


Following the investigation of goal orientations, research progressed to investigating athletes’ perceptions of the sporting environment in relation to moral variables. D.L.L. Shields, B.J.L. Breidenmeier (1995) have identified motivational climate as a contextual influence on an individual’s sporting morality. Motivational climate has been distinguished into mastery (or task-involving) and performance (or ego-involved) climates (C. Ames, 1984). Mastery climate is salient when significant others (e.g. coach) create an environment in which success and failure are defined in terms of skill mastery and individual improvement. A performance climate is salient when significant others create an environment in which success and failure are defined in normative terms, with an emphasis on outperforming team-mates and opponents. In this study, the terms “task-involving” and “ego-involved” will be used to refer to the two types of motivational climate. As the effects of motivational climate occur through individuals’ perceptions, sport psychology research has typically examined the perceived motivational climate. In line with J.G. Nicholls’ (1989) tenet of ego orientation leading to a lack of concern about justice and fairness, similar consequences are expected with an ego-involved climate.

The importance of the perceived motivational climate (PMC), the situational structures seen by the athletes as emphasized in a particular setting, has been highlighted by J.G. Nicholls (1989). It is theorized that the PMC is composed of two goal structures. The mastery climate is a task-involving climate that emphasizes the process of competition and skill development. Performance climate is an ego-involved climate that focuses on the competitive outcome. The PMC may be fostered by the coach, parents, team or a combination of these factors. The motivational climate perceived by the athlete has been related to the achievement goal orientations (AGO) held by the athlete. For example, a perceived mastery climate has been related to task orientation, while a perceived performance climate has been related to an ego orientation (S.A. White et al., 2004). Achievement goal theory provides a basic framework for examining the motivational processes in sport (C. Ames, 1984; J.G. Nicholls, 1984, 1989). This theory states that an individual’s achievement goals and his/her perceived ability interact to influence achievement-related behaviors. Particularly, the individual’s goal perspective will affect self-evaluations of established ability, effort, and attributions for success and failure, and these self-evaluations may affect state anxiety (J.L. Duda & J.G. Nicholls, 1992; J.G. Nicholls, 1984).

Self-esteem (sometimes called self-evaluation, self-worth), according to R.F. Baumeister (1990), may be defined as the positivity of the person’s evaluation of self. N. Peart et al. (2005) adds the evaluation of self within the context of the person’s experiences and the environment in which he/ she lives. It is also described as a sense of self-worth. In other words, this is an emotional side of the self-system, which is created by one’s self-concept. These two components (self-esteem and self-concept) can be distinguished only theoretically, because emotional experience is always connected with reflective content, which is applied by a person to himself/herself. According to P. Macek (2003), self-esteem applies to all the characteristics the adolescent considers as important and relates them to his/her own self. Self-esteem, i.e. generalized feelings of self-worth that are not specific to a particular situation, but which apply to many activities or areas of life and predispose the subject to view new activities in particular ways (P. Macek & L. Lacinova, 2006). Self-esteem is an indicator of one’s emotional side and adaption to life difficulties, has a relation to the subjective well-being and happiness and is connected to positive independence, leadership, adaptability, and stress resistance; moreover, it is linked to involvement in health care activities. A low level of self-esteem is connected to mental disorders, including depression, anxiety and phobia (K.R. Fox, 2000).

People typically assign causes to their personal behavior and the behavior of others. These causal attributions, based largely on past outcomes and attitudes toward the outcomes (B. Weiner, 1979), have relevance for future behavior (e.g., whether a person will try again after failing) and to affective responses such as pride or shame (B. Weiner, 1981). Various models have been established to help conceptualize the naive responses given by the actor (athlete, student, etc.) regarding the responsibility and reasons for success or failure. The examination of an athlete’s enduring attitudes or expectations (based on their attributions) can help predict the athlete’s dispositions toward success and failure and has relevance for both the researcher and coach in that the athlete’s typical mode of behavior may be determined, in part, before a contest. This more enduring attitude would probably be interrelated but not necessarily parallel to causal attributions made after a specific outcome (W. Rejeski & L. Brawley, 1983).

In this research it was purposed to research the relationships between locus of control and goal orientation, motivational climate and also research the relationships between self-esteem and goal orientation, motivational climate.

Method

Participants: 56 badminton athletes (42 national, 14 non-national) that participated in Badminton Turkey Clubs Championship in 2009 whose mean age 18.78±3.46 constitute our research sample.

Instruments: The Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ – J.L. Duda & J.G. Nicholls, 1992). This questionnaire contains 13 items with two subscales determining task (e.g. “I learn a new skill by trying hard”) and ego (e.g. “I am the best”) orientation. All the items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (strongly
disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The reliability and validity of Turkish versions of The Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire was made by T. Toros (2001).

**The Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire (PMCSQ)** – J.J. Seifriz, J.L. Duda, & L. Chi, 1992; M.D. Walling, J.L. Duda, & L. Chi, 1993. It was used to assess the athletes’ perception of the motivational climate in their sport, or the degree to which their training environment is mastery-oriented (task involvement) and performance-oriented (ego involvement). Sample items included: *Trying hard is rewarded,* or *Most of the players get to play in the game* (mastery orientation) and *Playing better than teammates is important,* or *Doing better than others is important* (performance orientation). Participants were required to answer the items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The reliability and validity of Turkish versions of The Perceived Motivational Climate in Sport Questionnaire was made by T. Toros (2001).

**Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES)** The RSES was developed by M. Rosenberg (1965) and adapted to Turkish samples by F. Cuhadaroglu (1986). A 10-item brief RSES refers to the global self-worth of individuals, rating on a 4-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 4 = strongly agree). Higher scores on the scale indicate higher levels of self-esteem. Cuhadaroglu reported test-retest reliability coefficients of .71 during a 4-week period on the Turkish version.

**Wingate Sport Achievement Responsibility Scale (WSARS)** (G. Tenenbaum, D. Furst, G. Weingarten, 1984) was designed to assess the direction of causal attribution in sport events. The items in the questionnaire present a wide range of positive and negative events in sport settings such as interaction with the coach, teammates, and audience, and perceived successful and unsuccessful athletic performance. The WSARS includes two versions, one for team athletes and the other for individual sport athletes. Each version is divided into two independent dimensions: successful events and unsuccessful events. Each item (event) contains two alternatives, one external and one internal. The alternatives present a variety of attributions such as ability and talent (internal, stable, and uncontrollable), coach, audience, task difficulty, and teammates (external, stable, and uncontrollable), and immediate effort (internal, unstable, and controllable). The athlete is requested to rate his or her opinion on a 5-point continuum with respect to the alternatives, ranging from “O” (externality) to “5” (internality). The higher the score, the more internal the athlete perceives successful or unsuccessful events related to sport. The reliability and validation of the Turkish version of Wingate Sport Achievement Responsibility Scale was made by S. Hasirci (1990).

**Procedure:** Four instruments were administered to all participants in the Badminton Turkey Championship. Researchers provided verbal information on how to respond to items in each questionnaire.

**Data Analysis:** The data were analyzed by using SPSS 17.0 programme and the techniques descriptive statistics and bivariate correlation.

### Results

**Table 1:** Relationship between ego orientation and self-esteem.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ego orientation</th>
<th>Self-esteem r</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>N</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.513**</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>56</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The relationship between ego orientation and self-esteem was tested by bivariate correlation analyse technique. It was found that there is positive, medium and significant relationship between ego orientation and self-esteem (p<0.01).

**Table 2:** Relationship between task orientation and self-esteem.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task orientation</th>
<th>Self-esteem r</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>N</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.216</td>
<td>.109</td>
<td>56</td>
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</tbody>
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The relationship between task orientation and self-esteem was tested by bivariate correlation analyse technique. It was found that there is no significant relationship between task orientation and self-esteem (p>0.05).
Table 3: Relationship between performance climate and self-esteem.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Performance climate</th>
<th>Self-esteem</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>r</td>
<td>-1.152</td>
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<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>.263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>56</td>
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</table>

The relationship between performance climate and self-esteem was tested by bivariate correlation analysis technique. It was found that there is no significant relationship between performance climate and self-esteem (p>0.05).

Table 4: Relationship between mastery climate and self-esteem.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mastery climate</th>
<th>Self-esteem</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>r</td>
<td>.398**</td>
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<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>.002</td>
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<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>56</td>
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</table>

The relationship between mastery climate and self-esteem was tested by bivariate correlation analysis technique. It was found that there is positive, medium and significant relationship between performance climate and self-esteem (p<0.01).

Table 5: Relationship between ego orientation and locus of control.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ego orientation</th>
<th>Locus of control</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>r</td>
<td>-0.092</td>
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<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>.501</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>56</td>
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The relationship between ego orientation and locus of control was tested by bivariate correlation analysis technique. It was found that there is no significant relationship between ego orientation and locus of control (p>0.05).

Table 6: Relationship between task orientation and locus of control.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task orientation</th>
<th>Locus of control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>r</td>
<td>-0.049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>.721</td>
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<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>56</td>
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</table>

The relationship between ego orientation and locus of control was tested by bivariate correlation analysis technique. It was found that there is no significant relationship between ego orientation and locus of control (p>0.05).

Table 7: Relationship between performance climate and locus of control.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Performance climate</th>
<th>Locus of control</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>r</td>
<td>-0.504***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>56</td>
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</table>

The relationship between performance climate and locus of control was tested by bivariate correlation analysis technique. It was found that there is negative, medium and significant relationship between performance climate and locus of control (p<0.01).
Table 8: Relationship between mastery climate and locus of control.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mastery climate</th>
<th>Locus of control</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.357**</td>
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</table>

The relationship between mastery climate and locus of control was tested by bivariate correlation analysis technique. It was found that there is positive, medium and significant relationship between mastery climate and locus of control (p<0.01).

Discussion and conclusion

The purpose of this study was to research the relationship between locus of control, self-esteem and goal orientation, motivational climate in badminton players. It was found that there is positive and significant relationship between locus of control and mastery climate (r=0.357, p<0.01), there is negative and significant relationship between locus of control and performance climate (r= -0.504, p<0.01), there is no significant relationship between locus of control and ego task orientation. There is positive and significant relationship between self-esteem and mastery climate (r=0.398, p<0.01), there is positive and significant relationship between self-esteem and ego orientation (r=0.513, p<0.01), there is no significant relationship between self-esteem and performance climate, task orientation. According to these results it can be said that the higher a badminton athletes’ mastery climate is, the higher a badminton athletes’ performance climate is, the higher a badminton athletes’ ego orientation is, the higher a badminton athletes ego orientation is, the higher his/her self-esteem becomes, the higher a badminton athletes’ mastery climate is, the higher his/her self-esteem becomes. M. Kavussanu and D.L. Harnisch (2000) found that task orientation was a significant influence on global self-esteem, and D.C. Treasure and S. Biddle (1997) found that both orientations influenced physical self-worth. Theoretically, one would assume that self-esteem would be positively related to perceptions of a mastery-involved climate, where evaluative systems promote self-referenced evaluative standards (S. McArdle & J.L. Duda, 2002). In contrast, social comparison processes inherent in ego climates are thought to provide recurrent threats to self-esteem. Consistent with this prediction, several studies have reported that mastery-involving climates are positively associated with athletes’ self-esteem, whereas ego-involved climates are negatively related to self-esteem (M. Reinboth & J.L. Duda, 2004; B.W. Walker, G.C. Roberts, & D. Harnisch, 1998). To test this relation with the MCSYS, we administered the Washington Self-Description Questionnaire (F.L. Smoll, R.E. Smith, N.P. Barnett, & J.J. Everett, 1993), a measure of children’s global self-esteem, to Sample 3. Consistent with the hypothesis and with previous empirical findings, mastery climate scores correlated positively and significantly with self-esteem, whereas MCSYS ego scores correlated negatively with self-esteem scores. A. Aktop, K.A. Erman (2006) found that there was a significant positive correlation between power motive, motive to achieve success and self-esteem and there was a significant negative correlation between trait anxiety and self esteem, and they emphasized that psychological factors should be considered as much as other factors in talent identification programs. Furthermore, achievement motivation and self-esteem are important trait having permanent character for sport attainment and success. M.J. Navarre (1999) found that collective efficacy perceptions were positively related to mastery orientations and negatively related to performance orientations. Meanwhile, there was no significant relationship between perceptions of self-efficacy and motivational climate.

References


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THE COMPARASION OF STRESS AND BURNOUT LEVELS OF 13-15 AGED SPORTMEN BLINDS

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Abstract
Purpose. At this study, it was aimed to investigate the stress and burnout levels of 13-15 aged sportmen blinds.

Material and Method. Kayseri Blind Handicapped Primary Education Scholl Sport club’s 13-15 aged, B3 level blind handicapped 15 sportmen as test group, from the same school 13-15 aged, B3 level blind handicapped 15 sedentary as control group were joined voluntarily. Test and control groups were performed stress inventory included 10 questions. These questions were prepared the five likert type included “never=1, rarely=2, sometimes=3, often=4, always=5”. Test and control group were performed Maslach Burnout inventory(MBI). MBI had 22 questions which evaluated burnout in 3 dimensions, were Emotional Exhaustion (EE), Depersonalization (D) and Personal Accomplishment (PA). Datas were recorded on computer by using SPSS 13.0 packet programme. Aritmetic mean, standart deviation, standart error, minimum and maximum values were used for presentation of datas. For statistical analysis, independent-t test was performed. The statistical significance was set at p<0.05.

Results: As a result of the study, while no meaningful difference was found at age, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment and stress average (p>0.05), a non-statistical decrease of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment and stress average parameters in favour of blind handicapped sportmen. We concluded that sportive activities had a positive effect on handicapped people’s stres and burnout levels even if it was a little

Key Words: Blindness, Stress, Burnout.

Purpose
Handicapped is described as a person which loses one of their physical, mental, sensorial, and social abilities because of any reasons from birth or later, has difficulties about adapting to social life and daily necessity and needs protection, care, rehabilitation, counseling and support services (N.M. Çakmak, 2008).

It is an accepted reality that Blind handicapped people has a special position according to comparison to other illnesses and handicappeds. This special position shouldn’t be depend on seen rate of handicapped people’s in society, it is depend on hardness and complexity problems belong to this handicapped groups’ physiologic, improvemental and educational (T. Güneydın, 1993).

Blindness can be described in two ways commonly. These are legal and educational description of blindless. Legal description which is used by medicine area, is eye’s losing 10% of vision power. (Y. Özsöz, M. Özyürek, S. Epirek, 1998)

Stres is a very complex concept which is not easy to describe, Stress is first defined by H. Selye (1977) while searching for female hormones. Before Selye, the term “stress” was used to describe a mental strain or unwelcome. Walter Cannon defined stress as “an external factor affecting bodily homeostasis”. Cannon, introducing the term “homeostasis” and “fight or flight” response to stres is believed to do the first researches about stres (B. Sayiner, 2006)

H. Selye (1977) is described stres as body’s uncertain reaction to any force which is done itself. (E. Göçet, 2006)

Burn out was put forward as concept by H. Freudenberger at 1974. (R. Balay, A. Engin, 2007)

Burnout syndrome can cause a general decrease of work quality and can be associated to important psychological effects, including depression, anxiety, conflicts with colleagues, indifference and cynicism with patients, increasing alcohol/drugs intake, family strain, relationship breakdown and increased irritability (B.J. Kelly, L. Todhunter, B. Raphael, 1996). Burnout is described as emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment syndrome of human because of intense relations with other. (C. Maslach, 1982).

Another description is “failure, inside out burn, becoming worn out by the over-expenditure of energy, force or resources”(Juliana Inhauser Riceti Acioli, J. Barboza, R. Beresin, 2007). The aim of this study is to compare the stres and burnout levels of 13-15 aged sportmen and sedentaries.

Method
Participants
At this study, Kayseri Blind Handicapped Primary Education Scholl Sport club’s 13-15 aged, B3 level blind handicapped 15 sportmen as test group, from the same school 13-15 aged, B3 level blind handicapped 15 sedentary as control group were joined voluntarily. Test group were trained athletics and goal-ball 2 hours a day, 3 times in a week and totally 2 years. Control group weren’t performed any sport branch.

Measure
At this study, volunteers were performed 3 questionnaires voluntarily. These questionnaires were demographic properties, stres inventory and maslach