1	Auditor tonal (sounds)
K	Kinesthetic (tactile and internal feelings of the body)
O	Olfactory (smell)
G	Gustatory (task)
M	Motor movements

Each person's model of his world is respected
The client's model of his world must be respected. If not, conflict could arise and result in unnecessary misunderstanding.

Each person creates his own map to understand his territory. When two people do not understand each other's maps, there will be poor rapport, bad communication and distortions in understanding (Alder, 1994; O'Connor & Seymour, 1990).

Rapport is when a person gains insight into an individual in the map of his world. McDermott and Jago (2002) say there are no resistant clients, only inflexible communicators.

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Presuppositions about human behaviour

Person and behaviour describe different phenomena

Behaviour is contextual. A person's behaviour does not identify him, because in different contexts a person may behave differently. "You are not your behaviour", claim Bodenhamer and Hall, 1999. The individual with the most flexibility has the highest probability of achieving the response he desires (McDermott & Jago, 2002).

Behaviour has utility and usefulness in some context

All behaviour has a positive intent driving it as there is some context in which the behaviour has value (Alder, 1994; Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999; O'Connor & Seymour, 1990). A human being's behaviour, no matter how bizarre it may seem, will always make sense when it is viewed in the context of the choices generated by the person's models (Bandler & Grinder, 1975).

Behaviour and change are evaluated in terms of ecology and context

When a person changes, it will have effects upon others and on the person himself. It is important to make an ecology check to see whether this change brings more harm than good (Dilts, 1990). Any change in any part of a system will alter the outcome response of that system (Gunn, 1981).

Communicative presuppositions

We cannot not communicate

There is always a 'message' between two people. Feelings, ideas and beliefs get communicated. Verbal communication (digital) is what a person says in words and refers to content. The non-verbal (analogical) part of communication is seen in non-verbal behaviour. Bandler and Grinder (1976) refer to signs of analogical messages as: body posture; breathing (shallow/deep); voice (shrill/soft) and speed of speech (fast/slow/stutter).

The way a person communicates affects his perception and reception

Communication is only believable when there is congruence between the verbal and non-verbal message (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999).

The meaning of a person's communication lies in the response he gets

Communication among people is a process in which everyone receives, sends, interprets and infers all at the same time. When two people are congruent in their communication, it is almost like a dance. O'Connor and Seymour (1990) describe it as people responding and mirroring each other's movements. Their body language is complementary.

The one who sets the frame for the communication controls it

Every person has a frame of reference that governs his meaning of life. Recognising another person's frame of reference is much easier than recognising your own, because everybody lives subjectively in his own frame.

The person who sets the frame is normally a leader, precisely because he gives people a new way of seeing things (Bodenhamer & Hall, 2003).

There is no failure, only feedback

NLP sees failure as a stepping-stone on the road to success (Alder & Morris, 1996). However, many people see failure as a mistake, a reason to quit (Alder, 1994). Millman (1999) stated that failure or errors *make* the master. Feedback brings awareness that could be both positive and negative. Awareness of body, mind and spirit is the first stepping-stone in developing as a person. It extends beyond conceptual understanding and is the beginning of all growth.

A person who is aware of his weaknesses can strengthen them and improve consistently. A person who is aware of his strengths can develop confidence and satisfaction (Millman, 1999).

The person with the most flexibility exercises the most influence in the system

To sustain flexibility, a person should be able to control his emotions in communication (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999). When a person uses a variety of linguistics and experiential means, he can use flexible patterns of communication and therefore always have choices when he communicates (McDermott & Jago, 2002).

Resistance indicates the lack of rapport

Rapport is the effective cornerstone of communication; when there is trust, harmony and co-operation in a relationship, rapport results (Dilts, 1990). When a person speaks, it is normally an exact encoding of his internal experience. When not carefully listened to, there will be resistance and rapport will be lost (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999; McDermott & Jago, 2002).

Learning-choice presuppositions

People have the internal resources they need to succeed

People have the resources (including those necessary to make any desired change) which will lead to success (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999).

Humans have the ability to experience one-trial learning

The ability of the brain to learn quickly provides an opportunity for the therapist to make rapid change.

All communication should increase choice.

The more choice an individual has, the more wholeness he experiences (Alder, 1994; Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999).

People make the best choices open to them when they act

A person's choices are sometimes awkward, but because he comes from his model of the world and within that model, he can make his choices. When the therapist approaches a person with this understanding, he gives compassion, optimism, kindness and hope (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999; McDermott & Jago, 2002).

As a responsible person one can control one's results

When the brain is not stimulated it could have distracting thoughts, therefore it is important to have controlled thinking patterns. Negativity could take over without a person realising it, as his thoughts become his reality (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982; Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999).

The NLP system and techniques

Modelling

According to O'Connor and Seymour (1990), NLP is the art and science of personal excellence. It is an art because everybody brings his own uniqueness through his personality and style to what he does; it is a science because there is a method and process for discovering the patterns used by outstanding individuals to achieve outstanding results in their field. This process is called modelling.

A model is a simple description of a complex process. The word model comes from the Latin word, *modulus*, which means a 'small version of the original mode' (Dilts, 1998:4). Kruger (2007) defines modelling as the process of creating useful 'maps' of human skills.

Dilts (1998) states that modelling can be described as how the brain (neurons) functions and how it materialises in the language patterns (linguistics) and non-verbal behaviour. The result is a strategy or pattern (programming) to teach others how to reach excellence. Kruger (2007) maintains that the underlying structure of an experience is mapped out in order to see what it is that makes a person highly skilled at what he does.

In the expert, the process is subconcoius because its speed makes it almost instantaneous. In the learner, the process is slow and almost deliberate.

Figure 3:1 below shows that a person's beliefs, behaviour, feeling and thinking create a certain skill at a specific moment. A skill is then an experience of

internal sequences or experiential events in the mind. The variables in the structure of the competency interact as a cluster or system (Kruger, 2007).
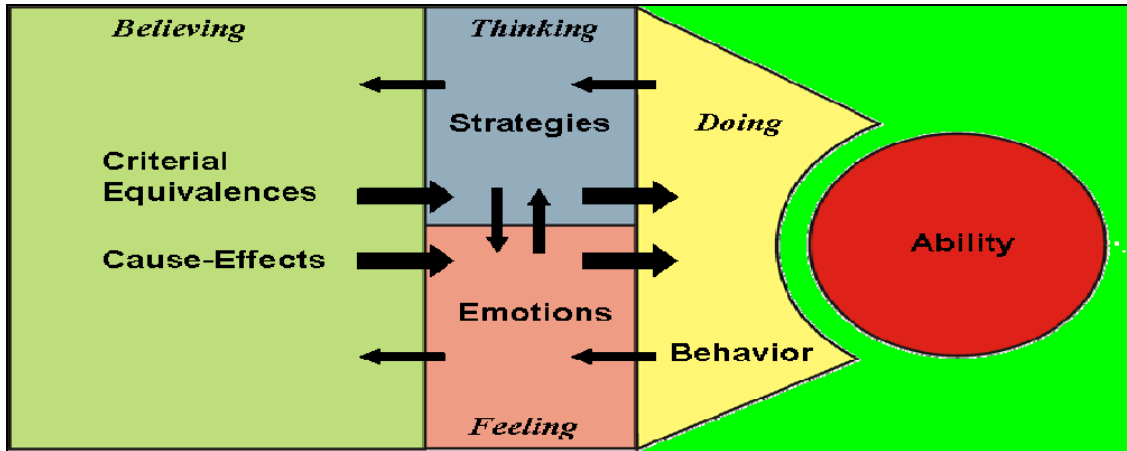
Figure 3:1. Components that make up a skill
(Gordon in Kruger, 2007: 3)

According to Kruger (2007), the attributes of an expert are:

- to do everything very rapidly. When one speaks to an expert, it is often difficult for him to describe how he accomplishes a skill as it happens at the subconcoius level of the learning curve. It is outside his awareness because of the speed of thinking. A beginner will do a skill quite slowly, as the skill can only be executed as fast as he can process it.
- to think in a non-linear format. The expert is capable of changing conceptual levels from abstract to concrete and in conceptual positions.
- flexibility in applying certain skills in varying circumstances. The same skill will have a different form or sequence, depending on the circumstances. The player who knows he is capable of hitting a six and who needs five runs to win, will hit a six, even though under the same bowling circumstances would have only scored two runs in the first innings.

- the ability to run at more than one neurological level at the same time. The expert continuously evaluates whether he will achieve the outcome, but also measures whether he will meet the criteria for the outcome.
- the internal sequence of thoughts is a poor reflector of the external behaviour.

Competence is experienced and appears as internal sequences of experiential events in the mind, with the external behaviour as crude indicators of the competencies required for success.

Representational system (VAK system)

All our experiences and thoughts are a result of what we hear, see, feel, touch and smell. A person processes all the information from the outside world through the five senses, that is, the representational system (O'Connor & McDermott, 1996; O'Connor & Seymour, 1990). Although human beings share the same five senses and basic neurology, their experience of the world is as unique as their fingerprints (Kruger & Van der Merwe, 1998).

Table 3:1. The representational system and the senses
(Alder, 1994; Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999; Gunn & Scarborough, 1981;
O'Connor & Lages, 2004)

Incoming information	Internal information	Subjective experience
From the outside world Enters our heads through our senses	Enters our nervous system and is interpreted	Information recalled as
Visual	Pictures (internal pictures, imagery and visualisation)	V-Visuals Pictures
Auditory	Sounds (music, self-talk, voices)	A- sounds Noise
Kinesthetic	Feelings External-tactile - Sensations - Touch - Temperature Internal sensations - Emotions - Inner feelings	K-Sensations Feelings

Gustatory system	Tastes	O-tastes (sweet, bitter)
Olfactory system	Smells	O-smells (Good, bad)

Table 3:1 shows that every person uses one of these representational systems as his lead system. There will be a big difference in experience between the person who uses his auditory sense (hearing) as lead system compared to the visual (seeing) or kinesthetic (feeling) systems. The person whose lead system is auditory will hear the ball on the bat; the one that uses his visual system as lead system will see the ball; while the person with a kinesthetic lead system will feel the bat and feel his body movement when hitting the ball correctly.

The representational system does far more than just gather information. Each system receives information and then activates the memory to produce behaviour (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999).

Predicates and process words

Williams and Jacobson (1989), claim that a person's representational (VAK) system can be identified through his language. It is represented on a subconcoius level through verbal (predicates) and non-verbal behaviour (eye movements). These sensory-based words are called predicates (Alder, 1994; Gunn & Scarborough, 1981; O'Connor & Lages, 2004).

Table 3:2. Representational systems through predicates
(Hall, 2007)

Visual system	I can **see** it clearly now She has a **rosy** future
Auditory system	I **hear** it in her tone of voice She **purrs** like a kitten
Gustatory system	It leaves a bad **taste** in my mouth It is a **bitter** pill to swallow
Olfactory system	I **smell** a rat

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Kinesthetic system	I have ***a nose for*** problems I ***feel*** it in my gut ***Get in touch*** with me

Table 3:2 shows how language (verbs, nouns and pro-nouns) can be used to identify the VAK system, purely by listening to the words a person uses. Lictenburg and Moffit (1994) claim that when the psychologist adapts to the client's VAK system, he shows understanding and starts to hear, see or feel the client's world. This is called pacing in NLP (Bodenhamer & Hall 1999).

Accessing cues

As well as language, other systems can be identified to see how a person feels and thinks at a specific moment. A person may sometimes touch his nose or ear to show which sense is involved when speaking (Dilts, Grinder, Bandler & DeLozier, 1980). Also, the way a person uses his physiology and neurology through breathing, gesture and eye movement gives access to the way a person thinks (O'Connor & Lages, 2004).

Table 3:3. Accessing cues
(O'Connor & Lages, 2004:184)

	Visual	Auditory	Kinesthetic
Eye accessing	Unfocused or up to the right or left	In the midline	Below the midline usually to the right
Voice tone and tempo	Generally rapid speech, high clear voice tone.	Melodious tone, resonant, medium pace Often has an underlying rhythm	Low and deeper tonality often slow and soft with many pauses
Breathing	High shallow breathing in the top part of the chest	Even breathing in the middle part of the chest	Deeper breathing from the abdomen
Posture and gestures	More tension in the body, often with the neck extended. Often	Often medium (mesomorphic) body type. There may be	Rounded shoulders, head down, relaxed muscle tone, may

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	thinner (ectomorphic) body type	rhythmic movements of the body as if listening to music. Head may be tilted to the side in thought 'telephone position'	gesture to abdomen and midline

Table 3:3 shows that the physiology and neurology that can be identified on the visual, auditory and kinesthetic levels are very different. Once the psychologist is aware of these differences, he can understand how the client perceives and experiences his world (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999; Hall, 2007).

Eye accessing cues

When a person speaks, there is usually eye movement. This eye movement represents certain neurological processing.

Figure 3:2 represents a diagram of the eye accessing cues and gives some indication of how a person processes his information.

When the eye moves to a particular position, an impulse is sent to the brain that stimulates a particular sensory motor recall. As Gunn (1981) states, eye movement relates to sensory memory recall.

A right-handed person's eye movement will indicate the following:

- eyes up and to the left: a person recalls pictures previously seen
- eyes up and to the right: a person constructs or creates a picture
- eyes level and to the left: a person recalls remembered words
- eyes level and to the right: a person constructs sentences
- eyes down to the left: a person is busy with an internal dialogue
- eyes down to the right: a person accesses kinesthetic awareness (feelings and emotions)
- eyes centred and defocused: a person makes pictures or processes internal dialogue

Visualisation

Visual constructed images

Visual remembered images

Constructed sound

Remembered sounds

Kinesthetic
(feelings and bodily sensations)

Auditory digital
(Internal dialogue)
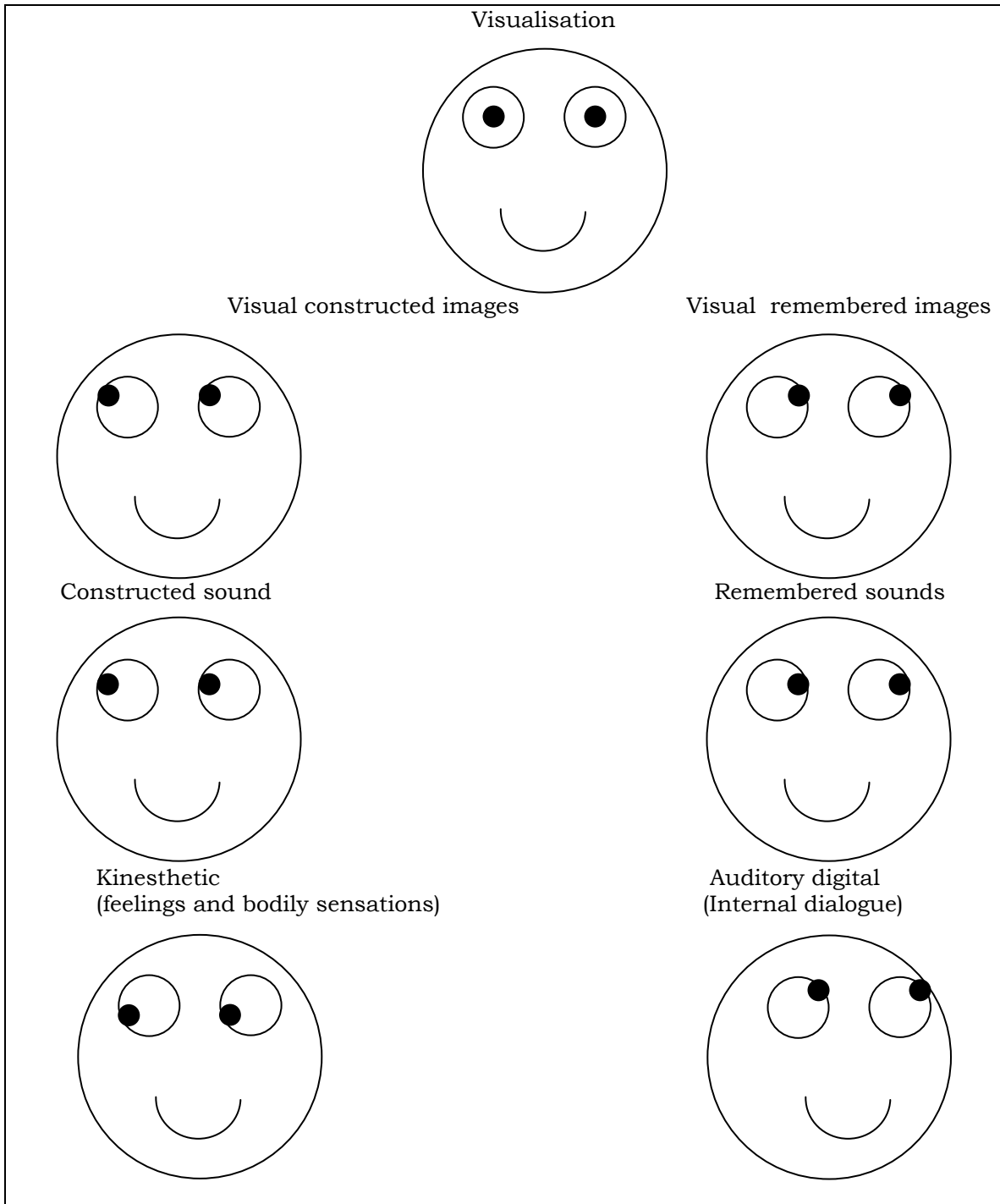
Figure 3:2. Eye accessing cues
(Gunn & Scarborough, 1981; O'Connor & Lages, 2004)

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Eye movements have to do with internal neurological information processing, and not with the internal experience (Alder, 1994; Bandler & Grinder, 1979; Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999; O'Connor & Seymour, 1990).

The NLP Language Model

The Meta-model

The language in which a person expresses himself is an exact encoding of his internal experiences (Bandler & Grinder, 1979). When a person thinks, he uses the representational system of the senses. The person represents in his mind what he originally saw, heard, felt and smelt. These understandings are then coded into words. The words function as a symbol of the sensory representations and the representations function as a symbol of the actual experience (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999). The word 'magic' can mean different things to two unique individuals, however, both give structure to their own internal world (Bandler & Grinder, 1979). Words can give an accurate map if they are similar to the territory they represent, or inaccurate if certain parts are left out, or over-generalised. The result is a distorted map (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999).

Language is not only thoughts, but also a mixture of mental pictures, sounds and feelings. Words will have different meanings to different people as they have different experiences (Alder, 1994; O'Connor & Seymour, 1990; O'Connor & Lages, 2004).

 The attention to detail of language provides a person with cues and clues and gives understanding of another person's world (McDermott & Jago, 2002). Table 3:4 shows the Meta-model of language.

Table 3:4. The Meta-model of language for therapy
(Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999:136)

The territory	Neurological	Neurological (conscious exp)	Sensory-based linguistic sorting	Evaluative based (meta-linguistic)
Territory of sensory based reality	Processing sense-receptors bringing information into our nervous system (NS)	Awareness of experience. What we pay attention to and what we delete. VAK representations of the experience	Naming and describing; names of objects, entities categories (nouns); of actions (verbs); qualities (adjectives) First linguistic 'map' of the experience	Language that describes the meaning, the language and our feeling etc. about the experience. Second linguistic 'map' (meta-words of the experience)

Deep structure /surface structure

A person who speaks never gives a complete description of the thoughts behind the words. The speaker will always have a more complete internal representation of what he wishes to communicate. The description is therefore shortened.

The representation of a person's experience lies in the subconcoius (deep structure). As the person transforms his experience it is done through words and called the surface structure (Alder, 1994; Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999; Elias, 1996). Bandler and Grinder (1975) call the process of moving from deep structure to surface structure, the modelling process.

Figure 3:3 illustrates how a person uses deletions, distortions and generalisations from the deep structure to the surface structure, resulting in a simplified meaning. From this figure one can see that the actual thoughts of a person (deep structure) and how he expresses them (surface structure) are very different.
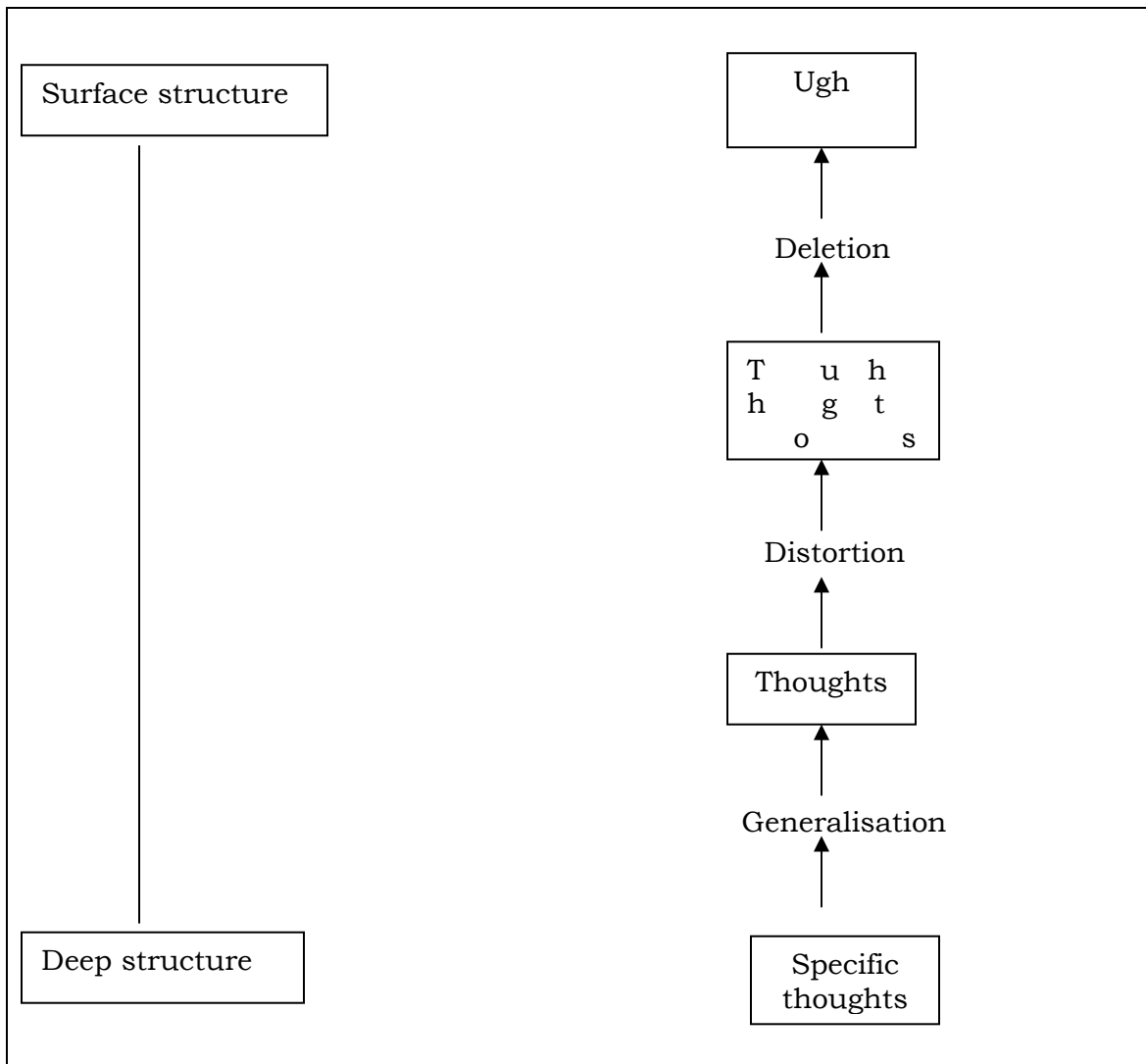
Figure 3:3. The Meta-model
(O'Connor & Seymour, 1990:91)

When one uses language there are *deletions* in the language communication. One assumes the other person will understand, and therefore leaves out certain important words. There may be a misunderstanding about what is said, as each person has his own limited map of reality.

A person also gives a *simplified* version of what he knows and feels and therefore opens up the possibility of *distorting* what he says (Bandler &

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Grindler, 1975). Through distortions one makes it possible to have dreams and visions about the desired future (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999). A person also tends to *generalise* which leaves both speaker and listener a long way from reality.

Thus the 'deep structure' of language is seen as incomplete and distorted on the 'surface' (Alder, 1994; O'Connor & Seymour, 1990). It is through Meta-model questions that a person is taken back to his experience and the material that was distorted, deleted or generalised, is restored.

In Table 3:5 examples of words and questions are given in the Meta-model. Generalisations, deletions and distortions are shown with examples of possible statements, words and their effects. Examples of questions that should be asked (to move from the deep structure to the surface structure) are given.

Table 3:5. Words and questions to recognise in the Meta-model
(Alder, 1994; Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999; Elias, 1996)

Generalisation				
NLP term	**Statement**	**Words**	**Effect**	**Question that should be asked**
Universal quantifier	I always get dropped from the team	Never, always, every, all, none	Eliminates choices and alternatives	Never? Always?
Modal operator of possibility	You can't hit a back-hand like that	Cannot, impossible	Restricts	What would happen if you did?
Modal operator of necessity	I have to go and train	Should, should not, must, have to, ought to	Based on rules from childhood, but still part of the language and thought	What would happen if you did? (not)
Complex equivalence	He is not smiling, he is	Not smiling = not enjoying	The statement is not	How does this mean that?

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	not enjoying himself	himself	equivalent	
Deletions				
Simple deletion	I am uncomfortable	Omitting about what	Not being specific	About what?
Deletion of nouns	They are out to get me	They, it (omitting nouns)	Not being specific	Who are they? What is?
Lack of referential index	He lost his watch	Omitting verbs Omitting nouns	Making assumptions	How did he lose his watch?
Comparative deletion	I could be better	Better Worse Badly	Confusion. With what, whom are you comparing yourself	Better than whom /what?
Distortions				
Nominalisation	He is a respected man	Educate ➤ education; Respect ➤ respected	Different meanings for different people	Who respects him? What makes him a respected man?
Complex equivalence	Her frown means she doesn't like me	External behaviour = internal state	Disagreement	How do you know?
Presupposing	Would you like to train at the school or at the club?	Asking a question with 'or'	Presupposes that the person wants to train	What makes you believe that?
Mind-reading	You have a problem with team selection	Statement is made about another person's feelings/be-haviour	Claiming to know someone's internal state	How do you know? What lets you know?

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The Milton model

The Milton model can be used to speak with artful vagueness in order to move a person into a trance (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999). The Milton model is the opposite of the Meta-model. The Milton model chunks up to make new generalisations, deletions and distortions which puts a person in a trance. The Meta-model reverses this; it chunks down to specifics which takes a person out of a trance (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999).

Table 3:6. Categories used in the Milton model
(Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999)

Name	Description	Example
Tag questions	A question is asked after the statement. The conscious mind's attention allows the other information to go directly into the conscious mind.	Isn't it? You know? That's right? "It's ok for me to do that, isn't it?"
Pacing current experience	The client's current experience is paced by statements that agree with and is paced with ongoing experience.	"You can feel yourself sitting in your chair or lying down …"
Double binds	The subconcoius mind accepts the presupposition of the sentence. You can go into the trance now OR Later, whichever you choose.	"And you can go into a trance now or ten minutes from now, and I don't know which you'll do?"
Conversational postulate	It is a command to do something, but instead of answering yes or no, it creates in the subconcoius the desire to do something about it.	Can you picture doing this? Do you feel prepared to hit the ball now?
Extended quotes	Instead of focusing on the speaker, the listener focuses on the quotation. The conscious mind is displaced and the information goes into the subconcoius mind.	In the Wisdom cricketer an article was written by J. Hicks who quoted that Jacques Kallis said " …"
Selectional	Feelings are ascribed to animals or	How much comfort will the

restriction violation	animate objects	ball experience when it falls into your hands?
Ambiguities Phonological	Two words often have the same meaning and the client will go into trance as the language distracts the conscious mind	You are the <u>one</u> who after all <u>won</u>
Syntactic	The function of a word within the immediate context cannot be identified	Roaring crowds gathering runs (ing + verb)
Scope	It cannot be determined by context how much one portion of a sentence applies to another	Watching Bob and John … (Put an and between objects and -ing onto the verb)
Punctuality	Run-on sentences

Improper pauses

Incomplete sentences. Begin a sentence but does not finish it. In this way the listener finishes it | Hit the ball on the ground is nice and green
Let the ball go … the twelfth man will bring water
The opposing team looks quite |
| **Utilisation** | Using everything or every sound in the room e.g. dogs barking outside the room. | "All sounds that are not part of what we are doing will act as a trigger mechanism to relax you even more deeply" |
| **Embedded command** | Certain words or phrases get accentuated through tone of voice by lowering and raising it. | It is possible for you when you go out on the field to play at the best level you can. |

By using these language patterns the person can be put into a trance state and there is nothing sinister, occult or strange about it.

Important aspects of hypnosis in NLP

O'Connor and Seymour (1990) and Bodenhamer and Hall (1999) pointed out these characteristics of hypnosis:

- Hypnosis cannot make a person do anything that goes against his morals or values.

- People cannot be controlled through hypnosis.
- Internal resources can be activated through an intense meditative state.
- There is nothing mystical, magical or occult about hypnosis.
- Hypnosis makes one feel more in control of oneself, not less.
- A person can resist at any point in hypnosis.
- Because hypnosis makes a person relaxed and comfortable, it opens up avenues for new ideas and formulations.
- It allows one to go beyond barriers and defences, and opens up the mind for re-programming ideas, affirmations and beliefs.

The NLP Neurological Model

Beliefs

A person's beliefs act as filters that cause him to behave in certain ways. A person who changes his beliefs without any real change in skills or behaviour, can notably improve in performance (Alder, 1994).

According to Dilts (1990), beliefs can be a generalisation about:

- *causal relations* - *i*f a person believes that there is a cause for something, it will determine where he looks for the solution.
- *meaning*- *t*he meaning a person gives to something will determine how he responds to it.
- *limits*- *i*f the person believes that he is limited to provincial colours only and is not capable of achieving beyond that, he will not.

From these generalisations three types of belief issues materialise (Alder, 1994):

- *Hopelessness*- there is no hope. The person believes there is no outcome.
- *Helplessness*- the person believes that others can achieve and he can't.
- *Worthlessness*- a person will only try to get something he feels he deserves.

Self-beliefs

Each person has his own beliefs and values. What one achieves in life is normally related to self-belief. If a person trains exceptionally hard, but still believes that others are better than he is on the sport field, he will be beaten. This negative self-belief will cancel out all the many hours of training, like a self-fulfilling prophecy (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982).

Beliefs are built throughout one's life experience. When a child is treated as though he can achieve anything, he could, because his belief system about himself is positive. On the other hand, when a person is consistently criticised he will begin to doubt himself and not live up to his potential (Garrat, 1999).

Beliefs are formed by results from the past. Continuous failure can be experienced as not being good enough or a once off success can be seen as luck. According to a study by Benjamin Bloom, a person's self-belief is nurtured (Alder, 1994). Successful young athletes did not start out with great skill but were given careful attention as they grew up. The person learned to like himself from childhood and felt in harmony with himself. Bennet and Pravitz (1982) believe that all living things seek to be in harmony with their own nature. If harmony is achieved, optimal functioning and performance is possible, but if harmony is blocked, optimal functioning is impaired.

Once something is believed, behaviour is affected on every logical level (Dilts, 1983). These levels are identity, capabilities, behaviours, environment, beliefs and values. When someone wants to change his behaviour he must change his inner belief of himself (Thornton & Ryckman, 1991). This will have an effect on his future behaviour and will influence his self-image (Alder, 1994; O'Connor & Seymour, 1990).

Every belief or experience forms a neural path in the brain, whether the belief is positive or negative. It becomes part of a person's belief system (Alder, 1994; Alder & Morris 1996; O'Connor & Seymour, 1990).

Beliefs are a matter of choice, and could be permissions or barriers. A person who has empowering beliefs will have more successes and resources than one with limited beliefs. When a person changes his belief, he changes his behaviour (O'Connor & Seymour, 1990; O'Connor, 2001).

Self-efficacy expectation

The self-efficacy expectation proposed by Bandura (1977) refers to whether a person thinks he is effective enough to accomplish a task. The function of belief has to do with the activation of capabilities and behaviour.

Perceived self-efficacy is defined as people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives. Self-efficacy beliefs determine how people feel, think, motivate themselves and behave. Such beliefs produce four major processes, namely; cognitive, motivational, affective and selection processes.

A strong sense of efficacy enhances human accomplishment and personal wellbeing. A person with confidence in his capabilities approaches difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than threats to be avoided. Such an efficacious outlook fosters intrinsic interest and deep engrossment in activities. He sets himself challenging goals and maintains strong commitment to them. He heightens and sustains his efforts in the face of failure and he quickly recovers his sense of efficacy after failures or setbacks. He attributes failure to insufficient effort or restricted knowledge and skills. He approaches threatening situations with assurance that he can exercise control over them. Such an efficacious outlook produces personal accomplishments, reduces stress and lowers vulnerability to depression (Bandura, 1977).

In contrast, a person who doubts his capabilities shies away from difficult tasks that he views as personal threats. He has low aspirations and weak commitment to the goals he chooses to pursue. When faced with difficult tasks, he dwells on his personal deficiencies, on the obstacles he will encounter and all kinds of adverse outcomes rather than concentrate on how to perform

successfully (Bandura, 1977). If a person believes that he can do something, he will achieve; if he believes he can't, he won't (O'Connor & McDermott, 1996).

Learning and beliefs

Learning happens on four levels and is a direct influence of the self-efficacy expectation. These levels can be illustrated as a learning ladder and are presented in Figure 3:4.

Based on the learning ladder, the limit to what the human brain can learn is quite substantial (Alder 1994; O'Connor, 2001). A person starts to change and learn from his behaviour and the conscious mind has very little to do with it; it seems as though the person has changed and is almost on 'auto-pilot' having gone through the four steps mentioned above. The change that takes place through learning is systematic.

Conscious competence of subconcoius competence

Subconcoius competence

Conscious competence

Conscious incompetence

Subconcoius incompetence
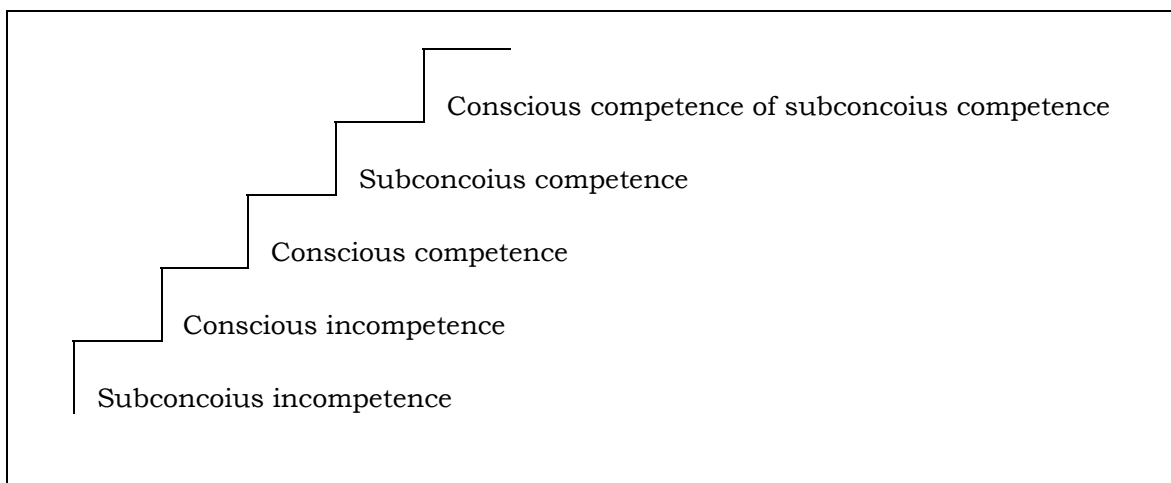
Figure 3:4.   The learning ladder

The change on the surface might look like a slight change but can have far-reaching effects. Each stage involves different aspects as shown in Table 3:7.

Table 3:7. Stages of learning
(Alder, 1994; Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999:190)

Unconscious incompetence	Conscious incompetence	Conscious competence	Un-conscious competence	Conscious competence of un-conscious competence
Ignorance or bliss No discipline No skills No mastery	Painful awareness Inadequacy Self-consciousness Unskilled No mastery "Hard" "Difficult"	Easy Discipline Confidence Adequacy Growing – mastery Skillful	"Piece of cake" Mastery Intuitive skills Habitual Programmed	Higher knowledge of the skills of a master Trainer of excellence
Behaviour The person is not aware of the existence or relevance of the skill area	**Behaviour** The person becomes aware of the existence and relevance of the skill	**Behaviour** The person achieves 'conscious competence' in a skill when he can perform it reliably at will	**Behaviour** The skill becomes so practiced that it enters the subconcoius parts of the brain - it becomes 'second nature'	**Behaviour** The person is a master of his game and skills come automatically
The person is not aware that he has a particular deficiency in the area concerned	The person is therefore also aware of his deficiency in this area, ideally by attempting or trying to use the skill	The person will need to concentrate and think in order to perform the skill	Common examples are driving, sports activities, typing, manual dexterity tasks, listening and communicating	
The person might deny the relevance or usefulness of the new skill	The person realises that by improving their skill or ability in this area their effectiveness will improve	The person can perform the skill without assistance	It becomes possible for certain skills to be performed while doing something else, for example, knitting while reading a book	
The person must become conscious of his incompetence before development of the new skill or learning can begin	Ideally the person has a measure of the extent of his deficiency in the relevant skill, and a measure of what level of skill is required for his	The person will not reliably perform the skill unless thinking about it - the skill is not yet 'second nature' or 'automatic'	The person might now be able to teach others in the skill concerned, although after some time of being subconcoiusly	

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	own competence		competent the person might actually have difficulty in explaining exactly how he does it - the skill has become largely instinctual.	
	The person ideally makes a commitment to learn and practice the new skill, and to move to the 'conscious competence' stage	The person should be able to demonstrate the skill to another, but is unlikely to be able to teach it well to another person		
		The person should ideally continue to practice the new skill, and if appropriate commit to becoming 'subconcoiusly competent' to the new skill Practice is the single most effective way to move from stage three to four		

The following three figures (in terms of the four levels of learning) are taken from Dilts (1990:14-17) to explain how belief systems can change through NLP.

If a person does not believe that he is going to do well, he will probably stay at the same level. Beliefs are not there to match reality. Beliefs are there to motivate and give vision, only then will the actual change in behaviour begin to develop and meet the expectation as shown in Figure 3:5.
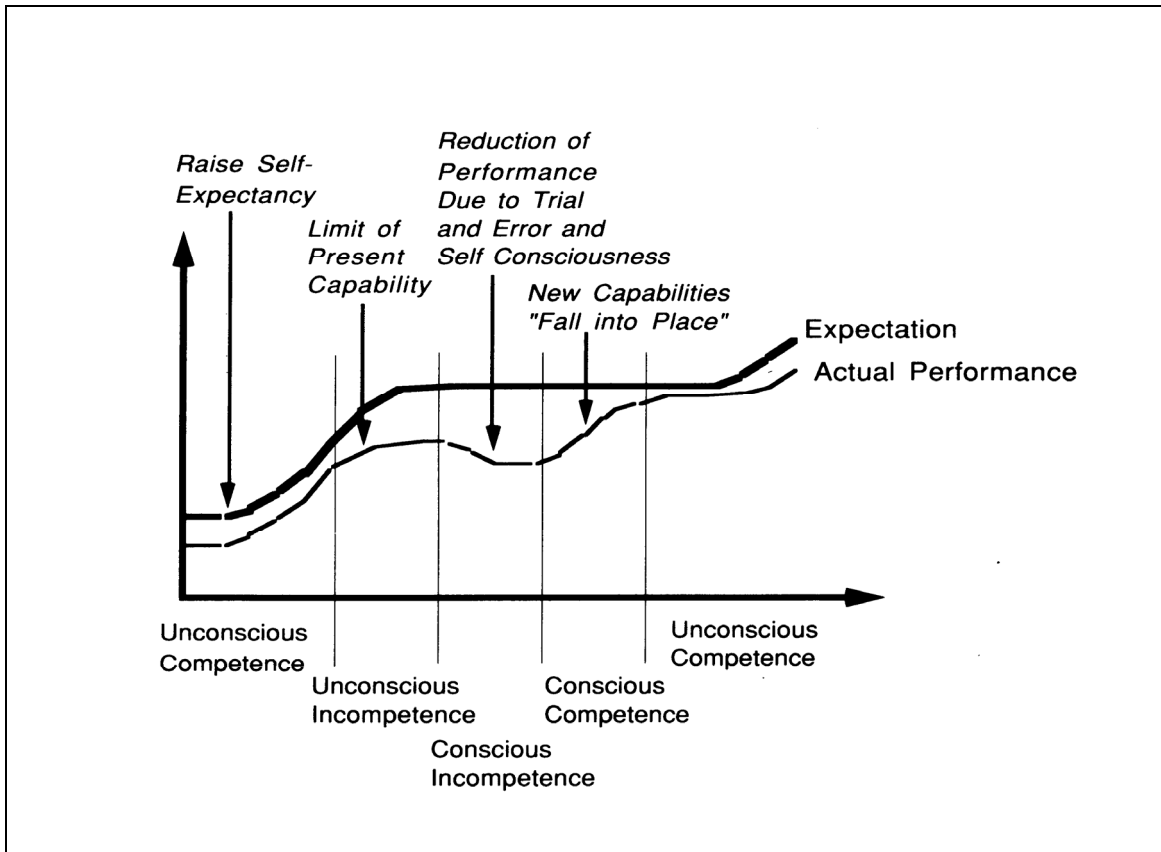
Figure 3:5. The four levels of learning

A person normally has some degree of unconscious competence and his performance raises parallel with this belief until it reaches a new plateau. This requires a trial-and-error period until the new capability is learnt and completed. In this period the belief must be maintained but what happens is, a person gets disappointed and the belief starts to drop.

Figure 3:6 shows the slower the curve rises to meet the belief, the more difficult it will be to maintain that belief.
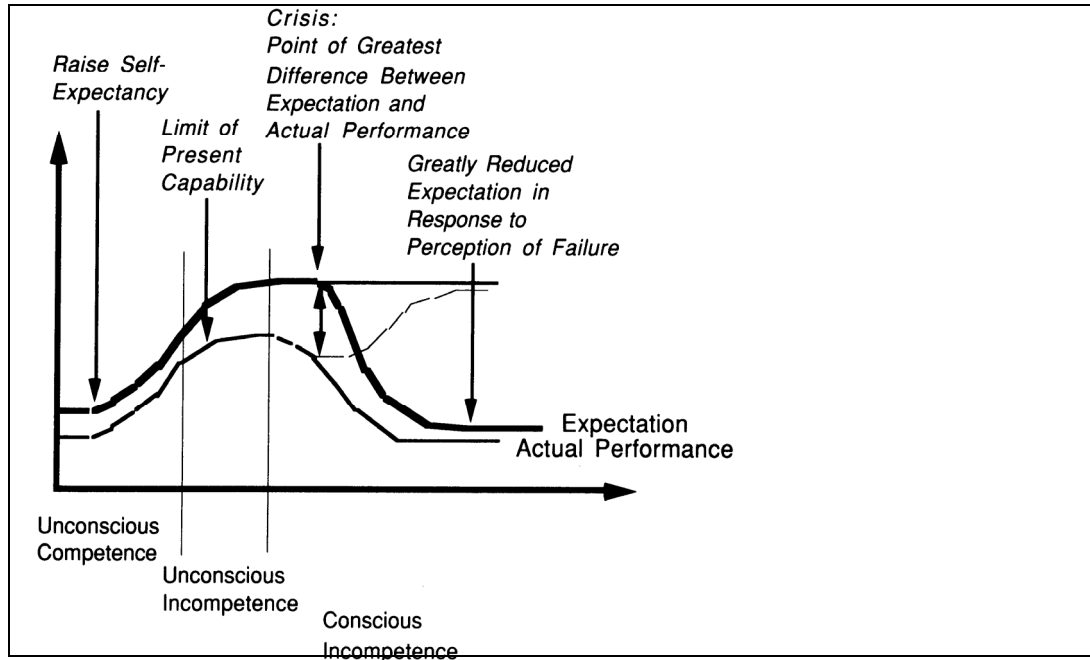
Figure 3:6. Drop in performance owing to lack of belief
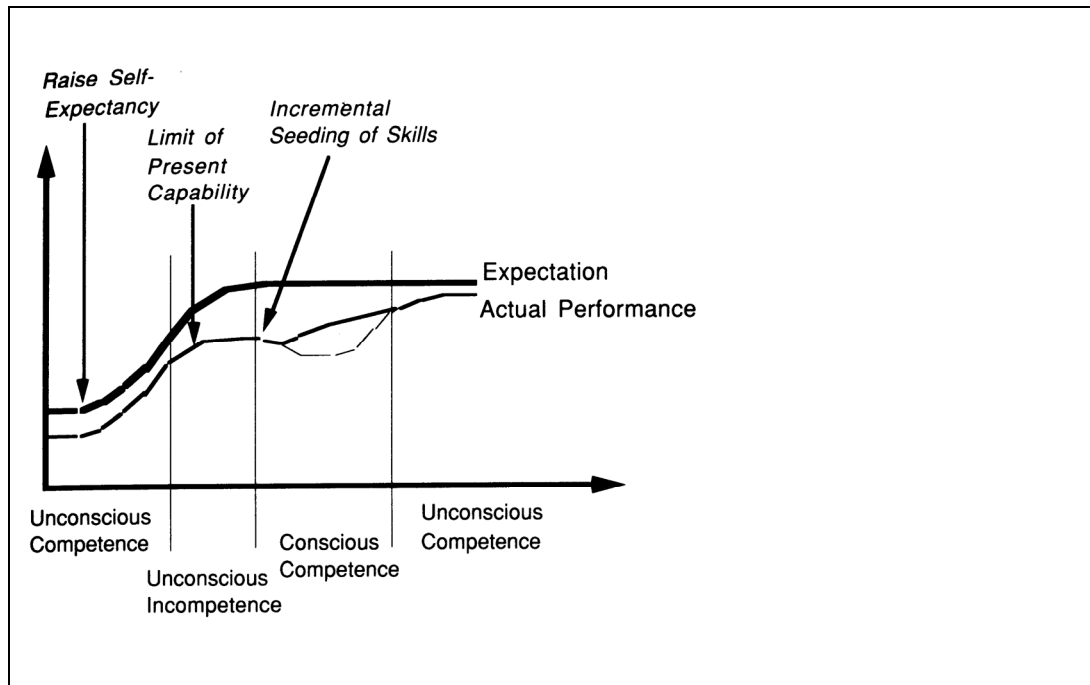
Figure 3:7. Drop in belief owing to a slow curve rise

When a therapist teaches the client how to do something, the behaviour curve rises more quickly and the danger of losing the belief is less, as illustrated in Figure 3:7. The faster the behaviour and belief can be aligned, the more chance there is that the expectation will be met.

Choice and change

The levels of learning also have a profound impact on choice and change. A person who has a choice has greater freedom to act and greater chance of achieving his goals. Alder (1994) puts it this way: one option is not an option; two options may be confusing, but three or more options will give a person the freedom to reach his goals.

Fortunately, all thoughts can be changed through choice. Habits of thought can lead to optimism or result in a downward spiral to pessimism. The result will be positive or negative behaviour (McDermott & Jago, 2002).

Alder (1994) states that the four steps to change are to know what a person wants, to take action, to notice the result of the change and to be prepared to change behaviour until the correct result is achieved.

Every person has resources available to him that his conscious mind doesn't even suspect. If a person congruently acts as if people have the resources and are going to change, he begins to induce impetus in the subconcoius (Bandler & Grinder, 1979).

According to McDermott and Jago (2002) the resources within a person are seen as:

- *here* is a perfect place to start
- nothing is *taken away* from the person
- the person gets to realise he is not *inferior*
- it is *hard to maintain the myth* of being a victim
- the therapist works with the *person's goal*

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- a sense of *renewal* and *curiosity* about himself is experienced
- the person changes from being *reactive* to proactive.
- the person realises he can get *much more out* of a situation than what he expected
- the person learns to dream a *bigger dream*

NLP focuses on transforming environmental variables (uncontrollable) to decision variables (controllable). The client is then left with choices which he did not have in the first place (Gunn, 1981).

Logical levels

Dilts (1990) created a model of personal change. It can be seen as forming a hierarchy, or concentric circles, with the most intimate in the centre of the circle and the least personal at the perimeter. From a psychological perspective there are six levels: identity, beliefs and values, capability, behaviour, environment and spiritual. Figure 3:8 illustrates that any biological or social system has different levels.

O'Connor and McDermott (1996) describe these levels as follows:

Spiritual

What is my purpose?

It shapes and guides a person's life and is the deepest level. It is the fundamental level from which a person speaks and acts

Identity

Who am I?

This is the basic sense of self, core values and mission in life

Beliefs and values

Why am I doing certain things?

Ideas of life are seen as the truth and are used as a basis for daily action. It can be permissions and limitations

Capabilities

How am I doing certain aspects?

These are sets of behaviours, general skills and strategies that we use in our life

Behaviour

What am I doing?

Certain actions a person carries out, regardless of his capability.

Environmental

Where and when?

The way a person reacts to other people.
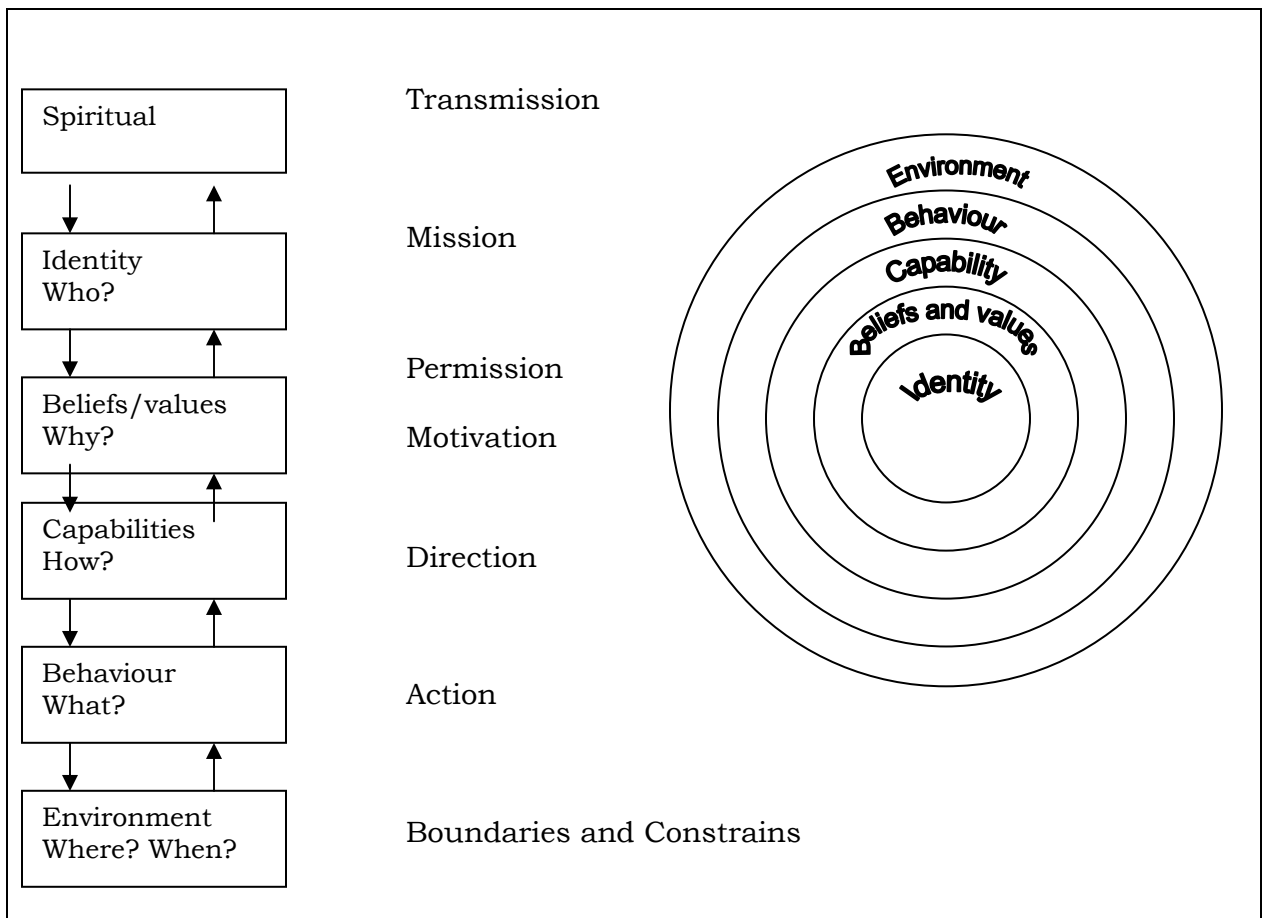
Figure 3:8. Conceptual model-logical levels
(Dilts, 1990:56)

The challenge in working with a person is to identify on which level the problem lies. The impact is more intense if more levels are affected (Dilts, 1990).

State management

State of mind has to do with one's thoughts and emotions, specifically with the thoughts in the subconcoius. It follows logically that the way a person feels, will affect what he does and how much he will achieve (Alder, 1994). Emotional states are neither good nor bad, but the outcome can be appropriate or inappropriate, enabling or limiting and unresourceful.

An emotional state is a way of being at any given moment (McDermott & Jago, 2001). It involves:

- Neurological activity
- Physical energy
- General activity
- Emotions
- Mental activity
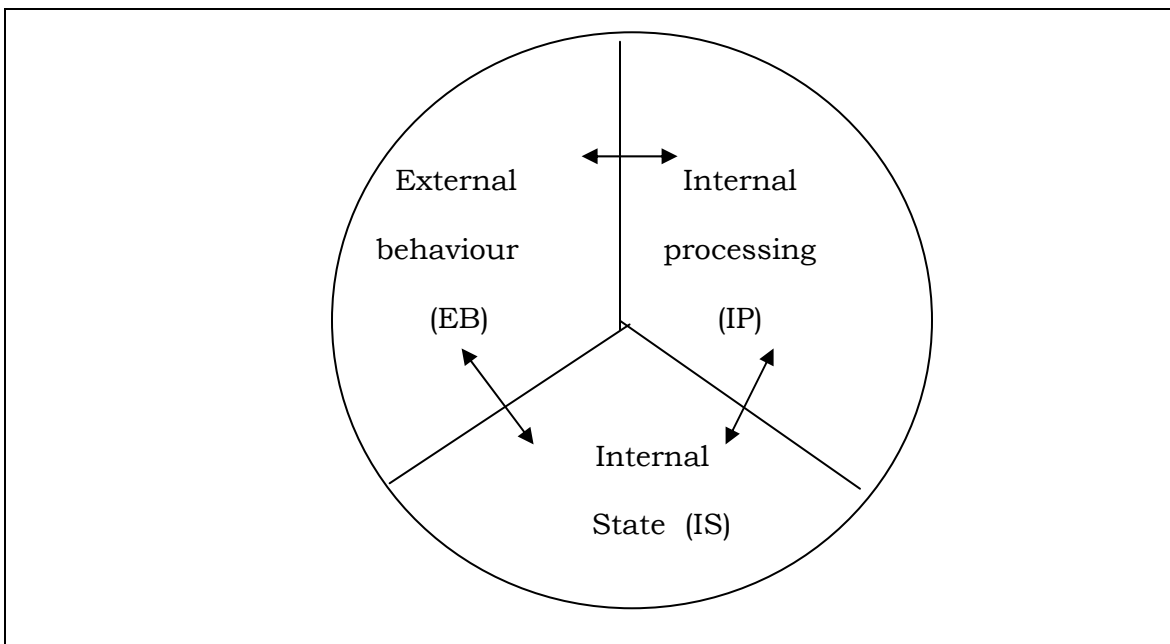
Figure 3:9. The three-fold division of personality

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Figure 3:9 demonstrates this concept. State implies a mind-body state that operates as a neurologically embodied state of mind-emotion-and-body (Bodenhamer & Hall, 2003). This involves external behaviour (EB), internal state (IS) and internal process (IP), which interact on a constant basis.

State understanding

The two main components of states involve internal representations and physiology.

Internal representations

This is how a person maps out his world through his auditory, visual and kinesthetic senses.

Physiology

A person does not notice how the emotions mould his physiology, but habitual emotions can be stamped onto a person's face and posture (O'Connor & Seymour, 1990). Physiology refers to the physical state of the body and the internal experience of the body (Bodenhamer & Hall, 2003).

State awareness

A state that is experienced repeatedly becomes a habit and a person loses consciousness of it. States must be brought to consciousness. When a person is in an unresourceful state it will reflect in his behaviour, which will be poor, bad or limited (Alder, 1994; Bodenhamer & Hall, 2003).

State alteration

States of mind alter all the time. Because of the changing characteristic of state, a person must understand and recognise the processes that will naturally change his state (Alder, 1994; Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999).

State of mind can be chosen, created or changed (McDermott & Jago, 2001; O'Connor & Seymour, 1990). This can be done through anchoring.

Anchoring

The work of Ivan Pavlov (classic conditioning) helped Bandler and Grinder realise they could use anchors (stimuli) to recreate another state.

In NLP anchoring refers to the natural process by which any element of an experience (any sensory modality component) can recreate the entire experience (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999). O'Connor and Lages (2004) confirm this by saying that anchoring is any visual, auditory or kinesthetic trigger that is associated with a particular response or emotional state.

Resource anchoring refers to anchors that are associated with emotional resources such as pride, assertiveness and confidence (Alder, 1994). An anchor forms a bridge between two totally separated experiences (MacLean, 1986). For example a person who has a very positive experience in a business meeting can take the emotional state of his success to the sports field.

Anchors are created in two ways by repetition and by a single instance if the emotional reaction is strong and the timing is correct. Anchoring occurs all the time, but a person is oblivious to it as it happens outside of his conscious awareness (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999).

Anchors can be positive or negative. The word 'blue' can evoke different feelings in people, for example, being tranquil or gloomy.

Associations can be chosen. In a sports environment where teams 'choke' in a big match, it is a chosen reaction to a big match situation. With appropriate anchoring, this reaction could be reframed as an emotional state. A choice can be made between 'choking' (a negative outcome) or giving a great performance (a positive outcome).

Developing effective anchors

Anchors have the following characteristics (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999; O'Connor & Seymour, 1990):

Purity: The anchor should be as discreet as possible. The state must be totally distinct and not contaminated by other experiences. A way to distinguish whether the person is totally associated in the state, is to look for sensory cues for example breathing, colour of skin or facial expression.

Timed: The anchor should be timed precisely. When the state reaches its maximum intensity of neurological response, the anchor must be applied. As the neurological response declines, the anchor must be released. The timing is demonstrated in Figure 3:10.
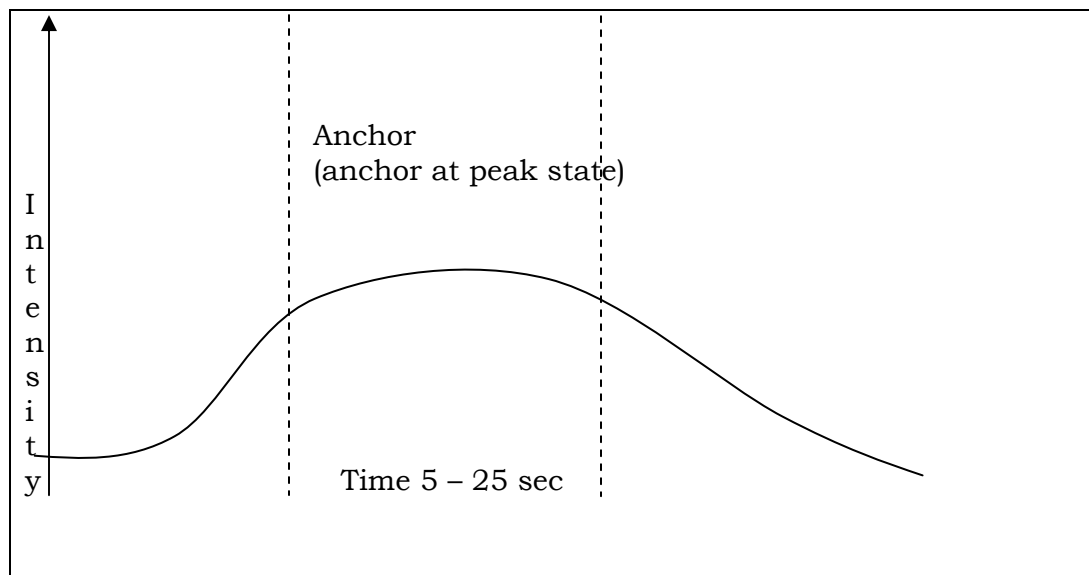
Figure 3:10. Visual and auditory anchors
(Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999:256)

Intensity: The anchor should be set at the moment of the state's highest intensity. Anchors operate state-dependently. Emotional states have a powerful influence on how a person thinks or behaves. If one makes positive states consistently available, a person can become more resourceful in the here and now (O'Connor & Seymour, 1990).

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The intensity of a state refers to how strong, emotional, colourful or vivid a state feels to the person. Anchoring should always be done in an associated state, as a disassociated state removes most of the emotional experience (Alder, 1994).

Unique: A unique place should be used to anchor and the anchor should be set through a unique stimulus of the anchor. A certain part of the body can be touched for example the earlobe. Avoid anchoring to clothing as it changes on a daily basis. Sport equipment such as the bat or the seam of a cricket ball can be used.

When any of the representational systems are intensely relived, it will cause the recall of the entire memory. Dilts (1983a) states that this process happens as a result of the synaptic and electric interference patterns created during neural processing.

Five steps to anchoring (Alder, 1994; Hall, Bodenhamer, Bolstad & Hamblett, 2001):

1. Establish rapport
2. Explain the process
3. Elicit and anchor the desired state
4. Interrupt the state (break state)
5. Test the anchor by firing it

One of the most effective ways to change a person's own and other people's behaviour, is by using their resourceful states through anchors. If a person goes into a situation in a more resourceful state than he did in the past, his behaviour is bound to change for the better (O'Connor & Seymour, 1990).

Setting goals

Present state and desired state
Goal setting in NLP seeks to look at the desired state instead of dwelling on the present problems (Mc Dermott & Jago, 2002).

Molden (2007) claims that a goal gives purpose and direction and is the first step towards achievement. Psychotherapy looks at the problem, whereas NLP looks at a desired outcome (Gunn & Scarborough, 1981; McDermott & Jago, 2002). When the problem is approached while seeking the desired state it provokes an internal search and the problem is destabilised and the attention is shifted.

According to Bodenhamer and Hall (1999), a goal must be specific enough for a behavioural outcome. Once a goal has been taken through the well-formed outcome model, the probability of achieving it is strong. Because it is specific, the person will direct his external and internal resources towards the outcome. The attention becomes more focused, the language becomes clearer and the goal becomes conscious. It provides a way of thinking productively in order to take effective actions that will move a person to the fulfilment of his objectives.

According to Hall (2007), the following objectives are important when setting goals. Goals need to be:

Stated positively in terms of what a person wants
A positively phrased message must be sent to the brain. The outcome should also be constructed in the visual mind as disassociated. When it is associated it will be as though the person has already achieved the goal.

Described in sensory-based language
The mind processes information in terms of a person's senses. It has an influence on a person's internal state that eventually drives his behaviour and leads to action and reaching goals.

Self-controlled
A person cannot change someone else's behaviour, but a person has control over his own behaviour, emotions and thoughts. If a person aims for a goal that

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is outside his influence or control, it could lead to his feeling unable to accomplish anything and even give up.

Built-in resources

If a person aims for a specific goal without the necessary resources, he will have failed even before he starts.

Ecological for the whole system

The outcome must be honourable and fair to oneself and others.

SMART goal setting

SMART is the acronym for five components that make goals clear and easy to follow:

S   *Specific:* It must be a goal that can answer the question, "What exactly do I want?" (Alder, 1994).

M   *Measurable:* The success of the goal should be measured in some way. According to Alder (1994) it could be some reward, a certificate or a trophy. It could also be the fitness level of the athlete or the number of matches being won.

A   *Adjustable/Achievable:* The person must feel he is personally in control of the goal, because if it is not, one can expect to experience disappointment (Alder, 1994). If the goal is too insignificant, the person should be able to step up to a significant goal, or if unmanageable, should be able to step down.

R   *Realistic:* A person must have the appropriate resources to fulfil a goal and he must not over- or underestimate himself.

T   *Time based:* Goals must be set within a time structure.

Goals and life cycle contents

Goals are put into the life cycle contents. The life cycle entails knowing, doing, getting, relating and being (Alder, 1994; Alder & Morris, 1996; O'Connor & Seymour, 1990). The life cycle is shown in Table 3:8.

Table 3:8. The life cycle

Knowing	I need to know more about my sport
Doing	I need to train harder and more specific
Getting	I need to get colours in my sport
Relating	I need to become a better team mate
Being	Only then will I be content in my sport

From Table 3:8 it is clear that a person can see on which level his desired outcome lies. Once the level is identified the goal can become more specific. A person can thus question himself on whether he should train harder (doing level) to become a better sportsman or whether he should become a better team mate (relating level).

A critical overview of NLP

Critics have both positive and negative views on NLP.

Positive criticism

The core of NLP is that the individual must take control in terms of his thoughts and experiences (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999). Knight (1996) points out the following positive aspects about NLP:

- people learn faster and can initiate change
- they learn to control their thoughts and behaviour in such a way that they can also control their emotions

- high quality relationships are built between people
- a person has more choices and more influence over a situation as he learns to become more flexible

Negative criticism

Although positive aspects are seen in NLP, negative aspects were also identified:

- Singer and Lalich (1996) see NLP as a 'crazy therapy' and criticise it as not grounded in scientific studies; there is an overuse of hypnotic techniques and people sometimes waste their money on a therapy that does not address the source of the problem.
- Bandler and Grinder (1979) claim that the statements on eye movement are true, yet give no scientific basis for it.
- NLP cannot stand on its own to use as a model, but must be used with scientific psychological theories (Zastrow, 1992).
- Mercier and Johnson (1984) are of the opinion that it sometimes lies in the personality of a person working with a theory or model to obtain success, not so much in the model itself. Their concern is that Bandler and Grinder might have had the correct personalities (dramatic, charismatic and self-confident) to make the model work, but it could be disastrous in the hands of the wrong people. Hall, Penaylillo, Bodenhamer and Kean (1997) are concerned about the fact that any person can become a NLP-practitioner. There are no standard criteria.
- Darling (1988) claims that when positive results are reached with NLP, it is over-emphasised.

Research in NLP

Current research on NLP is quite conflicting. Some researchers report positive results (Angell, 1996; Davis, 1990; Graunke & Roberts, 1985), but others could find no positive evidence for the validity of the techniques and concepts that were tested (Fromme & Danielle, 1984; Sharpley, 1987).

It is important to note the following aspects of NLP which could make it difficult to evaluate as a quantitive study:

- NLP works with the individual and his subjective experience and subjective perception, not predictions.
- The NLP model is based on the client being able to overcome his own self-perceived problem and for him to be guided in terms of his own experience to move from a present state to a desired state. NLP's efficacy is a client judgment rather than a clinical judgment (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999).
- The methods of NLP should always be taught as a whole. Although the methods are introduced as separate units they all contribute to the outcome (Dilts, 1983). Goal setting, the belief system, self-talk, imagery and concentration methods are all interrelated.
- To be accepted academically, most research groups need to include a control group in a similar state as the research group, but does not receive the intervention or alternative treatment. The control group serves as the primary point of comparison for the effectiveness of the intervention and to test the null hypotheses, which provides an opportunity to assess the contribution of the intervention being researched. In NLP this is referred to as contrastive analysis where the state of either different individuals or the same individual under different circumstances is compared in order to identify the success of the intervention (Dilts & DeLozier, 2000).
- Robbins (in Sharpley, 1984) notes four problems when testing NLP. According to him experimenters are not sufficiently trained in NLP skills and techniques and there is no quality control. When one aspect is taken from the entire methodology, NLP seems to be unstable. It is a model of diagnosis, and the diagnosis is interwoven with the treatment.

A summary of research reviews

- Sharpley (1984) suggests little support and validity of the concept of Preferred Representational Systems (RPS) can be found in the literature.

- Einspruch and Forman (1985) state that although NLP is testable and verifiable, past research had many methodological problems. As a result it was concluded that NLP studies were unreliable. Problems in research were considered as methodological problems. There was unfamiliarity with NLP as an approach to therapy and the Meta-model, no consideration of the stimulus response associations, insufficient rapport building and logical mistakes (Thompson, 2005).

- Sharpley (1987) states that not all the criticism (outlined above) was reasonable and it resulted in an unnecessary dismissal of research in NLP.

- Von Bergen, Soper, Rosenthal, Wilkinson and Watkins (1997) show that NLP was abandoned by researchers in experimental psychology.

- Devilly (2005) made the point that NLP had disappeared from clinical psychology and academic research and only survives in the world of pseudo new-age pretence.

- Bandler dismisses the fact that psychological research methods would apply to NLP modelling. These projects are not verified by statistical methods.

- Dilts (1983a) states that research means to search again or to examine anew. It has three primary purposes: to discover, to validate or to refine the applications of new knowledge. It attempts to establish whether a pattern is accurate or whether an intervention is effective. A fundamental presupposition of NLP is that the map is not the territory. NLP will thus not look at proving that its own assertions are true, but rather whether the model is useful. Bandler and Grinder, the founders of NLP, were more interested in exploring and discovering new patterns. The result is that NLP often lacks credibility in the academic world.

Research may follow two paths. It may be designed to evaluate the *truthfulness* of the model's claim or it may be designed to evaluate the *usefulness* of the model. NLP is an outcome-orientated model and focuses on the usefulness of the model. Usefulness according to Dilts (1983a) is determined by the effectiveness of the intervention.

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Summary

The theoretical assumptive presuppositions were clarified in this chapter. The history foundations and the term NLP were explained. Some attention was given to the representational system, accessing cues, predicates and process words. The language model was explained with specific attention to the Meta-model and the Milton model. Beliefs, choice and change, logical levels, anchoring, goals and state management were described as part of the neurological level.

A brief overview with both positive and negative views of research in NLP was given. This leads to research the value of the NLP model in sport.

Chapter Four
The Ten Identified Skills

Introduction

Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP) interacts with the way every person thinks and experiences his world in his unique way. In NLP personal excellence is modelled and consistent patterns are identified. Through the NLP model and techniques the effective strategies of others can be incorporated into a person's life (McDermott & Jago, 2001).

In this chapter, a description of the ten skills, as modelled by elite athletes, will be presented. These skills were identified by Cooper and Goodenough (2007) through extensive research. The skills are not unique to NLP, but the techniques in achieving them are. First, a general background will describe each specific skill and how it presents itself in sport psychology. Second, an overview will be given on how it manifests itself in the NLP model and in sport.

Modelling excellence

Cooper and Goodenough (2007) researched modelling in South Africa using top athletes from different fields. They were (among others) Penny Heyns, Gary Kirsten, Shaun Pollock, Jonty Rhodes, Gary Player and Roland Schoeman. After conducting extensive interviews they identified skills that are essential for elite athletes to perform consistently on a regular basis. Their goal was to find common variables to build a model for others to use.

These ten skills were identified by Cooper and Goodenough (2007):

- performing from one's highest intention
- working hard

- setting goals
- trusting and inner knowing
- distinguishing between self-confidence and self-esteem
- dealing with setbacks
- managing anxiety and confidence
- using language effectively in self-talk and communication
- preparing mentally
- managing flow state.

These skills will be looked at separately, but no one skill is more important than the other – they are interrelated and form a whole.

Skill One: Performing from one's highest intention

Elite athletes can normally articulate the reason for their intense commitment to sport. For some it is an ardent desire to win, for others it is a spiritual journey (Cooper & Goodenough, 2007; Vernacchia, Mcguire, Reardon & Templin, 2000), but it can also be for a goal beyond that of winning – to prove a point. An example is the Comrades Marathon in 1981, when Bruce Fordyce ran the race with a black armband to make a stand for his belief in the dignity of all human beings (Cameron-Dow, 2001).

Performing from one's highest intention is to have a purpose and vision in life. It is unique to each person and gives meaning to the individual's life. This can be related to the logical levels of Dilts (1983a) and implies the highest, the spiritual level (O'Connor & Seymour, 1990).

It is the ability to align one's attention to one's intention, to do what one believes in and values; it gives meaning to the reason *why* a person does sport (Cooper & Goodenough, 2007).

According to McDermott and Jago (2001), there are four aspects to bear in mind when a person functions on a spiritual level. They are to:

- stop trying
- be present
- create a more spacious awareness
- allow an attitude of greatness

Stop trying

Trying involves tension and anxiety, which inhibits ease, creativity and flow. Too much trying can subdue a person's resourcefulness and create doubt. The thought process becomes distracted and split, quite the opposite of feeling integrated and whole, which is an important aspect of feeling spiritually alive (McDermott & Jago, 2001).

To illustrate this concept, O'Connor's (2001) theory on winning and losing can be explored. When the athlete concentrates on winning and tries to control a future outcome, he makes himself vulnerable and insecure. This could lead to self-doubt. When a person is detached from winning or losing, he frees himself to perform at his best.

If a person does not have to defend a title, he has nothing to lose and therefore he is free to win (O'Connor, 2001). The person can play without conscious effort and starts to play with unconscious elegance (McDermott & Jago, 2001).

Being present

Being present means that the person is connected with his experience and can process it without interrupting or distorting filters. When a person is not in the moment, he can become critical and judgmental and deny himself the spiritual experience (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999). Spiritual experience is found through engaging fully in life, even in the face of adversity (O'Connor & McDermott, 1996).

Being present can have a profound influence on the core aspects of sport-success, such as fitness, technical skills and mental skills (O'Connor, 2001).

Fitness is the ability of the body to perform work. It involves body strength, agility, speed, flexibility and endurance. The *technical* component in sport refers to mechanics and skill execution. This is achieved through many hours of practice and repetition in order to become unconscious competent. *Mental skills* involve all aspects of a person's sport. It involves preparation (training) pre-performance, performance issues and the way a person thinks after the match. It defines the state of mind a person is in. All these aspects are interlinked, but the governor is the mind as it dramatically affects the physical, technical and tactical performance.

Mental skills are built on three core aspects. They are concentration, emotional balance and will (O'Connor, 2001):

Concentration means being in the moment. All internal and external distractions are eliminated. *Emotional balance* refers to the balance between the physical and emotional level. Too much effort wastes energy and could lead to a stressful state, but too little involvement could lead to loss of concentration. *Will* is the strength of purpose and the intensity with which a person can channel his mental and physical energy.

Behaviour concerning these aspects will be aligned to the person's highest intention; it forms the smaller steps that lead to his ultimate goal (Alder & Morris, 1996; O'Connor, 2001).

Create a more spacious awareness
According to McDermott and Jago (2001), awareness is a key element in enriching the spiritual life.

Awareness on the sports field involves being aware of the opponent and of the internal experiences of the self. Through acute awareness, the player can read feedback messages from his opponent and from his own internal experience. Awareness is the first step in identifying change strategies that one wishes to introduce in the sport (Jennings, 1993).

A person can start to question himself about the people he is with, the way he plays, the value of what he is doing and where it will lead. By answering these questions he puts his awareness on a higher level, and this creates an opportunity for choice and change (O'Connor & Mc Dermott, 1996).

An attitude of gratitude

Peak experiences normally bring an intense feeling of gratitude. It makes the person aware of his capability and he has the intense feeling of being alive or having an intense feeling of wonder (O'Connor & Mc Dermott, 1996).

Skill Two: Working hard

World-class athletes invariably have strong work ethics. They are determined to sacrifice extra hours in order to become the best. They have very definite goals and all these goals are geared towards his best performance. Discipline can also be seen in their social life, eating habits, sleeping patterns and enthusiasm about training (Cooper & Goodenough, 2007).

The highly committed athlete acknowledges as his own the responsibility for developing his career. His intensity at practices is always high and his involvement in developing himself as a sportsman is intense.

The skill of working hard is confirmed by a study done on the psychosocial characteristics of Olympic track and field athletes. They emphasised that hard work gives them confidence and a mental edge in competition. The body-mind connection could be trusted, resulting in peak performance (Vernacchia et al. 2000).

Reading the biographies of elite performers testifies to the intensity of training and discipline they endure on a daily basis. Some examples are Bruce Fordyce and long distance running (Cameron-Dow, 2001), Tiger Woods and golf (Woods & McDaniel, 1977), Lance Armstrong and cycling (Armstrong & Jenkins, 2003),

John McEnroe and tennis (McEnroe & Kaplan, 2002) and Michael Vaughan and cricket (Vaughan & Hardy, 2003).

NLP does not advocate working hard to be an essential skill in reaching the top, but Cooper and Goodenough (2007) claim it to be the most basic skill in all aspects of becoming an elite athlete. It was modelled by all those interviewed in their research.

Skill Three: Setting goals

A goal is something that a sportsperson wants. In other words, there is a distance between 'what is' and 'what can be'. There is a present state and a desired state. To maintain overall direction, every goal should contribute to a higher-level goal (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999; Cooper & Goodenough, 2007; O'Connor 2001).

Goal setting is the essential first step to improved performance. It is the setting of a mental discipline. When a person defines a goal, it accentuates where he is in the present and makes him aware of what the consequences will be once he has achieved his goal (Young, 2004).

O'Connor (2001) believes that goals have a number of benefits and outcomes. It measures progress, creates a challenge, motivates, increases focus and gives a sense of purpose.

Locke (1966, 1968) was one of the earliest researchers who focused on the effects of goal setting in management and organisational environments. He found that specific goals lead to higher performance compared to just doing your best. He also found that difficult goals lead to a higher level of task performance than easy goals. However, Weinberg, Fowler, Jackson, Bagnall and Bruya (1991) found that there are no significant performance differences between 'do your best goals' and specific 'difficult goals'.

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An investigation by Erez and Zidon (1984), shows that when goals are accepted, the relationship between difficulty and performance is positive and linear. However, when goals are not accepted, the relationship between difficulty and performance change to being negative. Stedry and Kay (1966) found that if a goal is perceived as difficult the effort will increase, but when the goal difficulty is too high, the effort will decrease.

Goals should therefore be difficult but realistic in order to produce maximum performance benefits as unrealistic goals will lead to reduced motivation and effort.

Types of goals

Outcome goals focus on the end result, for example winning. This type of goal can never be completely under a person's control and always involves other people (Harris & Harris, 1984; Hodge, 1994). A winning goal (outcome goal) can be devastating when a person does not win, therefore every losing effort should contain some goal success (Harris & Harris, 1984).

Performance goals specify an end product achieved by the performer, independent of others. Roberts (1992) argues that outcome goals have great motivational value in the short term, but ultimately these goals are likely to lead performers to drop out of sport. It was also found that outcome goals, rather than performance goals, are associated with higher levels of state anxiety (Burton, Naylor & Holliday, 2001).

Process goals relate to what a person will focus on during a contest. This means staying in the here-and-now (Goldberg, 1997). A study done by Kingston and Hardy (1994) showed that golfers who use process-orientated goals were able to concentrate better, have increased self-efficacy and better long-term results.

NLP describes goals setting as moving from the present to the desired state. When a person strives to reach his goal, motivation is created and behaviour activated to achieve the desired state.

Table 4:1. Moving from the present to the desired state

Maximum potential

Present state	**Desired state**	**Robust desired state**
On the bench	Participating	Man of the match

Behaviour Thoughts Feelings	Behaviour Thoughts Feelings	Behaviour Thoughts Feelings
Negative	Positive	Looking forward to every challenge

Problem

Actions to solve the problem
(using resources)
Strength
Mental toughness
Speed
Fitness
Endurance, etc.
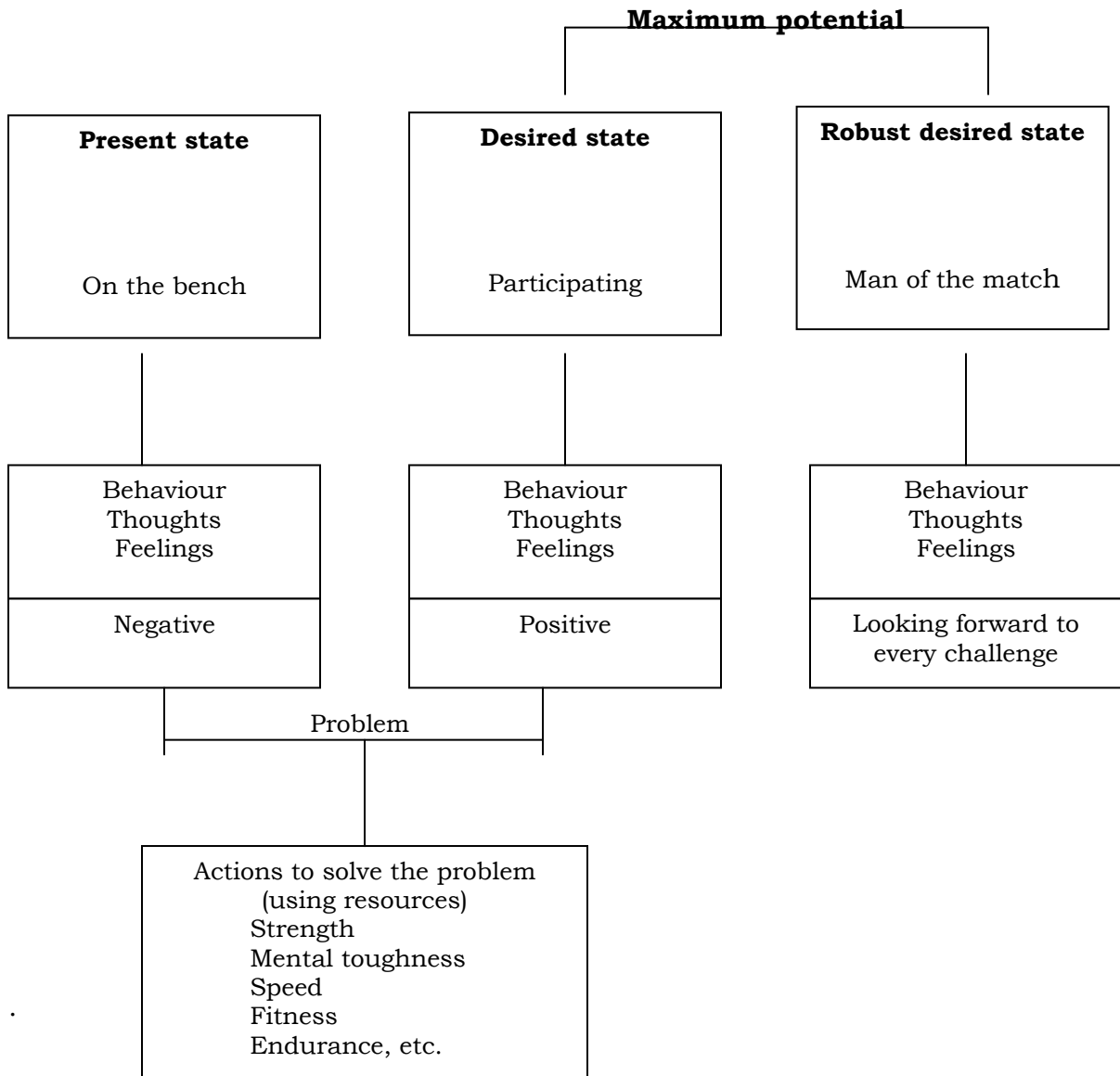
Table 4:1 illustrates goal setting as moving from the present state to the desired state. It involves behaviour, thoughts and feelings as well as action plans to reach the desired state. Once the desired state is identified, there is a shift in the mind-set from negative to positive. The person also starts looking forward to

the actual challenge as he has worked on his action plans and feels more confident in himself as a player. His maximum potential can be fulfilled and he can reach his robust desired state.

Conditions for setting goals

Although these conditions are not specific to NLP, they are embraced by the model.

The outcome of the goal must be specific

A goal should be stated in terms of something specific that a person wants to move towards, rather than something he wants to avoid (Garratt, 1999; Hall, 2007).

The outcome needs to be tangible and measurable. When it is stated too vaguely, the sportsperson will not take responsibility for his goals (Garrat, 1999). O'Connor (2001) claims that it is important to state a goal in the active voice and each goal should start with 'I'.

When the goal is specific, the mind works like a computer and can comprehend exactly what must be done (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982; Millman, 1999).

Goals should be stated positively

The language used when defining goals is very important (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999; O'Connor, 2001). O'Connor (2001) sees negative language as 'exclusive language' as it excludes possibilities.

A goal stated positively gives direction towards the desired state. A study done by Dugdale and Ecklund (2002) show that when a person is told not to think of something, the task is almost impossible and the negative thought remains the point of focus.

Goals should be measurable

A goal that is measurable makes it easy to evaluate a person's success. Specific goals must be task or skill specific.

A poor goal would be "I want to get lots of runs" compared to a specific goal "I play every ball on merit". The result would be intense focus and probably more runs, as the person will be focused in the here-and-now (Miller, 1997; Orlick, 1998).

When it comes to psychological aspects, a person must rely on his subjective experience. A person's own feeling about reaching the goal is a valuable measure of success (O'Connor, 2001). Measurement could be done in relation to oneself or in relation to others.
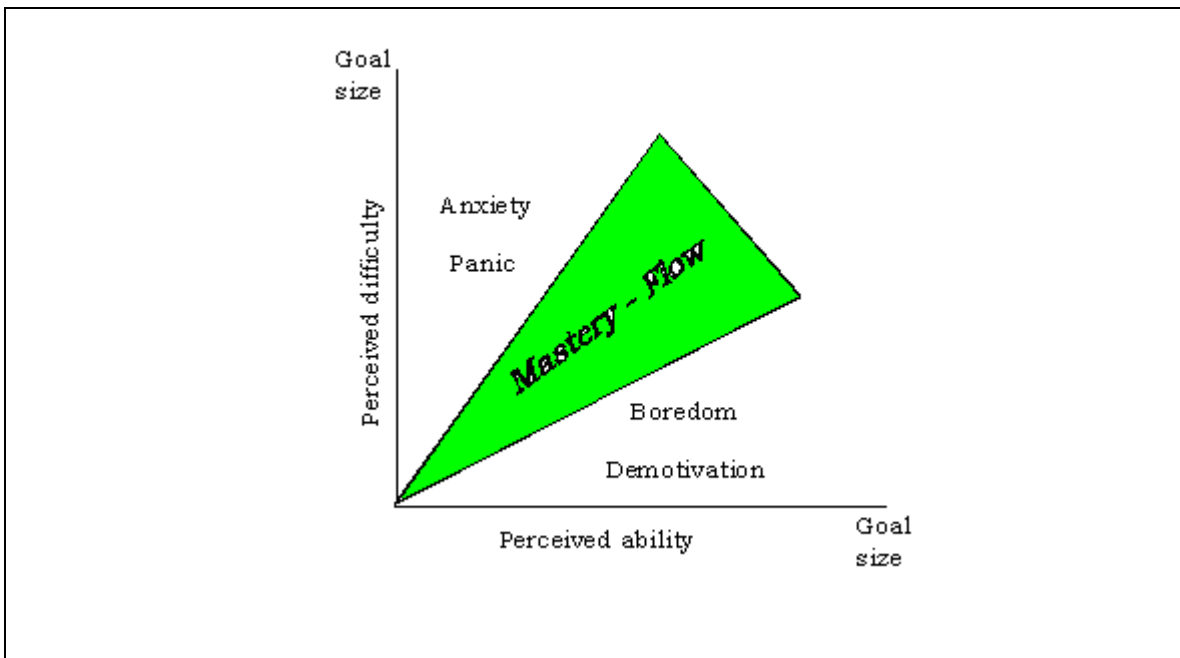
Figure 4:1. Relationship between perceived difficulty and perceived ability in goal setting
(Alder & Morris, 1996:57)

Fig 4:1 illustrates that a goal which is set too ambitiously can be devastating (Alder & Morris, 1996). This is a goal that has to be achieved regardless of injury, illness, potential or talent. But a goal that is too easily achieved could also detract from motivation and lead to boredom. Considering the size of the goal is important. The size of the goal is unique to each individual as it involves perception (Alder & Morris, 1996; Hodge, 1994).

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Goals should be challenging and realistic

A person should identify key areas where he wants to improve. Once a long-term goal is set, short-term sub-goals must be identified and each of these should have an action plan (Hodge, 1994). This makes a goal challenging, yet realistic. Possible problem areas can be identified and goals can be set to overcome these potential pitfalls (O'Connor, 2001).

Goals should be time-based

A goal must have a deadline so that a person can pace himself. There must be a distinction between an objective and a time-based goal. An objective lies on a continuum. A goal is a point on the objective continuum, that is, a specific target or behaviour that is achieved or not.
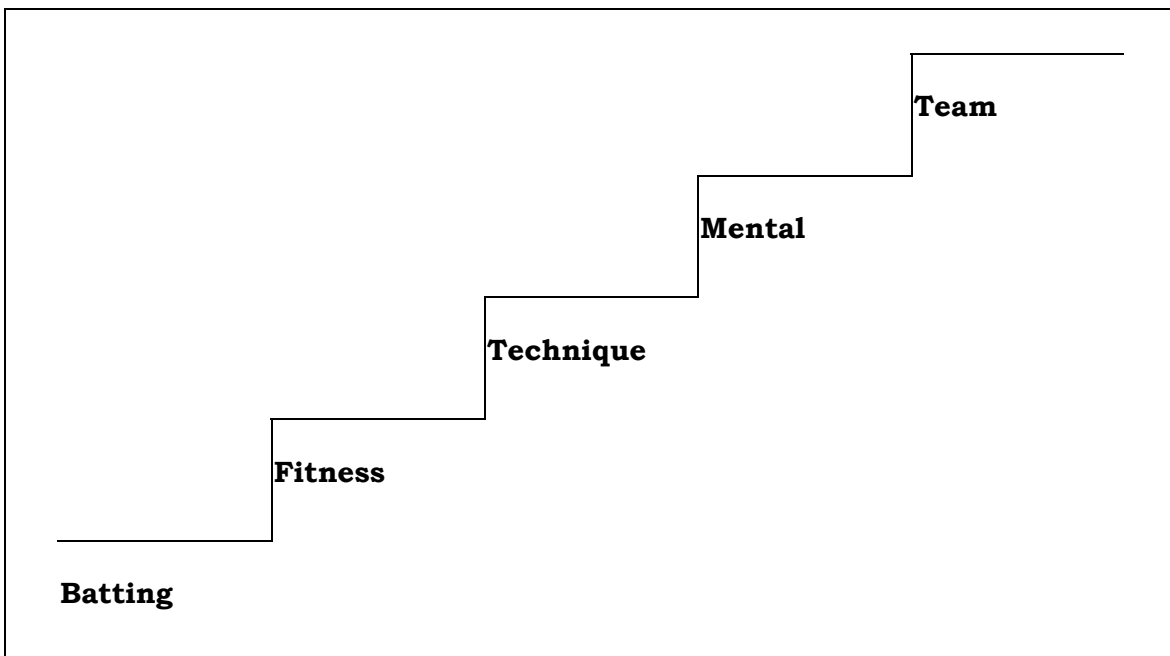
Figure 4:2. Goal setting staircase

This relates directly to long-term and short-term goals. A long-term goal relates to a dream (the desired state) and the short-term goal reflects how to get there (action plans).

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Figure 4:2 reflects long-term goals that are objectives on a continuum. These are all aspects of the game that need improvement to become a better cricket player, from the present state to the desired state.

Goal setting is a process that continuously changes. Once a goal is achieved, another goal can take its place. The action plan changes on a regular basis.

The player takes responsibility for his own shortcomings and develops his own action plan to improve as is illustrated in Figure 4:3. Goals are then under the person's control and ownership – two very important aspects when it comes to goal setting (O'Connor, 2001; Orlick, 1998; Young, 2004).

				Team
			Mental	Keep calm under difficult
		Technique	Alert at non-batting end	circumstances
	Fitness	Keep head still		Portray self-confidence
	Run 2km every day		Self confidence	
Batting		Move left foot		
Present ability	Do gym	Lift elbow	Handle one ball at a time	Act as a role model
(20 runs average)	workout 3 x per week			
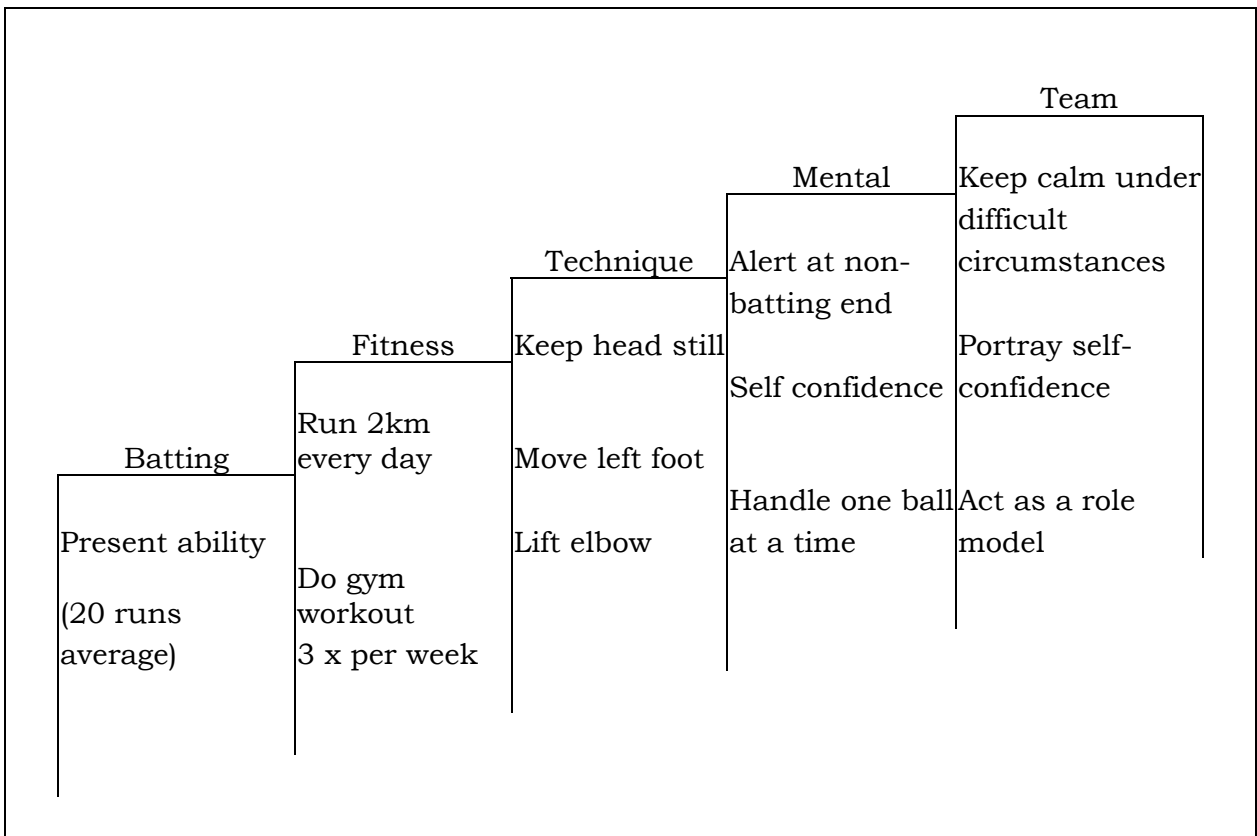
Figure 4:3. Action plan

Resources in goal setting

A person needs appropriate resources to reach his goal. These resources can be internal or external. Internal aspects are specific skills, a positive state of mind or talent. External resources are friends, coaches, team-mates, a model in sports or motivational books (Alder & Morris, 1996; O'Connor & Seymour, 1990). Resources can also be obtained when reaching a goal, as the qualities and improvement in one area can affect another area (O'Connor & Seymour, 1990; O'Connor, 2001).

Ecology in goal setting

Every person who wants to achieve a goal has to sacrifice some areas to gain others.

Aspects that a person needs to consider are (O'Connor, 2001; Young, 2004):

- Is the outcome in keeping with the self?
- Will the outcome enhance the sense of who the person is?
- Is the outcome ethical?
- Is the outcome fun?
- What will the benefits of achieving this outcome be?
- Is it worth the time it is going to take?

Beliefs within goal setting

O'Connor (2001) states that the three key aspects to achieving one's goals are the following:

Possibility: A self-imposed mental ceiling is normally created in the mind as one has limited beliefs about oneself. These are seen as self-imposed boundaries (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982; O'Connor, 2001). A person will never know what his limits are until they are reached. One of the most well known limited beliefs was that the mile could not be run under four minutes. However, when Roger Bannister broke the four-minute mile, a self-imposed mental block was lifted

from world athletics and others also broke the 'impossible' record (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982; O'Connor, 2001).

Ability: A person will achieve a goal if he thinks he is capable of doing it, that is if he believes that he has the inner resources to achieve it. In this case it is important to listen to one's self-talk. When a person says 'I can't score hundred runs', change it to 'I can't score hundred runs, yet'. If the belief of the person's ability is not changed, the negative statement will start to form a neural pathway in the brain and the body will live up to it (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982).

Worthiness: A person will only feel that he is allowed to achieve a goal if he feels that he is worth it (O'Connor, 2001). Obstacles to worthiness could be when a person uses performance-enhancing drugs and performs above his ability or a batsman gets himself out because he believes more in the other player's ability than his own.

Neurological levels

Obstacles in attaining a goal must be measured according to the neurological levels (Dilts, 1983a; Garrat, 1999). These neurological levels, as demonstrated in Table 4:2, help individuals and teams to align their environment, behaviour, competencies, values, identity and purpose. It challenges them to consider a higher purpose, whether in their work, family, social or spiritual life, in which they make a contribution outside the daily demands of life.

Table 4:2. Neurological levels
(Dilts, 1983a, Garrat, 1999)

Neurological level	Objectives	Example
The environment **Where?**	The person blames his environment, his school, financial situation or other aspects for his failure	'I do not have the right coach' 'I do not have the right facilities' 'I do not have extra time to train'
Behaviour and skills **What?**	The person thinks that he doesn't have what it takes on a psychological and physical	'I do not have the mental skills' 'I do not have ball skills'

	level	
Capabilities **How?**	I do not have the skills and knowledge to develop	'I cannot motivate myself'
Beliefs and values **Why?**	The sporting goal is not important enough and the person does not feel comfortable with it and finds many reasons to fail	'I've had enough of this game. Someone else can win it for the team'
Identity **Who?**	The person sees himself as who he is and what he wants	'I am not the sort of person who wants to become man of the match'

In a person's brain structure, language and perceptual systems, there are natural hierarchies or levels of experiences. When these levels are balanced they are congruent, when unbalanced, they are incongruent.

The effect of each level is to organise and control the information on the level below it. Changing higher levels will change the lower levels; changing something on a lower level could, but would not necessarily affect the upper level (Dilts, Dilts & Epstein, 1991). An example could be if a team beats another team (environmental level) but they do not actually see it as a reflection of their true skills (capabilities) then the improvement in performance will be difficult to maintain (Garrat, 1999).

Skill Four: Trusting and inner knowing

The belief a person has about himself plays a major role in how he will perform.

A person with natural talent, physical fitness and competent skills will not necessarily perform to his potential if he has a limited belief of his capability. Talent plays a role but it is not enough. According to Cohen and Breen (2007), it is not superior talent that separates champions from contenders but superior 'nerve'.

Trusting and inner knowing is embedded in a person's beliefs. Beliefs are not necessarily in the conscious mind (Goldberg, 1997; O'Connor, 2001), and

beliefs are not always rational, although most people act as though they are (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999).

Many self-limited boundaries, created by the sport itself and by the player in his mind, prevent the player from performing to his optimum (Bennett & Pravitz, 1982). It is very difficult to separate sportspeople at the highest level in terms of talent, training and technical competence. But, a big difference can be seen when looking at the mental aspect and the belief system.

A person with inner knowing of his abilities remains confident regardless of circumstances (Cohen & Breen, 2007). Too many sportsmen rely on others to give them positive feedback and deny themselves the 'inner knowing' that they can do well (Syer & Connolly, 1984).

An example could be a team that goes out to score four runs an over as part of their game plan even though they can perform better. It is a self-limited belief and creates a boundary in their minds. If they live up to it, they will achieve a limited score and fall into a comfort zone. One can only achieve what one's mind can conceive (O'Connor, 2001).

Trusting and inner knowing also refer to the player's sense of authority and whether it is inside him (an inner knowing) or outside him (in someone else's hands). This way of thinking is normally identified in the language a person uses (Hall, 2007).

The difference can be illustrated by the following example: "I know that is not how we were coached, but it was the right thing to do at that time" (inner knowing) compared to "My coach would not be pleased with me if I did that" (in someone else's hands).

Trusting and inner knowing are linked to permission and recognition. Permission refers to the player who feels he can make his own decisions and deviate from the game plan. Recognition is where the player will motivate

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himself and reward himself when he has done well (Cooper & Goodenough, 2007). When the athlete does not have inner knowing and trust, he will constantly look to others for feedback.

Skill Five: Distinguishing between self-confidence and self-esteem

Self-confidence is about what we do (*doing*), while self-esteem is about what we are (*being*). A person can be evaluated and criticised for his *doing* (performance, skills or behaviour), but never for his *being*, as it relates to his value and worth. A person's value and worth (his 'human-being-ness') are given to him at birth (Hall, 2007).

In Figure 4:4 the success cycle is demonstrated. It can be seen that positive self-talk is an essential aspect of the belief system. Because of positive self-talk, the player has increased self-confidence and therefore can approach the game with a relaxed state of mind, focused concentration and the result is an optimal peak experience.

Cohen and Breen (2007) state that the player who excels, has positive expectancy beliefs. He is a person who believes not only that a particular outcome is possible but also that he has the resources to achieve it. His behaviour will then support his beliefs. The player has the ability to block out distractions and disruptive negative thoughts and sees it as aspects on which he can improve (*doing*).

When a person can distinguish between his self-confidence and self-esteem it can lead to a positive belief in himself and the success cycle.
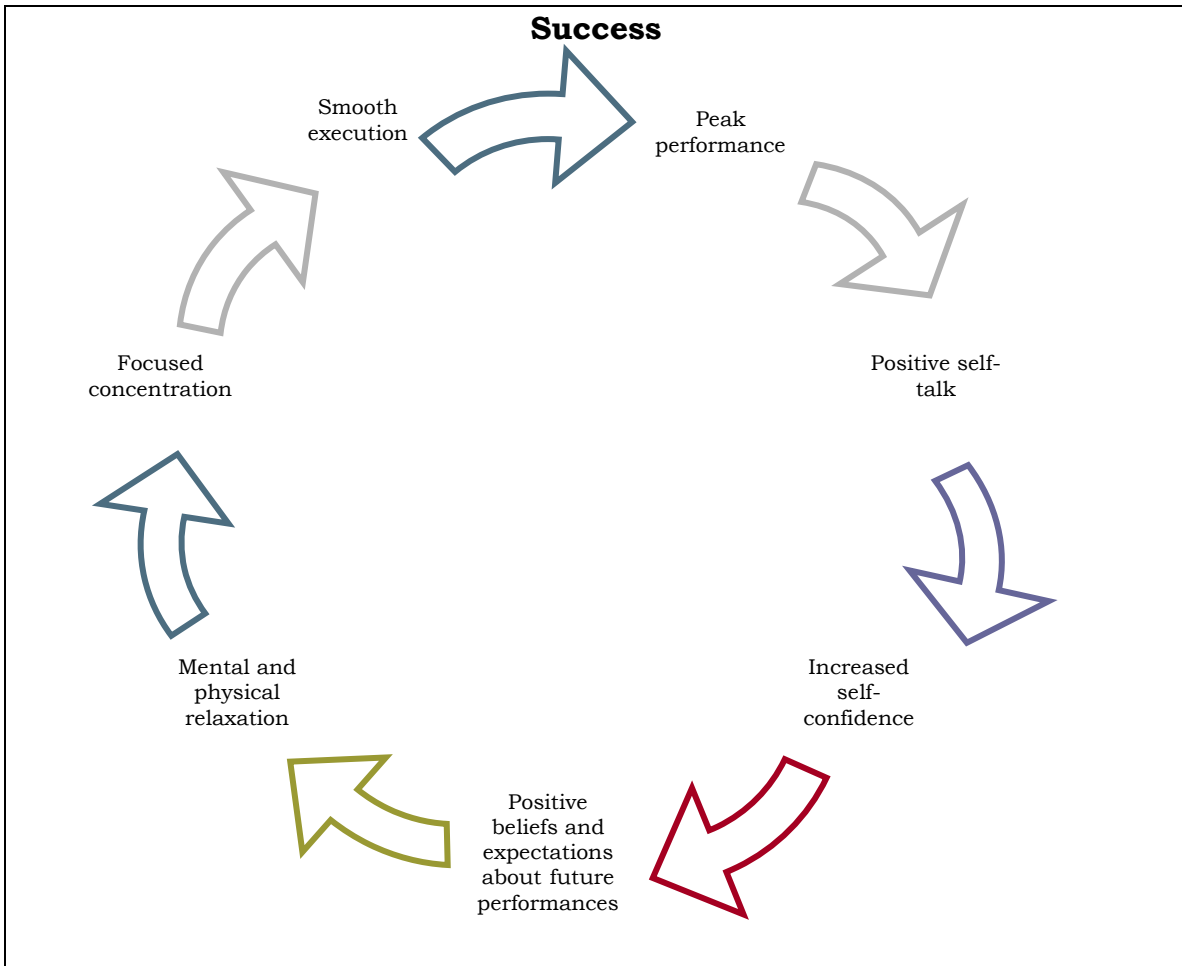
Figure 4:4. The success cycle

(Goldberg, 1997:103)

A problem arises when there is no distinction between self-confidence and self-esteem. When a person confuses his doing and being, it leads to the failure cycle, as is demonstrated in Figure 4:5.

A negative slump produces a lot of self-doubt, and this is the result of negative self-talk that leads to negative beliefs and expectations about the performance. The result is anxiety, disrupted concentration and tentative execution. The end result is poor performance and failure.

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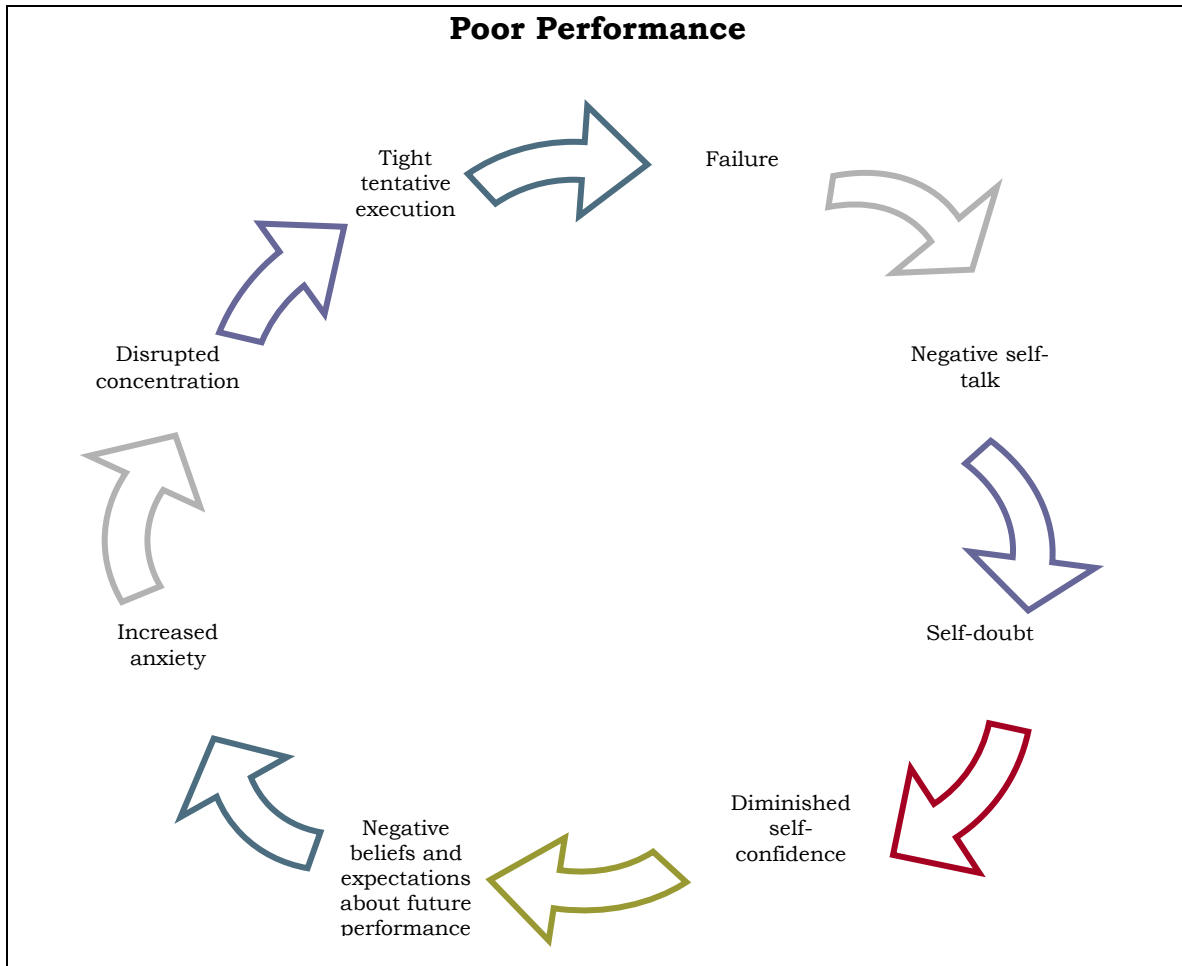
Figure 4:5. The failure cycle
(Goldberg, 1997:103)

Butler (1996) mentions the consequences of negative beliefs. They are:

- focusing on errors instead of success
- performing badly because of the expectation to perform badly
- trying to please others rather than focusing on execution
- becoming tense
- losing confidence

Goldberg (1997) states that when a person believes he can do something (*doing*), it has a direct effect on his behaviour. Beliefs can be broken down by changing experience, self-talk or action. Cohen and Breen (2007) found that it

is the athlete who can re-appraise his capabilities and generate positive thoughts who will be the winner. The mark of the professional athlete is that he believes he can always be better than the best and has the resources to overcome any obstacle (Cooper & Goodenough, 2007).

Skill Six: Dealing with setbacks

Dealing with setbacks (resilience) is seen as bouncing back from injury, disappointment or defeat. This links up with inner knowing and trusting and the distinction between self-confidence and self-esteem.

A player, who can deal with setbacks effectively, will realise that 'failure' is not about him as a person (*being*) but him as a player (*doing*). A player who feels that he is entitled to a certain position will complain about not being selected and will see it as unfairness. The player who has the inner knowing that he can reach the top will take defeat as a lesson to be learnt. He takes responsibility for his bad performance and sets goals that will allow him to get back into the team (Cooper & Goodenough, 2007).

Kruger (2002) notes that people who can deal with setbacks have a certain attitude, which is characterised by:

- *Never using the word "fail":* An outstanding discovery of a peak performer is that he sees failures as learning opportunities. The benefit of not seeing a defeat, injury or a bad game as a failure but rather a learning opportunity is that it opens up the mind for solutions.
- *Considering or assessing their own contribution:* The person considers what he could have done differently and questions himself in terms of how he can approach the game in future with the knowledge that he now has.
- *Contextualizing the event:* Peak performers put the event in the correct context in terms of time and space. Although the situation could be strenuous or painful in the here-and-now, the athlete knows the actual

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reward will be bigger than the temporary pain (Armstrong & Jenkins, 2003).

- *Looking at the situation objectively:* Dealing with setbacks means not giving up on the vision but reconsidering the map of the journey. Looking objectively at the situation, he sees it as a stepping-stone towards his end result. He pays attention to the content and puts it in a positive frame. It is the content of meaning that forms the frame of reference and influences the stance he takes about his experience.

- *Pursuing his intentions as they are valuable and worthwhile:* When things go badly, a peak performer stays positive. He does not see the event as a definition of his future competence or identity. When things go well, he lives in the expectation that this is what life is about. He sees it as proof that it is a worthwhile goal to pursue.

As in goal setting, dealing with setbacks can be connected to the *logical levels* (Dilts, 1983a). They are the spiritual, identity, beliefs and values, capabilities, behaviour and environment levels.

The questions what, who, why, how, when and where can be asked. Once these questions are answered the person can reflect on what level a change should be made. Once it is identified, the person's belief system can be changed (Dilts, 1983a; Garrat, 1999). In Table 4:3 the different logical levels are laid out.

Table 4:3. Logical levels and how they affect the belief system in sport

Level	What is it?	What question is asked?	What should change at this level for beliefs to change?
Spiritual	It shapes and guides a person's life - it is the fundamental level	**What** is my purpose?	What do I want to achieve with my sport and for what reason? Fun, school level, provincial level?
Identity	The sense of core,	**Who** am I?	Who am I without my

	values and missions		sporting achievements? What does it do to me as a person if I win or lose? Why is it so important to focus so much on my sport?
Beliefs and values	Ideas of life are seen as the truth and are used as a basis for daily action	**Why** am I doing certain things?	The beliefs should change from 'I always have to win', to "Taking part is a challenge' 'I must always be the best', to 'I always do my best" or 'I have to train everyday', to 'I train every day'
Capabilities	Sets of behaviour, general skills and strategies	**How** am I doing certain aspects?	Everyone cannot follow the same programme for training or competing. Each person is unique and should follow his own competing strategy. Negative self-talk must change to positive self-talk
Behaviour	Actions that we carry out	**What** am I doing?	Negative actions finds its beginnings in negative thoughts. If the behaviour or actions are negative, they should change to positive self-talk, the result will be positive actions
Environment	The way a person reacts to other people	**Where?** **When?**	A player who scored high but still lost the game, may have a distorted belief that he will never be good enough. The situation should be put into context and realistically evaluated

Skill Seven: Managing anxiety and confidence

Sports competition generally takes place under stressful situations. The ability to handle pressure is therefore crucial. Optimal performance requires calmness

and clarity of focus. It is the ability to have two contradicting states at the same time; a state of total awareness and a state of total relaxation. According to Orlick (1998), inner calmness sets the stage for pure clarity of focus.

Mahoney and Avener (1977) agree that most athletes experience some form of anxiety during performance. This is a natural state and shows the athlete's readiness. However, the ability to control and use it to their advantage distinguishes the elite athlete from the ordinary. Being relaxed during performance is a characteristic of peak performance, flow state or being in the zone (Thelwell & Maynard, 2002). According to Winter (1992), top athletes don't actually perform better under pressure than anyone else but they avoid letting the pressure build to the point where they lose control. Relaxation techniques can be used to balance anxiety and confidence.

Relaxation is stillness, quietness and peacefulness of mind and body. When a person is mentally relaxed, he is in control (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982). Relaxation techniques can be grouped into physical and mental techniques.

Physical relaxation
Relaxing the body
Relaxation is based on the concept of Jacobson's progressive muscular relaxation (PMR), which is a common form of relaxation in sport. Attention is focused on the gross muscle groups throughout the body by tensing and releasing the muscles.

Controlled breathing
Breathing happens of its own accord and one normally pays little attention to it. According to O'Connor (2001), breathing is one of the most powerful ways of changing one's energy levels.

When breathing is shallow, there is sufficient carbon dioxide, but insufficient oxygen. This leads to a biochemical reaction and a heightened feeling of anxiety.

It could lead to tiredness, tense muscles and a feeling of being out of control (Taylor & Wilson, 2002).

Excitement and anxiety are feelings that are very similar. Both bring readiness to meet the unexpected – excitement in a positive way, anxiety in a negative way. The difference between the two will be found in the breathing pattern (O'Connor, 2001).

Mental relaxation

Mental relaxation brings calmness to the conscious mind, which is the thinking, analyzing, criticizing and reasoning part of the mind (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982). Relaxation is not a hypnotic trance. It is stillness, quietness and inner peace where the person is awake and in control (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982; O'Connor, 2001).

Bennet and Pravitz (1982) give three reasons why it is important to quieten the mind. The first is for creating a climate to programme the subconcoius to think effectively in sport. The second is for mental maintenance and repair. The third is for creative thinking and problem solving through the subconcoius mind. The relaxed sportsman trusts himself in every situation, shows inner calmness and has a clear mind to make the right decisions (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982; O'Connor, 2001).

When stressed, the body undergoes spontaneous changes as it gets ready for the fight or flight response (Millman, 1999). Muscle tone and the breathing pattern change and hormonal secretions occur. These changes happen naturally, therefore it is important to work at increasing body awareness (Jennings, 1993; O'Connor, 2001). However, when the anxiety levels become too high, a person can experience tunnel vision, a cluttered mind or a feeling of intense tiredness (Wann, 1997).

High anxiety levels also have a psychological effect. An athlete's concentration levels are affected, self-doubt can creep in and uncertainty as to whether the

normal execution of skills can be performed (Vernacchia et al. 2000). This leads to a drop in confidence levels. After the match, stress levels should return to normal. It is when there are prolonged feelings of anxiety that an emotional staleness can be experienced and optimal functioning of the body can deteriorate (Raedeke, 1997).

According to Jennings (1993), the following signs are evident in a sportsman with a high anxiety level:

Perceptual change: Information takes longer to assimilate under stress, therefore a cricket ball 'can not be seen' by the batsman due to emotional changes in the player. This affects perceptual change.

Rushing: A person seems rushed for time. He plays quicker, hits the ball harder than normal and rushes through the innings. There is less fluency of movement and movements are quick and jerky.

Disturbed balance: Both mind and body lose balance. Physical centeredness is vital for the execution of complex actions in space; the execution of a simple skill becomes awkward and extremely difficult.

Task irrelevant focus: The athlete starts to focus on irrelevant aspects and not on the task at hand. This can be externally or internally directed. Externally, the person focuses on things that are uncontrollable, such as the crowds, umpires or the climate. Internally, he loses focus and self-doubt grows.

Poor decision-making: Flexible thinking is taken away from the athlete. He continuously executes the same wrong shot and does not learn from his mistakes.

Figure 4:6 illustrates that a person who does not trust himself moves into a downward spiral as the pressure increases. Self-doubt creeps in and concentration is affected. This enhances self-doubt, which immediately leads to

lowered performance, lowered self-confidence and eventually the person does not achieve his goals.
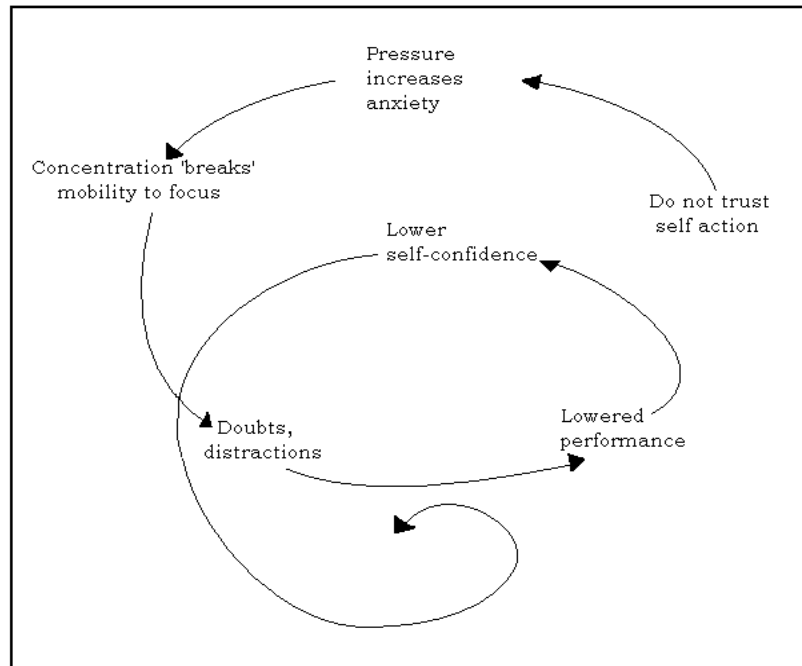
Figure 4:6. Downward spiral of performance
(Jennings, 1993:149)

Theories of arousal and relaxation in sport

There are theories that explain the relationship between arousal and relaxation. These theories also involve techniques to control arousal.

Here are some of the theories:

The Inverted-U hypothesis: The work of Yerkes and Dodson on animals in 1908 led to the inverted-U hypothesis. They looked at the relationship between intensity and performance. The essence of this theory is that tasks with higher cognitive demands require lower levels of arousal. As arousal gets to a state of extremes, with a comatose state at the one end and a panic state at the other,

performance will decline. The result is a curvilinear relationship between arousal and performance, which resembles an inverted-U. This hypothesis has been supported by Fenz and Epstein (1967) and Kauss (1990).

Jones (1990) does not support the inverted U-hypothesis. He questions the predicted shape of the arousal-performance curve. He argues that once optimal performance has been achieved, further increases in arousal would produce a sharp drop in performance rather than a more gradual performance decline, and this does not reflect a typical U-shape.

An individual zone of optimal functional model (IZOF). The individual concept of optimal zones was developed by Hanin (Taylor & Wilson, 2002). According to the individual zones of optimal functioning (IZOF) model, an athlete's performance is successful when his pre-competition anxiety is within or near the individual's optimal zone. When anxiety falls outside the optimal zone, performance deteriorates. The model also suggests that skilled athletes are aware of, and are able to accurately recall and anticipate their pre-competition anxiety (Davis & Cox, 2002).

This theory appeals to many psychologists, as it allows for individual differences and could be used to compare players in terms of their optimal arousal levels.

Reversal theory: Kerr (1990) proposed a different perspective, which is associated with the inconsistencies of motivation, emotion and cognition. The reversal theory infers that to understand the performance implications of arousal, an individual's arousal state must be considered. High and low levels of anxiety can be seen as both positive and negative experiences, depending on the situation. The high level of arousal can be seen as anxiety or excitement, whereas the low levels can be interpreted as relaxation or boredom.

The hardy personality theory: People with hardy personalities are firmly set in their belief that they can control the results. They see demands as a challenge to further development. This theory sees the effects of stress and anxiety in

competitive pressure as a challenge (Kobasa, 1979). The following three traits are evident in hardy personalities:

The person is *committed* to everything he does. The person has a clear sense of personal values, and distinctive goals and capabilities of commitment to himself (Kobasa, 1979; O'Connor, 2001). This idea fits in with the logical levels of Dilts (1983a). The critical elements in seeing competition as a challenge lie in a person's beliefs and identity.

If the challenge is in conflict with the sportsman's identity, anxiety and insecurity builds up. But when the person is confident about the challenge, it is in keeping with the sense of self and can be affirming and energizing, and enthusiasm is sparked (McDermott & Jago, 2001).

Commitment also fits in with the logical level of beliefs, that is, how the mind defines competition. If the emphasis is on winning and the focus is on the end result and not on the process, inner doubt will create anxiety; not only before the game but also while participating. The internal feeling might be one of inadequacy (O'Connor, 2001; Jennings, 1993).

Control is a belief in one's ability to influence the outcome of events. According to Kobasa (1979), there are three types of control:

- *Decision control* refers to choosing between various courses of action. This fits in with the NLP model in terms of goal setting, the present state and the desired state. Different action plans are set up to achieve the desired state (Molden, 2007; O'Connor & Seymour, 1990). These well-formed outcomes must always be positively expressed (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982; Molden, 2007).
- The fact that a person can choose between various possibilities ties the hardy personality to *cognitive control*. The person can control his ability and develop skills to cope with stressful situations. Molden (2007) states

that the person decides beforehand whether he has the resources to achieve his goals.

- Through *imagery control,* positive self-talk, reprogramming the mind and positive behaviour towards the desired state, goals are reached (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982; McDermott & Jago, 2001).

The third aspect of the hardy personality is that *the player sees changes or demands in his sport as beneficial to his development* exciting and a challenge. Molden (2007) states that a person should use the visual modality as it guides the unconscious towards the set outcomes.

The hardy personality theory is different from the conventional arousal-relaxation model, as it copes with stress internally. As Jennings (1993) points out, mental toughness (being committed to your goal) needs internal calmness (control) with increased determination (seeing the match as a challenge). As a result, change can take place and the person learns how to cope with a stressful situation through a different belief system.

Relaxation and the Milton model

In NLP the Milton model is used for managing anxiety and confidence. Cooper and Goodenough (2007) see the two body-mind states of anxiety and confidence as an axis of polarity. When anxiety is too high, the muscles in the body become tense and the normal execution of a movement is restricted. But when confidence is overblown the opponent can be underestimated. Low anxiety levels can induce a state where the athlete becomes inaccurate. The ideal situation is where anxiety and confidence are balanced to allow for the body to be energised and the senses heightened.

It is essential that anxiety and confidence should be in a balanced state. This can be accomplished by using the Milton model and relaxation. When the person is in a trance state, certain suggestions can be made in terms of controlling the anxiety state and building confidence. Hypnosis is a form of intense concentration – a shift of consciousness.

Trance involves the following:

- A deep state of relaxation, comfort, focus and control
- The therapist can communicate ideas as the client is in a receptive state
- The critical and argumentative conscious is moved out of the mind
- Therapeutic metaphors are used by the client in terms of their own experience (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982)

Bodenhamer and Hall (1999) refer to hypnosis as being asleep to the outside world because all focus is towards the inside. The focus can be on a memory, idea, thought or feeling. Although the person looks asleep to the outside world, he is more alive and more in control of himself than ever.

The language used in the Milton model is intentionally used for the client to fill in the missing pieces. The client's unconscious mind activates an internal search, thus the language pattern facilitates the trance (O'Connor & Seymour, 1990).

The therapist makes use of natural derivational search (NDS) transitioning processes. This means using language and stored logic such as learning, history and experiences to make sense of his world (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999; O'Connor & Seymour, 1990).

A *metaphor* means transferring a message to another person's mind. The listener interprets the story but through his own mental framework. The term 'metaphor' comes from the Greek word *metapherein*, meaning to carry over or transfer (Esparza, 2001).

The story or metaphor can also be used on different levels. The story occupies the conscious mind but the meaning goes deeper into the unconscious mind and connections are made unconsciously. A metaphor is not at all threatening. It bypasses the conscious and allows the unconscious mind to receive the deeper meaning of the story (Lawley & Tompkins, 2003).

The story has three major components (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999).

- *Trans-derivational services* refers to the Neuro-Linguistic process where a person hears certain symbols, e.g. words and language. He then makes meaning of it by accessing his own memory bank. Language always exists meta to experience. When a person describes an experience, he moves from the actual experience to its description. The experience exists as an internal mental representation. The language only works when the meaningfulness of the words triggers the person to see, hear and feel, thus sensory-based representations must be evoked inside the person. Language operates metaphorically. The story that is told makes an unconscious trans-derivational service and connects the metaphor to the person's model of his world.
- *Displacing referential indexes* means that the listener hears a story within his own experience of reality. The story, which is fantasy, is placed at some level of reality with which the listener identifies (Dilts, 1983a).
- A story always involves *symbolism*. A symbol refers to any object that becomes an anchor for selected responses. According to Esparza (2001), a symbol is the smallest unit of metaphor consisting of a single object, image or word representing the essence of the quality it stands for.

These referential index shifts occur all the time, at both conscious and unconscious levels. One gets entranced by the story and all aspects of the story get a different meaning. Metaphors are used as tools for transformation and are very successful in therapy because they bypass the conscious mind (Esparza, 2001).

An *isomorphic* structure is that component that drives us to share similar structures in our lives through a familiar story, event, animal or object. The story becomes meaningful through these characters, events and emotions but must relate to the person's needs (Dilts, 1983; Zeig, 1982). The brain

incorporates information about behaviour from one class to another similar class (Dilts, 1983; Lawley & Tompkins, 2003; Zeig, 1982).

Skill Eight: Using language effectively in self-talk and communication

Self-talk may be defined as the internal dialogue that a person has with himself. The frequency of self-talk develops a mind-set within which the athlete performs (Bunker, Williams & Zissner, 1993).

Self-talk in sport affects behaviour and should be rational and positive. When self-talk is used to restructure cognitions and to alter irrational thoughts, it can be referred to as positive self-talk. Irrational thoughts can lead to catastrophic ideas. A person can try to be perfect in every game but as this is almost impossible; his self-worth can be negatively affected through negative self-talk (Bunker & Williams, 1986).

According to Bunker et al., (1993), what athletes think or say is critical to performance. Although a person spends many hours talking to himself, most of the time he is not aware of the content. This could be derogatory in terms of the effect on feelings and actions. Hackfort and Schwenkmezger, (1993) support this idea and state that behaviour can be modified by means of external and internal talk.

Research has found varying evidence of self-talk. Although Mahoney and Avener (1977) found that the nature of self-talk had an effect on sports performance, Rotella, Gansneder, Ojala and Billing (1980) argue that there was no difference in the results of positive or negative self-talk amongst skiers.

The following aspects of self-talk have been established through self-statements. It can:

- be self-defeating and have a negative effect upon performance (Rotella et al.1980)

- be used to trigger desired states and actions more effectively (Silva, 1982)
- be used to provide self-reward (Deci & Ryan, 1985)
- modify mood (Hardy & Fazey, 1990)
- control attention (Schmid & Peper, 1993)

Self-talk has an influence on the belief system. Changing self-talk begins with awareness. It is a strong force which could lead to positive results in sport, as many of the most important messages come from inner conversations with oneself and not from others (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982).

A negative belief can be changed to a positive belief. An athlete who believes what he does is helpful, whether or not it is true, will get maximum response (Girodo & Wood, 1979). Positive self-talk also enhances the ability to cope with stress before an important competition (Girodo & Roehl, 1980; Goldberg, 1997).

Neuro-scientists have estimated that ten thousand thoughts go through one's mind each day, and they are all recorded, never to be lost. This retention of memory could have a huge effect on a person's behaviour (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999). It cannot be said that positive self-talk will automatically lead to a good performance and negative self-talk to a bad one. It is important to identify where this self-talk stems from, which is at the core of a person's being-his belief. The result of the thought process interrelates with the approach to the upcoming competition. If a person believes he performed poorly in a previous match and does not re-programme his mind, he will enter the next contest with a negative mind-set.

Beliefs are etched into our brains by neural pathways. Incoming information follows these pathways; therefore if limiting beliefs need to be changed, the negative neural track must be changed. One such a strategy is the use of positive self-talk by means of affirmations (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982). Through affirmations it is possible to re-programme the mind. An affirmation is a statement of a person's goal that will deepen the commitment and keep the mind focused on it (O'Connor, 2001). Affirmations are a positive way of

strengthening the skills, abilities, training and preparation for an athlete. When positive affirmations are repeated it becomes part of the subconscious and influences the player positively (Bull et al., 1996).

In NLP, internal dialogue is seen as either a potent distraction or a positive asset. These internal voices or thoughts could be the result of thoughts (inside) or distractions (outside). The player who says things on the field, is not a distraction, but paying attention to him is, or the *thoughts* about him are.

Negative self-talk can cause the following effect. It can:

- erode self-confidence
- prevent a person from 'getting into the zone'
- increase the perception of stress. Seligman (2007) found that teams who were more optimistic, created more synergy in contrast with teams who were given false, poor results. They were prone to poor performance.
- lead to self-limitations. A person who says he can't, limits himself as the subconscious believes this and the person lives up to it (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982).
- hamper thinking. When a person has too many thoughts, he tends to stop looking for solutions. A person should never ask 'can something be done?' but rather, '*how can something be done?*' (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982).

Words function in one's consciousness as a map of reality. If words correspond to the territory they represent, it is an accurate map. When they represent a distorted map, significant parts are left out (deletions), over-generalised (generalisations) or completely wrong information is given (distortions). The result is a reality that is not accurate (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999).

When one thinks, it is nothing other than 'talking to oneself'. This talking can be negative, positive or self-destructive. It influences behaviour directly.

Therefore, engaging in positive self-talk can improve one's self-esteem and be a strong motivational force (Goldberg, 1997; Orlick, 2000).

It is essential that a person should be aware of what he continuously feeds his subconscious mind (McDermott & Jago, 2001). Self-talk can manifest itself in different ways.

The vocabulary that is used when a person talks to himself is very important. The result of *critical self-talk* is that the person feels that there is no alternative. Words like 'have to', 'must', 'should', 'shouldn't' and 'mustn't' are all critical words that lead to internal criticism (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982; O'Connor, 2001).

The unconscious mind does not process *negatives.* The player must always be cautious of what he says. For example, when a batsman faces the bowler and he says, "I hope he does not get me out", the brain processes "get me out"- a self-fulfilling prophecy (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982; O'Connor & Seymour, 1993).

According to O'Connor (2001), two things are wrong in the self-talk quotation. First, the inner voice is functioning at the wrong time (during a match) and second, it tells the person what might go wrong, thereby emphasizing what one should avoid. The focus is therefore on the negative instead of on the positive. The more one allows negative thoughts to invade one's life, the stronger their presence will become. Once they are entrenched in the mind, the body will create behaviour to support it.

The word 'try' always brings *extra tension.* According to O'Connor (2001) the word 'try' implies difficulty and that the action needs more effort. The unconscious part of the mind holds the secrets of automatic skills and that part of the brain does not need to 'try'. The mind and body must be allowed to do what it is capable of doing, without interference (Alder & Morris, 1996).

A person states the *metaphors* that he fears. The person is afraid that something might happen, or he remembers something that has happened in a

game. The metaphor then becomes part of his belief system. The language is taken literally and affects the thought process. This directly influences the body and muscles can tense or relax (O'Connor, 2001).

Table 4:4 illustrates how words can directly effect the body because of the body-mind connection. It is also interesting to see how a limiting metaphor can be counteracted through words and the reaction it has on the body – once again the Neuro-Linguistic connection.

Table 4:4. Examples of metaphors

Metaphor	Counteracting metaphor
I *choked*	Let me *breathe* slowly and relax
My game is *collapsing*	I am *pulling* myself together
I just *froze*	I *relax* as many muscles as possible
I just *lost* it	I am *looking* for opportunities

Skill Nine: Preparing mentally

As aspects of mental preparation, concentration and imagery will be described.

Concentration

Concentration is the ability to focus the mind on one source of information, often to the exclusion of others. Nideffer (1993) refers to concentration as that which one attends to.

A person concentrates all the time unless he is asleep. Concentration involves three dimentions (Winter, 1992):

- *direction:* On what is the person concentrating?
- *intensity:* Is the person concentrating fully?
- *duration:* How long is the concentration span?

O'Connor (2001, 89) states that one must not see concentration in the abstract but must ask the question: "How does one pay attention and to what?"

Attention comprises two parts. First, paying attention to some parts means deleting other parts from awareness. Second, a person pays attention to difference. When something changes, a person notices it.

Distractions can be external, for example, the weather, the pitch, the spectators; or internal, for example, thoughts, body tenseness, hopes and fears (Kauss, 1990; Moran, 2004). These distractions could lead to impaired concentration at the worst possible moments. This is normally characterised by negative self-talk, self-criticism and fearful thoughts (O'Connor, 2001; Orlick, 1998).

On the other hand, as Orlick (1998) points out, consistent control of what a person concentrates on can restore confidence and unlock peak performance. Concentration should be locked in the experience of what the person is doing. He should be in the zone where there is no conscious thinking and no analyzing (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982).

Concentration enhancement factors

The here-and-now rule

The player must be in the here-and-now in terms of time and place. There are three time zones that a person can be in when he practices and competes. These are the past, present (now) and the future.

When the person is in the past, his mind is figuratively behind the body and out of sync. By focusing on the future the mind is ahead of the body. The mental spotlight is thus shining ahead or behind and not on the task at hand, the present. According to Goldberg (1997), choking in sport is all about being in the wrong time zone. Peak performance involves paying attention to the process (the task at hand) and not on the outcome.

Concerning place, the question can be asked: "Where are you when you perform?" It is almost impossible to play at one's best performance when one is a spectator of the game in one's mind or when the person is distracted by internal thoughts. When a person feels intimidated by the opposition one literally feels 'out of place' and this has devastating effects. The psychological impact of the opponent can be minimised when one stays in place (Goldberg, 1997).

Specifying performance goals

Specifying performance goals can improve concentration skills. Performance goals encourage athletes to focus on task-relevant information and controllable actions for example, to play one ball at a time on merit. It was found that players gave their worst performance when they were occupied with result goals (Clarkson, 1999; Jackson & Roberts, 1992).

Using routines

A player, who uses the same focal points repeatedly, will contribute to his comfort and confidence, because anything familiar tends to neutralise anxiety (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982). Goldberg (1997) refers to controlling one's eyes and ears. In an unfamiliar stadium many things can be distracting, therefore it is important to get familiarised with the new venue and have focal points to concentrate on during play. The same applies to auditory cues. The player should only listen to sound-sections that make him content and calm and ready to perform.

Pre-performance routines help the athlete to focus on executing his actions instead of concentrating on his mechanics (Alder & Morris, 1996; Moran, 2004; O'Connor, 2001).

A good routine has, according to Goldberg (1997), the following advantages:

- It keeps the player focused in the here-and-now

- It keeps the mind off all the distractions and stressors
- It provides a systematic way to gradually narrow focus

Trigger words

Many players talk to themselves when they play. It could be to stay focused, to give instructions or to motivate themselves. Hodge (1994), Moran (2004) and Orlick (1998) are of the meaning that self-talk can enhance the player's performance as he consistently reminds himself what to focus on.

Concentration can be broken by distractions. A distraction is something that takes a person's attention away from the game at that moment (O'Connor, 2001). Wegner (1994) found that when a person tries to suppress a thought, the subconscious mind searches for any sign of the unwanted thought. The result is a pre-occupation with the thought especially when one is overloaded and under stress. Wegner (2002) found the same results with actions, e.g., the fielder thinks of not dropping the catch but that is exactly what happens. This finding was supported by Dugdale and Ecklund (2002) who found that when spectators were told not to focus on something, they did.

Concentration training exercises and techniques are widely mentioned but also criticised in literature. For example, the use of concentration grids or watching the oscillation of a pendulum appears to have little empirical backing (Moran, 2004). But simulations of competition situations, has proved to be an effective concentration exercise (Hodge, 1994; Millman 1999; O'Connor, 2001).

It is important to create the same intensity and emotions in training as in a stressed situation to handle the level of stress when competing. Yet, it was noted by elite athletes, that even though this strategy could be effective, the real contest stress-situation can never be replicated in practice (Clarkson, 1999).

The concentration grid for cricketers

Attention can be directed internally or externally. A person who directs his attention internally is normally locked in ideas and thoughts. The person whose

attention is directed externally, focuses on aspects outside of himself, on the environment. Although people could change from external to internal or *vice versa,* under stressful circumstances, they normally fall back on their preferred attentional style, even if it is inappropriate. Misunderstandings amongst team-mates or between player and coach can often be because of their attentional style (Griffiths, 1999).

Broad and narrow attention refers to how many things a person can focus on at the same time. Narrow attenders lock onto one thing , but broad attenders can see the whole scene. These are two very different attentional styles and misunderstandings can occur, as the people who are watching the same scene, are using different attentional styles (Griffiths, 1999).

In Tables 4:5 and 4:6 the difference in playing a game is demonstrated in broad external, broad internal, narrow external and narrow internal styles of playing.

Table 4:5. Concentration grid for cricketers

(Griffiths, 1999:78)

Broad External	Narrow external
• knows where the scoring opportunities are • knows where the catchers are • aware of wind direction, short boundaries… • good judge of a run • quick reactions • aware of who is bowling what (batsman) • aware of strengths / weaknesses of each batsman (bowler) • easily picks up slower ball, (batsman) knows when a fielder is out of position (captain)	• capable of fierce concentration on the ball batsman, wicket-keeper) or on target (bowler) • can bat / bowl for long periods without noticeable decline in performance

Broad Internal	Narrow internal
• good at analyzing the situation • prepared for any event • able to learn from mistakes • can coach oneself (on and off the field) • plans strategy effectively • different strategy for each ball (bowler) • different strategy for each batsman (bowler) • aware of the captain's strategy • aware of needs of other bowlers / batsmen aware of the state of the game	• can concentrate on routine without distraction • self-awareness (mind and body) • easily learns centering, relaxation, etc. and knows when to use them in a match • self-discipline evident. Probably works hard at training

In Table 4:5 almost all aspects of focusing that are needed during a game are covered. The elite player will fall into this category.

Table 4:6. Concentration error for cricketers
(Griffiths, 1999:79)

Broad-external	Narrow-external
• behaviour is externally controlled by what is happening rather than internally controlled by game plan, etc. • can be 'sucked in' by opponent's strategy • continues to make the same mistake • can be 'psyched out' by sledging or criticism • can be distracted by spectators, train, plane, etc. • too busy looking and reacting to the environment to think • may react without thinking	• sticks too much to basics, not enough 'flair' • plays too cautiously (batsman) • unaware of changes of strategy by opponents • insensitive of the needs of team-mates • insensitive to the state of the game
Broad-internal	**Narrow-internal**
• too many ideas at once • keeps changing strategy • may react too slowly • plans may be too complicated • thinks too much/over analyses • overloads team-mates with ideas	• mentally re-experiences mistakes • can't get ideas out of your mind • reacting more to your internal sensations ('I'm tired', 'My arm hurts') than to the ball • can get involved in a spiral of negative thoughts / declining performance / more negative thoughts

• the player is 'inside his head', thinking about what will happen instead of putting all his mental energy into playing the game • when immersed in thoughts, may not pick up the ball as early as usual (batsman) or bowling may be wildly inaccurate (bowler)	• can become so conscious of your own thoughts and feelings that you cannot function • typically 'tightens up' and plays conservatively after initial success. • getting caught up in a spiral of thoughts about things that don't really matter (sight-board, shoes, pads, gloves, hat, weather, umpiring decision, pain)

Table 4.6 explains how errors are made in concentration during a game.

Using anchors to enhance state of mind

O'Connor (2001) describes concentration in NLP as being a searchlight. Attention is the light source, while concentration is the lens one puts into the searchlight to focus. With correct attention one can choose where to search with the light. The technique used for concentration in NLP is called anchoring.

Anchoring involves the deliberate association of a stimulus and a specific experience to evoke internal resources and perceptions that are inherent in that experience. The important aspect here is to make the internal resources available at all times (Dilts et al. 1980).

Anchoring is based on the premise that people have all the resources they need for behavioural change. It is any representation that triggers another representation (Dilts et al., 1980). O'Connor and Seymour (1990) maintain a stimulus that triggers a physiological state is called an anchor. According to Dilts et al. (1980), it is similar to the stimulus-response concept utilised by behaviourists, yet differs from the stimulus-response concept as the anchor can be established even if it is not reinforced by an immediate outcome. These anchors can be established in any sensory modality. The response may be positive or negative and could be neutral and totally out of conscious awareness.

The behavioural psychologist sees all behaviour as a result of conditioned responses. In NLP, life is viewed as a combination of conditioned reflexes and anchors that can be chosen consciously (Dilts, 1983a; O'Connor & Seymour, 1990). Anchors are represented by visual, auditory, kinesthetic, olfactory and gustatory representational systems (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999).

Any experience in life can be taken and a new response can be created through choice. A person can decide in advance which state he wants to be in and can then replicate it at will, to meet the challenge (O'Connor & Seymour, 1990). This builds on resourcefulness within the person. A person who uses anchors is effective in changing his own and other people's behaviour.

The significance of the word 'anchor' should be mentioned. Just as an anchor keeps a ship from floating away, so 'anchor' in a psychological context means to stabilise a particular state.

In NLP, associative conditioning includes other aspects of environment cues and behavioural responses. A voice tone may become an anchor for confidence or excitement or a remembered picture may become an anchor for an internal feeling (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999).

According to Hall (2007), the following aspects need to be noted regarding state:

- a state is both mental and emotional, a body-mind experience
- state of mind, body and emotions are so interrelated they cannot be separated
- a person maps his world. It begins with his neurology and involves his linguistics and the way he sees himself in terms of words, symbols and metaphors
- a person who takes charge of his own map making or reality construction, lays the foundation for excellent state management.

Many players have a specific ritual in their sport that becomes an anchor. The batsman could go through a ritual of tapping the bat on the ground twice, taking a deep breath and then saying the word 'ball'. This anchor involves an external anchor (tapping the bat), breathing (kinesthetic) and using language as triggers.

Table 4:7. Concentration and anchors during batting and bowling
(O'Connor, 2001)

Critical point	Concentration required	Anchor
Batting: Facing the ball	Focus: Narrow Direction: Outward	Sound: Ball Visual: Pattern on the ball Feeling: Deep breath
Bowling	Focus: Narrow Direction: Outward	Sound: Spot! Visual: Looking at the area where he wants to bowl Feeling: Using the seam of the ball as an anchor
Fielding	Focus: Narrow Direction: Outward	Sound: Ready Visual: Watching the ball from the bowler to the batsman Feeling: Clapping hands

Table 4:7 shows when the batsman, bowler or fielder approaches his game in this way, he has stacked anchors and his concentration will be of a high level.

Imagery

Imagery can be defined as a process where sensory experiences are stored in one's memory. It can be recalled internally and performed in the absence of external stimuli (Murphy, 1994). Imagery involves the use of all senses namely sight, touch, taste, sound, smell and body awareness.

Washburn proposed mental practice as early as 1916. She stated that slight muscle movements were made when a person imagined himself doing a certain activity. This was supported by Jacobson who used electromyography. In 1934 Sackett found that physical practice was superior to mental practice, but mental practice was effective in enhancing performance (Janssen & Sheikh, 1994).

Imagery perspective refers to the difference between the feeling of 'being there' compared to 'watching' the game. Mahoney and Avener (1977) suggest that internal imagery is more helpful as it creates the real life experience and kinesthetic feedback. Hardy (1997) found that whether it is internal or external, the important thing is that it should be kinesthetic. This finding was supported by MacIntyre, Moran and Jennings (2002).

Moran (2004) claims that imagery has three aspects:

- It is a multi-sensory construct that enables us to recreate experiences that are vivid to the mind, in the absence of the actual experience
- It shares a great deal of the brain machinery with perception
- Mental images vary in their vividness and controllability.

Theories of imagery

Psycho neuromuscular theory

This theory is based on Carpenter's ideo-motor principle, where he identified identical nervous impulses during imagined movement as in real life, but in smaller magnitude.

Suinn (1972) developed a theory, using the imagery technique visuo-motor behaviour rehearsal or VMBR. Electrodes were attached to skiers' legs while they imagined they were skiing. The muscle neural patterns from the imagined skiers actually mirrored the course itself. However, Feltz and Landers (1983) are sceptical about the psycho neuromuscular theory. Hecke and Kaczor (1988)

believe this theory is more of a description of an aspect of imagery rehearsal, than an explanation of the processes involved in enhanced performance.

Symbolic-learning theory

Sackett first proposed this theory in 1934 when he stated that patterns are coded in the central nervous system. Imagery helps to code movements into symbols and thus makes the movement easier to execute. The theory does not explain how performance is enhanced in experienced athletes, but Ryan and Simons (1981) support it.

Bio-informational theory

Lang (1979) stated that an image is composed of a specific set of organised propositions, which are divided into two types – stimulus and response. Stimulus propositions transmit information about imagined environmental stimuli, and response propositions are statements of feelings when the person responds to the scene that he imagines. The meaning proposition then refers to the perceived importance of the skill being imagined. An example could be where six runs need to be scored from the last ball by the tail-end batsman.

Imagery uses in training and practice

Mental rehearsal

Imagery could be described as a cognitive process, meaning that it is a process that occurs in the brain and the nervous system (Suinn, 1972).

Decety (1996) found that the brain becomes active when someone starts a movement. The pre-motor cortex (as the action is prepared), the pre-frontal cortex (as the action is initiated) and the cerebellum (during the control of movement sequences that require a specific order) all become activated.

This was confirmed by Suinn (1972) in his research on skiers. Leg muscles showed activity through the electrodes that were attached to them. The theory of 'functional equivalence' resulted from these visual images using the same parts of the brain as visual processing. Imagery activates the cognitive

templates in the brain that are used for athletic performance but, mental practice involves the physical and the mental aspects of the human being.

The same applies to physical practice. It is not purely physical because all performance begins with an image (Murphy, 2005).

Motivation

Imagery plays a cognitive role as well as a motivational role in the brain and helps the player to follow his goals (Hall, 2001; Orlick, 2000; Silva, 1982). Taylor, Pham, Rivkin and Armor (1998) described this motivational function of imagery as helping the athlete to select goals and creating the motivation to achieve them. It gives direction and intensity to effort.

Confidence

Bandura (1977) states that although successful performance has a strong influence on confidence, imagining success or watching someone else achieve, is a consistent source of confidence (Martin, Moritz & Hall, 1999; Paivio, 1985; Vealey, 1986).

Attention and focus

In dealing with attention, Moran (1996) did not see visualisation as a concentration strategy. However Feltz and Landers (1983) states that motor skills could assist with the development of an attentional set for athletes. When a cognitive template is well developed, the athlete with good imagery can access information that is successful for task execution. The athlete goes onto the so-called auto-pilot mode and skills are performed with little mental capacity. Paivio (1985) also supported the idea that athletes use imagery for attention and focus.

Emotional shifts

Positive or negative emotions can affect performance. Performance failure can create images in the mind and the person can re-experience emotions of humiliation, criticism and embarrassment. On the other hand, positive images

can elicit emotions of confidence, capability and inner knowing (Martin et al. 1999; Orlick, 2000; Paivio, 1985).

An imagery experience has a unique influence on each individual, not necessarily understood by another individual.

Ashen (1984) states that three aspects of imagery should always be considered:

- *The image (I)* – similar to a cognitive template, a set of sensations arising in the brain
- *Somatic response (S)* – physiological reaction that occur in response to the image
- *Meaning (M)* – the unique significance to the brain.

The brain is largely organised through the process of association. New experiences are stored in the brain by associating them with existing experiences (Orlick, 1998; Paivio, 1985).

NLP followers believe where the mind goes, the body follows. A person is a product of his thoughts and his beliefs. The important aspect here is to realise that a person's life is the fulfilment of his dreams; so it is essential that a person's thinking should always be in harmony with those dreams (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999). Willpower is driven by emotion and this emotion comes from one's ability to imagine what one wants (O'Connor, 2001).

The conscious and unconscious mind

The level of awareness that one codes in the representational system is called consciousness. There is a combination of pictures, sounds, feelings, tasks, smells and words in the memory. An external stimulus creates a memory and moves into consciousness through a modality. The interaction between this external stimulus and internal neurological state determines whether or not the representation becomes conscious (Dilts, 1983; O'Connor & Seymour, 1990).

Compared to this theory, unconscious behaviour comes from a stimulus that is low in intensity or information, but not in awareness. These memories are normally loaded with intense emotional response. The unconscious is seen as a positive force of the conscious, and when it is programmed with the correct information, it creates realities from thoughts that are presented to it (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982; Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999). An altered state of mind or trance gives one direct access to the part of mind that stores the habitual patterns (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999).

Self-limited ideas, goals, negative thoughts and self-doubt all come from the conscious mind of how one perceives oneself. Once a person can bypass the conscious mind and reach the unconscious, one can re-programme the mind in a positive way. This can be done through erasing limitations from speech, setting positive goals and through imagery (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982; Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999).

Improving imagery through the representational system

Imagery could be made more effective by using as many senses as possible (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982; Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999). The clearer the image is represented in the mind, the easier it will be to follow the image in real life. This entails the following:

Sight refers to how the picture is represented in the mind. When 'seeing' the picture it must be in bright colours, vivid detail, a big picture and if possible three-dimensional.

The person must become aware of all the *sounds* around him. It could be the coach's voice, the crowds, team-mates, songs being sung or any other sounds that bring more vividness to the picture. This could also be the sound of the ball on bat.

The sense of *smell* can evoke strong memories. This could be the smell of the leather ball, the wood of the bat or of the grass. The stronger the person can recall smells, the more vivid the picture will be.

Touch can trigger a rich source of memories. Taking the bat in hand or feeling the leather ball can trigger different images.

It is the *emotional experience* that brings the vividness of the picture back. It recalls the inner knowing that the person believes that he can play perfect shots and he knows the feeling of that accomplishment (Lang, 1979).

Using sub-modalities or editorial frames in imagery

Within each representational system there are certain sub-modalities by which further distinctions can be made (O'Connor, 2001). Hall (2007) prefers to use the words 'editorial frames', as the modalities are not at all 'sub' or smaller. These editorial frames are very important because one can edit the movie of the mind and change it completely.

The sub-modalities or editorial frames of *seeing* the picture will focus on the brightness of colours, compared to black and white, the distance of the picture, whether it is moving or still, how fast the movements are and whether it has a border or not. In the *auditory* editorial frame one would focus on tone, tempo, duration and location of sounds.

The *kinesthetic f*ield will be presented through feelings of pressure, sensations, shape, temperature and texture (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999; O'Connor, 2001; Hall, 2007).

According to O'Connor (2001) imagery is one of the most versatile tools to use in sport.

Skill Ten: Managing flow state

The flow state is an optimal state of intrinsic motivation where the person is fully immersed in what he is doing. This is a feeling everyone has at times,

characterised by a feeling of great freedom, enjoyment, fulfilment and skill. When a person is in flow state, temporal concerns are typically ignored. The idea of flow is identical to the feeling of being in the zone (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990).

To achieve flow state, a balance must be found between the challenge of the task and the skill of the performer. If the task is too easy or too difficult, flow cannot occur. The flow state also implies a kind of focused attention. A sense of control is vital to earning a flow state. Control, however, seems simultaneously effortless and masterful. Control and concentration also manifest with a transcendence of normal awareness. One aspect of this transcendence is the loss of self-consciousness. An athlete's focus becomes so intense and play elevated that they're unstoppable. Athletes refer to it as being in the zone, religious mystics as being in 'ecstasy' and artists and musicians as 'aesthetic rapture' (Jackson & Csikszentmihalyi, 1999).

Flow state is elusive but it can be [provoked?] when the athlete is taught how to order his conscious thoughts or where to place his attention, compared to leaving it to chance (Jackson & Csikszentmihalyi, 1999).

Griffiths (1999) mentions the following aspects when cricket players reflect on their all-time best performance and being in flow state. They:

- were not thinking of anything in particular
- were not thinking about what happened before or what might happen after
- were thinking they were locked up in the moment
- seemed to have more time and saw the ball more intensely
- were playing the game ball-by-ball
- were not consciously trying to control their movements
- were not trying as hard as usual.

Flow state in NLP is seen as a culmination of all or some of the skills presented in this study (Cooper & Goodenough, 2007). When a person focuses on something bigger than the win, *performing from one's highest intention,* one is saturated with the spiritual aspect (not necessarily religious) of the sport, and could reach peak performance (Armstrong & Jenkins, 2003). *Working hard* has a profound impact on the body-mind connection and it gives the player the confidence to trust his body (Cohen & Breen, 2007; Vernacchia et al. 2000).

Through *setting goals* the person knows exactly what his desired state is and through his action-plans he knows how to get there. This keeps him focused on the task in hand. During a game he stays in the moment, which helps with concentration and flow state (Millman, 1999). It involves his effective *use of language in self-talk and communication.*

A player who knows that he can play well and who has given himself ownership of his sport potential, who has t*rusting and inner knowing,* can achieve confidence and go beyond distractions and factors that cause stress. This is interlinked by differentiating between *self-confidence and self-esteem.* Because of these two aspects, the player will also be able to *deal with setbacks. Quality mental preparation* leads to flow state in NLP.

It is not one particular skill on its own but a stream of consciousness of the different skills that access flow state (Kruger, 2007).

Summary

In this chapter modelling was explained as a skill that someone has and can execute at a high standard on a consistent basis. A further explanation, that these skills could be modelled through creating a useful map for others to use, followed.

The ten skills were discussed as identified through extensive interviews by Cooper and Goodenough (2007). They were: performing from one's highest intention, working hard, setting goals, trusting and inner knowing, distinguishing between self-confidence and self-esteem, dealing with setbacks, managing anxiety and confidence, using language effectively in self-talk and communication, preparing mentally and managing flow state.

Each of the skills was discussed within the bigger framework of sport psychology and then within the model of NLP.

Chapter Five

Methodology

Introduction

In the world of Neuro-Linguistic programming, there is a tendency to believe that NLP can have a significant impact on various aspects of a person's life. Researchers proclaim that NLP can be used successfully in the business world, for personal well-being, professional success (O' Connor & and McDermott, 1996; O' Connor & Seymour, 1990; McDermott & Jago, 2001; Molden, 2007) and on the sports field (O' Connor, 2001).

In the past two decades sportsmen, coaches and administrators have become aware of the mental impact on sport. The game of cricket is no exception.

Players who become coaches and who have been through mental coaching themselves, appreciate the value of mental development in the game. The coach of the teams that were used in this study, was a candidate at the Titans Academy, and went through a cricket psychological skills programme. Because of the positive results it had on him as a player, he requested to have a psychological skills training programme for his team.

As Bandler and Grinder (1975) state, NLP is an attitude and a methodology that leaves behind a trail of techniques. The researcher was curios to see whether the techniques that were so widely acclaimed in other areas could be applied with positive results in sport psychology – and specifically in cricket. This study focuses on NLP as a model to enhance cricket performance.

Modelling is the most profound basic skill with which NLP works. In their extensive research, Cooper and Goodenough (2007) identified specific skills that were modelled by elite athletes, and these skills were used as benchmarks for this study. A psycho-educational programme was developed with the use of NLP

techniques. The cricket players who participated in this study were taught to use the techniques to enhance their mental skills for the game.

In view of this explanation, the main aims of this study were to:

- Develop a psycho-educational programme using NLP that incorporate mental skills
- Determine the impact of the programme

This chapter sets out the methodological approach that was used to achieve the aims of the study.

Research design

An Under-19A and B-teams were selected after official trials arranged by the Gauteng North selectors. The coach involved in this study was put in charge of these two teams. The training times were the same for both teams except for taking place on alternative days. Therefore, certain variables stayed the same.

Sample

Random sampling is the procedure for the selection of participants where each participant in the population has an equal chance of being selected and where the selection of any one participant will not affect the probability of selecting any other participant. As this procedure is not always feasible, researchers sample from an accessible population (Graziano & Raulin, 1999).

In this study, random sampling could not be used as a result of the selection allocation of the Gauteng North selectors. A sample of convenience was used.

The use of a sample of convenience

A sample of convenience is used when the subjects are selected, in part or in whole, at the convenience of the researcher. The researcher makes little or no attempt to ensure that this sample is an accurate representation of some larger group or population (Graziano & Raulin, 1999).

A limitation of this type of sampling is that one will often have difficulty in generalizing the results to a population of practical relevance. Findings from a convenience sample would be considered less definitive and would usually require replication in a more controlled setting.

Because some members of the population have no chance of being sampled, the extent to which a convenience sample, regardless of its size, actually represents the entire population cannot be known. Convenience samples can provide useful information, especially in a pilot study.

The Gauteng North Under-19 A-team (N=15) was allocated to the experimental group, and the B-team (N=15) that was selected at the same time, was allocated to the control group.

The researcher was approached by the coach to develop a psychological programme for mental toughness for the Under-19 A-team. His goal for them was to play at their best at provincial level.

Experimental group

Of the fifteen candidates present, thirteen were eighteen year-olds and two were seventeen. Seven candidates were white, three black, three coloured and two Indian.

Control group

Of the fifteen candidates present, thirteen were eighteen year-olds and two were seventeen. Seven candidates were white, four black, three coloured and one Indian.

Experimental design

Pre-test, post-test control design

This design is one of the most practical for assessing the impact of an intervention on two groups, one control and one experimental. If there is a change in the outcome of the experimental group in the post-test and none in the control group, it could be stated that the intervention programme had a positive effect (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2007).

This was chosen to establish whether the intervention programme (independent variable) had an effect on the performance enhancement (dependent variable) of cricket players.

A pre-test was done on both groups through benchmarking, the subjective experience of the 'cricket self-concept' and cricket performance statistics.

The intervention (the NLP programme) was done with the experimental group only. After the programme, a post-test of the skills, 'cricket self-concept' and performance statistics were done on both groups. This design is demonstrated in Figure 5:1.

Experimental group	Pre-test	NLP programme	Post-test
Control group	Pre-test	-----------------	Post-test
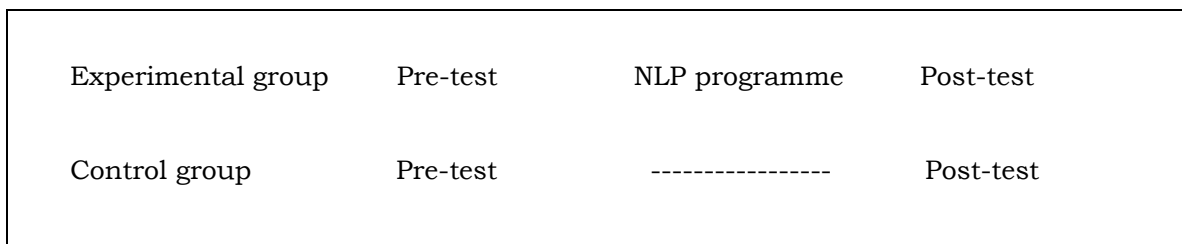
Figure 5:1. A pre-test, post-test control group design

The programme extended over a period of twelve weeks and included individual as well as group sessions. The experimental group was seen once a week, except for the first and last week, when they were seen twice a week.

Variables

The psycho-educational programme using NLP as a model was the independent variable, while the dependent variables were the ten psychological skills, the 'cricket self-concept' and overall cricket performance.

Measurement of the key variables

Benchmarking the ten skills

Benchmarking is the process of creating a scale to measure concepts and skills that are vague and difficult to describe in measurable behaviours (Cooper & Goodenough, 2007). Benchmarking as a meta-cognitive skill, involves stepping back from a skill or competency, modelling the critical success components, setting sensory-based or empirical standards and creating a scale for levels of that competency.

In doing this, benchmarking not only measures and sets criteria for excellence, it also provides a way of taking intangible ideas, beliefs, feelings, intentions, and other internal states and translating them into the empirical world as practical actions. This scale of specific action, measures where a person is at his current level, and gives direction to the actions that should be incorporated to take the skill to the next level of excellence (Hall & Duvall, 2004).

In the field of NLP coaching, the *Meta-Coach Training* system introduced the practice of benchmarking as both a model and a process. It is a way of measuring and standardizing skill competency (Hall & Duvall, 2004).

When working with intangible things, the component parts are broken down into smaller pieces and steps. According to Hall and Duval (2004), the questions to be asked are:

- How can intangible things be benchmarked?
- How can a scale be set on soft skills?

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- How can competencies and identifying the component parts be modelled?
- Is it possible to *quantify* the quality of an experience?
- If that can be done, how are experiences that are *intangible* and ephemeral measured?
- What processes can be used to set benchmarks on the skills of coaching?

The behaviour indicators of the skill are put on a continuum and are observed in terms of degree, intensity and empirical measures.

Scaling the levels of competence in a skill

Levels of competence are scaled as follows (Hall & Duval, 2004):

5 Mastery of the skill

4 Elegance, smoothness, seamless

3 Competence, the skill is present and working.

2 The presence of the skill at a low level can come across as awkward and clumsy

1 First signs of the skill emerging in fragmented ways

0 Incompetence, absence of the skill

Benchmarking therefore gives a point of reference and allows the coach and athlete to establish where he is, to follow his development and to work towards his improvement. (See Appendix B for benchmarked skills).

The 'cricket self-concept'

This refers to the subjective experience of a player's potential at a certain point. The subjective experience of a player's potential has an influence on his belief system, his behaviour, his self-talk and performance (Bodenhamer & Hall, 2003; O'Connor, 2001).

Development of the 'cricket self-concept' scores

- The players were asked to identify six themes they wanted to work on to enhance their game. They decided on batting, bowling, fielding, mental aspects, fitness, team play and personal aspects as a cricket player

- For each of these themes they had to give five positive statements of how they saw themselves play in a desired state. An example is, if the player knew that he was moving his head when batting, he would state, "I keep my head still"

- The statement needed to be short and clearly expressed. The following statement "I always focus" was not exact enough. The concept 'focus' could really mean anything and therefore the statement needed to be broken down to the absolute essentials. Questions to clarify the statement were: "What must you focus on?" and "if you focus on that, what will happen?" "How will you know that you are focused?" Eventually the player came to a clear affirmation: "I watch the ball."

- A value was given to each statement. It was clearly mentioned beforehand that aspects that were in place, need not be written down, only aspects that were not in place

At the end of the exercise a percentage was worked out and this was called 'My cricket self-concept' for the duration of the course.

The players used different skills of the programme to live up to these affirmations. Imagery, setting of goals or changing their belief system were used. Living up to the statements through new knowledge changed thought processes and behaviour.

This had a positive impact on the player's performance. At the end of the course these statements were re-evaluated.

Performance scores

The batting and bowling averages of the players were worked out using the official statistics. For both groups in the study the scores were taken over the

two-month period before the intervention. After the intervention the average scores were taken over a two month period, using the official statistics for both groups. This included playing the provincial sides.

Reliability

Good measures give the same result each time it is used, regardless of who does the measuring (Graziano & Roulin, 1999).

When reliability is discussed in benchmarking, three aspects can be looked at to ensure its reliability (Cooper & Goodenough, 2007; Hall & Duval, 2004).

- Questions can be prompted to make sure the cricket player understands exactly on which scale he lies
- Feedback from the coach on the player's behaviour can be used as an internal check of reliability
- The actual performance scores can satisfactorily indicate whether the player fully understands on what scale he is functioning

Validity

Validity refers to the methodological and conceptual soundness of research. It asks the question: "Does the test measure what it is supposed to measure (Saunders et al., 2007)?"

Benchmarking is a simple form of modelling someone's expertise in a high level of performance (Hall & Duvall, 2004). As was noted earlier, Cooper and Goodenough (2007) did extensive research on sportspeople and came up with certain skills that are needed to perform at one's highest level. As these were intangible concepts, sensory-based or behavioural indicators that give evidence of the experience were identified.

They created a scale of the specific behaviours that make up a competency. The critical elements of an activity were marked, and a measure was set up using

the scale from 0 to 5. By specifying these abstract competencies as behaviours the *knowing-doing* gap can be coached. A person may *know* that he needs to perform from his highest intention, but now has the behaviour equivalents of how to *do* it (Hall & Duval, 2004). The person now has the behavioural equivalences of the abstract idea. When a skill is now tested one gets exactly what one measures (See Appendix B).

Ethical issues

The cricket players involved in this study were assured of the researcher's ethics. The following points were discussed:

- A letter of consent was signed (See Appendix C)
- A player's name would never be mentioned nor would the year in which the study was done be referred to
- Personal matters could be discussed with the coach only with the player's approval and in the presence of the cricket player, the coach and the researcher
- The cricket player could at any time withdraw from the programme

Data analysis

A repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the two groups over the two measured time points (pre and post).

The Time*Group interaction was clearly indicated in a graph. As groups can mature over time, the Bonferroni correction for multiple testing was applied as post-hoc evaluation. It was done to ensure that if there was a significant increase in a skill, it was due to the intervention programme and not because of natural maturation over time. A 5% ($p<0.05$) significance level was used as guideline for judging differences.

Development of the programme

The psycho-educational programme that was developed was based on the psycho-educational theory outlined in chapter two. To achieve this, the following four steps were applied:

1. Situation analysis

In order for the cricketers to play at a consistently high level, the players needed to build a mentally strong team.

The coach had a meeting with the team concerning mental toughness. (The researcher was an observer.) The players mentioned certain themes that included self-belief, dealing with setbacks, concentrating and dealing with stress.
These themes were also discussed between the researcher and the coach. The coach suggested good communication and setting goals as aspects he wanted to enhance in the team through the intervention programme.

2. Goal setting

A psychological intervention programme was developed and particular skills were taught over a twelve-week period.

The skills that were identified were: performing from one's highest intention, working hard, setting goals, trusting and inner knowing, distinguishing between self-confidence and self-esteem, dealing with setbacks, managing anxiety and confidence, using language effectively in self-talk and communication, preparing mentally and managing flow state. These skills were evaluated through benchmarking pre-and post-test.

A subjective evaluation was done through the 'Cricket Self-concept'. This referred to the subjective experience of the cricket players in batting, bowling, fielding, mental aspects, fitness, their relationships with the team and how they experienced themselves as cricket players or the personal self. It was done by stating positive affirmations about aspects the players were *not*. After twelve

weeks these statements were evaluated again and through various aspects of the programme the 'cricket self-concept' improved. The way the players felt about their cricket changed and with that their behaviour. The result was a positive influence on their behaviour.

In both groups, the batting and bowling performance results were measured, using the official statistics.

3. Selecting strategies

A programme was developed which was followed by the experimental group over a twelve-week period. Each identified skill was taught to the players and each technique was experienced by them in the different sessions. (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999) claim the best way to understand NLP is to experience it

The following aspects of NLP featured in the study:

Anchoring: An anchor is any stimulus that changes a state. It involves any sensory input.

Circle of Excellence: This technique uses the technology of anchoring to increase the state of resourcefulness in problem situations.

Imagery: Imagery is the representation of the future that is so well realised that it has a compelling effect on the present.

Logical levels: Logical levels are a way of identifying underlying structures and patterns about relationships, ideas or events. The logical levels form a hierarchy.

Meta-Model: The Meta model shows a person how to simplify information through the use of deletions, distortions and generalisations.

Milton model: Artfully vague language is intentionally used to allow the person to fill in the missing pieces. As a result the person is placed in a trance and this presents the opportunity to use metaphors and stories.

Modelling: Modelling is the process of finding out specifically how people achieve excellence, whether it is accomplishing a task, performing a skill or living a fulfilled life. Modelling makes the transfer of knowledge possible. NLP suggests that if a person knows how other people achieve excellence, and providing he has sufficient detailed information, he can achieve the same.

Perceptual positions: A perception of any experience depends on the position from which a person perceives it. In the first position the person sees the situation from his point of view. In the second position, a person sees the world from another person's view. The third position is the observer's view. This could be referred to as the 'wiser self'.

Reframing criticism: Reframing gives a different meaning to an event, incident or conversation. Thus, instead of seeing criticism as negative, this technique teaches the player to turn it into a learning experience.

Re-imprinting pattern: Imprints can involve positive as well as negative experiences. Once a negative experience is mapped out and functions as a belief, and becomes part of the identity, it leads to limiting beliefs. When an imprint is identified, and recoded with the resources a person needed then, he changes his perspective and the subsequent beliefs that he derived from the negative experience. Re-imprinting creates a viewpoint that forms a basis of wisdom when making decisions. It allows the imprint-experience to mean something resourceful.

The Swish pattern: The Swish pattern provides a tool to exchange memories or to replace visuals of forgotten memories. It provides effective means to replace negative images with positive ones.

Using the pattern to set successful goals: an athlete, who uses the specific pattern of setting goals, can move from the present state to the desired state.

Representational (VAK) system: A person experiences his world through his senses. These are the visual, auditory and kinaesthetic senses. As the person experiences his world, he makes sense of what he does, hears, feels or sees, through representations in his mind. This can be detected by the language he uses.

The use of these techniques is described in the workbook (See Appendix A).

4. Proving feedback

Feedback was done by comparing the pre-test to post-test results on the ten skills, cricket self-concept and performance skills.

Content of the sessions

The first meeting

Confidentiality

In the first meeting, confidentiality was discussed and a letter of consent was signed (See Appendix C). The players were assured of the researcher's ethics. It was clearly stated that a player's name would not be mentioned at any time, nor would any dates be referred to. The confidentiality between the researcher and players regarding the coach was discussed. Personal aspects could be discussed, only if the player approved. In such cases all three people were to be present, the coach, the player and researcher.

Benchmarking (Experimental and control group)

All the candidates of both groups were asked to complete the benchmarking. Once this was done, each player (both experimental and control group) was consulted on an individual basis to make sure that he fully understood the questions and that the values added, were correct.

The control group also did the exercise of Session Four ('The Cricket Self-concept') as the researcher would saw them again only after twelve weeks.

Group size (Experimental group)

The group size was discussed. The researcher asked for a two-group rotation, with a maximum of eight players per group. This was done to give more attention to the players. By keeping the group small, all candidates had the opportunity to participate in the discussions.

The second meeting

Each player from the experimental group was interviewed to establish rapport and to learn about the background of the player. His goals, family background, support systems, attitude towards his cricket and problem areas were touched on. The frames from which the player operated were established. The language he used to express himself was clearly noted.

Session One: Performing from one's highest intention
The way I think

Group size: Two group rotation

Time: Ninety minutes for each group

Goal: The players were made aware of key components in their sport.

A presentation was given to make the players aware of the following aspects in sport:

- the way a person learns in sport and why some stages in a sports career are easier than others
- to emphasise the concept of winning/losing and that everything is not always about the end goal (winning) but the process of getting there
- to make the player aware of the essential ten skills which are important for performance enhancement

The experimental group completed the Representation System Preferences to determine each player's VAK system, as it was used throughout the programme. This was not done by the control group.

Session Two: The ten identified skills as modelled in a film
The film, Sea Biscuit

Group size: The whole group

Time: Two hours

Goal: The film Sea Biscuit was shown to the experimental group.

The purpose of showing this particular film was to:

- serve as an icebreaker
- identify the ten skills
- use it at as a model in the players' own sport

Homework: After watching the film each player completed the exercises in the workbook referring to the film.

Session Three: Working hard
Why and how?

Group size: Two group rotation

Time: Ninety minutes for each group

Goal: Work ethics were discussed as the basis for all the other aspects of a person's sport in order to excel.

This included the following:

- being *committed* was emphasised – whether enjoyable or not
- *playfulness* was discussed. A person sometimes loses enthusiasm and energy for his sport when it becomes too serious or when there are too many expectations from people
- the relationship between *meaning* and *performance* was explained. The player had to identify where he was lying on the quadrants to see whether he should bring in more performance or more meaning in his sport
- the *why* of doing something and the *how* of doing it was explained. How an athlete does certain aspects to ensure his success: from personal challenges to discipline in training, all make up the smaller steps to reach his goal. The *why* could be described as his clarity of purpose. Once he loses commitment, he will not reach his goals. When an athlete knows what he wants, his knowledge drives him to reach his smaller goals and he is then in alignment with his highest intention (Cooper & Goodenough, 2007). When the athlete loses touch with the reasons he is doing certain aspects, he could lose his enthusiasm and commitment in his sport.

Exercises

Enjoyment in terms of training and mental preparation

Questions were asked to change the normal thought process and to focus on other aspects in training. The cricketers were given a choice of what they would be working on in their net session to make it more enjoyable for themselves. They also had to choose challenges to make that net session different from a normal one.

For mental preparation the players were challenged to use any of the mental aspects they had learned. One of the challenges was to focus on the five senses and how it could be applied in their training.

Inner coach

The way the player talked to himself was worked on: words the inner coach said, the manageable chunks that the player focused on, the language he used when talking to himself and the way the task at hand was perceived. Was it seen as done, or something that the player still needed to do?

Playing like a child again

Enthusiasm, enjoyment, discipline of being there, being fully committed and playing that extra bit longer, were all aspects the player had experienced as a child. The exercise was done to revisit all the inner resources of the players. It could even be recalled as a state of mind in their daily training and competition.

Homework: The players had to answer questions on how Skill Two, (working hard) could enhance their game.

Session Four: Setting goals

Present state, desired state

Group size: Two group rotation.
Time: Ninety minutes for each group.

Goal: The session took the form of a lecture. The various aspects of setting goals were touched on, which included:

- goals should be stated in the positive as that gives direction to the goal
- the difference between perceived difficulty and perceived ability was explained
- beliefs in goal setting, namely possibility, ability and worthiness were explained
- the neurological levels of Dilts were explained for them to see what level their obstacles were on, and that these prevented them from attaining their goals
- setting goals were explained from the short, mid and long-term perspective in the framework of moving from the present to the desired state

Homework: Each player wrote his goals down in terms of what he wanted to achieve according to SMART goal setting. Some obstacles were examined according to the Logical levels. The players had to use a goal and set it according to the pattern of successful goal setting.

Session Five: How do I state my goals?
Affirmations (beliefs)

Group size: Two group rotation
Time: Ninety minutes for each group.
Goal: The players had to state what they wanted (desired state) in the form of a positive affirmation.

The session incorporated the following aspects:

- The players identified seven different fields where they felt they could improve their cricket. The different aspects were batting, bowling, fielding, mental approach, fitness, the player within his team and personal aspects.

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- For each aspect they had to give five positive statements on how they wanted to be. An example was, if the player knew that he was moving his head when batting, he would say, "I keep my head still".
- The statement needed to be short and in clear language. Every player had different statements for each theme, as every person's needs were unique to him.
- It was clearly stated beforehand that the aspects that were in place were not to be written down, only aspects that were not in place. A copy of these statements was given to the researcher.
- She then read the statements back to the players and they gave a value for each statement. This was only noted by the researcher and not the player. The reason for this was two-fold: first, for the researcher to make sure that the statement was clearly understandable and positive; second, for the player to not know what value he gave to the statement. At the end of the course, when these statements were given values again, they were given without the prior knowledge of what the values were previously. At the end of the exercise a percentage was worked out and this was called 'My cricket self-concept' for the duration of the course.
- At the end of the course these statements were re-evaluated and compared with the first evaluation.

Homework: The players had to read through these affirmations on a daily basis. By doing this, the statements would become part of their belief system. To improve on these statements, the players used imagery and set the statements as their goals. Living up to the statements had a positive impact on the players' performance.

Session Six: Managing anxiety and confidence
Relaxation (Milton model)

Group size: The whole group
Time: Ninety minutes for each group

Goal: The relaxation script used was based on the Milton model. The aim of this relaxation procedure was for the players to:

- experience an intense form of relaxation
- cut through the conscious mind and speak to the subconcoius mind with positive affirmations
- make the players aware of the various aspects he could use on and off the field to relax the mind completely (breathing, colours, metaphors)
- teach the players how to be in a relaxed state of mind when he goes to bed at night, before a big game or on a daily basis
- create a basis for future imagery
- establish a good balance between confidence and anxiety
- enhance the belief in the players' own ability

Homework: The players had to practice this method of relaxation every night before they went to bed. They had to start using this method for visualisation. The players could use their own metaphors for building confidence and managing anxiety.

Session Seven: Beliefs
Logical levels of Dilts

Group size: Two group rotation

Time: Ninety minutes for each group

Goal: In this session the player was made aware of his beliefs within himself. The purpose of this session was to:

- make the players aware of how they perceive themselves as a cricketer on the logical levels of Dilts
- identify on which level they experiences an obstacle
- address the obstacle and change it

Homework: The players had to identify whether they had any obstacles and on what level they were. They also had to think of an action plan to change it.

Session Eight: Beliefs about myself
Swish pattern
Circle of excellence
Reframing criticism
Re-imprinting pattern

Group size: Two group rotation

Time: Ninety minutes for each group

Goal: The purpose of session eight was to focus on the following:

- *trusting and inner knowing*

  The players were made aware of their personal powers of thinking, doing, feeling and saying.
- *distinguishing between self-confidence and self-esteem*

  The players learnt to distinguish between human being and human doing. Three techniques were focused on:
    - Swish pattern
    - Circle of excellence
    - Reframing criticism
- *Dealing with setbacks*
    - Re-imprinting pattern

Session Nine: Using language effectively in self-talk and communication
Meta- model

Group size: Two-group rotation

Time: Ninety minutes for each group

Goal: In this session self-talk was addressed using the Meta model. How a person speaks to others was also discussed, as the spoken words are directly linked to the speaker's internal representation of the world.

During this session the players had to become aware of words as symbols of their internal representational system. The goals of this session were to:

- focus on the modelling categories of distortions, deletions and generalisations
- learn to eliminate the dictator in his self-talk
- learn to eliminate stress reaction in the body by excluding certain words
- learn how to correct negative thinking.
- learn how to apply thought stopping.

Homework: The players had to become aware of the actual words they used in self-talk and daily speech. If they detected any negative words they had to apply thought stopping and change the words or thoughts.

Session Ten: Preparing mentally
Anchoring

Group size: The whole group
Time: Two hours
Goal: The two aspects, concentration and imagery, were focused on in the players' mental preparation. The group was addressed as a whole in a two-hour session.

The purpose of this session was:
- to explain anchoring as a tool for concentration
- to explain the technique of anchoring to the group
- to coach each player individually to establish an anchor suitable for his specific needs

Homework: The anchor that the person decided on was to be used whenever applicable. This was in training as well as in competition.

Session Eleven: Preparing mentally
Imagery

Group size: Two group rotation
Time: Ninety min for each group
Goal: The session was done as preparation for the use of imagery.

It included:
- a visual component
- an auditory component
- feelings, tastes, and smells
- being associated and disassociated

Exercises were given to make the players more aware of these aspects.

Homework: The player had to focus on becoming more aware of his senses in all aspects of life, on and off the field.

Session Twelve: VAK- system in action
Representational system

Group size: Two group rotation
Time: Ninety minutes for each group
Goal: The VAK-system was addressed. Although these aspects were focused on previously and mentioned in almost all the sessions, this session was specifically developed to prepare the player for Session Thirteen.

In this session the VAK-system was focused on. Exercises for the following were given:

- visual sub-modalities
- auditory sub-modalities
- kinaesthetic sub-modalities

The perceptual positions were focused on:

- first position (the player)
- second position (coach)
- third position (referee)

Homework: The players had to use the different perceptual positions to evaluate themselves as players. It was also applied when struggling with a technique.

Session Thirteen: Imagery
Make your own movie

Group size: Two group rotation
Time: Ninety minutes for each group
Goal: This session explained 'movie making' to the players.
The goal was to incorporate all the aspects of the VAK system and to make a film of the player. They were to be the hero in the film, therefore all technical skills, mental preparation, personal aspects, self-talk and goal setting were to be applied and perfectly executed in their minds.

The circumstances under which this could be used were explained.
- working on tactics for the game
- working on negative memories of a bad match or mistake that was made
- improving technical skills
- pre-match relaxation
- calming yourself if you were tense
- experiencing the game as you would like to play it

Session Fourteen: Flow state
Just do it!

Group size: The whole group

Time: Ninety minutes

Goal: The aim of the session was to discuss all the aspects of the previous thirteen sessions. A discussion was held and questions were answered and any aspects that were not quite clear were clarified.

Homework: The players were asked to take the model of NLP into every game in order to fully 'unleash' their potential.

Summary

In this chapter the methodology of the study was explained. It focused on the development of the programme, using psycho-education as a framework and NLP as a model.

Sampling, the experimental design, measuring the key variables through benchmarking and the data analysis were discussed. Ethical issues, reliability and validity within the NLP framework were discussed. All the sessions were discussed in terms of goals, time allocation, content of the sessions and homework.

Chapter Six

Results

Introduction

The aim of the study was to determine the effect of a twelve-week NLP intervention program on the performance of two cricket teams. They will act as experimental and control groups.

Repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the two groups over the two measured time points (pre and post). For the post-hoc evaluation, the Bonferroni correction for multiple testing was applied. A 5% (p< 0.05) level of significance was used for judging differences.

Evaluation of data

Skills One to Ten (benchmarking)

The performances of the subjects were assessed on the ten benchmarked skills, the subjective experience of the 'cricket self-concept', and performance skills. The results follow.

Skill One: Performing from one's highest intention

Table 6:1 contains the descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation) of the scores for the experimental and control groups, before and after the intervention. The Bonferroni p-value is included in this table.

Table 6:1 and Fig 6:1 show there was an increase in Skill One *(performing from one's highest intention)* in both groups from pre- to post-test. In the experimental group the score increased from 3.27 to 4.67, and in the control group from 3.0 to 3.2. As there was a significant time*group interaction (p< 0.01), from the pre- to post tests between the experimental and control groups,

the results of the Bonferroni test had to be considered. Here the group and time factors are compared separately to exclude the influence of interaction between the two factors.

Table 6:1. Descriptive statistics of Skill One (performing from one's highest intention)

Time Group	Before Mean (SD)	After Mean (SD)	p-value
Experimental	3.27 (0.703)	4.67 (0.488)	p< 0.01
Control	3.00 (0.378)	3.2 (0.414)	p= 0.95

Current effect: F (1, 28) =37.800, p=00000 TIME*Group; LS Means

Effective hypothesis composition
Vertical bars denote 0.95 confidence
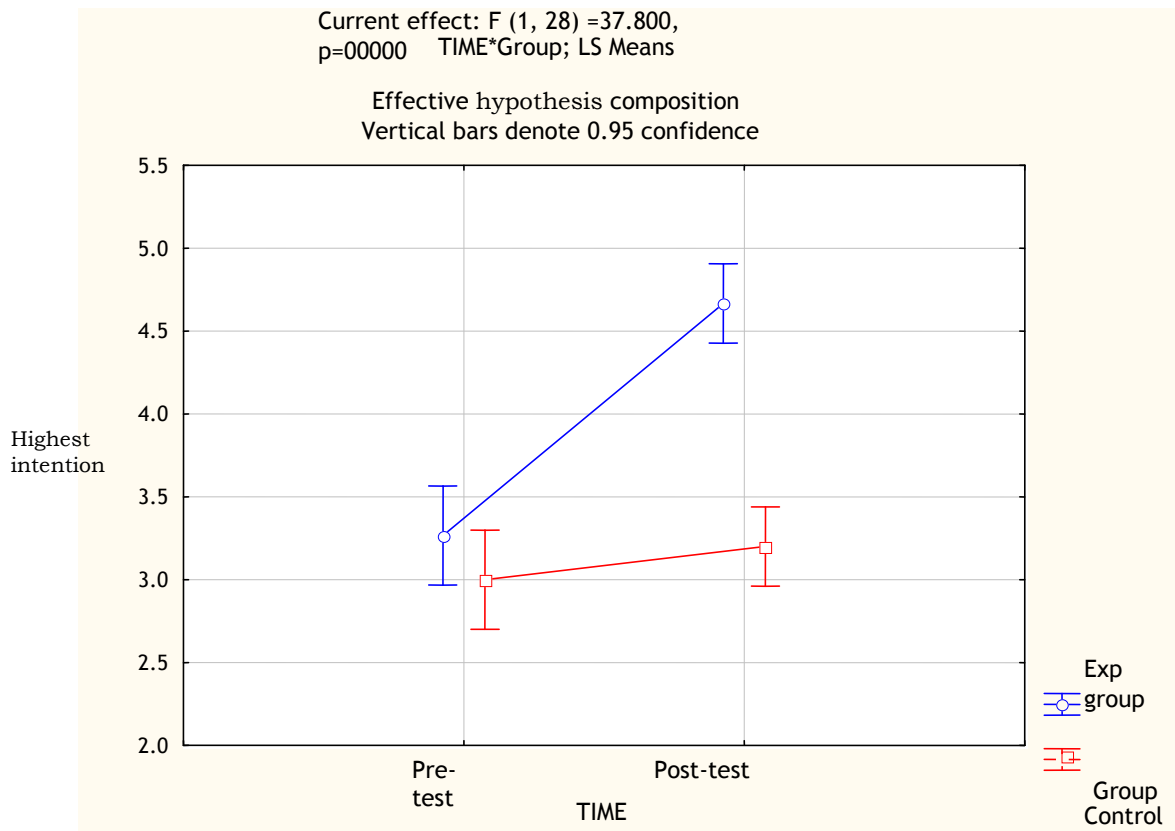
Figure 6:1. Time*Group interaction of Skill One

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In Table 6:1 the p-value of p< 0.01 indicates there was a significant increase in Skill One within the experimental group from pre-test to post-test, but within the control group there was no significant increase (p= 0.95). One can conclude that the program intervention significantly improved Skill One in the experimental group.

Skill Two: Working hard

Table 6:2. Descriptive statistics for Skill Two (working hard)

Time Group	Before Mean (SD)	After Mean (SD)	p-value
Experimental	3.40 (0.703)	3.93 (0.488)	p< 0.01
Control	2.80 (0.378)	3.0 (0.414)	p= 0.97

TIME*Group; LS Means
Current effect: F (1, 28) =2.8689, p=.10141
Effective hypothesis decomposition
Vertical bars denote 0.95
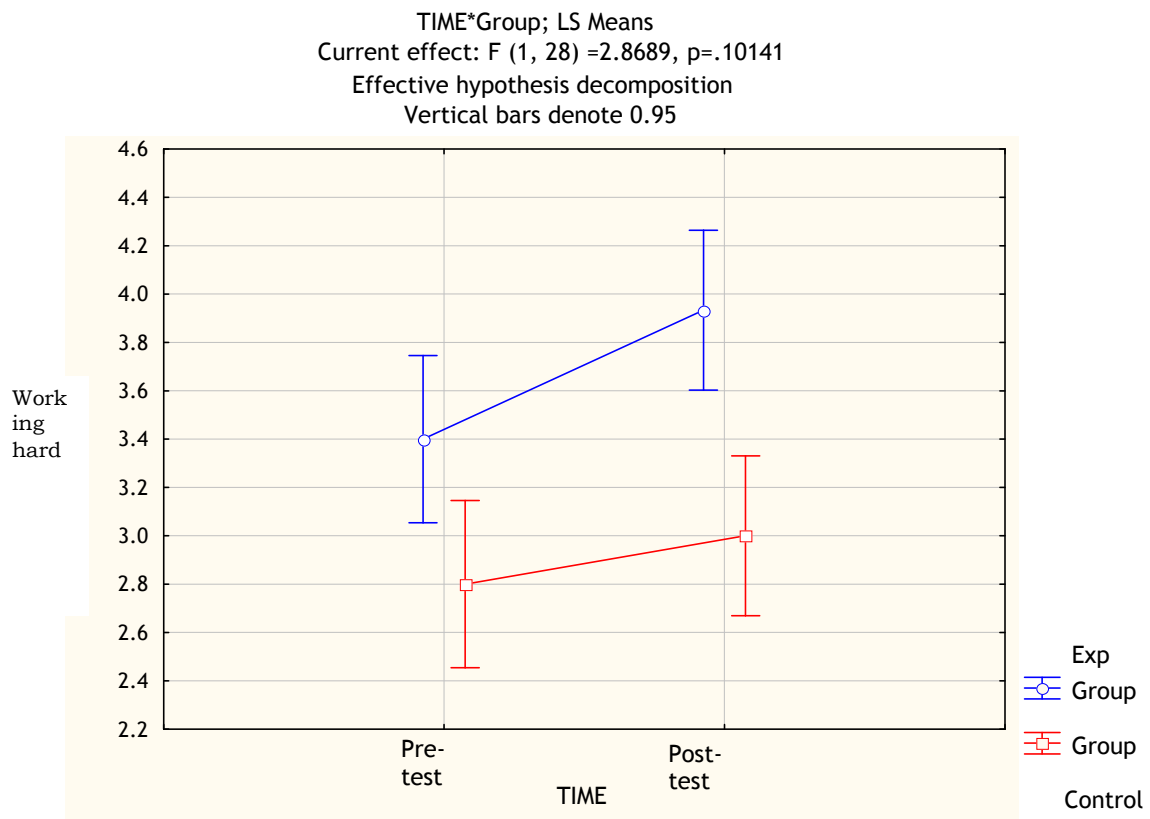
Figure 6:2. Time*Group interaction of Skill Two

Table 6:2 and Figure 6:2 show there was an increase in Skill Two *(working hard)* in both groups from pre- to post-test. In the experimental group the score increased from 3.40 to 3.93, and in the control group from 2.8 to 3.0.

In Table 6:2 the p-value of $p < 0.01$ indicates there was a significant increase in Skill Two *(working hard)* within the experimental group from pre-test to post-test, but within the control group there was no significant increase ($p = 0.95$). One can conclude that the program intervention significantly improved Skill Two in the experimental group.

Skill Three: Setting goals

Table 6:3. Descriptive statistics of Skill Three (setting goals)

Time Group	Before Mean (SD)	After Mean (SD)	p-value
Experimental	2.87 (0.743)	3.87 (0.352)	p< 0.01
Control	2.14 (0.663)	2.50 (0.519)	p= 0.18
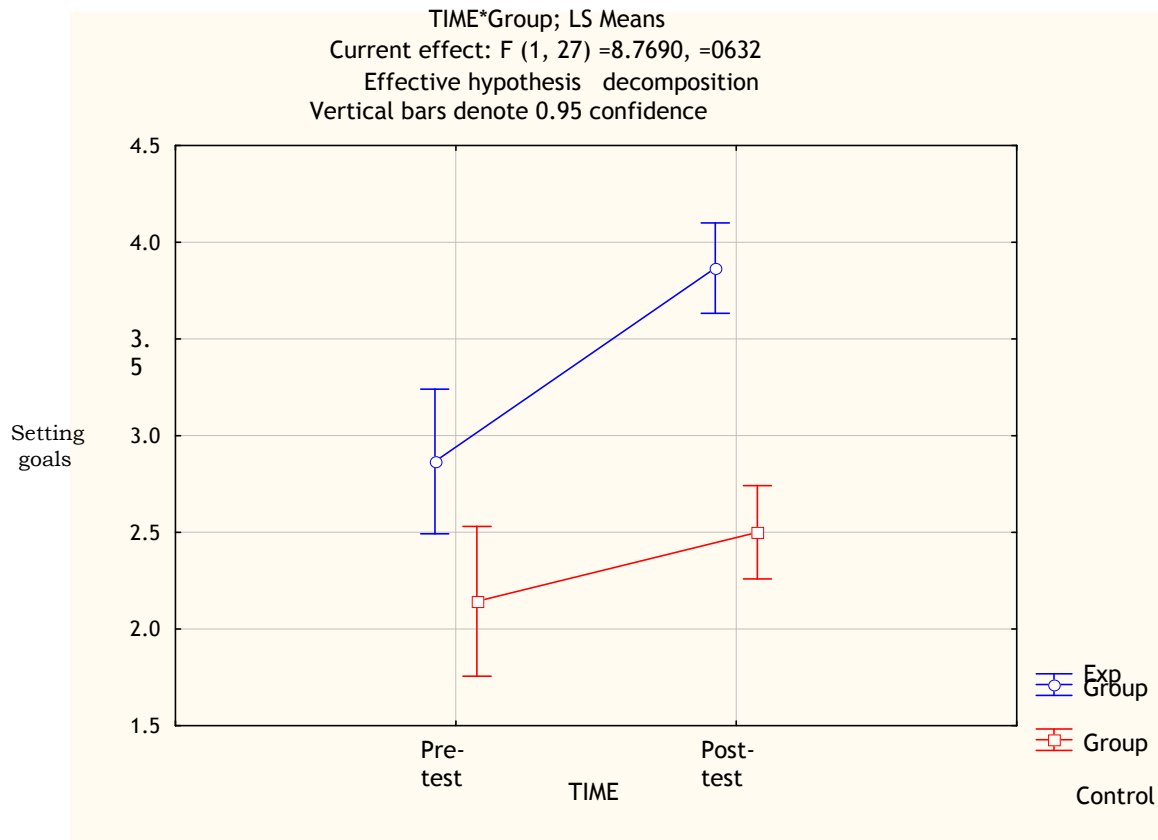
Figure 6:3. Time*Group interaction of Skill Three

Table 6:3 and Figure 6:3 show there was an increase in Skill Three *(setting goals)* in both groups from pre- to post-test. In the experimental group the score increased from 2.87 to 3.87, and in the control group from 2.14 to 2.50. The significant time*group interaction (p= 0.01), indicates a statistical significant difference from pre- to post intervention between the experimental and control group.

In Table 6:3 the p-value of (p< 0.01) indicates there was a significant increase in Skill Three *(setting goals)* within the experimental group from pre-test to post-test, but within the control group there was no significant increase (p= 0.18). One can conclude that the program intervention significantly improved Skill Three in the experimental group.

Skill Four: Trusting and inner knowing

**Table 6:4. Descriptive statistics of Skill Four
(trusting and inner knowing)**

Time Group	Before Mean (SD)	After Mean (SD)	p-value
Experimental	2.73 (0.593	3.40 (0.507)	p< 0.01
Control	1.85 (0.662)	2.14 (0.534)	p= 0.56
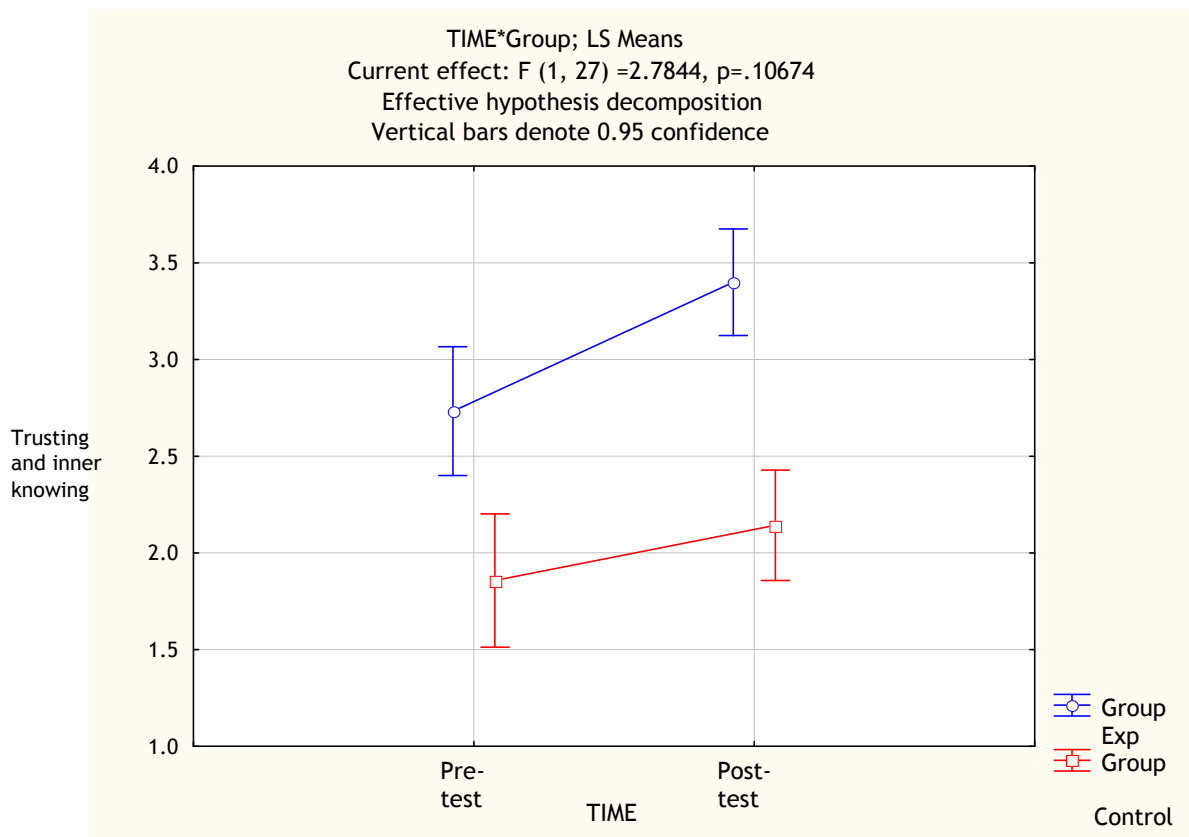
Figure 6:4. Time*Group interaction of Skill Four

Table 6:4 and Figure 6:4 show there was an increase in Skill Four *(trusting and inner knowing)* in both groups from pre- to post-test. In the experimental group the score increased from 2.73 to 3.40, and in the control group from 1.85 to 2.14.

In Table 6:4 the p-value of ($p< 0.01$) indicates a significant increase in Skill Four *(trusting and inner knowing)*, within the experimental group from the pre-test to post-test, but within the control group there was no significant increase ($p= 0.56$). One can conclude that the program intervention significantly improved Skill Four in the experimental group.

Skill Five: Distinguishing between self-confidence and self-esteem

**Table 6:5. Descriptive statistics of Skill Five
(distinguishing between self-confidence and self-esteem)**

Time Group	Before Mean (SD)	After Mean (SD)	p-value
Experimental	2.33 (0.816)	3.33 (0.617)	p< 0.01
Control	2.20 (0.676)	2.60 (0.507)	p= 0.14

TIME*Group; LS Means
Current effect: F (1, 28) =6.5172, p= 01642
Effective hypothesis decomposition
Vertical bars denote 0.95 confidence
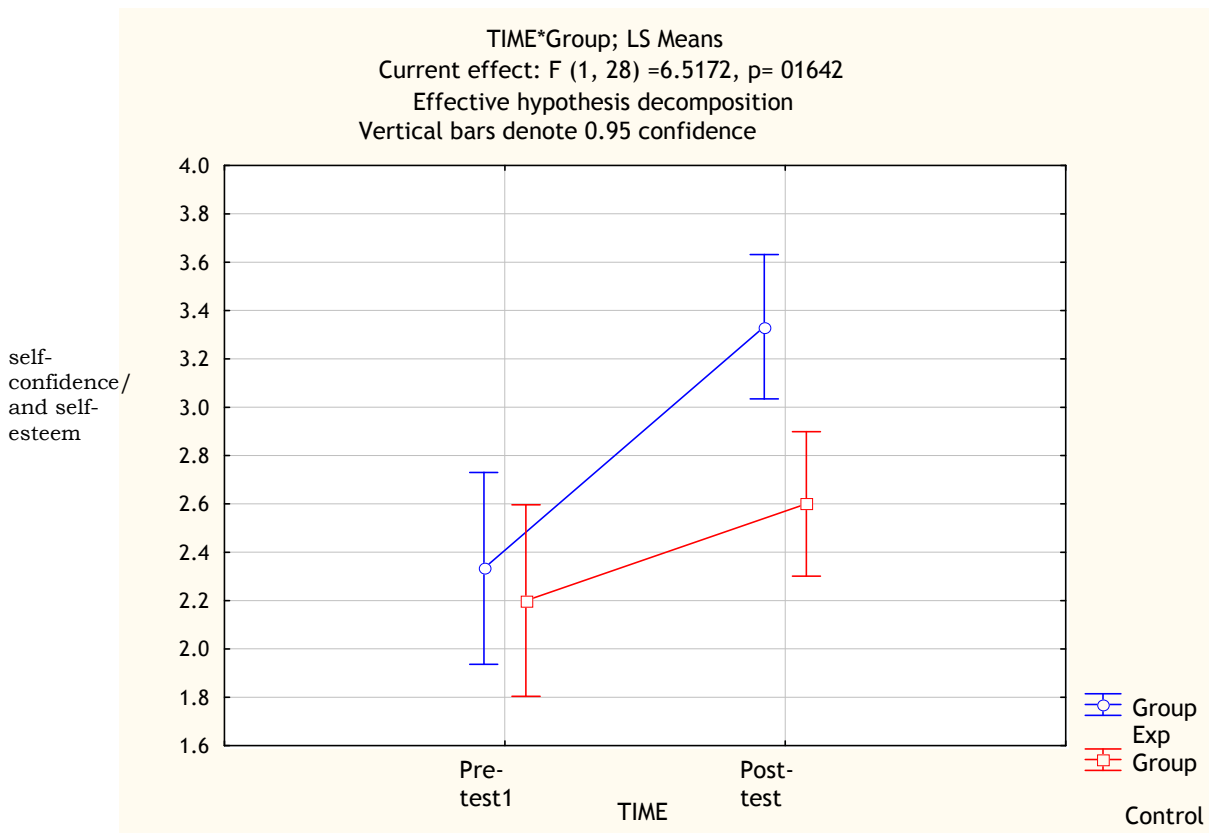
Figure 6:5. Time*Group interaction of Skill Five

Table 6:5 and Figure 6:5 show there was an increase in Skill Five *(distinguishing between self-esteem and self-confidence)* in both groups from pre- to post-test. In the experimental group the score increased from 2.33 to 3.33, and in the control group from 2.20 to 2.60. The significant time*group interaction (p= 0.02) indicates a statistical significant difference from pre- to post intervention between the experimental and control group.

In Table 6:5 the p-value (p< 0.01) indicates there was a significant increase in Skill Five *(distinguishing between self-esteem and self-confidence)* within the experimental group from pre-test to post-test, but within the control group there was no significant increase (p= 0.14). One can conclude that the program intervention significantly improved Skill Five in the experimental group.

Skill Six: Dealing with setbacks

Table 6:6. Descriptive statistics of Skill Six (dealing with setbacks)

Time Group	Before Mean (SD)	After Mean (SD)	p-value
Experimental	2.47 (0.516)	3.73 (0.458)	p< 0.01
Control	2.80 (0.560)	3.07 (0.458)	p= 0.19

TIME*Group; LS Means
Current effect: F (1, 28) =35.795, p= 00000
Effective hypothesis decomposition
Vertical bars denote 0.95 confidence intervals
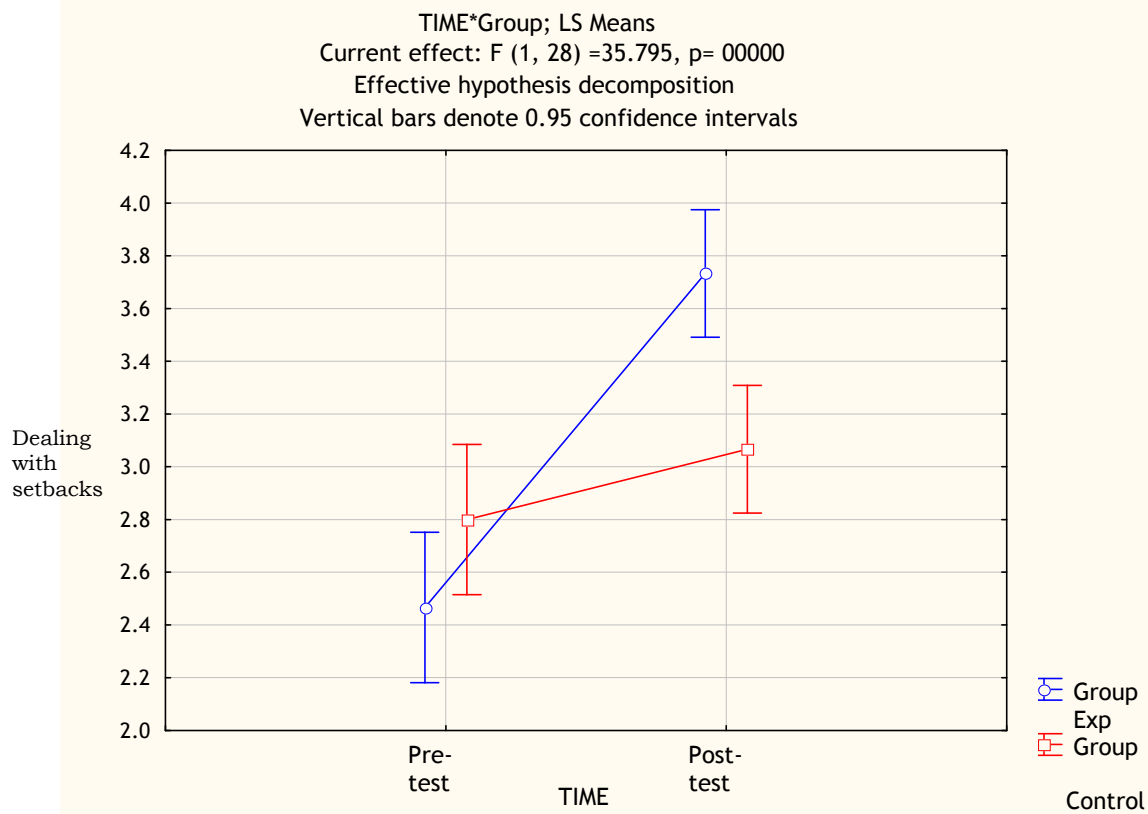
Figure 6:6. Time*Group interaction in terms of Skill Six

Table 6:6 and Figure 6:6 show there was an increase in Skill Six *(dealing with setbacks)* in both groups from pre- to post-test. In the experimental group the score increased from 2.47 to 3.73, and in the control group from 2.80 to 3.07. Since there was a significant time*group interaction (p< 0.01), from pre- to post test between the experimental and control group the results of the Bonferroni test had to be considered.

In Table 6:6 the p-value of p< 0.01 indicates there was a significant increase in Skill Six *(dealing with setbacks)* within the experimental group from pre-test to post-test, but within the control group there was no significant increase (p= 0.19). One can conclude that the program intervention significantly improved Skill Six in the experimental group.

Skill Seven: Managing anxiety and confidence

Table 6:7. Descriptive statistics of Skill Seven (managing anxiety and confidence)

Time Group	Before Mean (SD)	After Mean (SD)	p-value
Experimental	2.47 (0.516)	4.00 (0.535)	p< 0.01
Control	2.07 (0.458)	2.00 (0.535)	p= 1.00

TIME*Group; LS Means
Current effect: F (1, 28) =115.20, p= 00000
Effective hypothesis decomposition
Vertical bars denote 0.95 confidence

Figure 6:7. Time*Group interaction of Skill Seven

Table 6:7 and Figure 6:7 show there was an increase in Skill Seven *(anxiety and confidence)* in the experimental group from pre- to post-test but a decline in the control group. In the experimental group, the score increased from 2.47 to 4.00; but within the control group the score decreased from 2.07 to 2.00. Since there was a significant time*group interaction (p< 0.01), from pre- to post test between the experimental and control group the results of the Bonferroni test had to be considered. Here the group and time factors are compared separately to exclude the influence of interaction between the two factors.

In Table 6:7 the p-value of p< 0.01 indicates there was a significant increase in Skill Seven *(anxiety and confidence)* within the experimental group from pre-test to post-test, but within the control group no significant change was found (p= 1.00). One can conclude that the program intervention significantly improved Skill Seven in the experimental group.

**Table 6:8. Descriptive statistics of Skill Eight
(using language effectively in self-talk and communication)**

Time Group	Before Mean (SD)	After Mean (SD)	p-value
Experimental	2.07 (0.704)	3.20 (0.560)	p< 0.01
Control	2.80 (0.561)	2.80 (0.561)	p= 1.00

TIME*Group; LS Means
Current effect: F (1, 28) =34.879, p=.00000
Effective hypothesis decomposition
Vertical bars denote 0.95 confidence intervals
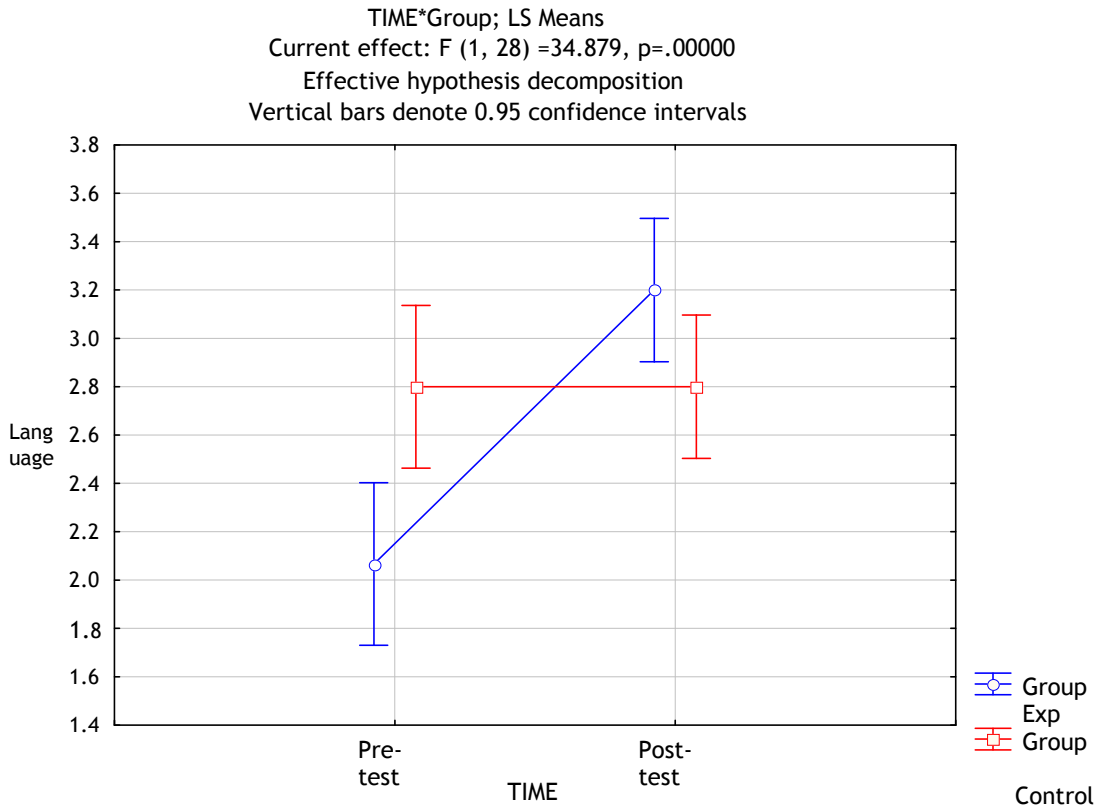
Figure 6:8. Time*Group interaction of Skill Eight

Table 6:8 and Figure 6:8 show there was an increase in Skill Eight *(effectively using language in self-talk and communication)* in the experimental group from pre-test to post-test, but the control group stayed the same. In the experimental group, the score increased from 2.07 to 3.20, and in the control group the score remained 2.80. Since there was a significant time*group interaction (p< 0.01), from pre- to post test between the experimental and control group the Bonferroni test had to be considered. Here the group and time factors are compared separately to exclude the influence of interaction between the two factors.

In Table 6:8 the p-value of p< 0.01 indicates there was a significant increase in Skill Eight *(effectively using language in self-talk and communication)* within the experimental group from pre-test to post-test, but within the control group there was no significant increase from pre- to post-test (p= 1.00). One can conclude that the program intervention significantly improved Skill Eight in the experimental group.

Skill Nine: Preparing mentally

Table 6:9. Descriptive statistics of Skill Nine (preparing mentally)

Time Group	Before Mean (SD)	After Mean (SD)	p-value
Experimental	1.46 (0.660)	3.46 (0.519)	p< 0.01
Control	2.07 (0.258)	2.13 (0.352	p= 1.00

TIME*Group; LS Means
Current effect: F (1, 26) =97.616, p= 00000
Effective hypothesis decomposition
Vertical bars denote 0.95 confidence
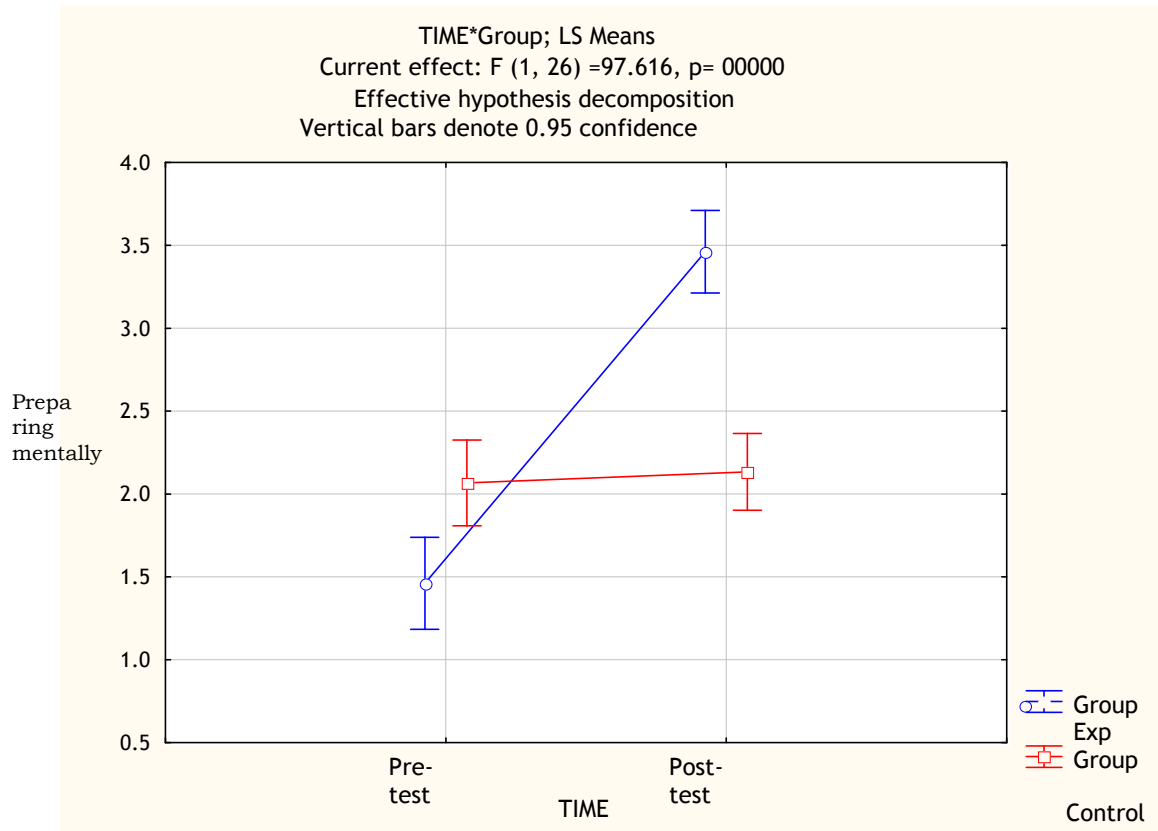
Figure 6:9. Time*Group interaction of Skill Nine

Table 6:9 and Figure 6:9 show there was an increase in Skill Nine *(preparing mentally before an event)* in the experimental group, but only a slight increase in the control group. In the experimental group the score increased from 1.46 to 3.46, and in the control group from 2.07 to 2.13. Since there was a significant time*group interaction ($p < 0.01$), from pre- to post test between the experimental and control group the Bonferroni test had to be considered.

In Table 6:9 the p-value of $p < 0.01$ indicates there was a significant increase in Skill Nine *(preparing mentally before an event)* within the experimental group from pre-test to post-test, but within the control group no significant increase ($p = 1.00$) was found. One can conclude that the program intervention significantly improved Skill Nine in the experimental team.

Skill Ten: Managing flow state

Table 6:10. Descriptive statistics of Skill Ten (managing flow- state)

Time Group	Before Mean (SD)	After Mean (SD)	p-value
Experimental	1.93 (0.997)	3.07 (0.730)	p< 0.01
Control	2.27 (0.456)	2.33 (0.488)	p= 1.00
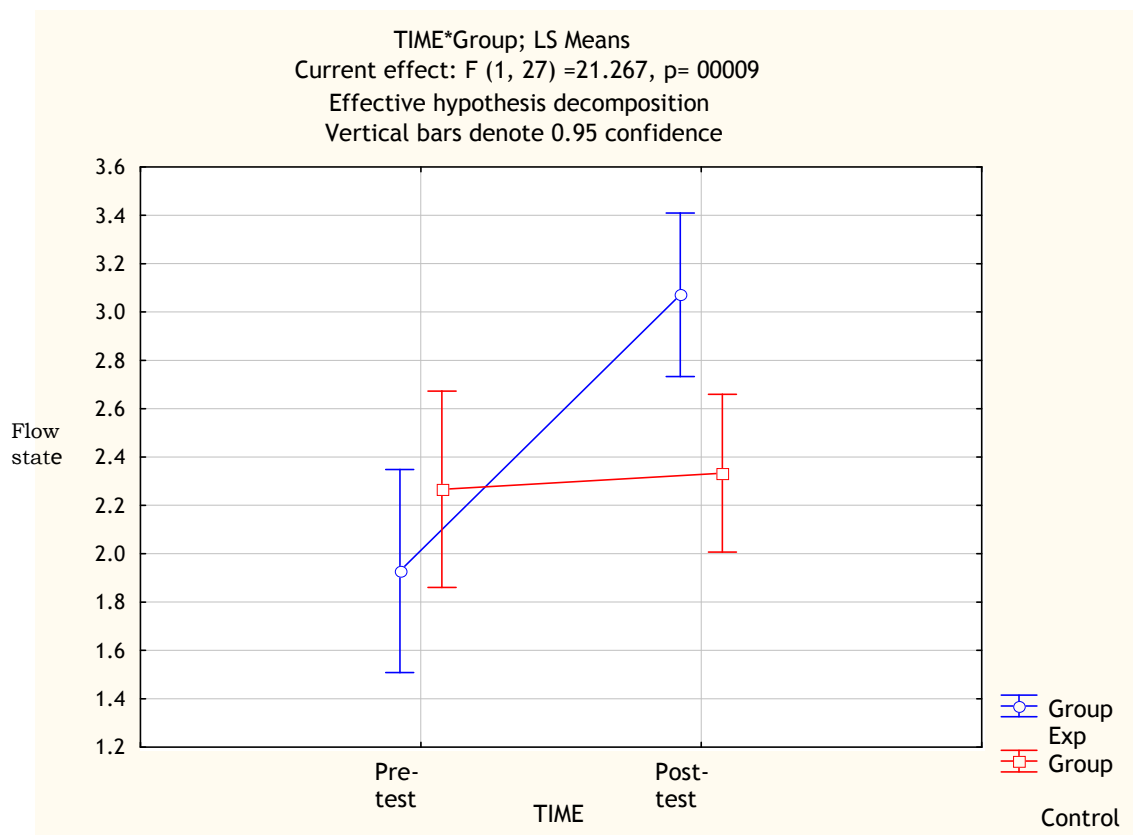
Figure 6:10. Time*Group interaction of Skill Ten

Table 6:10 and Figure 6:10 show there was an increase in Skill Ten *(managing flow state)* in the experimental group from pre- to post-test. There was only a slight increase in the control group. In the experimental group the score increased from 1.93 to 3.07; and in the control group from 2.27 to 2.33. Since there was a significant time*group interaction (p< 0.01), from pre- to post test between the experimental and control group, the group and time factors were compared separately to exclude the influence of interaction between the two factors.

In Table 6:10 the p-value of p< 0.01 indicates there was a significant increase in Skill Ten *(managing flow state)* within the experimental group from pre-test to post-test, but within the control group there was no significant increase (p= 1.00). One can conclude that the program intervention significantly improved Skill Ten in the experimental group.

Skills Eleven to Seventeen (The subjective experience of the 'cricket self-concept')

Skills eleven to seventeen refer to the subjective experience of the player in terms of batting, bowling, fielding, mental, fitness, team and personal aspects in the team. It refers to the player's subjective experience of his 'cricket self-concept.'

Skill Eleven: Batting (Subjective experience of batting)

Table 6:11. Descriptive statistics of Skill Eleven (subjective experience of batting)

Time Group	Before Mean (SD)	After Mean (SD)	p-value
Experimental	0.49 (0.116)	0.70 (0.094)	p< 0.01
Control	0.61 (0.149)	0.64 (0.121)	p= 0.94

Table 6:11 and Figure 6:11 show there was an increase in Skill Eleven *(subjective experience of batting)* in both groups from pre- to post-test. In the experimental group the score increased from 0.49 to 0.70, and within the control group the score increased from 0.61 to 0.64. Since there was a significant time*group interaction (p< 0.01), from pre- to post test between the experimental and control group the results of the Bonferroni test had to be performed.
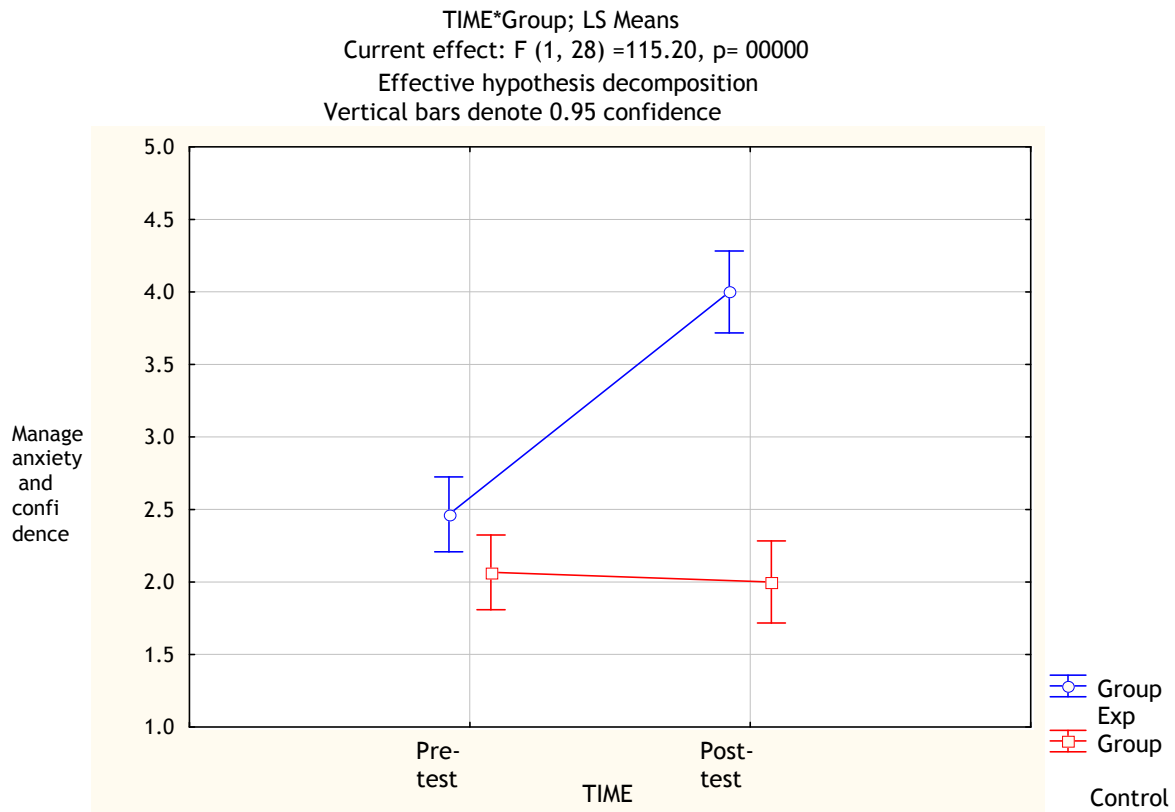
In Table 6:11 the p-value of p< 0.01 indicates there was a significant increase in the subjective experience of batting in the experimental group from pre-test to post-test, but within the control group there was no significant (p= 0.94) increase. One can conclude that the program intervention significantly improved Skill Eleven in the experimental group.
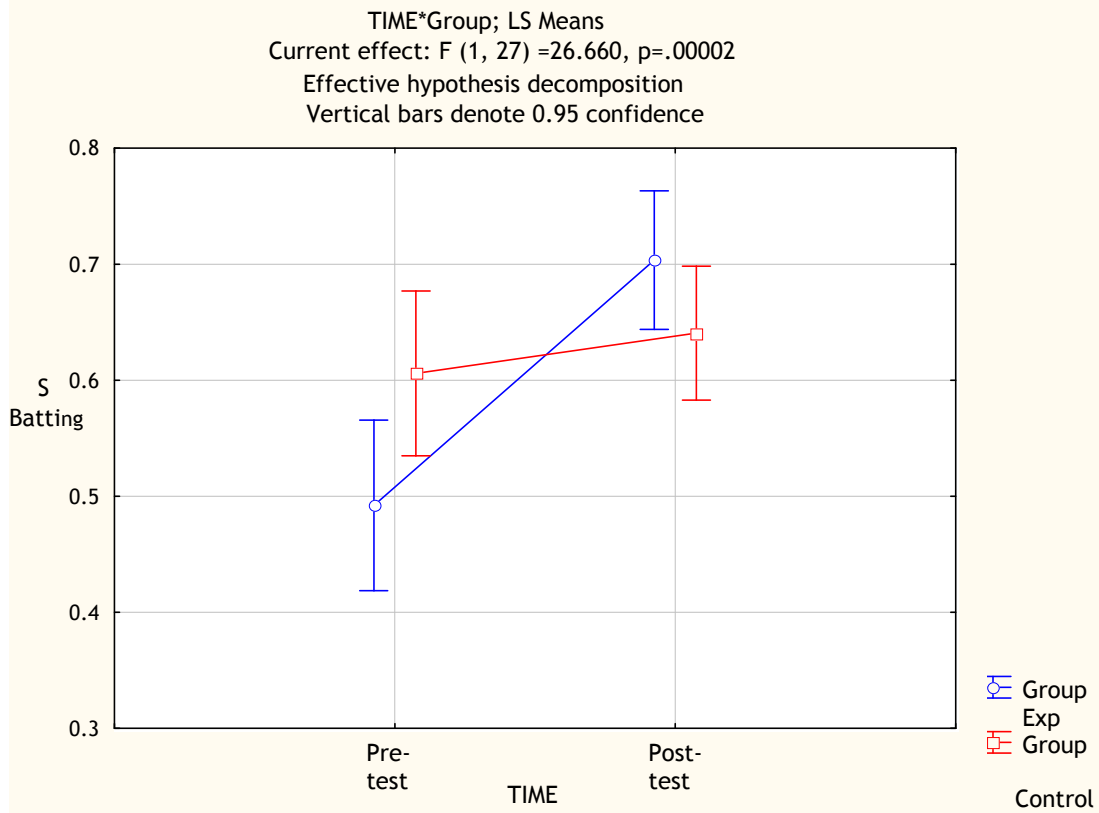
Figure 6:11. Time*Group interaction of Skill Eleven

Skill Twelve: Bowling (Subjective experience of bowling)

Table 6:12. Descriptive statistics of Skill Twelve (subjective experience of bowling)

Time Group	Before Mean (SD)	After Mean (SD)	p-value
Experimental	0.47 (0.087)	0.68 (0.112)	p< 0.01
Control	0.63 (0.113)	0.66 (0.109)	p= 0.94
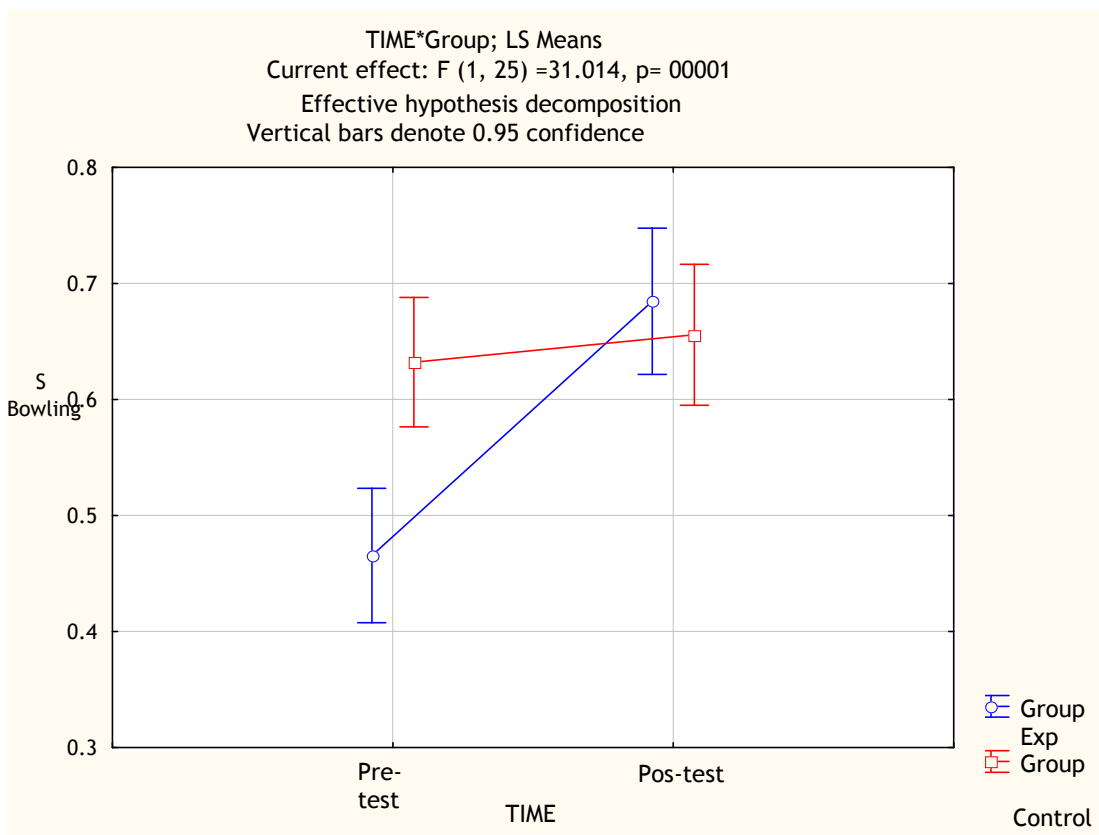
Figure 6:12. Time*Group interaction of Skill Twelve

Table 6:12 and Figure 6:12 show there was an increase in the Skill Twelve *(subjective experience of bowling)* in the experimental group, with only a slight increase in the control group. In the experimental group the score increased from 0.47 to 0.68 and in the control group it increased from 0.63 to 0.66. Since there was a significant time*group interaction (p< 0.01), from pre- to post-test between the experimental and control group the results of the Bonferroni test had to be considered.

In Table 6:12 the p-value of p< 0.01 indicates there was a significant increase in the subjective experience of bowling within the experimental group from pre-test to post-test, but within the control group there was no significant (p= 0.94) increase. One can conclude that the program intervention significantly improved Skill Twelve in the experimental group.

Skill Thirteen: Fielding (Subjective experience of fielding)

Table 6:13. Descriptive statistics of Skill Thirteen (subjective experience of fielding)

Time Group	Before Mean (SD)	After Mean (SD)	p-value
Experimental	0.51 (0.118)	0.77 (0.103)	p< 0.01
Control	0.64 (0.085)	0.65 (0.760)	p= 1.00
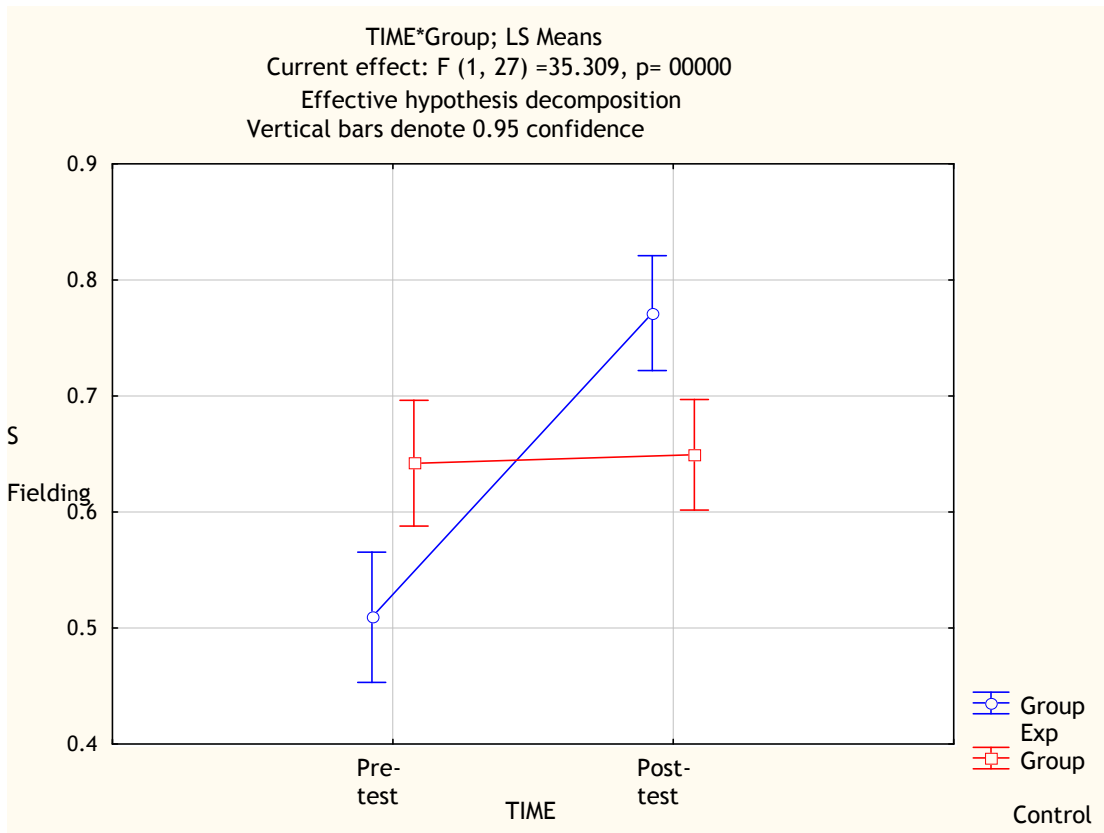
Figure 6:13. Time*Group interaction of Skill Thirteen

Table 6:13 and Figure 6:13 show there was an increase in Skill Thirteen *(subjective experience of fielding)* in the experimental group, with only a slight increase in the control group. In the experimental group the score increased from 0.51 to 0.77 and in the control group it increased from 0.64 to 0.65. Since there was a significant time*group interaction (p< 0.01), from pre- to post test between the experimental and control group the Bonferroni test was applied.

In Table 6:13 the p-value of p< 0.01 indicates there was a significant increase in Skill Thirteen the *(subjective experience of fielding)* within the experimental group from pre-test to post-test, but within the control group there was no significant increase (p= 1.00). One can conclude that the program intervention significantly improved Skill Thirteen in the experimental group.

Skill Fourteen: Mental approach (Subjective experience of mental approach)

Table 6:14. Descriptive statistics of Skill Fourteen (subjective experience of mental approach)

Time Group	Before Mean (SD)	After Mean (SD)	p-value
Experimental	0.51 (0.110)	0.77 (0.072)	p< 0.01
Control	0.55 (0.106)	0.55 (0.110)	p= 1.00

Current effect: F (1, 27) =73.872, p=.00000

TIME*Group; LS Means

Effective hypothesis decomposition
Vertical bars denote 0.95 confidence
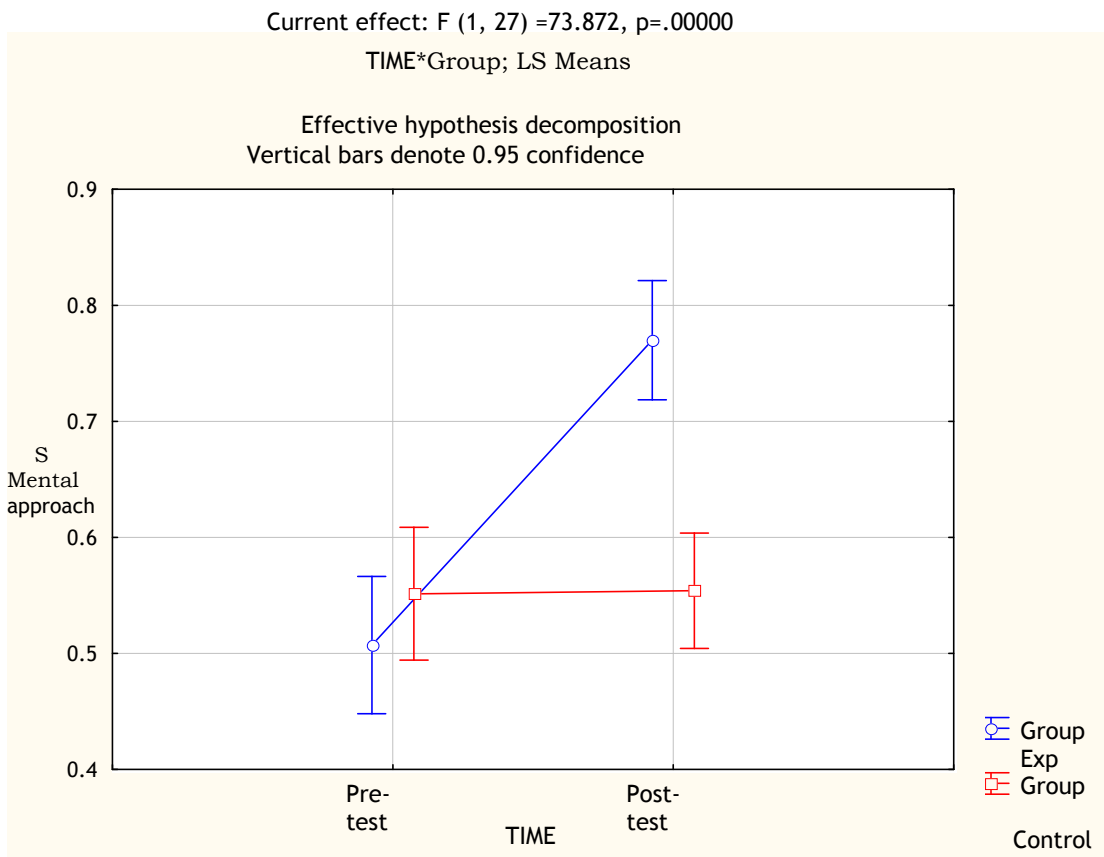
Figure 6:14. Time*Group interaction of Skill Fourteen

Table 6:14 and Figure 6:14 show there was an increase in Skill Fourteen *(the subjective experience of mental approach)* in the experimental group, but only a slight increase in the control group. In the experimental group the score increased from 0.51 to 0.77 but in the control group the score stayed the same, 0.55. Since there was a significant time*group interaction ($p < 0.01$), from pre- to post test between the experimental and control group the results of the Bonferroni test were considered.

In Table 6:14 the p-value of $p < 0.01$ indicates there was a significant increase in Skill Fourteen *(the subjective experience of mental approach)* within the experimental group from pre- to post-test, but within the control group no significant increase ($p = 1.00$) was found. One can conclude that the program intervention significantly improved Skill Fourteen in the experimental team.

Skill Fifteen: Fitness

Table 6:15. Descriptive statistics of Skill Fifteen (the subjective experience of fitness)

Time Group	Before Mean (SD)	After Mean (SD)	p-value
Experimental	0.49 (0.132)	0.68 (0.110)	p< 0.01
Control	0.65 (0.090)	0.68 (0.077)	p= 1.00

TIME*Group; LS Means
Current effect: F (1, 27) =15.081, p=.00060
Effective hypothesis decomposition
Vertical bars denote 0.95 confidence

Figure 6:15. Time*Group interaction of Skill Fifteen

Table 6:15 and Figure 6:15 show there was an increase in Skill Fifteen *(the subjective experience of fitness)* in the experimental group, but only a slight increase in the control group. In the experimental group the score increased from 0.49 to 0.68 and in the control group the score increased from 0.65 to 0.68. Since there was a significant time*group interaction ($p < 0.01$), from pre- to post test between the experimental and control group the Bonferroni test had to be performed to exclude the influence of interaction between the two factors.

In Table 6:15 the p-value of $p < 0.01$ indicates there was a significant increase within the experimental group, but within the control group there was no significant ($p = 1.00$) increase. One can conclude that the program intervention significantly improved Skill Fifteen in the experimental group.

Skill Sixteen: Team work (Subjective experience in the team)

Table 6:16. Descriptive statistics of Skill Sixteen (subjective experience in the team)

Time Group	Before Mean (SD)	After Mean (SD)	p-value
Experimental	0.50 (0.135)	0.76 (0.099)	p< 0.01
Control	0.66 (0.107)	0.67 (0.098)	p= 1.00
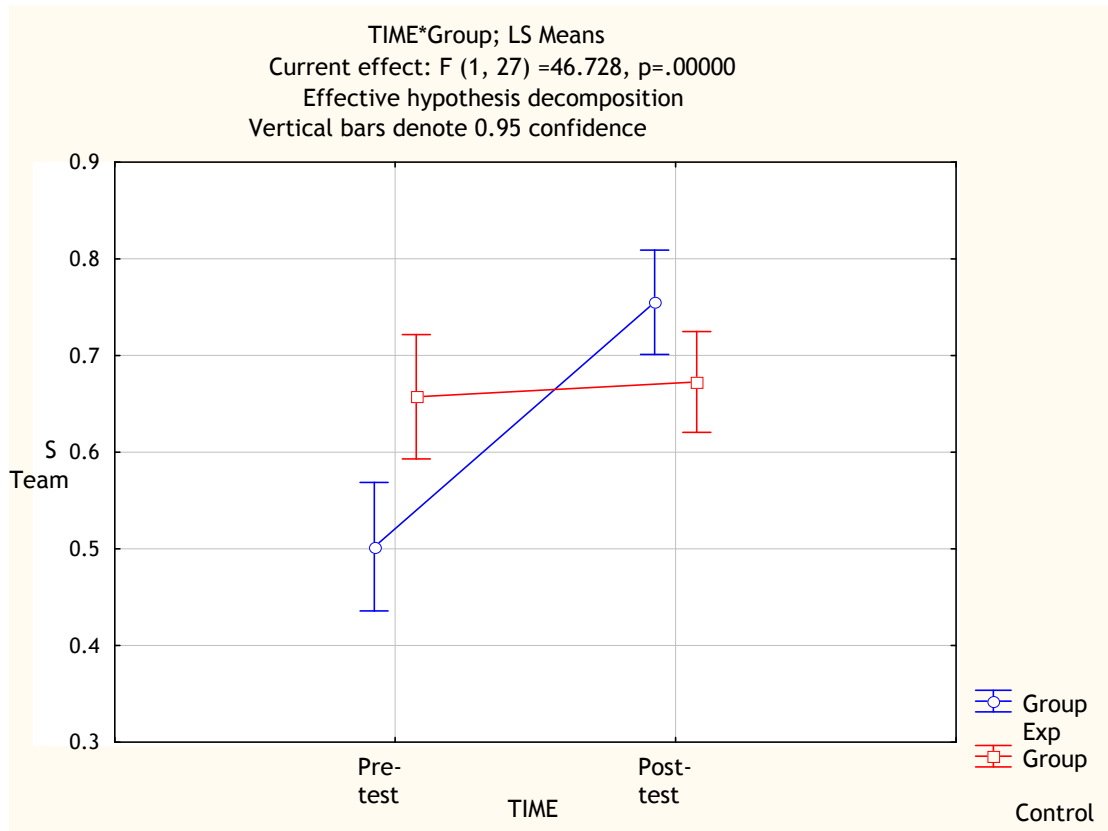
Figure 6:16. Time*Group interaction of Skill Sixteen

Table 6:16 and Figure 6:16 show there was an increase in Skill Sixteen *(the subjective experience in the team)* in the experimental group from pre- to post-test, and only a slight increase in the control group. In the experimental group the score increased from 0.50 to 0.76, and in the control group it increased from 0.66 to 0.67. Since there was a significant time*group interaction (p< 0.01), from pre- to post test between the experimental and control group the Bonferroni had to be considered.

In Table 6:16 the p-value of p< 0.01 indicates there was a significant increase within the experimental group from pre-test to post-test, but within the control group (p= 1.00) no significant increase was found. One can conclude that the program intervention significantly improved Skill Sixteen in the experimental group.

Skill Seventeen: Interpersonal functioning (Subjective experience of interpersonal functioning)

Table 6:17. Descriptive statistics of Skill Seventeen (subjective experience of interpersonal functioning)

Time Group	Before Mean (SD)	After Mean (SD)	p-value
Experimental	0.48 (0.118)	0.77 (0.145)	p< 0.01
Control	0.60 (0.120)	0.61 (0.119)	p= 1.00
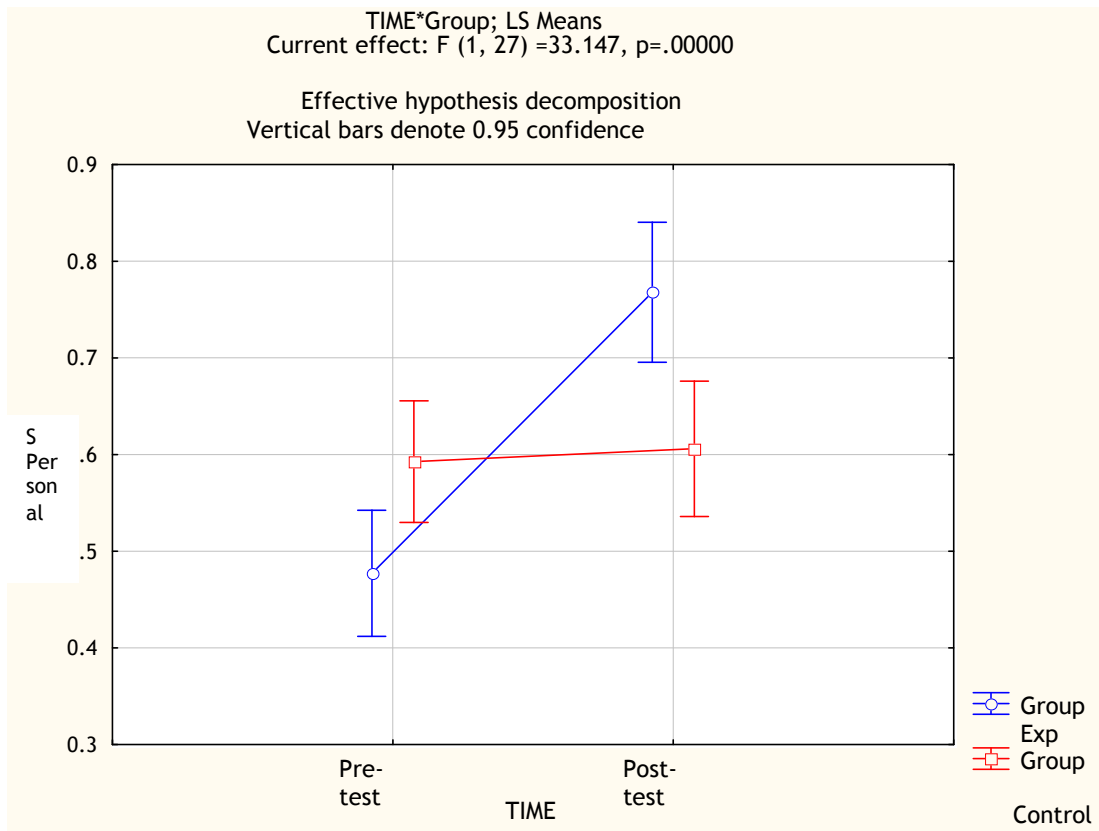
Figure 6:17. Time*Group interaction of Skill Seventeen

Table 6:17 and Figure 6:17 show there was an increase in Skill Seventeen *(the subjective experience of personal aspects in the team)* in the experimental group, from pre- to post-test, but only a slight increase in the control group. In the experimental group the score increased from 0.48 to 0.77 and in the control group the score increased from 0.60 to 0.61. Since there was a significant time*group interaction (p< 0.01), from pre- to post test between the experimental and control group, group and time factors were compared separately to exclude the influence of interaction between the two factors.

In Table 6:17 the p-value of p< 0.01 indicates there was a significant increase in Skill Seventeen *(the subjective experience of personal aspects in the team)* within the experimental group from pre-test to post-test, but within the control group there was no significant increase (p= 1.00). One can conclude that the program intervention significantly improved Skill Seventeen in the experimental team.

Skills Eighteen and Nineteen (Performance skills)

Skills eighteen to nineteen refer to the actual cricket performance in terms of batting and bowling.

Skill Eighteen: Batting performance

Table 6:18. Descriptive statistics of Skill Eighteen (batting performance)

Time Group	Before Mean (SD)	After Mean (SD)	p-value
Experimental	0.25 (0.123)	0.34 (0.140)	p< 0.01
Control	0.17 (0.o51)	0.18 (0.052)	p= 1.00

TIME*Group; LS Means
Current effect: F (1, 27) =42.824, p= 00000
Effective hypothesis decomposition
Vertical bars denote 0.95 confidence
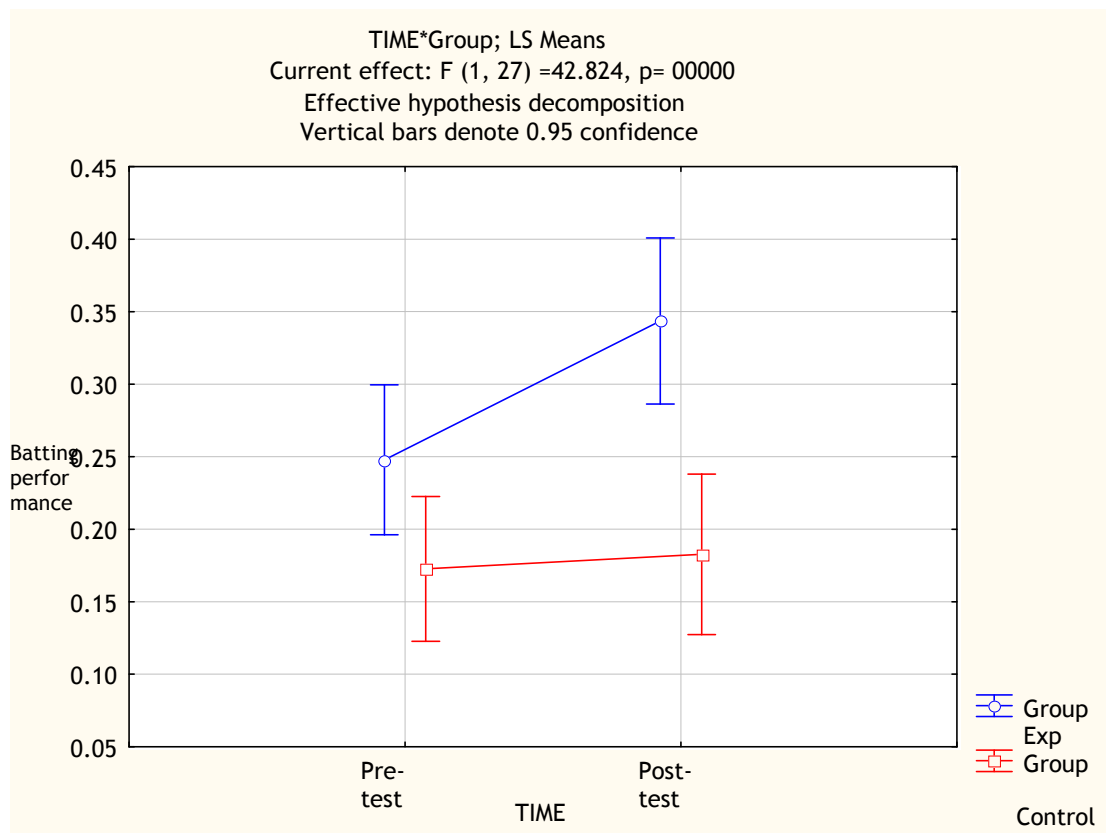
Figure 6:18. Time*Group interaction of Skill Eighteen

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Table 6:18 and Figure 6:18 show there was an increase in Skill Eighteen *(batting performance)* in the experimental group, but only a slight increase in the control group. In the experimental group the score increased from 0.25 to 0.34 and in the control group from 0.17 to 0.18. Since there was a significant time*group interaction (p< 0.01), from pre- to post test between the experimental and control group the Bonferroni test has to be applied to compare group and time factors separately to exclude the influence of interaction between the two factors.

In Table 6:18 the p-value of p< 0.01 indicates there was a significant increase in batting performance within the experimental group from pre-test to post-test, but within the control group there was no significant (p= 1.00) increase. One can conclude that the program intervention significantly improved Skill Eighteen in the experimental group.

Skill Nineteen: Bowling performance

Table 6:19. Descriptive statistics of Skill Nineteen (bowling performance)

Time Group	Before Mean (SD)	After Mean (SD)	p-value
Experimental	0.20 (0.047)	0.15 (0.042)	p< 0.01
Control	0.27 (0.033)	0.26 (0.040)	p= 1.00
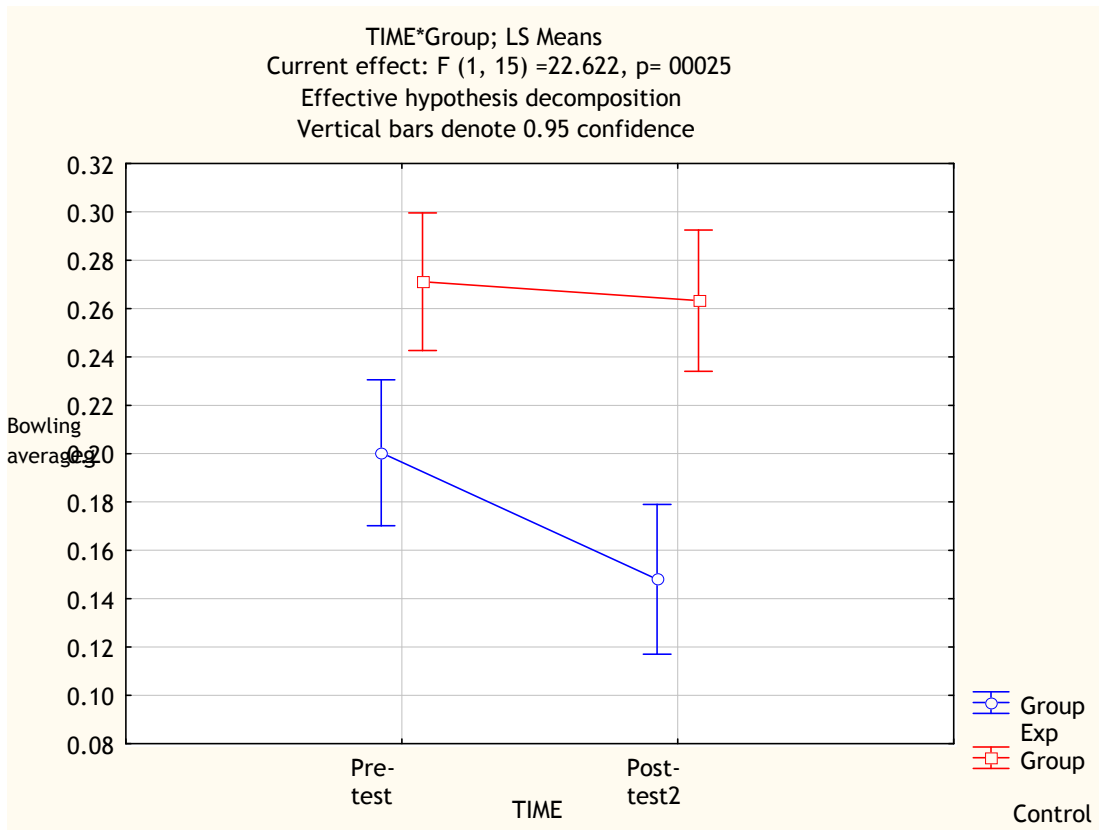
Figure 6:19. Time*Group interaction of Skill Nineteen

Table 6:19 and Figure 6:19 show there was a decrease in Skill Nineteen *(bowling average)* within the experimental group, but only a slight decrease in the control group. In the experimental group the score decreased from 0.20 to 0.15, and in the control group the score decreased from 0.27 to 0.26. Since there was a significant time*group interaction (p< 0.01) from pre- to post test between the experimental and control group the Bonferroni test had to be consulted.
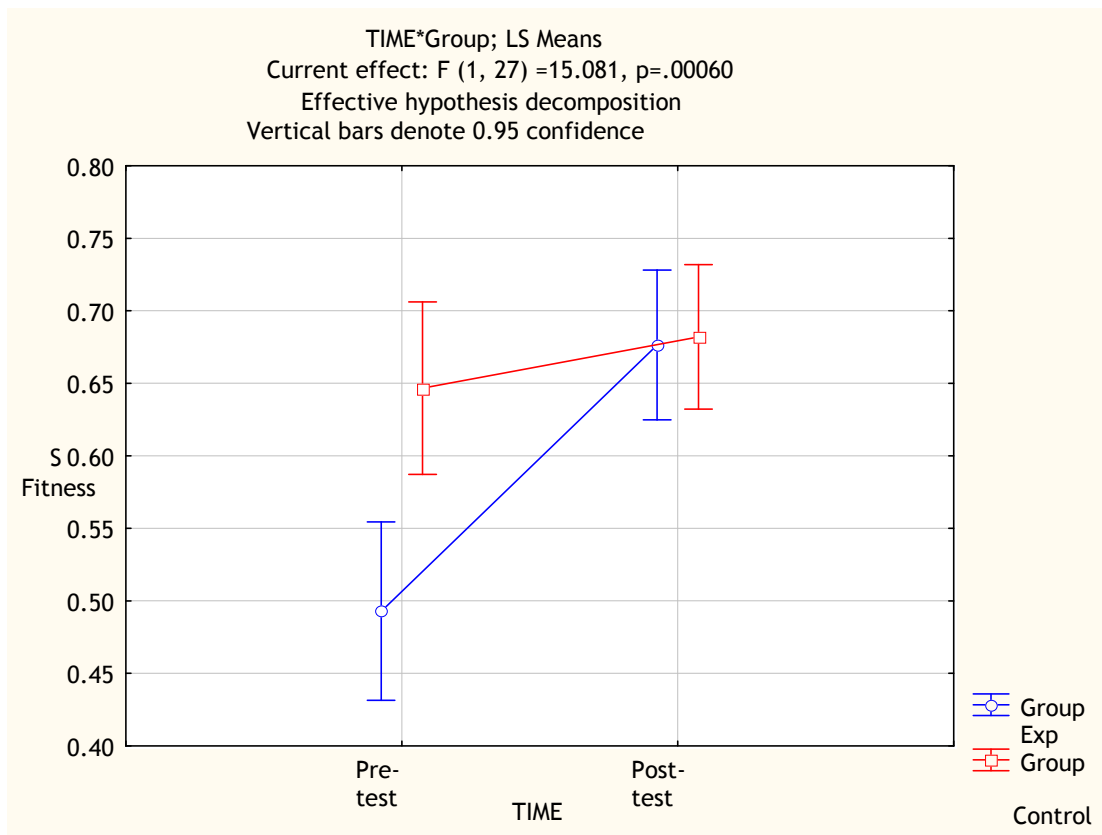
In Table 6:19 the p-value of p< 0.01 indicates there was a significant decrease in the bowling average within the experimental group from pre-test to post-test, but within the control group there was no significant decrease (p= 1.00). One can conclude that the program intervention significantly improved Skill Nineteen in the experimental group.

Summary

Pre- and post-intervention scores of the experimental and the control groups were evaluated by means of a repeated analysis of variance (ANOVA) of nineteen skills. In the case of nineteen skills the experimental group improved significantly whereas the control group showed no change. It can therefore be concluded that the intervention programme was successful.

The skills were measured separately, but it should be seen as a unit, the one is not more superior to the other. A discussion of the interrelatedness of these skills will be discussed in the following chapter.

Chapter Seven

Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations

Introduction

In this chapter the results of the intervention programme will be discussed, conclusions will be made and recommendations for future research will be proposed. A model for further research will be given.

Discussion of results

Although the results are discussed as separate skills, it should be seen as one model as each aspect enhances or fits in with the other. This statement is in compliance with the view of Kruger (2007) who suggests that an internal experience or thought about a skill, is a stream of consciousness, interrelated and interlinked with different aspects at the same time. Figure 7:1 shows how the skills are interlinked.
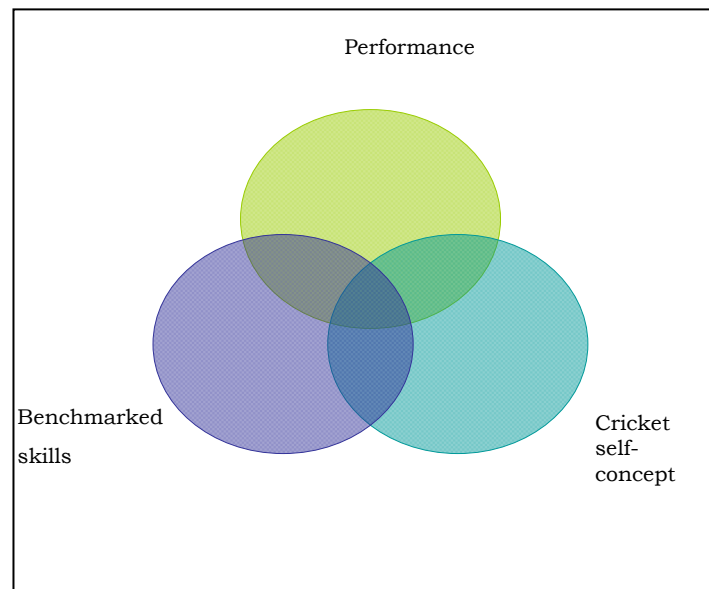
Figure 7:1. The interlinked skills seen as a unit

The results of the following three aspects are discussed:

- benchmarking (skills one to ten).
- subjective experience of the 'cricket self-concept' (skills eleven to seventeen).
- performance results (skills eighteen and nineteen).

Benchmarking

Benchmarking is used to create a scale that measures concepts and skills and intangible behaviours that are too vague to describe. Once this is done, an athlete is measured on a skill and re-measured on the same skill after an intervention to see whether there is an improvement (Cooper & Goodenough, 2007).

All the skills included in the benchmarking showed a significant improvement in the experimental group, compared to no improvement in the control group.

The player who performs from his *highest intention* has a higher meaning, a bigger goal, than merely to win. This can be traced back to ancient times. From the primitive peoples to the Greeks and Romans, sporting events were a part of the festivals and rituals of the ancients and were used to assure a deeper relationship with God or the gods (Hasting & DelleMonache, 2007).

Sport science can quantify many aspects of human performance but the spiritual dimensions of sports experience cannot be fully understood through measurement. The spiritual experience of sport is described as 'flow', 'transcendence' or the discovery of meaning and value and is central to our basic motivation to take part in sports and to achieving success (Parry, Nesti, Robinson & Watson, 2007).

The athlete performing from his highest intention also experiences obstacles, hardships or injuries but his attitude is different from the player who has no spiritual connection to his sport (Cooper & Goodenough, 2007). He can actually

step back from his problems and see the bigger picture and can realise that there will be a reward once he has overcome his obstacles (Armstrong & Jenkins, 2003). Csikszentmihalyi (1990) states that flow state just happens and is a side effect of one's personal dedication to a course greater than oneself.

Similar results on performing from one's highest intention were found in other literature (Vernacchia et al. 2000). These show that to reach Olympic standards, athletes had a dream or a spiritual connection to their sport, which carried them through to their ultimate goal. Performing from one's highest intention forms part of the belief system, and this involves trusting, inner knowing, dealing with setbacks and distinguishing between self-esteem and self-confidence (Alder, 1994; Bandler & Grinder, 1975; O'Connor & Seymour, 1990).

The results should be interpreted in the context of the remaining aspects that were presented: goal setting, using language effectively, work ethics and imagery. Other influences that could have affected the results are modelling and awareness.

According to Cooper and Goodenough (2007), *working hard* underpins all other skills, as nothing will be achieved in the world of sport without hard work. This is supported by Vernacchia et al. (2000). Once a player has prepared himself to the best of his ability he can go into autopilot, and possibly into flow state. The reason is that he focuses on the task at hand and can ignore other aspects as the body-mind connection takes over.

The significant improvement in the experimental group could be ascribed to acquiring inner belief in themselves. Through goal setting, they could pursue the direction towards a desired state. To reach their goals they had to exert more effort and that meant working harder (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999).

The increase in work ethics in the control group during the period of research had a significant meaning for the researcher. It revealed that the players in the

control group wished to become better, but were sometimes overlooked as they were not in the top (A) team. Although they had a desire to do better they did not have the necessary skills to improve, or someone to teach them how to improve, therefore they remained on the same performance level or even deteriorated in some areas of their play.

Sport psychologists should acknowledge this situation and intervention programmes should be given to sports people even if they are not part of a top provincial or national squad.

Csikszentmihalyi (1990) sees *setting goals* as one of the important aspects that leads to flow state. When psychic energy is invested in realistic goals, and skills match the opportunities for action, a person reaches for higher challenges and becomes an increasingly extraordinary individual.

Bodenhamer and Hall (1999) maintain that goal setting leads a person from the present state to the desired state. The different aspects of setting goals were clearly explained to the experimental group. Through goal setting the players began to focus on what they wanted (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999). They could measure progress (Miller, 1997; Orlick, 1998), it created a challenge (O'Connor, 2001), a sense of purpose was developed and this motivated them to achieve what they wanted to achieve. O'Connor (2001) claims this progress to be part of the benefits of goal setting.

The players had to focus on action plans to overcome their obstacles (doing). They were forced to look at their problem areas and had to change what they saw by thinking differently about them. Through these changed ways of thinking and doing, the players started on their journey to their desired state (Kruger, 2007).

The cricketers started realising they could change their belief system by setting goals. Once they recognised the ability and worthiness (PAW) process of achieving a goal, they could reach it (O'Connor, 2001). This realisation had a

profound impact on how the players started to think about their desired state, and how they must change their behaviour to reach it.

The way the players saw themselves in their desired state had an impact on all the other areas of the programme; it influencing their self-talk, work ethics, believing in the self and preparing mentally. Setting goals is an important skill for performance enhancement.

Trusting and inner knowing refer to the player's sense of authority and whether these mental skills are inside them (trust and inner knowing) or outside them (in someone else's hands).

The inner knowing comes from a confidence that is a state of mind. It is not about being confident about something, such as playing cricket, but being confident as a person, in any situation (Molden, 2007). It is about the ego-strength that grows from a sense of self, self-esteem, self-worth and dignity (Hall, 2007).

The awareness of inner knowing was taught to the players by allowing themselves permission and recognition. Inner knowing was created by the players who trusted themselves to make own decisions, motivate themselves, and reward themselves when they had done well (Cooper & Goodenough, 2007).

Hall (2007) states that permission and recognition run parallel with the meanings one gives to situations that involve images, thoughts, feelings and beliefs. Meaning is how a person makes sense of his world; if it is negative, he will experience his world as negative (or the meaning that he gives to permission and recognition will be negative).

By using the powers of thinking, doing, feeling and saying, negative meaning could be changed to positive actions.

This skill should be placed in the bigger framework of the programme, as all other skills also enhance trust and inner knowing.

A *clear distinction between self-confidence and self-esteem*, or being and doing is an important skill to master. A cricketer who feels that his self-worth and value are measured by the way he performs, puts additional stress and strain on himself and as a result he could experience extreme highs and lows (Cooper & Goodenough, 2007).

Each player was made aware that he should accept, appreciate and acknowledge himself as a person. It is not the person who is the problem, but the frame in which he puts himself. Once a person realises this, he can centre and ground himself and then he can acknowledge that self-esteem is a given and nothing can threaten the sense of respect for him (Hall, 2007).

The player can now become stronger and can handle criticism (negative or positive) better. He can focus on the positive to enhance his game and he can see negative criticism as a challenge to improve, instead of being vulnerable to other people's opinions.

Again, this should be seen in the context of the whole program. Self-talk, dealing with setbacks, goal setting, imagery and work ethics all influenced the way players perceive themselves and form part of the control they had over their consciousness – which is an important aspect for flow state (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990).

Dealing with setbacks fits in with the belief system about the self, which Goldberg (1997) refers to as creating either a success cycle, leading to good performance, or a cycle of failure, leading to poor performance.

The players were made aware of how someone who can deal effectively with setbacks, thinks and behaves. In applying this skill to their sport, it formed part

of the bigger picture in making the players mentally strong, and this contributed to their better performance.

Managing anxiety and confidence showed an increase in the experimental group, but a decrease in the control group. The Milton model (using artfully vague language) and the relaxed state of mind had a strong impact on this skill. In the relaxation session there was specific focus on developing strategies and plans, building self-confidence and imagining that learned skills would be perfectly executed (Garrat, 1999).

One can surmise that the decrease of handling anxiety and confidence in the control group is that there were no skills in place to support the management of this skill.

Using language effectively in self-talk and communication improved in the experimental group, but stayed the same in the control group. The reason for there being no change in the control group could be that there was no skills training, and the awareness level stayed the same.

In the experimental group, players were made aware of the way language can affect behaviour through deletions, distortions and generalisations (Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999; O'Connor & Seymour, 1990). The representational system was explained to them, and this made them aware of how important it is to programme the brain with the correct positive messages at all times (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982).

Correcting negative thinking by using the appropriate language was focused on to restrict the negative and irrational thoughts (Bunker & Williams, 1986). Thought stopping was addressed. Eliminating stress reaction in the body, through the correct language, was also discussed.

The correct use of language could have had an effect on the players' skills namely: trusting and inner knowing, distinguishing between self-esteem and self-confidence and dealing with setbacks.

By making the players aware of all these aspects, the thought process was clearer and negative thoughts were restricted. The result was an overall improvement in the game. Again, this result shows that a person has control over his behaviour when he has control over the contents of his consciousness, and this is when control leads to optimal performance (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990).

The techniques of anchoring and imagery were used for *preparing mentally*.

Concentration is one of the essential building blocks in mental toughness, and this can be enhanced through anchoring (O'Connor, 2001). As a combination of thoughts, feelings, emotions, physical and mental energy, anchoring allows players to make a choice of what state he wants to be in (O'Connor & Seymour, 1990). Csikszentmihalyi (1990) is of the opinion that once the subjective states are mastered flow can be experienced.

As with the other skills, anchoring does not stand as a separate skill. It involves the representational system, beliefs and the use of effective language. Its inception is with setting goals. Anchoring involves the whole person – mind and body (O'Connor & McDermott, 1996).

There was a significant increase in *managing flow state* in the experimental group, but not in the control group.

As often mentioned by athletes, flow state seems to be elusive and difficult to manage (Vernacchia et al., 2000). Frankl (in Csikszentmihalyi, 1990) confirms this. It should be a side effect of personal dedication to a course greater than the self.

As this study reveals, players can go into auto-pilot when the body-mind connection can function as a unit and when the other skills are in place. The players could let go of conscious preparation, and let subconcoius competence move them to mastery (O'Connor, 2001).

Flow state, as seen by Cooper and Goodenough (2007), is the inter-relatedness of all the mental skills, functioning towards a specific goal.

Subjective experience of the 'cricket self-concept'
In the subjective experience of the 'cricket self-concept', the following themes were looked at:

- Batting
- Bowling
- Fielding
- Mental preparation
- Fitness
- Functioning within the team
- Personal aspects within the team

There was a significant increase in all seven skills in the experimental group, but no increase on any of the skills in the control group. The seven skills will be discussed as an interrelated unit.

The *subjective experience of the cricket self-concept* relates to *performing from one's highest intention.* The player strives to be the best he can be, and therefore has to work on certain aspects that are not in place (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982; O'Connor, 2001).

In stating the restrictions of his own performance, he does not only become aware of his own shortcomings, but also makes a commitment to do something about it. In this case it means to *work hard* on the mental, technical, physical, personal and team components. Becoming aware of one's problem areas is the

first step in developing as a human being and in this case within the field of sport (Millman, 1999).

By stating how he wanted to play, the player moved into the field of *setting goals* (Bodenhamer & Hall, 2007) and by stating his goals in the positive, he used *language effectively in self-talk and communication.* The belief system was also touched on, as the player, through positive statements, started to live up to his goal. By using *imagery* and the VAK system, the statements became very vivid in the mind and the player started seeing, feeling, and hearing what it would be like once he reached his goal (O'Connor, 2001; Garrat, 1999). It therefore became part of the body-mind connection and resulted in the player having *inner knowing and trust* (Cohen & Breen, 2007).

By training these aspects in his mind when he was in a *relaxed state*, the statements became part of the subconcoius (Bennet & Pravitz, 1982). The player started to live up to these statements as they became part of his belief system. The result was improved scores in his actual performance.

Performance skills

In the *batting performance* there was a significant increase in the experimental group, but no significant improvement was found in the control group. The *bowling average* in the experimental group showed a significant improvement, but not so in the control group.

What made these scores even more noteworthy was that the experimental group was promoted into a higher league, as Provincial players, and their performance continued to improve.

Conclusion

Dilts (1983a) states that it is the usefulness, not the truthfulness of the model that is important. In this study the usefulness of the model is reflected in skills

eighteen and nineteen, which is the result of the techniques of the NLP model, reflected in skills one to seventeen.

The performance of the players in this study showed significant improvement; it can be stated that the NLP model had a significant influence on the performance enhancement of the experimental group.

Problems of the study

There was only a six week period from the time the researcher was asked to develop a programme, until it was applied. The result was that the programme as a unit, could not be used in a pilot study. However, some of the skills were applied, refined and evaluated previously with the Titans Academy over a two year period. The average age of those subjects was nineteen years and six months.

The skills that were used in the pilot study were: setting goals, managing anxiety and confidence, using language effectively in self-talk and communication, preparing mentally through imagery and concentration and flow state.

Evaluating the programme

Two *NLP-coaches* evaluated the programme before it was presented. They recommended less detail in each session. In accordance with the feedback, a more refined programme with less detail was focused on.

The *Under-19 team* gave the following feedback:

- The players would have enjoyed it more if they could have gone through the programme individually. This would however, be very time consuming and costly.

- The players enjoyed the practical aspects of the programme as they could start implementing it immediately.
- They enjoyed the content of the programme.

Recommendations

It could be recommended that:

- other NLP techniques be used for performance enhancement as in effect, there are seventy seven to choose from.
- the techniques could be applied as part of a psychological sports intervention at all levels of play, not only with elite athletes.
- the entire programme could be used for individuals instead of teams.
- as the programme is not restricted to cricket only it would be interesting to see what the statistic results would be in other sports, teams and individuals.
- research could be done on a longitudinal study to see the effects over a longer period of time.

A NLP model for enhancing sport performance

The model as presented in Figure 7:2 can be used as a guideline for future research.

The model reflects the psycho-educational framework in which the NLP model is embedded. It shows the four steps that were used in this study: situation-analysis, goals, strategies and feed-back.
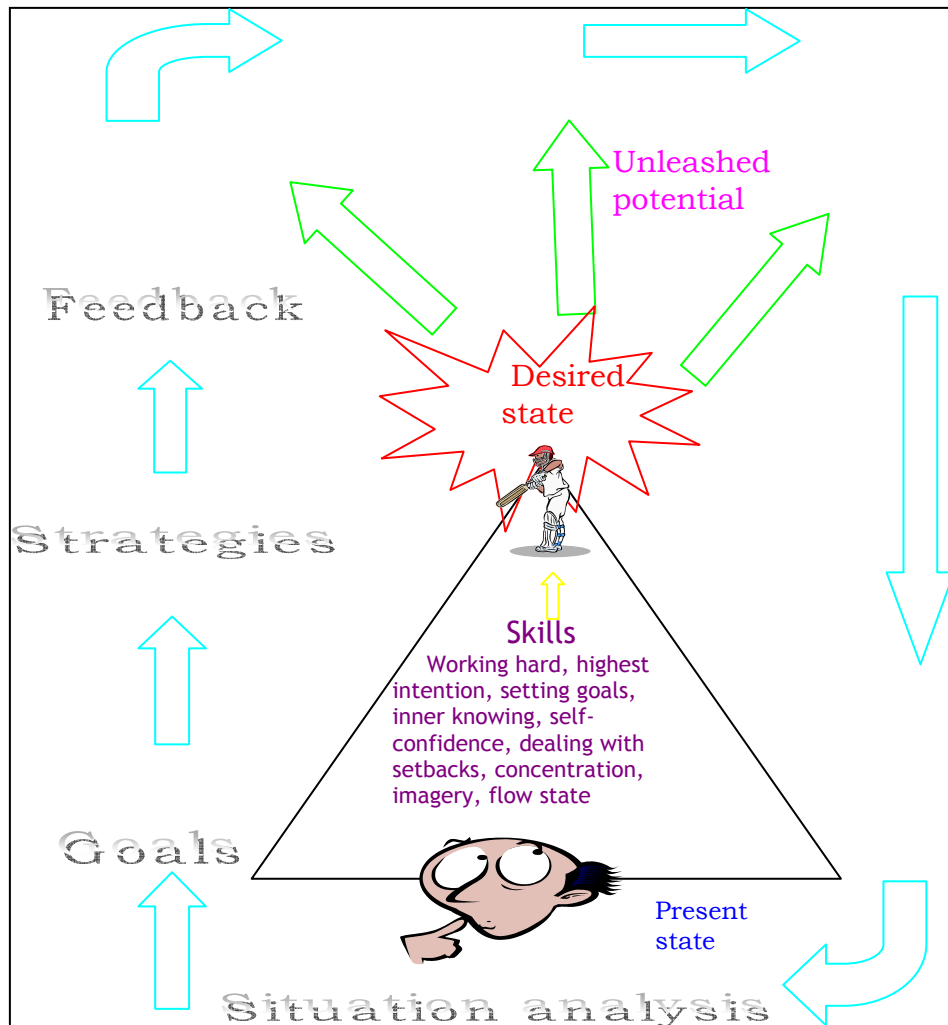
Figure 7:2. A model for research using NLP and psycho-education

During the situation analysis, which is done with the coach as well as the team, certain needs can be identified. Once the specific goals for a group are identified, accompanying strategies can be worked on. Identified skills can be taught to the team and applied. These activities illustrate moving from the present state to the desired state through implementing skills. Once the athlete reaches his potential, the cycle restarts and a new situation analysis begins. Following this continuous cycle the athlete can unleash his potential and reach his optimal development.

The model could be applied in all sports on an individual or team level; not only for elite athletes, but also for athletes who enjoy their sport despite the knowledge that they have little chance of performing at an elite level.

Finally, a psycho-educational programme using NLP as model can be implemented successfully in sport.

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Appendix A

WORKBOOK

D. E. Saunders

Contents

Sir Donald Bradman

"Sir Donald Bradman of Australia was, beyond any argument, the greatest batsman who ever lived and the greatest cricketer of the 20th century. Only WG Grace, in the formative years of the game, even remotely matched his status as a player. And The Don lived on into the 21st century, more than half-a-century after he retired. In that time, his reputation not merely as a player but as an administrator, selector, sage and cricketing statesman only increased. His contribution transcended sport; his exploits changed Australia's relationship to what used to be called the "mother country". Throughout the 1930s and '40s Bradman was the world's master cricketer, so far ahead of everyone else that comparisons became pointless. In 1930, he scored 974 runs in the series, 309 of them in one amazing day at Headingley, and in seven Test series against England he remained a figure of utter dominance; Australia lost the Ashes only once, in 1932-33, when England were so spooked by Bradman that they devised a system of bowling, Bodyline, that history has damned as brutal and unfair, simply to thwart him. He still averaged 56 in the series. In all, he went to the crease 80 times in Tests, and scored 29 centuries. He needed just four in his last Test innings, at The Oval in 1948, to ensure an average of 100 - but was out second ball for 0, a rare moment of human failing that only added to his everlasting appeal. Bradman made all those runs at high speed in a manner that bewildered opponents and entranced spectators. Though his batting was not classically beautiful, it was always awesome. As Neville Cardus put it, he was a devastating rarity: "A genius with an eye for business" (Matthew Engel, 2007).

A model worth following…..

Session 1

The way I think

"What is your secret Don?" I once asked him.

" Concentration" he said. "Every ball is the first ball, whether I've just come to the wicket, or I have scored 200".

Then he took my breath away by adding, "and I never even consider the possibility that anyone will ever get me out" (Cardus, 2001:3).

Goal

Become aware of the following mind changing ideas in your sport:

- Four stages of traditional learning
- The seven special things that cricketers report when they reflect on their all time best performance
- Winning and losing
- Skills to enhance performance

There is no magic cure in Sport Psychology. Mentally it is hard work. You have a mind and you are a talented cricket player. Once the body and mind connect, you can expect success.

Mind changing ideas in your sport

There are four stages of traditional learning:

1. *Subconcoius incompetence:* You don't know and you do not know that you don't know.
2. *Conscious incompetence*: You start to play but you are not very good. There is a lot to learn but you learn quickly, you are motivated and the results are good.
3. *Conscious competence:* You have skill but you need to concentrate. This is a satisfying stage of learning but the better you are the more difficult it is to make it noticeable, therefore it is harder to improve.
4. *Unconscious competence:* Now your skill is habitual and you don't have to think about it. You now have more mind space to concentrate on mental skills.

The seven special things that cricketers report when they reflect on their all time best performance:

1. They were not thinking about anything in particular
2. They were not thinking about what had happened before, or what might happen later
3. If they were thinking, it was only about what was happening just at that particular moment
4. They seemed to have more time to see what the ball was doing and to play their stroke
5. They were playing the game 'ball-by-ball'
6. They were not consciously trying to control their movements
7. They were not trying.

Winning and losing:

The idea of winning can be a distraction from playing your best and actually winning. Winning is important but not all-important.

The will to win is very different from winning at all costs. When winning becomes a compulsion and not a goal, the consequences of not winning are too unbearable to contemplate.

A winner who has to be a winner will always feel insecure and vulnerable. The more you try to play better, the more you force yourself and the more stressed you become. You can't try to make yourself win.

When you are in the middle of a game, winning and losing are in the future and thinking about it distracts you from giving your best in the moment, which is where the game is either lost or won. The pressure is self-defeating. So your opponent does not defeat you, you defeat yourself.

If you are not defending a title, you never had anything in the first place, so you can't lose it. When you have nothing to lose, you are free to win!

"Don Bradman speaking at a public farewell in Bowral before the 1930 England tour had said, "My parents taught me to be a cricketer off the field as well as on. It was not 'did you win' but 'did you play the game' that made the man" (Dinakar, 2007, 1)

Skills to enhance performance

1. Performing from one's highest intention

World-class athletes perform from their highest intention which is a motivating reason that provides energy and focus to fulfill their dreams. It is evident in all aspects of their lives, diet, discipline, training and performance as all are aligned to reach a higher purpose.

The person is aware of all these intentions and everything is aligned towards reaching and living up to it. The player is able to maintain focus and commitment towards the game is demonstrated.

Think about the following questions:

- What are the things you need to do to be successful in your sport?
- What are the elements that make up your training and preparation in your sport?
- What do you need to do to succeed?
- How significant and valuable is your sport to you?
- What else is important about that?

Think about and experience the higher values of your sport.
Bring these higher values in your being. How would you walk, talk or act in your sport once they are there? Take ownership of this. (Goodenough & Cooper, 2007).

2. Working hard

The player shows good work ethics at all times and all his energy and sacrifices are aimed at improving in his sport.

The player will have a well-organised day, which includes working on his own and with a coach. Training will have a goal and not just, to be out there. His eating plan is in place in order to fulfil his needs for intense training and he will ask for help from his coach to become a better player.

The player will see criticism only as a way of bettering himself and can distinguish between his self-image and sport.

3. Setting goals

Goal setting is one of the most important steps in a sports career in order to move from a present state to a desired state.

The steps to reach the desired state must be clearly identified. In goal setting, the player makes sure he has the resources to reach his goal and that it suits his future career.

4. Trusting and inner knowing

Where does your *authority* lie? Within you, or do you give that authority to someone else?

The question that should be asked is: Do you give yourself permission to make your own decisions and follow your own instincts?

The internally referent player will also give himself rewards and motivate himself. The player will *recognise* his worthiness.

5. *Distinguishing between self-confidence and self-esteem*

Self-confidence is about what you do, while self-esteem is about who you are. There should be a definite distinction between human BEING and human DOING.

Thus sport is an expression of who you are and what you do. Looking at it this way, your self-esteem (being) is your value and worth; something you are born with while your self-confidence can change depending on how you master certain skills.

6. *Dealing with setbacks*

Resilience is the way a person bounces back from defeat or disappointment. He never sees a challenge as too difficult because he has a long-term goal and will succeed regardless of the situation.

This player will never look for excuses but will take responsibility for his own mistakes.

7. *Effectively managing anxiety and confidence*

This is about the player being able to handle the pressure of the match. It is also about balancing anxiety and confidence.

8. *Using language effectively in self-talk and communication*

The language a person uses is a clear indicator of what he thinks and how he thinks.

It is also an indication of his self-talk and state of mind. It is therefore important to guide the self-talk and normal conversation to make it as positive as possible for self-enhancement.

9. *Preparing mentally before an event*

Mental rehearsal using the VAK system is very important. Where the mind goes, the body follows. It is therefore important to make positive movies in the mind.

10. *Managing flow-state*

To experience being in the zone, is to just let go. The hard work has been done and the athlete can now go on autopilot and trust his body, his preparation and himself. Thinking is limited and instinct takes over and things just happen.

The Representational System Preference Test

(Bodenhamer & Hall, 1999)

For each of the following statements, please place a number next to every phrase:

4 = Closest to describing you

3 = Next best description

2 = Third best

1= Least descriptive of you

1. I make important decisions based on:

   __ gut level feelings

   __ which way sounds best

   __ what looks best to me

   __ precise review and study of the issues

2. During an argument I am most likely to be influenced by:

__ the other person's tone of voice

__ whether or not I can see the point of the other person's argument

__ the logic of the other person's argument

__ whether or not I feel in touch with the other person's true feelings

3. I most easily communicate what is going on with me by:

__ the way I dress and look

__ the feelings I share

__ the words I choose

__ the tone of my voice

4. It is easiest for me to:

__ find the ideal volume and tuning on a stereo system

__ select the most intellectually relevant point concerning an interesting subject

__ select the most comfortable furniture

__ select rich attractive colour combinations

5. I best operate or function as:

__ very attuned to the sounds of my surroundings

__ very adept at making sense of new facts and data

__ very sensitive to the way articles of clothing fit on my body

__ having a strong response to colours and to the way a room looks

Scoring the preference test

Step 1

Copy your answers from the test to the lines below. Transfer the answers in the exact order they are listed.

1. 2. 3. 4. 5.

K	A	V	A	A
A	V	K	D	D
V	D	D	K	K
D	K	A	V	V

Step 2

Add the numbers associated with each letter.

Make five entries for each letter.

	V	K	A	D
1.				
2.				
3.				
4				
5.				
Totals	V	K	A	D

Step 3

The comparison of the totaled scores gives the relative preference for each of the major representational systems.

My preference is:_____

Homework

What did you learn and how can you apply it in your game?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Session 2

Sea Biscuit

"Sir Donald George Bradman was, without any question, the greatest phenomenon in the history of cricket, indeed in the history of all ball games. To start with, he had a deep and undying love of cricket"(Wisden Essay, 2004:1).

Goal

The purpose of this movie is to:

- identify the ten skills
- start using it as a back-screen in your cricket game

Answer the following questions:

- What did the characters share as a common base that eventually lead to their success?
- Which character do you identify with most? Give a reason for your answer.
- What did the characters have, apart from talent?
- What can you say about their work ethics?
- Through what type of behaviour could you see that the different characters had a higher intent?
- Were there any sacrifices made to achieve their goals? Should one make sacrifices in order to achieve goals?
- At what stage did preparation start for the final race?
- How much planning went into the preparation?
- How were setbacks conquered?
- What were the most important aspects shared by the characters?
- Was there a lot of thinking during the race?
- If you had to create a slogan from the movie for your team, what would it be?
- Write a short paragraph on how you are going to use the movie as your 'back screen' in your cricket.

Homework

What did you learn and how can you apply it in your game?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Session 3

Work ethics

"The fact that as a boy, he sharpened his reflexes and developed his strokes by hitting golf balls with a cricket stump as it rebounded off a water tank attests to his eye, fleetness of foot and, even when young, his rare powers of concentration" (Wisden Essay, 2004,1).

Goal

Working hard is the basis for excelling in sport. In this session you will become aware of:

- a general awareness of working hard
- commitment and motivation
- the relationship between meaning and performance
- enjoyment of your sport

Answer the following questions

- What extra work do you do on a daily basis apart from your normal program?
- How many books have you read on sportsmen's biographies where you could learn from their work ethics? Name one and what did you learn from him?
- Do you always work as hard or harder in a practice session as in a match?
- Do you train the way you want to play?
- Do you do mental preparation and exercises for your sport?
- Do you take responsibility for your own development as a player?
- Do you have sufficient energy and motivation to sustain you throughout your sports career?

Aspects to remember when considering working hard

Commitment and motivation

If I can answer the question "Why am I doing this?" I can come up with the answer of "How am I going to do this?"

Commitment and motivation are abstract nouns. Commitment is the mental equivalent of physical fitness. It provides the energy to not only do the enjoyable things, but also things that need to be done.

Meaning and performance

All aspects of your sport have meaning and all aspects must be strong in order to excel. If you want to actualise yourself in your sport, you must have two variables:

Meaning: When you have enough meaning; when things are meaningful; when you can dream about your sports career and find it significant, valuable and important, you can excel.

Performance: Meaning alone will not bring the self-actualisation in your sport. It has to happen through action planning and behaviour.

Which of the following blocks represent you most?

Hall, M. (2007: 15)

111	**1V**
High Meaning	**High Meaning**
Low performance	**High Performance**
Dreamers	*Pathway of self-actualisation*
1	**11**
Low Meaning	**Low Meaning**
Low Performance	**High Performance**
Undeveloped	*Perform but not meaningful*

Exercises to create inner motivation

Enjoyment of your sport

The enjoyment of your sport is essential. When it becomes just a daily job, it will become a burden and a 'must do'. Think about it... if you don't have enjoyment you will not have the energy to do what you have to do; you will not have discipline or goals. It will not be important to bounce back from a defeat. The language that you use in your sport and especially self-talk will inevitably be somewhat negative. There will be no quality mental preparation as it will not be important to you.

Take the following aspects of your sport and answer the questions below:

1. Training

- What aspects do you choose to work on?
- What are your strengths and weaknesses?
- How does your training relate to your strengths and weaknesses?
- How can you change certain aspects you do not enjoy, to enjoyable experiences?
- How badly do you rely on your coach/team mates to motivate you?

2. Mental preparation

- What do you want to achieve on a mental basis with your sport?
- What aspects of NLP are you going to use in your sport?
- How aware are you of your five senses?
- How are you responding to this information?
- How free are you to play if you are not consistently focused on the end result (winning) but on the process (staying in the moment)?
- How can you have fun in terms of your mental preparation?

3. Your inner coach

Who is your inner coach?

- Your inner coach is the inner voice that motivates you and knows your values best
- Your inner coach can be harsh, too soft, a real enemy or your best friend
- Take a part of your sport that you really do not like
- Do you hear an internal voice?
- What is it saying?

Perceptual position

- Does it talk to you as 'I do this' or 'You do this'.
- Which one is more motivating?

What language is it using?

- Does it use words such as 'must', 'have to' or 'should'?
- Does the voice say:

  > "**You** never do the right thing" or "**I** never do the right thing".
  > "You should be playing better than them".

4. Picture the task as done, not doing it

- Mentally picture the end product and not the doing of it. It is easier on the mind and body.

5. Break the task into manageable chunks

- Break the training session into shorter time sessions. It is easier to handle 15 minutes and then another 15 minutes and so on, than focusing on a full two- hour session.

6. Playing like a child again

- Recall the first time when your dad/coach/brother or just you on your own went playing cricket for the first time

- Can you remember how you felt? What did you hear? What did you see?
- Amplify the feeling and the picture. Make it bright and big. Does this bring a smile to your face?
- Once again, see that memory vividly in your mind
- Create another picture of you training or in competition. Bring that childhood playfulness as experienced above to your scene of competition or training
- How does that make you feel?

 Homework

How can you apply the above exercises in your daily cricket?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Session 4

Goal setting
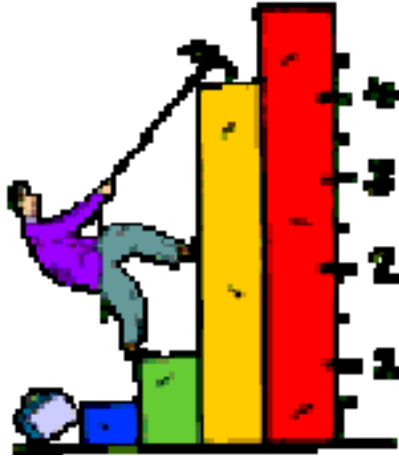
"*Larwood had six men at least on the on-side, so Bradman leapt to that side, and actually drove or cut to the off. Larwood expressed his admiration of this daring counter-attack. "Marvelous. He played tennis strokes at me."*

Like all great batsmen, Bradman made his strokes very late. He didn't move at all, after he had taken his stance, until the ball was on him. Then, by sudden and superbly concentrated dynamics, the brilliant technique shot forth its devastation.

He made strokes which you would swear were entirely his own, not copybook strokes, not strokes out of cricket's gospel, but governed by his instinctive logic" (Cardus, 2001, 2).

Goal

This session will teach you:

- the seven basic rules for setting goals
- the pattern to successful goal setting
- to set smart goals
- obstacles in setting goals
- goal setting for long-, short- and mid-term goals

Seven basic rules for setting goals

- Say what you want, not what you want to avoid
- Make goals challenging and realistic
- Measure your progress:

  relative to yourself

  relative to another person

- Influence the result directly. Make it your own goal, not someone else's
- Check your resources
- Count the cost
- Reward yourself

Exercises

1. The pattern to successful goal setting

State the outcome in positive terms

- Where are you now?

- Where do you want to be?
- What do you want in that desired state?
- What do you want to experience positively?

Specify the outcome in sensory-based terms

- What will you see, hear and feel when you have it?
- What stages are involved in reaching this outcome?

Identify the contexts of this desired outcome

- Where, how and with whom will you get the outcome?
- In what context is it appropriate?
- What is the most fitting context for this outcome?

Identify the steps and stages of this outcome

- What are the steps/stages involved in reaching this goal?
- Is it chunked down so that each stage is do-able?
- Does the size of the outcome seem overwhelming?

Self-initiated and maintained

- Do you have it in your power to reach this goal?
- Is it within your control?
- Can you initiate the actions and maintain them to get started?

Identify the resources you need to achieve the outcome

- What resources will you need?
- Who will you have to become?
- Have you ever done this before?
- Do you know of anyone else who has done this before?

Evidence procedure

- How will you know that you have reached your outcome?

- What will let you know that you have attained that state?
- When will you feel satisfied?

Make sure the outcome is compelling and rewarding

- Does the outcome entice you? How much do you want this?
- What do you need to make it even more sparkling?
- Will it get you out of bed in the morning?

Quality control the outcome to make sure that it is balanced and ecological

- What will you gain by it?
- Is it ecological?
- What will you lose?
- Are there any parts in you that object?

See how your new outcome suits you by putting it on your time-line in the future.

2. Set smart goals

Which of the following two examples is a SMART goal?

I want to play better cricket.

In every over I want to keep my eyes on the ball, one ball at a time**.**

Give your own examples of smart goals

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Check your goals

Are they	
Specific?	
Measurable?	
Adjustable?	
Realistic?	
Time based?	

Setting your goals according to SMART goal rules creates a clear picture of where you want to go. Remember, where the mind goes, the body follows.

3. Obstacles in setting goals

Beliefs that might hold you back

Goal	Beliefs that might hold you back
Environment	
Behaviour and skills	
Beliefs and values	
Identity	

Did you identify your obstacles and can you do something about them?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Goal setting for long-, short- and mid-term goals

Short-term goals	Mid-term goals	Long-term goals

Action plan to get to mid-term goals	Action plan to get to long-term goals	Result of plans 1+2

 Homework

How can you apply the above exercises in your daily cricket?

_____

_____

_____

_____

How do I state my goals?

"True, he was not a conventional stylist, all curves and ornamental. But it was exciting to watch, exacting to nerves and imagination to see him gather his energy at the last second and square up to a rising fast ball, then hook it to the boundary with a crack, dispersing the pigeons" (Cardus, 2001,2).

Goal

- This session will teach you to state your desired state in a positive affirmation

Diagram of goal setting

Step 1

Present state
What do I need to
work on?

Step 3

Desired state
Where do I want to
be?

Step 2

Action plan
What do I need to
do?
(Affirmations in the
mind)
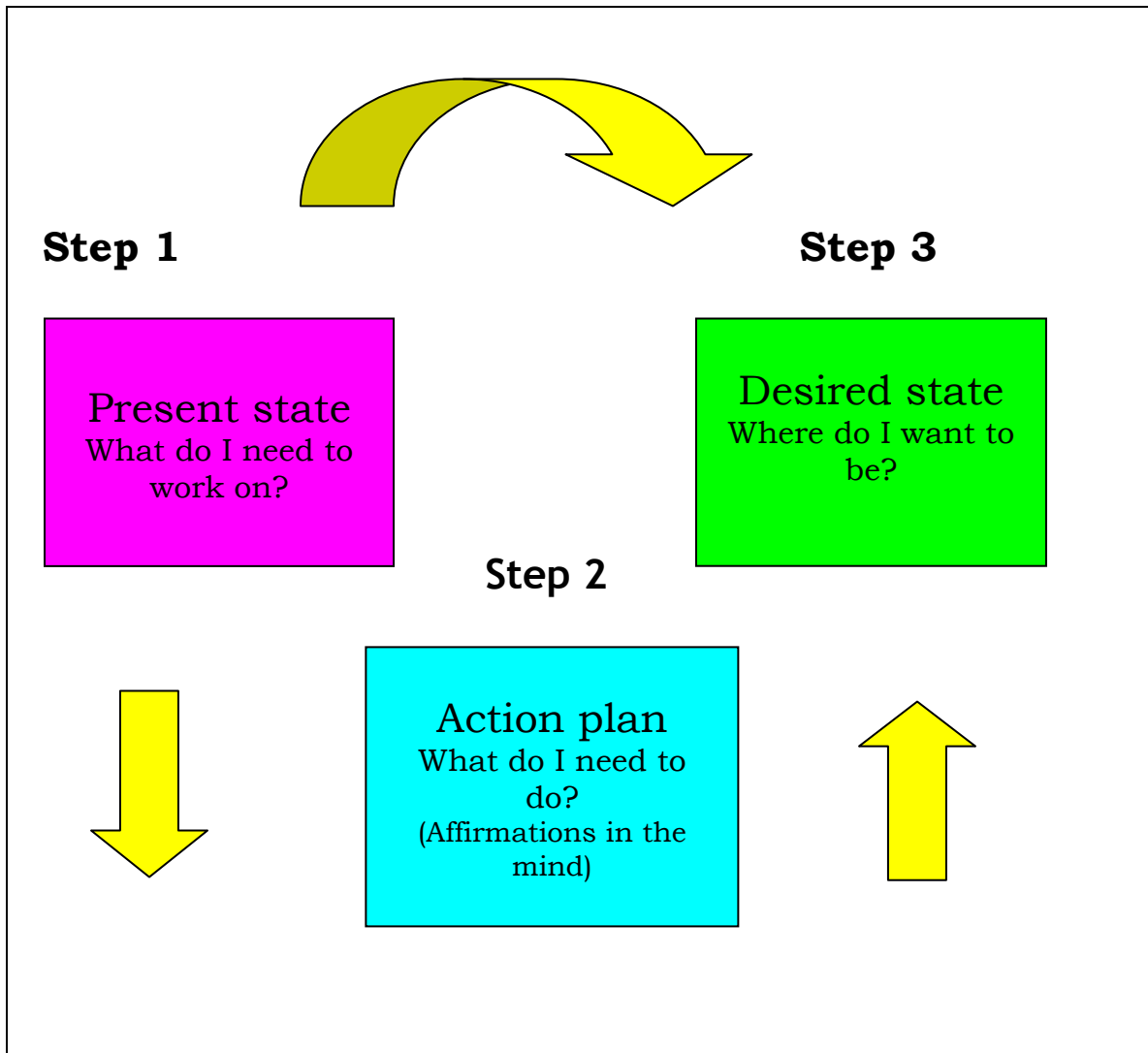
The 'cricket self-concept' exercise

Think of your cricket game and focus on the areas where you have problems.

Normally this comes quite easily. You might say: "My shoulder turns too much". This is stated in the negative and forms a neural path, which you should change. To correct this statement, just think what it is that you should do to change your technique regarding your shoulder.

The statement might be "I always keep my shoulder straight". To test whether this is really a problem, evaluate your statement by giving it a mark out of ten. If you score lower than eight, you need that statement written down: eight and higher means that you are doing the technique correctly.

Aspects to remember:

These statements are stated in the positive.

- They are aspects that you are not; (weaknesses) stated it in a positive, not strengths.
- The language used is clear to the brain, e.g. I am focusing, is too 'big'. What must I <u>do</u> to be focused? I keep my eye on every ball.
- If you have any doubt, score your statement and decide whether it is a problem (lower than 8).

Areas	Affirmation	Score /10
Batting	Example: I keep my head still	3

255

	Total	
Areas	**Affirmation**	**Score / 10**
Bowling	Example: I always hit the spot	4
	Total	
Fielding	Example: I expect every ball to come my way	4
	Total	
Fitness	Example: I go for a 5km run every second day	6
	Total	
Mental toughness	Example: I use anchoring when- ever I need it	5

Areas	Affirmation	Score / 10
	Total	
Team	Example: I support my team mates in all circumstances	3
	Total	
Personal	Example: I stay humble regardless of my performances	2
	Total	
	Grand Total	/700
	Percentage	%

 Homework

What did you learn about the subjective experience of your cricket?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Session 6

Relaxation

6 6 6 6

"He wasted no energy. After he had demolished Larwood, Geary, Tate and Richard Tyldesley at Headingley in 1930 (304 not out in a day), he came from the field cool and neat, as though fresh from the bathroom" (Cardus, 2001, 2).

Goal

The relaxation technique will teach you how to:

- experience an intense form of relaxation
- use colours, breathing and metaphors as relaxation tools
- establish a good balance between anxiety and self-confidence
- enhance the belief in your own ability

Relaxation-Using the Milton Model

We will begin with the breathing pattern...you can listen to my voice or you can let your mind wander...and because you are wondering you will see how much more resourceful you are going to become...

So now start with the breathing exercise which releases surface tension... and in through your nose...one, two three, four hold for two counts, and out through your mouth, one two three four and in through your nose...one, two, three four, hold one two, out two three, four... and last time in .....and now just let go ... breathe out all your concerns, worries, questions..... and now let your breathing return to normal....

You can relax even more fully, can you not? Imagine a beautiful staircase and each step painted a different colour..... Stand on the highest step and slowly count down..... you are standing on step number seven , a red step and as you feel the step supporting your foot..... you move to the next step, number six, an orange step..... number five a yellow step..... number four a green step and this step will really make you feel relaxed and comfortable and now notice how the support of each step brings even more peace and tranquility to your mind..... the blue step, number three..... the purple step..... number two..... and the last step..... the black step which brings total relaxation..... And now we will focus on the body, just tell your body to relax and the relaxation will follow of its own

accord..... just place your awareness on the different parts of your body..... we will start with the top of your head..... the area between the eyes..... the flesh of the face..... and now the tongue..... it will be as though the thoughts of the mind have come to a standstill and are now stopping.....

Now move down to your neck, the back of the neck and place your awareness there..... and the shoulders..... the chest and see how your breathing will become easier and easier..... now put your awareness on the spinal column and relax and the abdomen, the upper and lower abdomen, the buttocks..... upper thighs, lower thighs and calves..... feet and toes..... and now feel..... how it feels to be totally relaxed.....

And once you are totally relaxed, I want you to go to your place of nature where nothing can disturb you. It is your special place... a beach....., a desert..... wherever you can just be..... and feel one with nature.....and you find yourself in your beautiful place of nature where everything is tranquil..... here you also become more aware of you as a person or a fantastic cricket player..... you realise how much talent you have and you wonder how much more resourceful you can become.....

Because you are wondering..... thoughts go through your mind that are in perfect harmony with your thoughts and your wishes..... thoughts that now can become reality, not so? ..... As you sit here perfectly relaxed you can now execute in your mind perfect cricket, whether it is bowling, batting or fielding..... these skills seem to be perfectly natural to you..... and the more you think about it, the more natural it comes to you and if the ball could talk to you, it might be saying, 'hit me really hard, I like to go to the boundary' ..... and your bat will affirm that you can really work your hands around a ball, and you will feel good..... and your shots will become better...and the game will become easier and easier...and can it be that you can actually play fantastic cricket? .....

If you are feeling confident..... then it means that you appreciate your skills and hard work......and you will start to feel more and more at home on the cricket field and it will be as though every shot will feel perfectly natural to you...

And now just play the game you know you can...... enjoy it..... play with joy...play with confidence..... just play..... and feel how it feels perfectly natural for you..... let it happen..... and see, feel, hear everything that you normally see, feel and hear when it goes well...... make your movie as vivid as possible..... and feel perfectly in control of the situation..... trust your body.....

And now it is time to return to full alertness again..... but before you do, make a mental note of how good it felt when you were playing really well..... and now slowly..... in your own time..... count back up from one to seven..... and climb back up the steps..... when you reach the highest step, stretch, breath deep.....and it will be as though you've had a wonderful sleep. You will feel refreshed and revitalised and ready for what is next on your schedule...

Exercise

How can I use the following aspects in my cricket?

Colours:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Breathing:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Metaphor:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Homework

What did you learn about the subjective experience of your cricket?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Session 7

Beliefs

"*In 1934, again at Headingley, he scored 304. The Australian innings on this occasion began badly, 39 for three at close of play on the first day. That evening, Bradman went to bed early, saying that tomorrow he'd need to get 200 at least. I reminded him that, in his last Test innings at Leeds, he had scored 334. "The law of averages," I said, "is against your pulling off another vast score tomorrow." "I don't believe in any law of averages," he gently retorted*" (Cardus, 2001, 3).

- to make you aware of how you see yourself as a cricket player
- to identify on which level you experience obstacles
- to address the obstacle and change it

Keep the following in mind

- Whatever you believe, it's true for you
- Beliefs support and reinforce your values.
- Your belief have little to do with any reality other than your own.
- Your senses are extremely good at filtering out information that might contradict a belief and at discovering information that might support a belief.
- Beliefs are rather an opinion than a fact.
- When a belief is changed, the results are changed.
- Beliefs change with experience.

Exercise

In the different positions that you play, how do you think about yourself on these levels?

Behaviour	Is there something I can do to change or improve?

Capabilities	How can I improve my skills to become better?
Values Beliefs/attitudes	Why am I doing my sport... for myself, my parents, for fun?
Identity	Who am I in my sport?

 Homework

If you could change certain aspects on a level, what would it be? How will it influence your game?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Session 8

Beliefs about myself
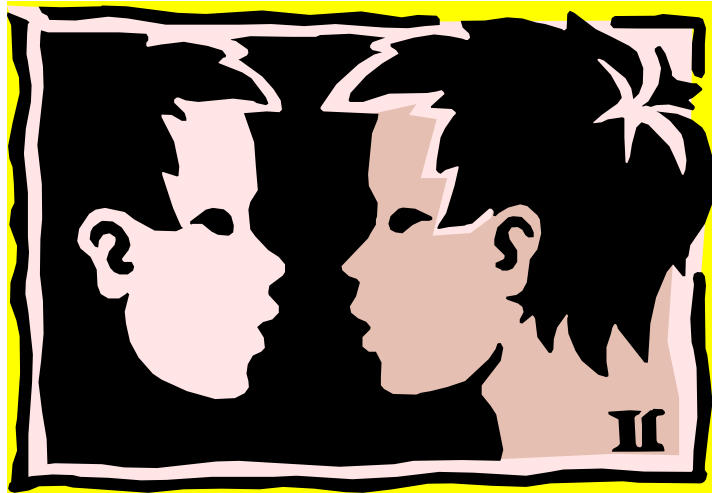
"*He made strokes which you would swear were entirely his own, not copybook strokes, not strokes out of cricket's gospel, but governed by his instinctive logic. He had never, or seldom, seen a first-class match until he was 12 years old. He was not coached, so was free to give play to his inborn talent*" (Cardus, 2001, 2).

Goal

You will learn about:

- trusting and inner knowing
- the difference between self-confidence and self-esteem
- dealing with setbacks

Trusting and inner knowing

The internally referent player sets his own standards and makes his own decisions.

Permission:

_____

_____

_____

_____

Recognition:

_____

_____

_____

_____

Owning your personal powers:

_____

_____

_____

_____

In life there are not too many things that you can control, but you can control yourself. You have four powers that nobody can take away from you.

You cannot control another person. Not your parents, your coach, team-mates nor your best friend. You only have control over yourself.

Your four powers are:

- Doing
- Thinking
- Feeling
- Saying
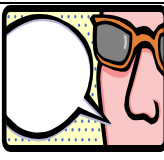
"Don Bradman being at the crease was hot news. Ground attendances swelled. When he got out, it thinned. People came merely to see him bat. More often, they got their money's worth. Yet, on how he saw a good sportsman "A true sportsman must conduct his life with dignity, decorum, integrity, courage, modesty and perhaps most of all humility"(Dinakar, 2007,3)

 Exercise
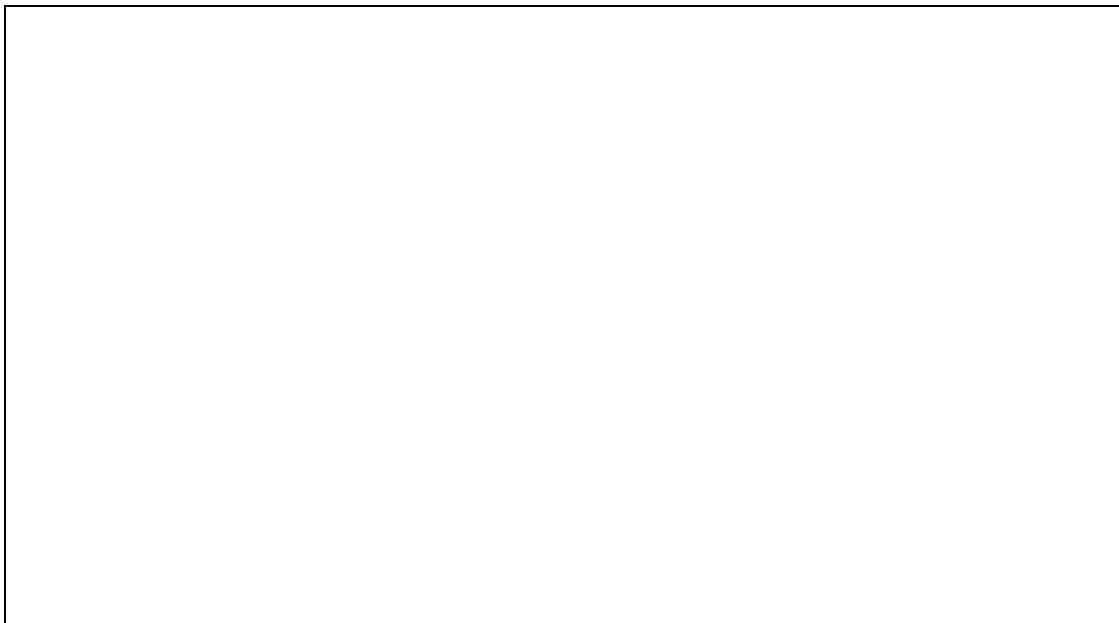
1. Give an example of how you can control your four powers

My four powers	Examples of how I can control it on the field
Doing	

Thinking	
Feeling	
Saying	

2. Draw a picture:

Your symbol or metaphor of controlling your four powers

The difference between self-esteem and self-confidence

Self-confidence is about what you do (DOING), while self-esteem is about what you are (BEING). A person can be evaluated and criticised in terms of his doing (performance, skills or behaviour) but never in terms of his being which relates to a person's value and worth. A person's value and worth (his human-being-ness) are given to him at birth.

If you as a cricket player can make this distinction, you will realise that even though you had a terrible game (your DOING), can never affect your value as a person (BEING).

Therefore, there is a huge difference between 'I am bad' and 'I played badly'.

Exercise

1. Make a distinction between human being and human doing and give an example

Human being	Human doing
What does this refer to?	What does this refer to?

2. The Swish pattern

- Identify a situation in your sport that you want to improve on
- Create a detailed picture for yourself in your mind where you lack self-confidence. Use all your senses to see, feel, hear and smell. Make the picture as vivid as you can
- Create a second picture of you where you are self-confident in a dissociated state
- Make the first picture (where you lack confidence as big and bright as you can. Place a darker image of the picture where you are confident in the bottom right hand corner of the bright (negative) picture
- Make the second picture (positive) grow bigger and brighter and cover the negative picture so that the negative picture grows dim and shrinks away. Do this very quickly, as fast as you can say 'swish'
- Repeat this five times and every time say swish
- Create the first negative picture again. If the swish has worked this will be difficult, as it will look and feel different.

3. Circle of excellence

- Imagine a circle on the floor
- Think back to a time where you felt totally in control of everything
- If you cannot remember, think of a movie star or your role model and become that person, so that you can have an active state
- Stand outside the circle and imagine the 'you' inside the circle, totally capable. Imagine what the 'you' in the circle is seeing, feeling, smelling, tasting and hearing
- Anchor this in order to always have the state available.

4. Reframing criticism

Identify a situation where you have experienced criticism.

Identify the criticism

- When you think about the criticism, what comes to mind?

- How do you represent it? (How do you remember it through your VAK system?)
- What words do you hear?
- What does your inner movie look like?

Identify what it means to you
- Criticism equals what/or is seen as what?
- How do you know to call it that?

Identify the positive intention
- There is a reason, some kind of positive intention to call it criticism. What is that reason?
- Does this criticism equal the other aspect that you mentioned?
- Is it good for you and your positive relationships?
- Do you really want it to mean that?
- Do you want to use that as your program to understand things?

Expand the criticism
- What else could criticism mean? And what else can it mean? Think of anything else. Build up a new map of what criticism could mean.
- Could you give this meaning? What is the positive intention for doing this?
- Step into the new way of thinking and future pace this.
- Check the ecology.
- What could a great symbol or metaphor of this be, to take it into the future?

An example to follow:

"Bradman was knighted in 1949. Sir Donald later revealed that had he thought his knighthood was purely a personal award he would have declined it. He had thought "it was intended as a compliment to the game of cricket and Australian cricket in particular". He always preferred to think of himself just as plain Don Bradman, the boy from Bowral. Later that year when he arrived at the SCG for a Testimonial match, the door-attendant "Smithy", who had known Sir Donald for

years had always called him "Don". But this time there was a momentary hesitation. Before he could say anything, Sir Donald said: "It's still Don, Smithy." Such was his modesty" (Dinakar, 2007, 4).

Dealing with setbacks

A player, who can deal with setbacks, will realise that it is not about him as a person (being) but him as a player (doing). He takes responsibility for what he wants to become. A player who feels that he is entitled to a certain position will complain about not being selected and will see it as unfairness.

Exercise: Re-imprinting pattern

Identify the problem.

- Identify a situation where you felt as though you could give up your sport, because of what was said to you, or the way you felt about the situation or the entire experience
- What about that situation would you like to change?
- What have you done to change that experience?

Locate the experience

- Using your time-line, locate the imprint of your experience.

Travel back with the emotion.

- Take the feeling back in time and re-experience it.
- Does this situation involve anybody else?
- Do you see the person looking at you?
- What beliefs do you make of this experience?
- What beliefs do you make about others in this experience?

Break state and review the experience*.*

- Step off the time-line and review the imprint experience
- Come out of the experience to the now or present place
- Now watch the experience as though it is a movie
- Now watch the younger you and look at how this situation has affected you from a earlier time?
- Verbalise any other belief as a result of this imprint.

Find the positive intentions of the beliefs or feelings

- Ask the other people in the picture what their positive beliefs were when they did this?

Identify and anchor the resources.

- What resources and choices did you need back then but did not have?
- What resources did the other people in the situation need?
- What would you like to give to those people in order for them to respond differently?

Apply the resources

- What resources would you give to the other person?
- What resources can you give to the younger you? You can actually feel comfortable, secure and calm with yourself in that memory because of the fact that you now have the resources to cope with the situation.

Associate and relive the imprint experience.

- Step into the time-line with the anchors and change/modify the situation with the new resources.

Receive the new resources

- Step into the time-line as the younger self and receive these resources.

Receive resources

- Step off the time-line and review the changed experience.

- Do you feel satisfied with the outcome?

Review and future pace

- Now move into the future and stop.
- Feel how the new resources give you confidence.

    (Exercises are from the workshop presented by M. Hall, 2007)

Homework

"To have performed those amazing feats against a background of personal turmoil debilitating illnesses, petty jealousies, irritating criticisms and the pressures caused by mass public adulation, made this phenomenon even more meritorious. No matter how much people attacked him, he rarely reacted. Critics found him as difficult to ruffle him as bowlers. He answered them with his bat" (Dinakar, 2007, 3).

In terms of the new knowledge that you have acquired in this session, could you handle criticism by answering with your bat? How?

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Session 9

Self-talk
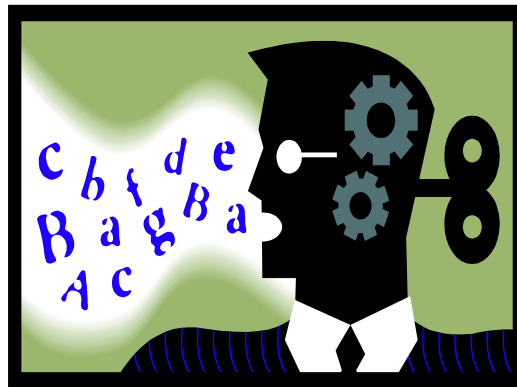
It is interesting to see what Bradman called his own song. It greatly reflects on his state of mind and the language he used to express himself.

"Music gave Bradman enormous pleasure. Apart from being an accomplished pianist, one of his compositions "Every Day is a Rainbow Day for Me" was recorded by Columbia Records" (Dinakar, 2007, 3).

Goal

- you will learn about distortions, deletions and generalisations
- eliminate dictators in self-talk
- eliminate stress reaction in your body through what you say
- correct negative thinking
- apply thought stopping

Words as symbols of the sensory representation

1. Distortions, deletions and generalisations

The sensory representation of an actual happening is 're-presented' through abstract words in one's mind, which creates thoughts. This has an influence on what we think and can be either positive or negative.

From the deep structure to the surface structure, three modelling processes happen: distortions, deletions and generalisations.

Exercise

Distortions

Give three examples of distortions in your self-talk when playing:

Distortions	Correct thought

Generalisations

Give three examples of generalisations in your self-talk when playing:

Generalisations	Correct thought

Deletions

Give three examples of deletions in your self-talk when playing:

Deletions	Correct thought

2. Eliminating the coach/father/dictator from your self-talk

Avoid the following words in your communication with others and in your self-talk:

Must

Have to

Should

Should not have, etc.
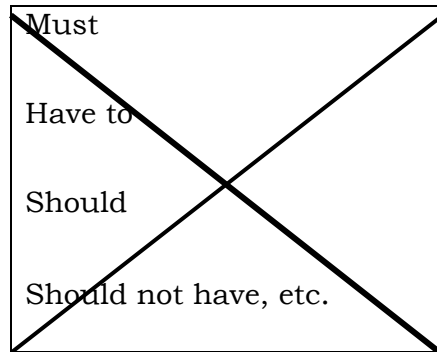
Exercise

Give two more examples:

Dictator	Easy on the mind
I must train today	I am going to train today

3. Eliminating 'stress' reaction in your body

Exercise

Give three more examples:

Try	Just do it
I am going to try and do my best	I am going to do my best

4. Correct negative thinking

Inner negative talk	What does my brain hear?	How do I change it?
He must not hit me for a six		
The bowler must not get me out		
I must not drop this catch		
I must not play badly		

 Exercise

How can I apply the above in my cricket?

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5. Thought stopping

Whenever you become aware of negative thoughts,

 stop them immediately.

Three ways of thought stopping:

- See a red light flashing in your mind
- See a person with a red flag waving it in front of you
- Change the negative into a positive affirmation

 Homework

The zone is quiet. If there is internal chatter of the conscious mind, you will be caught up in scattered attention - the last place you would like to be in your sport.

Make an effort to become more aware of how you communicate with yourself. Write down certain phrases that you use incorrectly and correct them immediately.

Incorrect self-talk	Correct self-talk

Session 10

Anchoring

"Concentration and organisation-here was his secret, plus, of course, rare gifts of nature. Every ball he received was his first ball, to be played as it deserved to be played" (Cardus, 2001, 3).

Goal

- to use anchoring as a tool for concentration
- to establish an anchor for your specific needs

Managing anxiety and confidence

Steps to anchoring

- Think of a situation in which you want to be different e.g., going out to the crease and want to feel more confident.
- Think of a past situation in which you were confident, experiencing the emotion that went with it.

Create a kinesthetic, auditory or visual anchor

Kinesthetic anchor

Find a unique anchor, different to normal behaviour. An example could be to touch the ear lobe or to touch the thumb with the other hand.

Auditory anchor

Select a word or phrase that is said to you internally. Use the correct tone, and a word that is appropriate for the situation.

Visual anchor

See the situation in vivid and detail in bright colours where you felt confident.

Recreate the resource situation

- Step back into that situation

- Recreate the feelings you've had in that situation
- If there were any sounds, hear them again
- See the picture in bright colours
- If there were any smells recreate them
- Experience the situation as vividly as possible.

Once you have reached the peak, step out of the situation. Break state

Anchor the resources

- Anchor the resources and re-experience it again
- Step into your place for the resource state and re-experience it again
- As it reaches its peak, anchor.

 Homework

When you need your resourceful state, on or off the field, use your anchor. Does it put you in your resourceful state?

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Session 11

Imagery
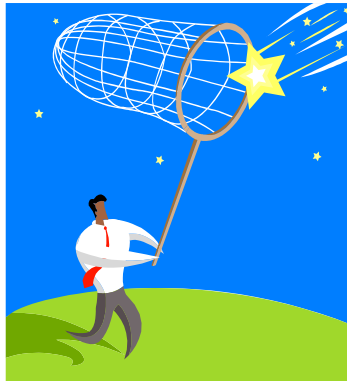
"It was this passion for being unique that made a young boy stand at the centre of the Sydney cricket ground and tell his father "I shall never be satisfied until I play on this ground" and then not just playing there but creating history as Sir Don Bradman. He was passionate about his game and ended his career with a record average of 99.96 runs" (Cardus, 2001, 3).

Goal

Become aware of your VAK system

- Visual
- Auditory
- Kinesthetic

Preparing for imagery

What you think about becomes your reality

The uses of sport imagery (O'Connor, 2001)

- improving a technical skill
- counteracting negative images or mistakes
- relaxation before a match and controlling pre-match nerves
- acquiring more energy and confidence before a game
- working out strategies
- preparing yourself to compete in different situations, bad weather, bad pitch, foreign crowds
- calming yourself when you get tense during a match
- evaluating the game afterwards and replanning
- healing sports injuries.

Exercises

1. The visual component or pictures

- Look at an object on the table and then close your eyes
- See the object in black and white
- Change it to the colours that it is
- Zoom in on the object and make it bigger
- Now zoom out and make it smaller
- Turn it around in your mind
- Now imagine the object back on the table and see how much detail you can see
- Open your eyes

2. The auditory component (Sounds)

- Close your eyes
- Imagine a choir singing loudly and clearly. Now make the singing softer. Now turn on the music and make it louder
- Imagine someone in your team talking to you (It might help if you actually see this person and then hear the voice. Let the voice come from behind you and now from the left and then from the right)
- It will help if you look across to the side (eye accessing cues)
- Now see (V) yourself vividly at the crease and watch the ball coming your way. Feel (K) the bat in your hand and execute a perfect shot. Now hear (A) the sound of the ball against the bat and see (V) how it goes exactly where you wanted it to go.

3. Feelings, tastes and smells.

- Close your eyes
- Touch your face with your hands. Now recreate that feeling of touching your face without doing it in reality

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- Look down to your right as you do this as this brings you in touch with your feelings
- Imagine yourself seeing a lemon. Break the fruit open and bring a segment to your mouth. Smell it first and now bite it. It should bring saliva to your mouth.

4. Associate and dissociate

- You are associated when you are inside the picture experiencing all the feelings
- Dissociate means you are looking at the picture and your feelings are not as vivid
- When you use imagery in your sport, it should be associated with experiencing the emotion of executing every move perfectly and enjoying the moment of knowing that you could execute a skill correctly.

Ways of talking about association and disassociation	
Associated	**Disassociated**
In it	Out of it
In the experience	Laid back
All there	Not with it
With it	Not all there
Caught up	Not quite yourself
In the flow	Out of bounce
In touch	Out of touch
Centered	All over the place

 Homework

Become more aware of your senses on and off the field

Senses	Place
Visual	
Auditory	
Kinesthetic	
Feelings, tastes, smells	

How does this awareness influence your cricket?

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Session 12

VAK system in action
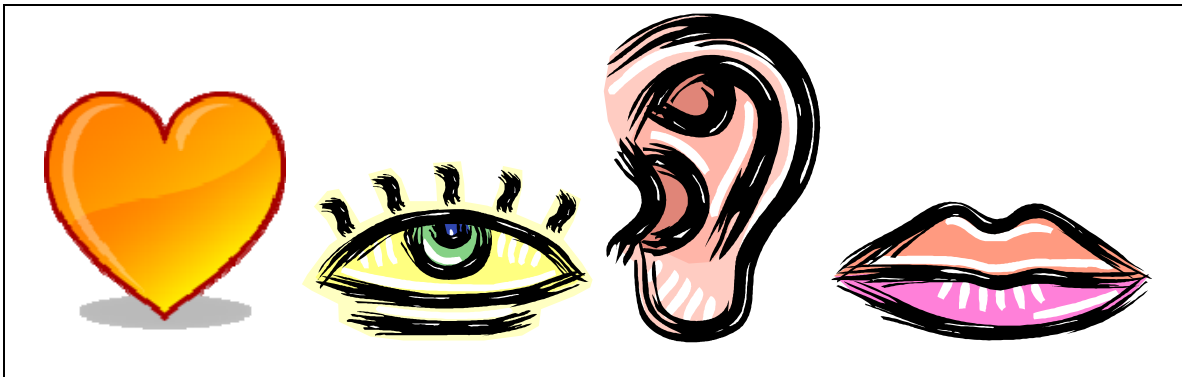
"Bradman has been permanently placed on such a high pedestal simply because every requirement of batting as well as human qualities was there in him in abundance. He was gifted with perfect coordination of eye, brain and muscle and immaculate balance. His single-minded concentration, superior intelligence and self-confidence complemented perfectly with his agility and keenness of eye that lifted his performances to near super human levels. His reflexes were sharp and true. But above all, he had a mind which reacted quicker than any other to size up where a ball would pitch, its speed, its movement and its worth" (Dinakar, 2007, 2).

Goal

- to prepare you in order to make your own movie using the VAK system
- to focus on the different perceptual positions

Knowing which submodality is most used by you

Imagine yourself being a movie producer, but the movie is made of you. This is a perfect movie of how you are playing cricket. You are the hero in your team.

Sit back in a chair where you have different buttons to control what you see. You can zoom in or out, make the picture clearer, take away colour, make it faster or slower, any way you wish. The following rules apply:

- Start from your goal. Imagine how it will feel to perfectly execute the move and be absolutely clear about that move
- Focus on the process, not the result
- Imagine as much detail as you can
- Use all of the senses
- Be specific as to what you want to achieve
- Relax into your movements.

Visual sub-modalities

- Look at your picture
- How big is it?
- How bright is it? Has it got colours?
- Is it moving?
- How clearly focused is the picture?
- Is it near or far? Wide or narrow?

Auditory sub-modalities

- Now repeat the above scenario but add sound.
- What words and sounds do you hear?
- How far away are they?
- Whose voices are they?
- Is there any self-talk?

Kinesthetic sub-modalities

- How intense are the feelings?
- Where does your focus of attention lie, inside or outside your body?
- Do you experience any tastes or smells?
- Once you have established which sub-modality works best for you, you can make your movie from different perspectives. This will enhance your game even more as you will be able 'to view yourself' in different ways.

Positions

First position: The performance viewpoint

This is when you are in the game and experiencing your own pain and physical exertion.

Second position: The coaching viewpoint

The person puts himself in the other person's shoes and he can actually 'feel' how he is experiencing a certain situation at a certain time. This position is useful for:

- accelerate learning
- modelling

Third position - The referee viewpoint

From this viewpoint you take an objective view and you can evaluate your own game and restructure it then learn from it.

Exercise

- Imagine yourself at a very important match
- Remember to use all the sub-modalities from the previous exercise, seeing, feeling and hearing
- Now change from position one to three
- Is there anything that you can learn from your coach?
- Is there anything that he is saying now, that you have heard before?
- So, if you change to what he says, it might just be a fantastic game.
- Is there anything you can learn from the umpire?
- Is there a different way of approach?

Homework

Use the different perceptual positions to evaluate your game or when you struggle with a technique.

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Session 13

Make your own movie

Quality mental preparation before a match
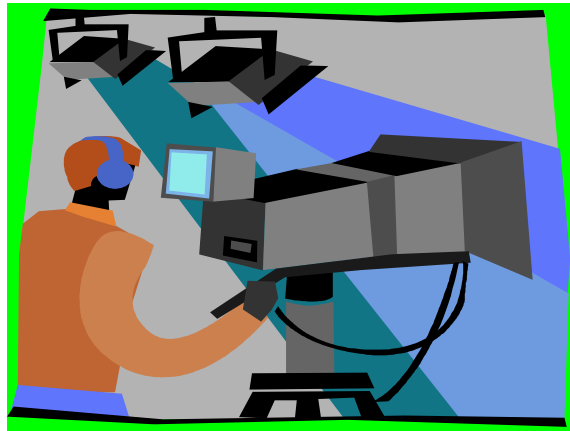
"The first thing Bradman did when he came to the crease was take a single, the first of many that soon followed, with stunning regularity. "You didn't bat with Bradman, you ran for him. But he was not selfish, mind you. And he never went after records. They happened (Dinakar, 2007, 2).

Goals

'Movie making' can be used for:

- working on tactics for the game
- working on negative memories of a bad match or mistake you made
- improving technical skills
- pre-match relaxation
- calming yourself if you are tense
- experiencing the game as you wish to play it.

Aspects to remember

- Focus on the process goals and not on the end result
- Imagine as much detail as possible by using your sub-modalities
- Make a movie where you are the hero and see, feel and hear perfection
- It is important to be in a relaxed state of mind.
- Use the information in sessions six and ten to do this exercise.

Exercise

Steps in making a movie

1. Create a relaxed state of mind (Session six)
2. Once you are completely relaxed picture a door that you have to go through. When you enter the door, you will be at the field, practice net or wherever you need to be to execute what you need to do

3. Make it as real as possible. If it is a cricket field, add the spectators, the other team, smells, see everything in bright colours and add noises. Use all your sub-modalities to create this picture as clearly as possible

4. Remember you are standing behind a camera and you are the director of the movie. You can delete certain aspects, you can add, rewind, and fast forward as long as the end result is the perfect execution of what you wish to do

5. Once you have the perfect picture in your disassociated state step into the picture in an associated state

6. Once you are in the associated state, live the perfect execution of every skill and more importantly feel the emotion that goes with the knowing that you always knew that you could do this. It feels absolutely normal to you and you never knew that it could be that easy to do

7. Go through your 'perfect movie' using all the sub-modalities another five times. Once you are satisfied with what you have achieved, step out, go back to your relaxed state and come back to the place where you are sitting.

 Homework

Use the VAK system and make a movie of yourself where you play the game of cricket perfectly.

Session 14

Just do it

Sir Donald Bradman, the maestro with a magic touch... (Dinakar, 2007, 4)

What was once seen as magic is now your reality

ZONE AND JUST PLAY...

The world may neither see the likes of Sir Donald George Bradman, the maestro with a magic touch, nor the newspapers headlining someone for scoring naught. He was not just a batsman appearing in a lifetime but once in the life of a game" (Dinakar, 2007, 4).

Appendix B

Benchmarking

The following skills were quoted from Cooper and Goodenough (2007, 223-250) with their consent.

Skill One: Performing from one's highest intention

World class athletes perform from their highest intentions. There is a big why, a compelling motivating reason that provides energy and focus. This reason is Meta-Detailed, and is evidenced in all behaviour: diet, discipline, training and ultimately, performance. They often refer to 'I have a dream'.

Definition of performing from one's highest intention

- The ability to be aware, identify, align and operate from one's intentions, and to move up the levels to one's highest intentions.
- The ability to align one's attentions to one's intentions, so that one can get oneself to do what one believes in and values; the ability to create a meaningful reason, or *why* for doing what one does, and to use the *why* to drive the *what* and *how*.

Behavioural equivalents: Behaviours indicating 'performing from one's highest intentions'

- *Number of intentions person can identify:* none/some/lots.
- *Degree of awareness of intentions*: clear, able to verbalise   some/none.
- *Congruency*: intentions clearly verbalised with an assertive, non-apologetic voice, excitement in voice, shiny eyes.
- *Incongruence*: hesitant in talking about intentions, voice breaking, low volume, eyes averted.
- *Complaint level*: grumbles about the sport, drills, practice: lots/some/none.

- *Verbally relates details of performance to highest intentions*: none/some/lots.
- Talks about intentions: self-pictures for generating motivation: none/some/lots.
- Level of intention: low/asset-driven/value-driven/high.

Benchmarks

5 Short-term and long-term actions and behaviours are aligned to highest intentions; able to keep focus at all times; readily communicates the meanings of the game; demonstrates commitment to others and to the game in general by giving of time; encourages others; speaks of wanting to leave a legacy.

4 Describes the game in terms of long-term dreams and meanings; relates highest values in value system (contribution, love, connection, team, giving, role model, etc.).   The intentions and meanings transcend the game and field and carry over to the rest of the person's life, congruent in talking about 'loving the game'.

3 Talks about his motivation for and commitment to the game; readily talks about its meaning, and at least one highest meaning (bring out my best, be true to my talent, contribute to this team, make a name for myself, etc.).

2 Sometimes expresses intentions, but says that no intention is sufficient to feel passionate on a regular basis about the game; the game doesn't hold any rich meaning for the athlete; hesitates to connect with that passion for daily practices.

1 Articulates a primary-level reason for play; no discussion of any higher intentions. Talks about practices and games as 'chores'; easily distracted and preoccupied by other things.

O Speaks about the sport as a job, a way to make money, and not a career or vehicle for meaningful purpose. Incessantly complains, demonstrates little interest in the team or team-mates.

Skill Two: Working hard

World-class athletes work hard – the athlete is determined to improve his performance, and can link all the discipline, sacrifice and extended hours of practice to his sporting goals and aspirations. Some athletes don't have a set of defined achievements or standards that they are working towards, and others have not linked the emotional energy and pay-off of achieving those goals to the small steps in getting there – resulting in an inconsistent work ethic. The athletes need to define their personal sporting goals and use the energy of the pull of the achievement to manifest in all the disciplined steps along the way.

Definition of working hard

The ability to put in regular, systematic effort to reach one's chosen goals, the ability to set goals, and then to follow through by executing them in regular daily activity; the ability to be consistent and organised.

Behavioural equivalents: Behaviours indicating 'working hard'

- *Exercise/gym work:* degree, amount, dependent on self or others.
- *Eating:* what supports/doesn't support being fit, healthy, improving performance.
- *Attendance of practices*: none/some/irregular/regular/self-directed/ other directed.
- *Intensity of practice:* low/some/high.
- *Personal organisation/ disorganisation:* time, schedule – low/some/high. Written goals, activity log, record keeping.
- *Practice goals:* set, relate to overall improvement: none/some/lots.
- *Time:* puts in personal time over and above team practice/does the bare minimum.
- *Identification:* talks about self as professional.

- *Talk about improvement:* none/some/lot.

Benchmarks

5 Speaks about being 'fully responsible for my own skills development'; often practices outside of official training arrangements; describes self as a professional; spends time examining and improving both strengths and weaknesses while looking at overall performance and identifying potential areas of growth; sets own goals and manages them in a consistent way.

4 Works hard in and out of official training practices without any need for others; able to manage goals and skills development; able to recognise places for improvement and correction; organised in planning and following through.

3 Follows through with the needed work in drills, practices, fitness, conditioning, etc. Doesn't 'need' team or coach for help or motivation, but works with them. Has created written goals; uses the list once or twice a week as a checklist.

2 Begins with great effort and intensity, but performs inconsistently (in terms of effort and intensity) at practices for reasons other than injury and illness. At training and drills works at a higher intensity and effort only if pushed and coaxed by coach and team-mates; complains about the effort and makes excuses for why he doesn't follow through.

1 Only minimum actions; no regularity; does as little as possible to avoid censure or penalties.

0 Misses practices; ignores or does not follow through on nutritional plan and fitness and conditioning work. Speaks about being 'entitled' and not needing to follow the team norms and rules.

Skill Three: Setting goals

Sports people that make it in their world have clear cut goals. They know what they have to do to reach their potential and work at it until they have reached it, only to put new goals in their place.

The player should be aware of his present state and where he wants to move to (desired state). Setting goals is the essential first step to improved performance.

Definition of setting goals

The athlete has the ability to look into the future and to see where he wants to be. He identifies his present state and what the desired state should be and create action plans on his own and with the help of a coach to achieve this. He achieves this by direct and accurate thinking and he trains and participates with a sense of purpose.

Behavioural equivalents: Behaviours indicating setting goals

- *Behaviour:* The player always wants to improve. He reads up on sports people's books, watches matches with the intent of learning from it and not only for enjoyment and likes to talk to people from whom he can learn.
- *Congruency*: He is excited to follow his new goals and implies it in every net session, game and training session.
- *Written goals:* He *writes* his goals down in a log book: He keeps a logbook and refers to it on a daily basis in order to see his improvement.
- *Talking:* He *talks* about his intentions: He shares his ideas only with those who he knows cares, and shares his progress in the same way.
- *Level of intention:* low/asset driven; high/value driven.
- *Goal statement:* In the positive which gives direction to the future.

Benchmarks

5 The player has a clear picture of where he wants to be in the future and makes sure his everyday training and matches align him to become that. He sets SMART goals, stated in the positive and writes it down in a log

book. He can also influence the results directly by changing his approach. He also rewards himself when he has accomplished a goal.

4 The player does know where he wants to go to and sees himself as a success in the future. He does set goals, but does not necessarily follow through as he changes his goals on his way. He also identifies obstacles in his way, and most of the time overcomes them. He does have a log book, but does not use it every day.

3 The player knows that he should have goals and has a clear vision of them in his mind. He states it in the negative and not in the positive and can sometimes 'forget' what he came out to do today. He also finds lots of excuses for not being able to fulfil his dream. Goals tie him down and he loses his flair of just playing and enjoying.

2 The player knows that he should have goals, but his interest in his sport is more for leisure than making it a career. He sees a lot of obstacles that he cannot overcome and is oblivious of what his own resources are. He thinks that having realistic goals would be too serious in his sport.

1 There is little, if any, talk about goals and future plans. The player has a very 'laissez-faire' attitude about his sport.

0 The player has no intention of improving; he just plays for enjoyment. He does not really have a dream for himself in sport.

Skill Four: Trusting and inner knowing

The concept 'trusting and inner knowing' deals with our sense of 'control' and where we 'locate' it. Trusting and inner knowing are where people place their personal authority. Does the authority lie within the person, or outside in another person, or in external rules and procedures? Expressed another way, to what extent does other people's behaviour and speech affect an individual's thinking and beliefs, and, ultimately, actions and words?

When an athlete has little trust and inner knowing, it can easily be identified through his language. 'The coach dropped me, so I am not a good player', or 'I am playing out of position, so the coach doesn't back me', or 'I am the first-choice selection, so I am a great player'. The athlete is using variables out of his control, to generate self-confidence. This effect is compounded in athletes who lack the distinction between self-esteem and self-confidence, which can result in some erratic form, undermining consistency.

A trusting and inner knowing athlete without *any* consideration for ideas, beliefs or perceptions of others, will lead to the athlete's isolation, both personally and intellectually, as his opinion is the only one that matters.

Definition of trusting and inner knowing

Thinks, processes information and makes decisions based on what he knows, understands and believes to be true. This decision-making process may include checking with others, when appropriate (coaches, team members, consultants) to understand their point of view. The person is open to feedback; however, makes up his own mind about things. Decision-making should be more towards internal (75 per cent) than external (25 per cent).

Behavioural equivalents: Behaviours indicating trusting and inner knowing

- *Degree:* amount of checking with others about how things are going or how he did. No external checking/some/lots.
- *Quality of the checking:* checking behaviour or how it reflects on him. Asking/speaking: 'did I do well or badly'? Or, 'was the behaviour up to par'?, 'sufficient'? etc.
- *Language of comparison of self and/or behaviour to some standard:* is the standard one's own standard, skills, competencies, or is it set against others' standards, either imagined or real?
- *Verbal description of self:* strong: 'I know what's best for me'; weak: 'tell me what I should do'.

- *Amount and quality of praise:* how much, asked for elicited, how to respond to such praise/criticism about behaviour and skill of person or value of person?
- *Decision-making:* speed, quality, timing, decisiveness (acting upon). Low-level blaming, asking others to make decisions. Saying 'I, vs. 'Coach told me to'.
- *Influence of others' behaviour and speech on self:* confidence affected/esteem affected/influenced intellectually/none.
- *Sense of permission:* always/ sometimes/never.
- *Recognition:* from within/others/authority/combination.
- *How does athlete respond to given instructions:* compliance, choice?
- *Self-confidence source:* in the mind/based on short-term actions/based on work ethic/combination.
- *Body language:* weak – says something and looks to coach or others for non-verbal approval; strong – says something and does not check for approval from coach or others.

Benchmarks

5 Does what he thinks is right, saying things like, 'I trusted my instincts; I know what I have to do', even if it is contrary to the game plan or what others say or do: has sense of permission within self to do whatever is required and says so. When questioned, the athlete will speak highly of his own skills in a simple, matter-of-fact tone of voice. The athlete does not take on the beliefs about himself that others hold, whether those beliefs are limiting or exaggerated. Knows what is best for him, but can take advice/input from trusted sources or seek out experts. Does not seek or require affirmation or praise.

4 Interprets all evaluative speech and behaviour against self as 'information'; uses information to improve performance or disregards it altogether; however, information does not affect his confidence or esteem. The athlete acts on instinct without explicit instruction to do so.

3 Seeks occasional positive reinforcement; values his own opinion above others, but has internal conflict if opinions are opposite. Can act on instincts if self-confidence is high; has internal and external leverage points for self-confidence.

2 Asks for positive reinforcements (praise, comments, approval nods and thumbs up). Interprets authority figures' (coach, parent, manager) speech and behaviour and uses the information as basis of self-confidence. For example, 'The Coach has dropped me, so it obviously means I can't play well'.

1 Interprets and uses what the coach or others (team-mates, press or public) says or does as basis for self-confidence and self-esteem. Interpretation can be influenced by a strong focus to find the negative. Requires and seeks positive reinforcement.

0 Asks for and seeks constant praise and reassurance from others. The athlete offers no unique opinions. Self-confidence and self-esteem are highly variable. The athlete speaks of roller coaster of emotions: 'One day on top of the world, the next down in the dumps'.

Skill Five: Distinguishing between self-confidence and self-esteem

An athlete has a strong sense of his personal worth, irrespective of his performance. He can separate his self-confidence – his ability to perform – from his self-esteem, which is the way he values himself as a person. *I am not a bad person/athlete because I had a bad performance; I am not a great person/athlete because I had a great game. I am a great person, regardless.* When players feel additional self-worth and value through their performance, it puts an extra amount of pressure and strain on them, resulting in massive highs and lows. Athletes with a clear distinction have a sense of another world outside of sport, and strive to cultivate it.

Definition of distinguishing between self-confidence and self-esteem

It is the ability to mentally and verbally separate one's personal innate value (self-esteem) from one's actions, behaviours and skills (self-confidence). This enables optimum levels of both self-esteem and self-confidence. The athlete speaks about behaviours (succeeding or failing to reach a goal) as '*expressions of self*', and not defined or identified as '*self*'.

Behavioural equivalents: Behaviours indicating 'self-confidence' and 'self-esteem'

- *Time and amount of chastising language about self:* lots/some/none.
- *Time of recovery from poor performance:* forever/slow/quickly; hours/days/weeks/months.
- *Degree of self-value is dependent / independent of actions and results:* none/some/lots.
- *Response to success:* uses it to validate self versus uses it to feel good about a competency.
- *Degree of 'identifying' with behaviours, success and failure:* lots/some/none. 'I am a failure. 'I was useless' vs. 'I could have played better'. 'I am great because I played well' vs. 'I enjoyed the experience of playing well'.
- *Does not personalise:*nothing is permanent, personal or pervasive. Rather speaks of this event as a point in time, an opportunity to learn.
- Basis of self-confidence: short term, long term, combination.
- Durability of self-confidence: very strong/strong/strong when not under extreme pressure/weak/easily influenced.

Benchmarks

5 Responds to questions about 'worth' by ignoring it or saying, 'It's just my behaviour, not me'. The athlete makes no response to any question about worth as a person. Clearly delineates behaviour from self: 'Today my throws were not as accurate as usual'. The athlete is able to 'let go' of great and poor performances, sees both as being just a game. Self-

confidence is based on high-level work ethic: 'I have trained too hard to get things wrong'.

4 Responds to a performance that does not live up to expectations by seeking to learn from it, as indicated by seeking out feedback (audio or visual or from self) and integrating feedback into development and training. Able to experience a 'poor'   performance without a shift to a 'negative' mood: takes defeat or undesired results as opportunity for more learning. His thoughts would be 'What can I learn from this'? Also able to experience a 'good' performance without feeling he has to live up to the expectations created by that performance.   After a poor performance, he works even harder; he uses feedback and soon raises the level of performance. Self-confidence is based on work ethic, but fine-tuned during the build-up/preparation to an event.

3 Talks about actions, decisions and results as *expressions of self*, not self. Speaks about self-esteem and self-value as high, regardless of results – will sometimes refer to the period in his career where he 'learnt how not to take performances personally'. Self-confidence can be affected by a sub-standard build-up/preparation; however, the athlete can recover and regain self-confidence, unless under extreme stress or pressure.

2 Responds to a mistake in the game with outward expressions of frustration and anger; accuses self with insulting words, but stops the self-blame by end of game. He talks about actions reflecting on him. He can use conversations with others to seek validation and value. The athlete is sometimes referred to as a 'confidence player'. Self-confidence can be affected by a sub-standard build-up to an event.

1 A mistake elicits verbal self-chastising for a period of time, or the athlete blames others verbally.   Period   to   recover   from   disappointment(s) results in a waste of time and lowered performance, as well as an extended 'negative' mood. If the player is in a losing situation, he will

mentally disengage, which is manifested in lowered efforts, concentration and intensity. Self-confidence can be affected by any event the athlete considers to be 'negative' during the build-up to an event.

O When mistakes occur or a decision doesn't pan out, the player spends lots of time inwardly and outwardly chastising himself about it, feeling down, discouraged, as if he was a 'bad' person. Considers and talks about quitting, giving up, being 'no good'. If the player is in a losing situation, it is not uncommon that he will quit the game or walk away rather than finishing it. The athlete has no control over his self-confidence; he either 'has it' or he doesn't.

Skill Six: Dealing with setbacks

The athlete, who deals with setbacks, can bounce back from a poor performance or set-back in a very short space of time. He does not hold on to negativity, but takes a 'lesson learnt and dealt with' approach to align his personal preparation or strategy. The athlete does not code anything as failure, but sees losses and mistakes as learning opportunities. In the long term, this means having a positive attitude towards injuries and other personal setbacks. In the short term it means bouncing back after an unforced error or bad performance to come back even stronger.

Definition of dealing with setbacks

The athlete is able to respond to any life event that interferes with his goals. This could be a set-back from progress, a loss, trauma, divorce, injury or anything else that discourages the athlete. The event is something that just happens to one at a certain time and place – and not because of oneself (personal), not everywhere (pervasive) and not forever (permanent); the three P's. The athlete responds with learning, curiosity, determination and commitment as one 'bounces back' in a positive way to make the most of one's talents and opportunities.

Behavioural equivalents: Behaviours indicating 'resilience'

- *Causation*: from self to other; e.g. others: blames language or entitlement, resentment, etc.; or self: talks as if accepting of self as source of actions and responses.

- *Distractions*: amount, degree, intensity, lets event stop action or doesn't let setback stop him from taking effective actions, returns to taking action to make a difference.

- *Return to action*: slow/medium/quickly. There is intensity of play and training.

- State management: able to or unable to adjust attitude or mood. Putting heart into what he is doing and not just 'going through the motions'. There is a degree/quality of congruence between inner spirit and outer behaviour.

- Feedback: looks for it, asks for it, uses it, learns from it, avoids it, fights it or denies it.

- *Personalisation*: sees 'bad' things, negative things, 'evil' things as originating from inside self or from outside: talk that describes 'self' as the cause (low resilience) to description of 'bad', negative, 'evil' as outside, external, circumstantial events to be dealt with.

- *Behaviour during*: even when the athlete is unable to play, he still works on what he can, e.g. knowledge of game, mental conditioning and recuperation work.

- *Speech*: motivates team/speaks positively/quiet/speaks negatively.

Benchmarks

5 Does not talk or think about setbacks – instead it is not a 'setback' at all, just a learning experience. Maintains a positive attitude about reaching goals and doing his best, taking action that evidences such, talks about 'everything is just what happens; I give it meaning and significance'. Positive attitude is evidenced in speech, demeanour and actions.

4 Performance is not affected by any setback; within a few minutes starts speaking positively about getting going again. The player continues not

taking the setback as having anything to do with self, affects everything or is forever (see 3 P's).

3 Setback felt and registered by player, as evidenced by talking about it, seeking support and guidance from coach, colleagues, etc. He continues to believe in recovery, learning, growth, sustained effort to make a comeback. This manifests itself in taking care of his diet, exercise program and fitness. It may take a day or two to become positive again.

2 Setback dominates mood and attitude, as evidenced in low effort to try again, anxiety and stress responses; puts some effort into trying again, but speaks in terms of 'I hope this works'. Recovery takes weeks or does not happen at all for major setbacks.

1 Gets depressed over setback, gives up, blames self, personalises, becomes pessimistic about things that do turn out well. Speaks in a low tone, stops taking care of self in terms of eating, training, sleeping and could abuse alcohol or drugs.

0 Any setback influences the player for a long period of time, or forever. The player responds with a fight/flight response, mopes and sulks, defends, blames, accuses, talks about things being unfair or that he is 'entitled' to better or something more.

Skill Seven: Managing anxiety and confidence

The athlete is able to manage the see-saw effect anxiety and confidence can have on performance. The see-saw can create energy in the system with which to reach peak performance: as anxiety decreases, confidence builds up, and vice versa. Finding that anxiety and confidence balance is a challenge for many athletes - there needs to be enough tension to perform at a high level, but not so much that the athlete's performance suffers.

The confidence creates resources for the athlete to perform at a high level, while the unmanaged anxiety drains those resources. Only if the anxiety is dealt with effectively and precisely will a player perform at his peak (the energy is not lost, or the energy does not overwhelm the athlete and negatively influence his performance). An example is Michael Johnson at the 1996 Olympics in Atlanta, where he set a new world record for the 200 m. When asked, 'How did you feel before the race began?' he replied, 'Well, I was nervous ... but I felt comfortable. Actually, if I hadn't felt nervous, I would have been uncomfortable.'

Definition of effectively managing anxiety and confidence

The ability to balance the emotions of anxiety and confidence so that they create energy for action and do not stop the learning process or improvement of performance; the ability to recognise that emotions are just 'action tendencies in the body' and not necessarily 'reality' or an obligation to do anything; the ability to notice, acknowledge and hold ('be with') an emotion.

Behavioral equivalents: Behaviors showing 'anxiety' and 'confidence'

- *Competing against whom:* not competing/against self/against teammates/against other team.
- *Co-operative behaviors and language:* who does the player co-operate with? self/team mates/ other team.
- *Source of anxiety/tension:* opposition, venue or occasion.
- *Talks and acts under 'pressure':* what counts as pressure? ; how to talk, describe and respond to pressure.
- *Tools, techniques, processes activated when under 'pressure':* no coping skills, deny emotion, try to
- make it go away, command go away, accept, explore, acknowledge, breathe, relaxation, accessing resourceful state.
- *Preparation in training for match-day anxiety:* match-day conditions simulated wherever possible/mentally the athlete creates pressure for self / practices techniques to manage pressure/no preparation.
- *Timing of anxiety:* just before/the night before/during game.

- *Attitude towards:* speech such as 'bring it on', sparkle in eye on hearing crowd, looks confident or edgy and nervous.
- *Level of stress:* overstressed/under-stressed/correct balance for athlete. (Measured by performance in 'big matches').

Benchmarks

5 Welcomes anxiety and 'negative' emotions as 'just emotions', and says so to self and others; converts this anxiety to increased energy for the performance. Each game (from major opponents to minor opponents) has a resourceful and positive meaning for the athlete for him to deliver to his potential. Loves the big games, and steps up his performance on the big occasion. He wants to take the winning shot. The ability to thrive under pressure is developed through focused and intentional preparation that concentrates on performing under pressure.

4 Plays well, and to competency level, in 'tough' competitive matches. Runs scenarios in his mind during preparation and he anticipates 'pressure' and 'anxiety'. He develops mental processes for handling it. He speaks of feeling edgy, pumped and ready, 'wanting to get on with it'.

3 Anxiety is inconsistently managed for big 'crunch' matches or very easy matches. The athlete uses techniques to bring down his anxiety level before game, e.g. music. He is not comfortable talking about nervousness.

2 When situations arise in either crucial matches or 'low-level' matches, he does not play to his level of competency; he flounders as anxiety influences his ability to perform at competency level. (The athlete loses precision in game actions, such as catching or bowling correct line and length. If he is overstressed, he becomes tense, his heart rate is well beyond optimal level, his breathing shifts to being shallow and strained. If under-stressed, his concentration is poor and intensity is low. He does not like playing the critical points, he passes responsibility on to others.

1 Any experience of pressure or 'negative' emotions results in a physical reaction that puts the body into a tense state, including tense muscles and rapid heart rate.

0 When a player experiences strong emotions, from anxiety to confidence, he feels controlled, driven and without choices about what to do. In anxiety, breathing becomes shallow, muscles tense, normal play in the sport deteriorates, the mind races with too many thoughts, so that one can't think clearly. Ideas about 'pressure' and 'competition' put him into a fight/flight response.

Skill Eight: Using language effectively in self-talk and communication

Language represents the thoughts of the mind. Words act as symbols to show the inner thought process and when there is good self-talk it will have a positive effect on the behaviour. Sport champions can always turn a negative situation into a positive through positive self-talk. This changes the state of mind to enable the person to show positive intent.

Definition of using language effectively in self-talk and communication

The ability to use positive language in self-talk which enables him to reach his positive goal and to stay focused on what his ultimate goal is. Negative inner voices (negative thoughts) are also not present when participating as these thoughts could be a distraction.

The quality of self-talk will also reflect in good communication skills with others, always having a positive intent.

Behavioural equivalents: Behaviours indicating using language effectively in self-talk and communication

- *Verbal description* of self as a sportsman is positive.

- The *body language* is congruent with what the person says.
- *Self-statements:* are used to trigger desired states and actions more effectively; are used to provide self-reward; can modify the mood; control the mood
- *Self-statements getting into the zone:* how often does self-talk get a person out of the zone?
- *Does self-talk hamper the person's thinking,* thus stop him from getting solutions?
- *Is his self-talk littered with words* such as must, have to, should and try?
- Does his self-talk *increase his stress levels?*
- How many *phrases* are stated in the negative and how many in the positive?
- Are there many *deletions, distortions and generalisations* in his self-talk?
- What kinds of *metaphors* do the person use which could become part of his belief system e.g. 'My game is collapsing' compared to 'I love to face a difficult challenge, it builds character'

Benchmarks

5 The person oozes self-confidence through the way he communicates and has a positive state of mind, even in difficult situations. His inner voice talks in a firm way, yet is pleasant to listen to.

His thought process is organised and goal-orientated. Criticism that comes his way is seen as positive and within his self-talk he sees it as an enhancing factor, only to build character. He knows how to use thought stopping and does it with success.

4 The person shows a positive self-image through his self-talk. He shows an upward positive spiral when talking. He sometimes however allows negative thoughts to affect his game.

3 Some negative self-talk creeps in through using phrases in the negative instead of the positive. 'I don't score runs', I haven't been able to get the score on the board'. The tone of voice is also harsh and disturbing.

2 The person often scolds and swears at himself. He over-reacts before the match and the talk is like that of a dictator, which makes him anxious. His belief system's ceiling is very low and he can't seem to think out of the box. He has little or no knowledge as to how to change it.

1 The person's language is littered with words such as 'have to', 'try' 'must'. His self-talk puts him in a downward negative spiral and he has got no way of stopping it. He reflects a poor self-image.

0 The person cannot really define his inner self-talk. He hears too many people telling him different things to do. He hates losing, yet due to his poor performance it keeps on happening. He has little or no knowledge on how to stop his negative train of thoughts. He reflects a very poor self-image. All feed-back is seen as negative criticism.

Skill Nine: Preparing mentally before an event

Quality mental preparation is typically in the form of 'visualisations', and is supported by detailed goal setting. By creating a mental movie of the required result and adding in the extra channels of sound and feeling, one can create powerful 'visualisations' to improve performance. This is one of the keys to top professional performance.

Definition of mentally preparing before an event

The ability to 'see' (visualise) in one's mind an upcoming event and to create a full sensory description (sights, sounds, sensations, etc.) so that it is vivid, clear, and sends precise messages to the body on how to respond; the ability to run numerous 'scenarios' of possibilities in one's mind as part of one's 'inner game' for the actual outer game; the ability to do this in a way that's disciplined, sequential, repetitive and empowering.

Behavioural equivalents: Behaviours indicating 'quality mental preparation'

- *Quality of mental imagery:* vague/blurry/distinct/detailed.
- Richness of mental rehearsal: Uses all senses/some/one.
- *Number of scenarios:* only runs visualisations from limited scope of game, e.g. scoring a winning goal. He does not cover the full scope of all the game scenarios for every eventuality.
- *Frequency of mental rehearsal:* not at all/low/high.
- *Practice time:* how much repetition?
- *Specificity:* to particular game, opponent, venue or occasion.
- *Mental rehearsal for skills development*: none/some/lots.
- *Mental rehearsal to manage anxiety and confidence:* none/some/lots.
- *Engagement of mental rehearsal:* none/some/full.

Benchmarks

5 Rehearses mentally, on a constant basis, every facet of the game or event; uses full range of the senses in the visualisations, and sets specific performance goals for these visualisations. The athlete uses very specific visualizing for an event, game or opponent. He uses visualisations to develop skills in scenarios that are difficult to simulate in practice/training. Athlete reports a sense of when visualisations 'come true'.

4 Runs visualisations before each game; notices strengths and weaknesses of the 'inner game' and keeps refining; runs the events mentally so that they fully put him 'into state'. He sets goals to enrich all of the sensory systems until they are extremely vivid. He covers all aspect of the game.

3 Runs basic visualisations regularly and systematically as planned preparation for an event or game; builds visualisations so that they induce desired states. He speaks to others about the mental 'inner game'. The athlete runs visualisation before every game.

2 Runs some visualisation on some aspects of the game, but infrequently, without connecting those to developmental goals; does not run them repetitively or build the visualisations so that they induce the corresponding state.

1 Has a general idea of how the game will go; does not run visualisations, either says that they are ineffective (says he is not 'good' at visualizing), or finds visualisations limiting.

0 Relies fully on the visual skills system during matches and as such responds on the spur of the moment and thus impulsively, reactively, 'from the seat of one's pants'. Doesn't run visualisations, or, if he does, runs movies of failures, replaying old scenarios in which he 'messed up', which induces discouragement and feelings of frustration.

Skill Ten: Managing flow-state

The athlete can effectively and easily step between the multiple flow states he requires for his sport. The flow states are specifically designed and created for the individual and are very strong and robust. He relies on a strong flow state, even under tremendous pressure and stress. He can change his current state to a desired flow state in seconds.

Definition of flow-state

The ability to step into a mind-body state of total engagement in some activity or experience so that one is totally present; the ability to do this at will within a few seconds, and in doing so to direct awareness so completely that one becomes 'one mind' with the engagement and nothing can disturb the person. When this occurs, the person experiences the availability of all his knowledge, skills and resources.

Behavioural equivalents: Behaviours and clues about being 'in flow' or in the zone

- *Engagement* with a task or experience: degree of engagement, intensity, purity.
- *No engagement:* distractions changing topics, looking around, reactive to noises, sounds, sights, etc.
- *High intensity:* eyes focused completely, forehead tenses.
- *Speed of accessing the 'flow' state:* never/sometimes/slowly/quickly.
  'I just couldn't get into state' or 'I was preoccupied about home, work etc.
- *Dependence on external cues, triggers and conditions:* high to low.
- 'It was not my day';' or 'I just thought about *my cue'*
  Amount of conscious control: none/some/increasing amount/lots/complete.
- *Time* (sense of): hurried/under pressure/lots of/no pressure.
- *Visual:* high clarity, sense of detail.
- *Talk* indicating 'in flow':
- High level: 'World goes away', I lost track of time', I didn't notice that noise' etc.
- Low level: 'It was too noisy', 'I couldn't hear myself think', 'I felt distracted'.

Benchmarks

5 Has choice of numerous flow- states. Afterwards reports loss of a sense of self, world, others and everything not part of the engagement. The player does not seem rushed, but mentions having plenty of time. Afterwards reports 'at my best', and that difficult tasks seemed 'easy', piece of cake'. He is able to hold flow- state for as long as needed for specific sport.

4 Chooses when and where to access the flow- state. Not dependent on circumstances. Afterwards reports having experienced no awareness of internal or external interruptions. Player reports loss of a sense of time. He may report lack of sound or other distractions. No internal dialogue.

3 Engages and stays engaged for needed length of time; however focus can be disturbed with some interruptions; physical intensity sufficient, but can wane. Afterwards he reflects on and identifies internal interruptions (preoccupations, thoughts in the back of the mind) and external interruptions. May rely on external cues to trigger flow-state but can identify these cues.

2 Engages but only for a short period usually under specific circumstances. Flow state doesn't last for the needed duration. The athlete reports lots of internal dialogue e.g. telling himself to concentrate.

1 Can easily lose flow state; completely dependent on external triggers; little to no awareness of what triggers the state.

0 Easily distracted; inability to stay with the engagement. Reports being in flow state, seldom, if ever.

Appendix C
Letter of consent

I, ... herewith give my consent to Dawn Saunders to use all information concerning the psychological intervention programme, using NLP as a model, for research purposes only.

I furthermore request that the following points be adhered to:

- No personal information may be given to my coach. The only time that any personal information may be disclosed is with my permission and in the presence of all three parties: the coach, the psychologist and myself.

- My name is not to be mentioned in any research reports.

- The year of the Gauteng North selected team may not be disclosed.

- At no time may the coach's name be mentioned.

- No personal aspects or information about me as a player may ever be disclosed to any franchise, university team, club or my work place.

I herewith give my full support to the programme.

Signature.............................Date.............................

Appendix D
Statistics

Cricket self-concept

Experimental group Candidate 1	Before	After	Cricket results Before	After
Batting	32	82	40	55
Bowling	36	85	-	-
Fielding	36	82		
Mental	30	76		
Fitness	24	60		
Team	20	58		
Personal	28	96		
Candidate 2				
Batting	60	72	41	45
Bowling	54	76	23.1	16
Fielding	62	70		
Mental	54	82		
Fitness	72	82		
Team	66	90		
Personal	66	78		
Candidate 3				
Batting	54	60	40	55
Bowling	48	52	-	-
Fielding	48	80		
Mental	56	72		
Fitness	50	72		
Team	56	82		
Personal	49	74		
Candidate 4				
Batting	54	70	32	43
Bowling	52	80	15.1	9.2
Fielding	52	62		
Mental	58	78		
Fitness	27	66		
Team	60	80		

Personal	54	80		
Candidate 5				
Batting	65	76	37	42
Bowling	40	64	13.1	10
Fielding	60	74		
Mental	50	68		
Fitness	60	48		
Team	40	85		
Personal	46	80		
Candidate 6				
Batting	60	76	35	46
Bowling	65	72	21.1	12
Fielding	70	80		
Mental	65	70		
Fitness	65	72		
Team	65	70		
Personal	60	75		
Candidate 7				
Batting	30	62	18	22
Bowling	-	-	-	-
Fielding/wicket	32	78		
Mental	45	80		
Fitness	50	60		
Team	54	70		
Personal	59	90		
Candidate 8				
Batting	58	84	18	25
Bowling	54	70	18	15.6
Fielding	54	96		
Mental	68	88		
Fitness	42	76		
Team	66	88		
Personal	54	84		
Candidate 9				
Batting	42	50	12	16
Bowling	52	60	24.2	17.6
Fielding	60	48		
Mental	42	64		
Fitness	44	58		

Team	52	70		
Personal	36	44		
Candidate 10				
Batting	60	72	6-	15-
Bowling	34	58	19	16.2
Fielding	28	68		
Mental	50	72		
Fitness	50	56		
Team	58	72		
Personal	46	52		
Candidate 11				
Batting	38	72	25	35
Bowling	40	58	-	-
Fielding	54	80		
Mental	38	80		
Fitness	46	75		
Team	46	66		
Personal	40	82		
Candidate 12				
Batting	54	80	18	35
Bowling	44	80	-	-
Fielding	48	90		
Mental	58	86		
Fitness	54	86		
Team	32	88		
Personal	30	92		
Candidate 13				
Batting	44	64	8	15
Bowling	46	80	27	22.3
Fielding	55	60		
Mental	58	86		
Fitness	60	76		
Team	42	72		
Personal	60	82		
Candidate 14				
Batting	38	65	17	32
Bowling	40	66	-	-
Fielding	54	72		
Mental	38	76		

Fitness	46	60		
Team	46	66		
Personal	40	66		
Candidate 15*	**Got injured**			
Batting	62	-	5	-
Bowling	66	-	-	-
Fielding	58	-		
Mental	54	-		
Fitness	55	-		
Team	72	-		
Personal	68	-		

Control group

Control Group **Candidate 1**				
Batting	42	45	18	20
Bowling	50	48	-	-
Fielding	48	55		
Mental	34	34		
Fitness	62	66		
Team	58	60		
Personal	55	56		
Candidate 2				
Batting	63	65	15	16
Bowling	66	69	-	-
Fielding	65	70		
Mental	56	62		
Fitness	66	74		
Team	70	75		
Personal	68	72		
Candidate 3				
Batting	82	74	25	20
Bowling	66	70	28	27
Fielding	65	60		
Mental	58	55		
Fitness	66	72		
Team	70	72		
Personal	66	60		

Candidate 4				
Batting	76	80	22	24
Bowling	73	75	24.4	25
Fielding	70	76		
Mental	75	78		
Fitness	76	79		
Team	78	75		
Personal	72	74		
Candidate 5				
Batting	58	60	18	20
Bowling	76	80	26.5	24.2
Fielding	70	55		
Mental	54	48		
Fitness	66	65		
Team	54	54		
Personal	55	50		
Candidate 6				
Batting	32	50	19	23
Bowling	56	57	32	33
Fielding	62	60		
Mental	54	58		
Fitness	54	60		
Team	42	44		
Personal	34	38		
Candidate 7				
Batting	76	76	24	25
Bowling	-	-	-	-
Fielding/wicket	66	64		
Mental	54	52		
Fitness	68	70		
Team	70	72		
Personal	68	65		
Candidate 8				
Batting	76	80	25	26
Bowling	73	75	22	19
Fielding	77	75		
Mental	65	60		
Fitness	76	78		
Team	78	78		

Personal	78	82		
Candidate 9				
Batting	77	80	19	21
Bowling	65	67	26	25.8
Fielding	70	68		
Mental	56	55		
Fitness	52	60		
Team	80	78		
Personal	65	66		
Candidate 10				
Batting	48	52	13	14
Bowling	56	62	27	25.7
Fielding	55	58		
Mental	40	42		
Fitness	70	73		
Team	68	70		
Personal	48	55		
Candidate 11				
Batting	45	50	16	18
Bowling	46	53	-	-
Fielding	73	75		
Mental	56	54		
Fitness	44	50		
Team	56	60		
Personal	43	45		
Candidate 12				
Batting	62	67	11	12
Bowling	74	76	32	31
Fielding	70	72		
Mental	58	60		
Fitness	72	70		
Team	72	73		
Personal	66	66		
Candidate 13				
Batting	54	56	12	14
Bowling	44	50	-	-
Fielding	48	60		
Mental	40	42		
Fitness	60	68		

Team	55	60		
Candidate 14				
Batting	54	58	12	10
Bowling	78	78	26	25.4
Fielding	64	69		
Mental	60	66		
Fitness	72	74		
Team	70	72		
Personal	66	72		
Candidate 15				
Batting	64	68	10	11
Bowling	62	58	-	-
Fielding	60	57		
Mental	67	65		
Fitness	66	64		
Team	65	66		
Personal	55	56		

Benchmarking

Experimental group

Skill 1

Performing from ones highest intentions	Before	After
1	4	5
2	4	5
3	4	5
4	3	4
5	3	5
6	4	5
7	4	5
8	3	5
9	3	4
10	3	4
11	2	5
12	3	4
13	2	4
14	4	5
15	3	5

Skill 2

Working hard	Before	After
1	3	5
2	3	4
3	3	5
4	4	4
5	3	4
6	4	5
7	3	4
8	4	4
9	3	4
10	3	4
11	3	3
12	4	4
13	3	3
14	2	3
15	2	3

Skill 3

Setting goals	Before	After
1	3	4
2	3	4
3	3	4
4	2	4
5	4	4
6	3	4
7	2	3
8	3	4
9	2	4
10	3	4
11	4	4
12	2	3
13	4	4
14	3	4
15	2	4

Skill 4

Trusting and inner knowing	Before	After
1	2	4
2	3	4
3	3	4
4	2	3
5	3	3
6	3	4
7	2	3
8	4	4
9	3	3
10	2	3
11	3	4
12	3	3
13	2	3
14	3	3
15	3	3

Skill 5

Distinguishing between self confidence and self-esteem	Before	After
1	1	3
2	2	4
3	2	3
4	3	4
5	2	3
6	2	4
7	3	3
8	3	4
9	2	3
10	1	2
11	2	4
12	3	3
13	3	3
14	4	4
15	2	3

Skill 6

Dealing with setbacks	Before	After
1	2	4
2	3	4
3	3	4
4	3	4
5	2	3
6	3	4
7	2	4
8	2	4
9	2	4
10	3	4
11	3	4
12	3	4
13	2	3
14	2	3
15	2	3

Skill 7

Managing anxiety and confidence	Before	After
1	2	4
2	3	4
3	2	4
4	3	5
5	3	4
6	3	5
7	2	4
8	2	4
9	3	4
10	2	3
11	3	4
12	2	4
13	3	4
14	2	3
15	2	4

Skill 8

Using language effectively in self-talk and communication	Before	After
1	2	3
2	2	3
3	3	4
4	3	4
5	2	3
6	3	4
7	2	3
8	3	2
9	1	3
10	2	4
11	2	3
12	2	3
13	1	3
14	1	3
15	2	3

Skill 9

Preparing mentally before an event	Before	After
1	2	3
2	2	4
3	1	3
4	0	1
5	2	3
6	1	4
7	1	4
8	1	4
9	1	3
10	0	3
11	1	3
12	3	4
13	2	4
14	1	3
15	1	3

Skill 10

Managing flow-state	Before	After
1	1	3
2	1	3
3	3	4
4	4	4
5	2	3
6	3	3
7	2	3
8	2	3
9	1	3
10	1	3
11	3	4
12	2	3
13	1	1
14	0	1
15	1	3

Control group

Skill 1

Performing from ones highest intentions	Before	After
1	3	3
2	3	3
3	3	3
4	3	3
5	3	4
6	4	4
7	3	3
8	3	4
9	3	3
10	3	3
11	3	3
12	3	3
13	3	3
14	2	3
15	3	3

Skill 2

Working hard	Before	After
1	3	3
2	3	3
3	3	3
4	3	4
5	2	3
6	3	3
7	2	3
8	4	4
9	3	3
10	3	3
11	2	3
12	2	2
13	3	3
14	3	2
15	3	3

Skill 3

Setting goals	Before	After
1	3	3
2	3	3
3	2	3
4	2	3
5	3	3
6	2	3
7	0	0
8	3	3
9	2	2
10	1	2
11	2	2
12	1	2
13	2	2
14	2	2
15	2	2

Skill 4

Trusting and inner knowing	Before	After
1	2	1
2	2	2
3	3	3
4	2	2
5	2	2
6	1	2
7	O	1
8	3	3
9	2	2
10	2	3
11	2	2
12	2	2
13	1	2
14	1	2
15	1	2

Skill 5

Distinguishing between self-confidence and self-esteem	Before	After
1	2	2
2	2	2
3	1	2
4	2	2
5	3	3
6	2	3
7	3	3
8	2	3
9	2	3
10	2	3
11	3	3
12	3	3
13	2	2
14	3	3
15	1	2

Skill 6

Dealing with setbacks	Before	After
1	4	4
2	3	3
3	3	3
4	3	3
5	3	3
6	3	3
7	2	3
8	2	3
9	3	3
10	2	3
11	3	4
12	3	3
13	3	3
14	3	3
15	2	2

Skill 7

Managing anxiety and confidence	Before	After
1	3	3
2	2	2
3	2	2
4	2	2
5	2	2
6	2	2
7	1	1
8	2	1
9	2	2
10	2	2
11	2	2
12	2	2
13	2	2
14	2	2
15	3	3

Skill 8

Using language effectively in self-talk and communication	Before	After
1	4	4
2	3	3
3	3	3
4	3	3
5	3	3
6	3	3
7	2	2
8	3	3
9	3	3
10	3	3
11	3	3
12	3	3
13	2	2
14	2	2
15	2	2

Skill 9

Mental preparation	Before	After
1	3	3
2	2	3
3	2	2
4	2	2
5	2	2
6	2	2
7	2	2
8	2	2
9	2	2
10	2	2
11	2	2
12	2	2
13	2	2
14	2	2
15	2	2

Skill 10

Managing flow state	Before	After
1	3	3
2	2	2
3	2	2
4	2	2
5	2	2
6	3	2
7	2	2
8	2	3
9	2	3
10	2	2
11	3	3
12	3	3
13	2	2
14	2	2
15	2	2