

GENERAL SELF-ESTEEM AND LOCUS OF CONTROL OF YOUNG SPORTSMEN

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Abstract. This paper deals with the relationship between some elements of self-concept (general self-esteem and locus of control) and going in for sport in adolescence. The relationship between going in for sport and variables of self-concept (general self-esteem and external locus of control) was investigated in a sample of 300 adolescent boys and girls (150 sportsmen and 150 non-sportsmen). Modification of the Rosenberg's General self-esteem scale and Bezinović-Savčić's Scale of externality were used to measure variables of self-concept. The significant positive correlation between variables of going in for sport and general self-esteem, as well as negative ones between variables of going in for sport and external locus of control were found in the whole sample of subjects and in the sample of boys, but not of girls. The sex role stereotypes and greater importance that the culture puts on success in sport for boys have contributed to such results. The sex differences in correlations between variables of self-concept and going in for sport suggest that going in for sport influences general self-esteem and locus of control in adolescents through social feedback and social evaluation of sport achievement and physical fitness.

Key words: self-concept, self-esteem, locus of control, sport, athletes, adolescents.

Self-concept is an idea about self. Epstein (1973) believed that it may be more appropriate to speak of a self-theory instead of self-concept. Self-theory of a person would include ones ideas about the nature of the self, about the world and about interactions between the two. Most authors agree that there can be distinguished between the entity which is observed and the observer when one speaks about the self. This paper deals with the aspect of self which is observed, e.g. with the totality of perceptions, thoughts, beliefs, and feelings about one's self. The self is formed as, and observed to be the participant in the interaction with the physical and social world. This paper deals with the self as an object of cognition and evaluation and we do not enter the discussion about the nature of the self as an observer here (James, 1950).

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Cognitive and evaluative component and self-concept

Some authors distinguish the cognitive from the evaluative component of self-concept. The cognitive component includes beliefs about ones own attributes. For the purpose of this paper self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1997) and locus of control will be mentioned as elements of the cognitive component of self-concept. Self-efficacy judgments in social cognitive theory (*Ibid.*) refer to ones evaluations about whether he or she has a capacity to tackle a particular situation, that is to say, to act effectively in a specific task or situation. Self-efficacy beliefs influence our decisions about the activities we are willing to engage in, decisions about the amount of effort we are willing to put into the situations and about how long we are willing to persist at the task. Those beliefs influence our emotions while we are anticipating the situation or while we are engaging in it. A person's decision to participate in an activity is based on the anticipated outcomes (e.g. external or internal rewards and punishments) and perceived self-efficacy in the required activities. Success leads to increase in self-efficacy beliefs and, whether to lower the level of effort, or to increase the level of the goal.

The concept of locus of control from Rotter's theory of social learning is also considered here to refer to the cognitive component of self-concept. It refers to the extent to which an individual believes he or she is at the mercy of external forces (external locus of control), that is, the extent to which one is responsible for events that occur in ones life and the extent to which one can control the effect of ones actions (internal locus of control). Internal locus of control in fact has the same consequences on behavior, emotions, and decisions as self-efficacy beliefs. The difference is that locus of control is usually considered as a more general concept than self-efficacy beliefs which are more activity specific. Nevertheless, some authors use the concept of general self-efficacy (Bezinović, 1986; Opačić, 1993; Janjetović, 1995). Such conceived general self-efficacy belief is not related to a specific activity but is rather general. The quest for control is one of the self's main concerns both in terms of changing the environment to suit the self and in terms of altering the self to fit in to the environment or measure up to standards (Baumeister, 1998: 724).

The most often discussed evaluative component or aspect of self-concept is self-esteem. It can be defined as the positivity of the person's evaluation of self (Baumeister, 1998: 694). It represents the global value judgment about the self. A motive to achieve and maintain high self-esteem is one of the strongest motives of personality. American and many other societies have placed great hopes and emphasis on increasing self-esteem. Yet the clear benefits

of self-esteem seem confined to being an affective resource for coping with misfortune, such as persisting in the face of failure or feeling better after setbacks. There is however growing research evidence about "the dark side" of high self-esteem. Especially, studies link inflated self-esteem, to violence, dangerous risk-taking and maladjustment. Most of those findings involve high but threatened self-esteem, which seems to elicit irrational and dangerous responses (*Ibid.*: 700). On the other hand low self-esteem is clearly accompanied with many individual problems such as less certain, less consistent and less stable self-knowledge. People with low self-esteem show greater emotional reactivity, greater malleability in response to external influence and greater orientations toward self-protection, than others (*Ibid.*). Deci and Ryan (1995) have criticized this concept of self-esteem for ignoring the distinction between self-determined and merely intentional acts. The successful pursuit of externally controlled rewards such as money, fame, physical attractiveness may furnish high self-esteem, but this is not the same self-esteem that is based on self-determined behaviours (behaviours with the aim of personal growth, meaningful relationships and community contributions). The latter behaviours are considered to be intrinsically motivated and not an instrument for achieving extrinsic goals. Some authors consider only self-esteem based on intrinsic motives to be true self-esteem insofar as it is based on autonomous integrated aspects of the self (Deci & Ryan, 1995; Janjetović, 1995).

Cognitive as well as evaluative components of self-concept can be conceived as a hierarchical structure with general self-concept at the top of the hierarchy and different domains on the lower levels of generality. In such conceptions different domains f. ex. body image, social self-concept, academic self-concept etc. make important and different contributions to the general self-concept. Evaluative components of self-concept include evaluative judgments which are inevitably attached to each cognitive element. Cognitive and evaluative components of self-concept can not be distinguished practically but only in theory. Therefore variables of locus of control and self esteem are usually found to be strongly correlated in empirical studies.

Going in for sport and self-concept

The relationship between going in for sport and self-esteem is likely to exist for different reasons. One of the most important is that going in for sport has implications for one's own body and on social life. On the other side self-concept with self-efficacy beliefs can dramatically influence athletic performance.

Body image is one of the basic sources of self-concept. The self-concept is initially a body image e.g. evaluated picture of the physical self. The first

distinction that an infant makes between self and non-self is based on his awareness of his own different bodily sensations. Many researches indicate that body image is important for the attitudes to one's self. Body image is interconnected with physical competences which is one of the main sources of self-esteem from early childhood on. Attitudes to one's self are also in significant part formed under the influence of the social feedback that one gets about one's body type. There are stereotypes about body types which are applied and communicated to the subject by the social environment. Body image is the most important domain and source of self-esteem in adolescence. The second most important is the acceptance by peers and other important persons (Janjetović, 1996; Opačić, 1995).

There are important sex differences in content of the body image (both observed and ideal) which are connected with sex role stereotypes (Burns, 1979; Opačić, 1995). Social expectations of the sex role can contribute to greater importance of physical competence and athletic figure for male than female self-esteem.

From the research about relationships between going in for sport and emotional health, it can be concluded that sport contributes to emotional health if it improves physical fitness, if the participant is skillful enough to elicit favorable evaluations and praise from peers and other people, and if sport enables the person to express positive emotions and to free themselves from aggressive tension (Kejn, 1984). It can be expected that the same factors of going in for sport which contribute to emotional health, contribute to general self-esteem which strongly correlates with the indicators of emotional health (Havelka, 1992). The success in activities that one deems important for oneself together with processes of social interaction like getting information about oneself in the eyes of others (looking-glass self) and social comparison are most important factors of forming and changing self-concept (Opačić, 1995). Participating in sport activities includes those processes and can therefore have strong effect on formation and change of self-concept of adolescents.

Athletic performance and self-efficacy support each other. There is a large body of research evidence that self-efficacy influences athletic performance. Athletes of comparable abilities but different self-assurance do not perform at the same level. Gifted athletes plagued by self-doubts perform far below their potential and less talented but highly self-assured athletes can outperform more talented competitors who distrust their capabilities (Bandura, 1997: 385). Preexisting efficacy beliefs have the greatest impact on initial competitive performance, whereas efficacy beliefs either raised or lowered by feedback from initial performance affect the subsequent course of competitive performance.

It is likely that success in sport activities and favorable social feedback after that success, can contribute to the adolescent considering oneself to be in control of the consequences of one's own actions. Good sport performance supports the adolescent's belief that the causes of one's own success or failure are in oneself, that is to say, in internal factors like capabilities and effort and not in external factors like other people, chance, luck etc. In other words, success in sport activities and favorable feedback could contribute to the internal locus of control in adolescents which is the variable strongly correlated with self-efficacy beliefs and self-esteem.

If sport is assumed to contribute to internal locus of control, self-efficacy beliefs and self-esteem development in adolescents, one can also assume the important role of coaching in that. There have been attempts to find out which features of good sport coaching influence development and maintenance of self-efficacy of sportsmen. Efficient coaches emphasize self-improvement of an athlete and not winning. Improvement is personally controllable whereas winning is not entirely in one's own hands. Setting specific performance goals and focusing on skill development while downplaying wins and defeats is a useful technique. Modeling confidence and giving positive corrective feedback rather than criticism of failing are further features of successful coaches. However these coaches do not lower expectations from athletes. They expect much of their players, but they avoid placing players prematurely in situations where they are likely to fail. Players need to be worked gradually into pressure situations that make it difficult to perform at one's best. An essential aspect of building resilient self-efficacy is learning how to rebound from defeat. Athletes must learn how to put mistakes behind them and to focus on a task. Ability appraisals conveyed to players by coaches' words and actions are also important. Coaches who remain confident in the capabilities of their players during times of player difficulty weaken the negative impact of repeated failure on beliefs of personal efficacy. A positive approach that emphasizes the equitability of athletics proficiency will be the most beneficial in promoting the acquisition of skills and interest in athletic activities. Furthermore coaches can turn losers into winners with the use of creativity and tailoring the style of play to player's particular talents.

All coaches report to use efficacy-building strategies (Weinberg & Jackson, 1990). The difference between successful coaches and less successful ones lies may be in how they use the strategies or in their creativeness. Success in sport can contribute to development of some unfavorable attributes in young sportsmen. The success in young sportsmen leads to dependant protectiveness from clubs toward them. It undermines development of personal responsibility, work habits and respect towards coaches of young

successful sportsmen. That can also have negative implications for their private lives.

Greater social approval of physical competence and athletic figure in males than in females can make those attributes more important for self-esteem in adolescent boys. Greater social expectations and approval for success in sport can also contribute to the greater importance of those factors for internal locus of control in boys than in girls.

Problem

The main research question of this study is whether there is and if so, to which extent, a relationship exists between variables of going in for sports and variables of self-esteem and locus of control in Belgrade adolescents.

The aim of this research was to investigate empirically relationships between going in for sport and particular personal features – self-esteem and the locus of control. The other aim is to investigate sex differences in those relationships.

The hypotheses for investigation were that young sportsmen (male and female) had higher self-esteem than non-sportsmen of the same age, and those young sportsmen had a lower extent of external locus of control than non-sportsmen. These hypotheses were based on the earlier established importance of body image, social feedback, and success in important activities for self-concept in the young. Young sportsmen can develop self-efficacy beliefs also directly from gradually improving in their sport activities and from constructive feedback from their coaches. All those factors important for the self-concept are likely to be affected by sport activities of different kind.

Method

Variables. The first group of variables represents the variables of self-concept: general self-esteem and locus of control. Self-esteem is defined as the evaluative component of self-concept (Opačić, 1995). According to James (1950) self-esteem represents the proportion between expectation and achievement. Global self-esteem is the global satisfaction of the individual with oneself, and is also an important motive of behavior. It can be defined as a personal judgment of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes which an individual holds about himself (Coopersmith, 1967). The concept of locus control (from Rotter's theory of social learning) means the extent to which the individual believes he is at the mercy of external forces (external locus of control), that is the extent to which he is responsible for events that occur in

his life (internal locus of control). The researches show that there is interconnection between self-esteem and locus of control (Opačić, 1995; Janjetović, 1996) which can support supposition that they are respectively cognitive and affective components of the self. In this research, only external locus of control (externality) was measured.

General self-esteem was operationalized by the Rosenberg's General Self-esteem Rating Scale (modified form) with 10 items. This scale was designed by Rosenberg (1965) and was an attempt to achieve a unidimensional index of global self-esteem based on the Guttman model. It has a reproducibility index of 0.93 and an item scalability of 0.73. Two week test-retest reliability reported is 0.85 (Silber & Tipett, 1965). It consists of 10 statements, 5 of which are phrased in a positive direction with the other 5 in a negative direction to control for acquiescence. The statements are in a modified version rated on a five-point scale. There is considerable evidence for construct validity of the scale derived from the many theoretical relationships studied and shown to be significant in Rosenberg's (1965) study.

The locus of control has been tested with Bezinovic's and Savčić's Scale of external orientation (Bezinović & Savčić, 1989). This is 10 item Lykert type scale which measures only external locus of control. The content of the 10 statements reflects fatalistic orientation according to which exclusively, destiny, luck and chance determine what will happen to an individual. The statements are rated on a five-point scale. The Cronbach alpha coefficient of internal consistency of the scale is reported to be between 0.80 and 0.92 on different samples of adolescents. Test-retest reliability is 0.85 (*Ibid.*). The most representative items of the two psychological variables can be seen in the Table No. 1.

Table 1: Variables of self-concept and their most representative items

Variables	Most representative item
General self-esteem	Generally speaking, I am satisfied with myself.
External locus of control	In many cases destiny determines what will happen to me.

The second group of variables consisted of variables of going in for sport: regularity of practicing sport trainings (yes or no), length of time student's were included in sport trainings (in years), the number of trainings per week at present, participation in sport competition and rank of competition (this variable has latter been transformed in dichotomies variably defined as participating in competitions on the national and international level and not participating in sport activities at all), type of sport (individual-team), type of class in high school in which the research was conducted

(sport or non-sport class of the high school). The control variable was the sex of subjects.

Sample. Subjects were students from a special kind of secondary school in Belgrade – “The Sports Gymnasium”. This school is among others, attended by students regularly active in sport (over two years) which form separate classes. 300 students have been tested – 150 sportsmen (49 female and 101 male) and 150 non-sportsmen (84 female and 66 male). Subjects were attending the I, II and III class of high school. Age range was 15–18.

Techniques for statistical processing of data. For statistical calculation, the t-test for equality of means for independent samples and one-way ANOVA, as well as Pearson's linear correlation coefficient and, point-biserial correlation were used.

Results

Relationships between self-esteem and sport activity. Statistically significant correlations, t- and F-coefficients show that there was substantial interaction between general self-esteem and going in for sport in adolescents. Statistically significant simple Pearson's and point-biserial correlations between the variables of going in for sport and general self-esteem were found in the whole sample of subjects. Also, significant point-biserial correlation showed that boys had somewhat higher self-esteem (Table 2).

Table 2: Point biserial and simple Pearson's correlations between the variables of going in for sport and general self-esteem and the correlation between sex and self-esteem

Sport variables	Self-esteem
Regularity of sport trainings	.15**
Kind of class	-.07
Rank of competition	.14*
Out of sport or competitions of high rank	.15*
Years of training	.15**
Number of trainings a week	.04
Type of sport (individual or team)	.02
Sex	.21**

* Correlation significant on .05 level

**Correlation significant on .01 level

Calculated statistical values point out that *regularly going in for sport is positively related to self-esteem* (for the whole sample, $R = 0.15$; $p = 0.007$). The adolescent students regularly included in sport activities had significantly

higher self-esteem ($M = 4.07$; $SD = 0.63$) than those who were not ($M = 3.85$; $SD = 0.76$; $t = 2.43$; $p = 0.014$). The significant positive correlation between the length of period of going in for sport activities (in years) and self-esteem has also been found, ($r = 0.148$; $p = 0.007$). Adolescents participating in high rank sport competitions had higher self-esteem ($M = 4.08$; $SD = 0.647$) than students who did not take part in competitions but reported to have taken part in sport trainings ($M = 4.01$; $SD = .63$) and of those who were not in sports activities ($M = 3.86$; $SD = 0.71$). The one-way ANOVA showed that only the difference between groups of students who took part in competitions and those who were not in sport was significant ($F = 3.08$; $p = -05$; $df = 307$). The same can be seen from the fact that taking part in a high rank sporting competition (national and international) is positively related to self-esteem (for the whole sample, $r = 0.151$; $p = 0.016$). It means that students who took part in sport competitions at national and international level had significantly higher self-esteem ($M = 4.08$; $SD = .711$) than those who did not take part in sport activities ($M = 3.87$; $SD = 0.67$). There was no difference in the degree of self-esteem between subjects involved in individual sports (athletics, tennis, swimming) and those involved in team sports (football, volleyball, basketball, water polo ($M = 4.04$; $SD = 0.61$ – for individual sports; $M = 4.06$; $SD = 0.68$ – for team sports). The reported differences in self-esteem, although significant, were small and did not exceed one degree on the five point scale.

The data could be interpreted in a way that sport in general contributes to the higher self-esteem of adolescents. This contribution can be made through the experience of success in competitions, praise by peers and by gaining physical fitness and an attractive body figure. Nevertheless from the obtained statistical coefficients we can not be sure in the causal relationship between going in for sport and general self-esteem.

From the Table 2 it can be seen that *significant sex differences were found in general self-esteem*. The same was found by t-test for equality of means. Boys showed significantly higher self esteem ($M = 4.12$; $SD = 0.61$) than girls ($M = 3.83$; $SD = 0.74$; $t = 3.71$; $p = 0.00$). Therefore the correlations between variables of going in for sport and self-esteem were analyzed separately for each gender. Thus, it was found that the relationships between self-esteem and sport were under strong influence from the sex variable. *Neither of variables related to sport were significantly connected with girls'*

Self-esteem in male adolescents was positively and significantly connected with an involvement in sport competitions and with the number of trainings weekly. The boys who took part in sport competitions at national and international level showed significantly higher self-esteem ($M = 4.21$; $SD=.64$) than those boys who were out of sport ($M = 3.97$; $SD = 0.58$),

and higher (but not significantly higher) self-esteem than boys who took part in the competitions at a lower level ($M = 3.99$; $SD = 0.59$). Also, the variable "regularly included in sport activity" was most significantly correlated with self-esteem in boys.

Table 3: Point-biserial and simple Pearson's correlations between variables of going in for sport and self-esteem in different sexes

Sport variables	Self-esteem	
	Girls	Boys
Regularity of sport trainings	.10	.09
Kind of class	.06	-.10
Rank of competition	-.00	.17*
Out of sports or competitions of high rank	-.02	.17*
Years of training	.07	.14
Number of trainings a week	-.02	.14*
Type of sport (individual or team)	-.01	-.09

* Correlation significant on .05 level

**Correlation significant on .01 level

Obtained results suggest that sport activities in adolescence contribute to a higher self-esteem in young males, but not in females. Fulfillment of boys' expectations concerning their success in sport which are connected with the male sex role stereotype, increases self-esteem in male adolescents. There is also a possibility that body image of boys who take part in sport activities is closer to the culturally conditioned ideal male body type. Also, the boys involved in sport activities and those who take part in high rank competitions probably get more praise from peers and others than other boys, which also contributes to their self-esteem. On the other side, girls find a support for their self-esteem in other activities and attributes like social relations, social adequacy, physical appearance (Burns, 1979). In our social environment going in for sport and success in sport in females are not valued the same as in males. Besides, it is possible that permanent and regular involvement in some kind of sport activities shapes the body of the girl in such a way which is not compatible with their own ideal of body self-image. The assessment of one's physical appearance is one of the main sources of the girl's as well as boys' self-esteem and self-concept (Opačić, 1995; Janjetović, 1996).

The first hypothesis is confirmed for the most part. General self-esteem is significantly and positively connected with going in for sport in adolescence. It can be seen in the whole sample but it is truer for boys than for girls. The correlations and the differences between groups of sportsmen and non-sportsmen were small but statistically significant. We cannot conclude about

causal relationships between variables. It is likely that the relationships are reciprocal. The children, with higher body image and general self-esteem can be more ready to take part in sport activities and more likely to experience success and get praise from others which in return bolsters their self-esteem. Success in sport activities is more socially desired for boys than for girls, and that can explain the significant correlations between self-esteem and variables of going in for sport only in the subpopulation of adolescent boys and not in adolescent girls. This does not prove that going in for sport can not contribute to self-esteem in girls especially at an earlier age than adolescence and if sport activity includes success, favorable social comparisons and feedback.

Relationships between the locus of control and sport activity. The results for the whole sample are supportive of the hypothesis that there is a negative correlation between going in for sport activity and external locus of control. Most of the variables of going in for sport showed statistically significant negative correlations with external locus of control. This could also be seen in the statistically significant differences of means between groups of students involved in sport and those who were not, calculated by the t-test or one-way ANOVA. The point biserial and simple Pearson's correlations can be seen in Table 4. In the table can also be seen that there existed significant sex differences in external locus of control with girls being higher in externality.

Table 4: Point-biserial and simple Pearson's correlations between external locus of control and variables of going in for sport and the correlation between externality and sex

	Externality
Regularity of sports trainings	-.12*
Kind of class	.13*
Rank of competition	-.20**
Out of sport or competition of high rank	-.22**
Years of training	-.20**
Number of trainings a week	-.03
Type of sport (individual or team)	.10
Sex	-.11*

* Correlation significant on .05 level

**Correlation significant on .01 level

The significant point-biserial correlation between the regularity of going in for sport and external locus of control were found ($r = 0.12$; $p = 0.034$). The students regularly involved in sports activities had a significantly lower degree of the external locus of control ($M = 2.69$; $SD = 0.89$) than the students not involved in sport at all ($M = 2.91$; $SD = 0.74$; $t = 2.30$; $p = .02$). Also,

significant negative correlations of external locus of control were found with rank of competition and, with number of years of going in for sport. Also, the students from sport classes had significantly lower externality ($M = 2.67$; $SD = 0.83$) than students from other classes ($M = 2.90$; $SD = 0.83$; $t = 2.30$; $p = 0.02$). The level of externality in the whole sample was not high: the mean was not higher than three. The differences between groups were not great and they did not exceed 1 degree of the 5-point scale. The results so obtained suggest that taking part in sport activities can to some small extent contribute to the lower feeling of helplessness and belief that one can not control the consequences of one's behavior.

Again, there were outstanding differences in those findings between boys and girls. Significant correlation between sex and externality, as well as t coefficient for comparison of means between groups of boys and girls were found.

Girls showed significantly higher externality ($M = 2.86$; $SD = 0.78$) than boys ($M = 2.67$; $SD = 0.89$; $t = 2.04$; $p = 0.42$ for $df = 305.6$). This difference is probably culturally conditioned. Therefore, an analysis of results in subpopulations of different sexes was undertaken.

Table 5: Point-biserial and simple Pearson's correlations between variables of going in for sport and external locus of control in different sexes

Sport variables	Externality	
	Girls	Boys
Regularity of sport trainings	-.01	-.15*
Kind of class	.11	.12
Rank of competition	-.07	-.24**
Out of sport or competition of high rank	-.08	-.28**
Years of training	-.06	-.25**
Number of trainings a week	.07	-.18*
Type of sport (individual or team)	.06	.20*

* Correlation significant on .05 level

**Correlation significant on .01 level

Sport activity was related to locus of control in boys, but not in girls. External locus of control in young male sportsmen was insignificant and negative correlated with the regular sport activity (regularity of sport activity, taking part in competition, rank of competition, years of training, number of trainings a week). Boys who reported that they regularly trained in some kind of sport showed significantly lower externality ($M = 2.61$; $SD = 0.92$) than the other boys ($M = 2.95$; $SD = 0.73$). Boys who took part in high rank sport competitions showed significantly lower external locus of control ($M = 2.51$; $SD = 0.92$) than boys who were out of sport ($M = 3.03$; $SD = 0.70$), and a

somewhat lower (but not significantly lower) external locus of control than boys who took part only in sport competitions at local community level ($M = 2.74$; $SD = 0.98$). In boys, the tendency for lowering of externality was found with an increase in years of practicing the sport activity and an increase in the number of trainings a week. The significant difference in externality was also found between boys who participated in individual and those who participated in team sports with those in individual sports being somewhat lower in externality ($M = 2.37$; $SD = 0.85$) than those in team sports ($M = 2.76$; $SD = 0.90$). This could be explained by possible greater independence of boys involved in individual sports, especially concerning the outcomes of their sport performance, which did not depend on other people as in team sports. There was no significant relationship between externality and going in for sport in girls. The female students in our sample had a higher external locus of control than male students. For the girls, the sport activity had no importance for locus of control, even when it was a high rank competition. A negative and highly significant correlation has been found between external locus of control and self-esteem ($r = -0.183$; $p = 0.001$). It is considered that self-esteem and accompanying success are the sources of internal locus of control (Opačić, 1995). Since the sports activities in girls do not increase their self-esteem, their success in sport does not contribute to a higher self-confidence and to their belief that they are able to influence events in their own lives. On the other hand, successful sport activity develops in the young sportsmen self-respect and the belief that they are masters of their own fates. The sex difference found can be explained with the importance which the social environment puts on success in sport for males and praise given to successful young male sportsmen.

The sex differences in correlations between general self-esteem and external locus of control on the one side and variables of going in for sport on the other, suggest that going in for sport influences self-esteem and locus of control of adolescents through social feedback (approval or disapproval) for achievement in sport and for body type. These attributes and achievements are as we mentioned, more socially important for adolescent boys than adolescent girls. In physical education there still is an open question: how to prevent possible negative effects of failure in sport achievements on the self-esteem and self-concept of young sportsmen. Some studies suggest that focusing on new tasks and not ruminating about failure is an important condition for overcoming failure in sport (Bandura, 1997). An even more important question is how to teach young sportsmen to control the destructive aspects of high self-esteem which can have effect on fair play, lead to dangerous risk taking or worsen team social dynamics. Inflated self-esteem can also have negative effects in the private lives of young sportsmen. On the other hand it seems

that going in for sport can contribute to the development of internal locus of control to a certain degree and it is worth further research to find out if and how certain coaching strategies and sport disciplines can best contribute to that. It would be important to find out if and to what degree internal locus of control and self-efficacy beliefs acquired on the sports ground can be generalized to private lives of young sportsmen. Our study with rating scales of general self-esteem and general externality suggest that this generalization is possible to a modest degree.

Conclusions

The relationship between going in for sport and variables of self-concept was investigated in a sample of 300 adolescents. The results show significant positive correlation between variables of going in for sport and general self-esteem as well as negative ones between variables of going in for sport and external locus of control. These correlations were found in a whole sample of subjects and in the sample of boys, but not in girls. The sex role stereotypes and greater importance our culture puts on success in sport for boys have contributed to such results in adolescents. Adolescent girls have other sources of self-concept than regular inclusion in sport activity. The sex differences in correlations between variables of self-concept and going in for sport suggest that going in for sport influences general self-esteem and locus of control of adolescents through social feedback and social evaluation of sport achievement and physical fitness of the adolescents.

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Слободанка Гашић-Павишић, Снежана Јоксимовић и Драган Јањетовић
ОПШТЕ САМОПОШТОВАЊЕ И ЛОКУС КОНТРОЛЕ
КОД МЛАДИХ СПОРТИСТА
Ansttrakat

Овај рад се бави односом између извесних елемената селф-концепта (опште самопоштовање и локус контроле) и бављења спортом код adolescenata. Однос између бављења спортом и варијабли селф-концепта (опште самопоштовање и спољни локус контроле) испитиван је на узорку од 300 adolescenata дечака и девојчица (150 спортиста и 150 неспортиста). Коришћене су Розенбергова скала за испитивање општег самопоштовања и Безиновић-Савчићева скала спољног локуса контроле да би се измериле варијабле селф-концепта. Установљена је значајна позитивна корелација између варијабли бављења спортом и општег самопоштовања, као и негативне варијабле између бављења спортом и спољашњег локуса контроле у целом узорку субјеката и у узорку дечака, али не и код девојчица. Стереотипи о улози полова као и већи значај који ово друштво придаје успеху дечака у спорту, допринели су оваквим резултатима. Полне разлике у односу између варијабли селфконцепта и бављења спортом указују да бављење спортом утиче на опште самопоштовање и локус контроле код adolescenata путем друштвене повратне реакције и друштвеног вредновања спортских постигнућа и физичке кондиције.

Кључне речи: селф-концепт, самопоштовање, локус контроле, спорт, атлетичари, adolescenți.

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ОБЩЕЕ САМОУВАЖЕНИЕ И ЛОКУС КОНТРОЛЯ
У МОЛОДЫХ СПОРТСМЕНОВ

Резюме

В статье рассматриваются отношения между некоторыми элементами селф-концепта (общее самоуважение и локус контроля) и занятием спортом у молодых спортсменов. Отношение между занятием спортом и переменными селф-концепта (общее самоуважение и внешний локус контроля) исследованы на примере 300 мальчиков и девочек подросткового возраста (150 спортсменов и 150 неспортсменов). Использована шкала Розенберга для исследования общего самоуважения и Безинович-Савичич шкала внешнего локуса контроля в целях определения переменных селф-концепта. Обнаружена значительная положительная корреляция между занятием спортом и уровнем общего самоуважения, и отрицательная корреляция между занятием спортом и уровнем внешнего локуса контроля у целого контингента испытуемых и отдельно у мальчиков, но не и у девочек. Полученные результаты толкуются половыми стереотипами. Как известно общество обращает большее внимание на спортивные успехи мальчиков, чем девочек. Выявленная половая разница между переменной селф-концепта и занятием спортом показывает, что занятие спортом влияет на уровень общего самоуважения и локус контроля у подростков путем возвратной реакции на общественную оценку спортивных успехов и физической активности.

Ключевые слова: селф-концепт, самоуважение, локус контроля, спорт, атлетика, подростки.