

27002

SELF-CONCEPT AND BODY IMAGE OF
HIGH SCHOOL MALE ATHLETES
AND NON-ATHLETES

A Master's Thesis
Presented by
F. Hülya ÖZGEYLANI

to
the Graduate School of Social Sciences
of Middle East Technical University
in Partial Fulfillment for Degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

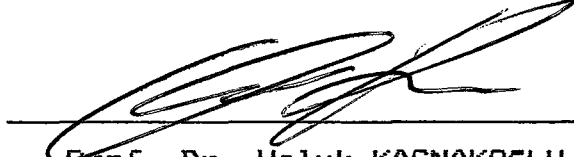
in

PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORT


MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY
ANKARA
June, 1993

T.C. YÜKSEKÖĞRETİM KURULU
DOKÜMANİSYON MERKEZİ


Approval of Graduate School of Social Sciences


Prof. Dr. Haluk KASNAKOGLU
Director

I certify that thesis satisfies all the requirements
as a thesis for degree of Master Science


Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hülya GÖKMEN
Chairman of Department

We certify that we have read this thesis and that in
our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality as
a thesis for the degree of Master of Science in Physical
Education and Sports


Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hülya GÖKMEN
Supervisor

Examining Committee in Charge

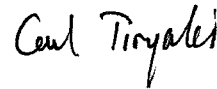
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hülya GÖKMEN



Assoc. Prof. Dr. Uğur ÖNER



Assist. Prof. Dr. Gül TIRYAKI



ABSTRACT

SELF-CONCEPT AND BODY IMAGE OF HIGH SCHOOL MALE ATHLETES AND NON-ATHLETES

ÖZGEYLANI, F. HOLYA

M.S. in Physical Education and Sports

Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hülya GÖKMEZ

June, 1993, 149 pages

The purpose of this study was to determine the difference in self-concept and body image satisfaction among high school male athletes and non-athletes and also determine the relation between self-concept and body image for athletes and non-athletes.

The pilot study conducted on 197 high school male to find reliability and validity of HSPP. 174 high school male athletes and 174 non-athletes were randomly selected from public school in Ankara which represents middle socioeconomic status to determine difference in self-concept and body image among athletes and non-athletes. Data was collected by HSPP for Adolescent, Self-report Questionnaire and Body Image Questionnaire. Statistical

analysis used in this study were, t-test, analysis of variance and Pearson Product Correlation.

The results showed that there was a significant differences in social acceptance, athletic competence and physical appearance subscales of self-concept among athletes and non-athletes ($p < .05$). In addition to that significant difference was obtained in mean body image satisfaction among athletes and non-athletes ($P < .05$). Beside that, body image and self-concept was significantly correlated with each other ($p < .05$).

Keywords: Self-concept , Body image , Athletes, Non-Athletes.

Science Code: 224.19.01

ÖZ

LİSE DÜZEYİNDEKİ ERKEK SPORCULARIN VE SPORCU

OLMAYANLARIN BENLİK KAVRAMLARI VE BEDEN İMGELERİ

ÖZGEYLANI, F. Hülya

Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Anabilim Dalı

Tez Yöneticisi: Doç. Dr. Hülya GÖKMEN

Haziran, 1993, 149 sayfa

Bu tezin amacı, lise düzeyindeki erkek sporcular ve sporcu olmayanlar arasındaki benlik ve beden imgelerinden hoşnut olma düzeylerindeki farkın belirlenmesi ve sporcu olan ve olmayanlar için benlik kavramı ile beden imgesi arasındaki ilişkinin belirlenmesidir.

HSPP' nin geçerliliğini ve güvenilirliğini bulmak için lise düzeyindeki 197 erkek öğrenci üzerinde ön çalışma yapılmıştır. Sporcu olan ve olmayanların benlikleri ve beden imgeleri arasındaki farkın belirlenmesi için Ankara da orta ekonomik düzeyi temsil eden devlet okullarından 174 sporcu ve 174 sporcu olmayan denek rastgele örneklem sistemi ile seçildi. Veriler

Gençler için Harter'ın Kendini Değerlendirme Envanteri, Kişisel Bilgi Formu ve Beden İmgesi Anketi ile toplandı. İstatistiksel analizler t-test, varyans analiz ve Pearson Çarpımlar Korrelasyon sonuçlarına göre yapılmıştır.

Sonuçlara göre, sporcu olan ve olmayanlar arasında benliğin toplumsal kabul, atletik yeterlilik ve fiziksel görünüm alt boyutlarında anlamlı fark bulunmuştur ($p < .05$). Bunun yanısıra; sporcu olan ve olmayanların ortalama beden imgelerinden hoşnut olma düzeyleri arasında anlamlı fark bulunmuştur ($p < .05$). Buna ek olarak; beden imgesi ve benlik kavramının birbirleri arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmuştur ($p < .05$).

Anahtar Kelimeler: Benlik Kavramı, Beden İmgesi, Sporcu, Sporcu Olmayan.

Bilim Dalı Sayısal Kodu: 224.19.01

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I'm grateful for guidance and help provided Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hülya GÖKMEN in all stages of this study. Appreciation is also extended to the other members of the thesis committee, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ugur ÖNER and Assist. Prof. Dr. Gül TIRYAKI, for their assistance and guidance in the writing of this thesis.

I wish to express my special thanks to Assist. Prof. Dr. Erdal ZORBA and research assistant Alper AŞCI for their patience and encouragements.

I'm also grateful to the following :
Atıf AŞCI, for his help during measurement and publishing the questionnaire and Ayça SAYGILI for his help in preparing the SPSS system by which the statistical treatments were accomplished. Acknowledgements is made to all subjects who performed their duties so faithfully.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT	iii
DZ	v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vii
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES	xvi
LIST OF SYMBOLS	xvii
CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Statement of the Problem	5
1.2. Hypothesis	5
1.3. Definition of Terms	6
1.4. Assumptions	7
1.5. Limitations	7
1.6. Significance of the Study	8
CHAPTER II: SELF-CONCEPT AND EXERCISE	10
2.1. Self-Concept	10

2.1.1. Theories of Self-Concept	13
2.1.2. Models and Measures of Self-Concept	21
2.1.3. Development of Self-Concept	27
2.1.4. Factors That Effect Development of Self-Concept	30
2.1.4.1. Age	31
2.1.4.2. Sex	31
2.1.4.3. Academic Achievement	32
2.1.4.4. Socioeconomic Status	33
2.1.4.5. Racial & Culture	33
2.1.4.6. Body Image	35
2.2. Reviews of Studies About Self-Concept and Exercise	38
2.2.1. Studies that Compare Self-Concept of Athletes & Non-athletes	39
2.2.2. Studies that Investigate the Effects of Exercise on Self-Concept	41
2.2.3. Studies that Investigate the Relationship Between Fitness & Self-Concept	54
2.2.4. Studies on Physical Appearance , Self-Concept & Body Attitude	56
2.2.5. Studies that Investigate the Relationship Between Sport Participation & Body Image	59

2.2.6. Studies that Investigate The Effects of Training on Body Image	61
2.2.7. Studies that Investigate The Relationship Between Fitness & Body Image	64
2.2.8. Studies that Investigate Relationship Between Body Type & Body Image	65
2.2.9. Studies that Investigate Relation Between Self-Concept & Body Image	66
 CHAPTER III: METHODS AND PROCEDURE	 72
 3.1 Reliability and Validity Testing	 72
3.1.1. Selection of Subjects	72
3.1.2. Procedure	73
3.2. Study	74
3.2.1. Selection of Subjects	74
3.2.2. Procedure	74
3.3. Instruments	75
3.3.1. Harter Self-Perception Profile For Adolescent (HSPP)	75
3.3.2. Bersheid, Walster, Bohrnstedt Body Image Questionnaire	79
3.3.3. Self-Report Questionnaire	80
3.4. Analysis	81

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS 83

4.1. Reliability of HSPP 83

 4.1.1. Descriptive Information 83

 4.1.2. Mean & Standard Deviation of HSPP 84

 4.1.3. Internal Consistency of HSPP 85

 4.1.4. Test-Retest Reliability of HSPP 86

 4.1.5. Intercorrelation Among Subscales
 of HSPP 87

4.2. Results that are related with Self-Concept
 of Athletes and Non-athletes 89

 4.2.1. Descriptive Information 89

 4.2.2. Mean & Standard Deviation of Self-concept
 Subscales For Athletes & Non-athletes ...90

 4.2.3. Comparison of Self-Concept Score
 Between Athletes and Non-athletes 91

4.3. Results that are Related with Body Image
 Satisfaction Level of Athletes &
 Non-athletes 99

 4.3.1. Descriptive Statistics 99

 4.3.2. Comparison of Athletes and Non-athlete's
 Body Image Satisfaction102

4.4 Results that are related with Relation Between Self-Concept and Body Image Satisfaction Among Athletes & Non-athletes ...	105
4.4.1. Correlation Between Mean Body Satisfaction & Self-Concept For Athletes & Non-athletes	105
CHAPTER V: DISCUSSIONS	107
CHAPTER VI: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	117
REFERENCES	120
APPENDICES	
APPENDIX A. SELF-REPORT QUESTIONNAIRE	141
APPENDIX B. BEDEN BÖLGELERİNDEN VE ÖZELLİKLERİNDEN HOSNUT OLMA ÖLÇEĞİ.....	142
APPENDIX C. HARTER SELF-PERCEPTION PROFILE	144

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1. Number of Subjects at each Grade Level	83
Table 2. Means and Standart Deviations of HSPP Subscale For 197 High School Male Students	84
Table 3. Coefficient Alphas for HSPP Subscales	85
Table 4. Test-Retest Reliability of HSPP Subscale ...	86
Table 5. Intercorrelation Among Self- Concept Variable	88
Table 6. Number of Athletes and Non-Athletes at each Grade Level	89
Table 7. Means and Standart Deviations for HSPP Among Athletes and Non-Athletes	91

Table 8. Mean, Standart Deviation and t - value for Scholastic Competence Among Athletes and Non-Athletes	92
Table 9. Mean, Standart Deviation and t - value for Social Acceptance Among Athletes and Non-Athletes	93
Table 10. Mean, Standart Deviation and t - value for Athletic Competence Among Athletes and Non-Athletes	94
Table 11. Mean, Standart Deviation and t - value for Physical Appearance Among Athletes and Non-Athletes	94
Table 12. Mean, Standart Deviation and t - value for Job Competence Among Athletes and Non-Athletes	95
Table 13. Mean, Standart Deviation and t - value for Romantic Appeal Among Athletes and Non-Athletes	96
Table 14. Mean, Standart Deviation and t - value for Behavioral Conduct Among Athletes and Non-Athletes	97

Table 15. Mean, Standart Deviation and t - value
for Close Friendship Among Athletes and
Non-Athletes 98

Table 16. Mean, Standart Deviation and t - value
for Global Self-Worth Among Athletes
and Non-Athletes 99

Table 17. Descriptive Data For Athletes and
Non - Athletes on Body Image
Questionnaire101

Table 18. Mean, Standart Deviation and t- value
for Mean Body Image Satisfaction
Among High School Male Athletes and
Non-Athletes102

Table 19. T- test Result for each Body
Characteristics Among Athletes
and Non-Athletes104

Table 20. Correlation Results Between Self-Concept
and Mean Body Image Satisfaction For
Athletes and Non-Athletes105

LIST OF FIGURES

	page
Figure 1. Unidimensional Model of Self-Concept	22
Figure 2. Multidimensional Model of Self-Concept ...	23
Figure 3. Hierarchical Model of Self-Concept	25



LIST OF SYMBOLS

HSPP	Harter Self- Perception Profile
BIG	Berscheid, Walster, Bohrnstedt Body Image Questionnaire
SRQ	Self- Report Questionnaire
SCH	Scholastic Competence
SOC	Social Acceptance
ATH	Athletic Competence
PHY	Physical Appearance
JOB	job Competence
ROM	Romantic Appeal
CLO	Close Friendship
GLO	Global Self-Worth
SES	Socioeconomic Status

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

One of the many psychological constructs that has been extensively researched in the field of sports is the personality structure of the athletes. A great amount of research in personality is devoted to the study of individual's personal world, and one object which is everpresent in this personal world is the self. The self is the central aspect of personality and several identifiable personality traits - self-confidence, consistency, assertiveness, assurance, regard, respect, esteem and enhancement - revolve around a person concept of the self (Salokun, 1990a).

The self as an object of conscious thought has consistently been a central issue for philosophers, psychologist and child developmentalist. "The study of self-perception has been central to wide range of theories in philosophy and social sciences (Atkinson, 1964; Baundra, 1982; Harter, 1978; Maslow, 1954; Rogers, 1951; Rosenberg, 1965; White, 1959). This has resulted in the generation of an overwhelming volume of rhetoric and

research particularly aimed at the subject of self-concept and its related constructs " (Fox, 1990 :1).

" The degree of interest has been stimulated by the apparent dual role of self-perception in the explanation of human well-being and behavior. Self-concept has been extensively used as an indicator of emotional and mental well-being. In psychiatric intervention, for example, feelings of worthlessness accompany clinical depression and positive self-regard is accepted as an attribute of an effectively functioning person. Research in educational setting has gathered momentum as results have indicated that a student with higher self-esteem performs better academically & is more likely to exhibit personal qualities such as social & leadership skills. This has lead to the general acceptance of self-concept promotion as a primary curricular objective " (Fox, 1990 :1).

Additionally ; several theories have focused on self-esteem as an initiator and mediator of human behavior. An underlying theme implies that much of what we do, whether conscious or not, is directed towards maximizing our chances of feeling good about ourselves. We learn to avoid situations in which we lack confidence and which expose us to our inadequacies, and we are attracted to those which provide us with success. Therefore; self-perception are central to our understanding of human

motivation or has emerged as an important component of several theories of human motivation (Fox, 1988; 1990).

Unfortunately, until recently self-concept research, although interesting and plentiful in a wide variety of settings has suffered badly from poor instrumentation and absence of theoretical direction (Wylie, 1979). The 1980's there was a progression in theoretical approach to self-concept. With this progress, it has become more apparent that in order to fully understand the nature and content of an individual's self-esteem it is necessary to assess self-concept in several separate and specific domains of life such as the physical, social and work related aspects of each individual.

This important psychological construct-self-concept- has developed in a predictable way and influenced by many factors such as age, sex, academic achievement, socio-economic status and so on. In addition to those factors; body image is important elements of self-concept development. Physical self or body image have emerged as particularly important in self-esteem make up. How a person feels about himself is related to how he feels about his body. A person's height, weight, girth, eye color, hair color, complexion and general body proportions are very much related to his feelings of personal adequacy (Hamacheck, 1971).

These closely related construct - self-concept and body image - are affected by athletic participation or participation to physical activity. Throughout the history, many studies were done about the effect of athletic participation on self-concept and body image and relationship between body satisfaction and self-concept. However; the results of studies about effect of athletic participation on self-concept are very conflicting. For example; Schumaker, Smool and Wood (1986), Salokun (1990b), Smith (1986) have found significant effect of athletic participation on self-concept while Magill and Ash (1976), Manning (1990) have found no significant differences between athletes and non-athletes.

On the other hand; when review the literature about the relationship between self-concept and body image, it can be seen that most of them conducted on college male and female subjects. There is little interest to studying this relationship among athletes and non-athletes groups.

Thus; the purpose of this study was to give answers to following questions : " Were there a significant differences between self-concept of high school male athletes and their non - athletes counterparts ?" " What were the differences in satisfaction with body parts among athletes & non-athletes ?" " What were the relation between the subscale of self-concept & satisfaction with body part for athletes and non-athletes ?".

1.1 Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to investigate the differences in self-concept and body image satisfaction among high school male athletes and their non-athletes counterparts and to determine the relationship between self-concept and satisfaction with body parts for male athletes and non-athletes.

1.2. Hypothesis

The purpose of this study was to test the following hypothesis:

i) There was no significant differences between score of high school male athletes and non-athletes on the following subscale of self-concept :

- _ Scholastic Competence
- _ Social Acceptance
- _ Athletic Competence
- _ Physical Appearance
- _ Job Competence
- _ Romantic Appeal
- _ Behavioral Conduct
- _ Close Friendship
- _ Global Self-Worth

ii) There was no significant differences in body image satisfaction score between high school male athletes and non-athletes .

iii) There was no significant differences in the correlation between the subscales of self-concept and satisfaction with body parts among athletes and non-athletes.

1.3. Definition of the Terms

Self-Concept: Self-concept is an individuals perception of him or herself in various domains of life through experience with interactions of other's perception and interactions of his / her behavior (Harter , 1988a).

Body Image Satisfaction: Individual's feelings, satisfaction and evaluation about different body parts (Secord & Jourard, 1953)

Athletes: Individual who participated varsity of high school team.

Non-Athletes: Individual who do not participate any organized sport competition only participate physical education class in school.

1.4. Assumptions

i) It is assumed that the subjects completed both self-concept scale and body image questionnaire unbiasedly and truthfully.

ii) It is assumed that the subjects followed the test direction.

1.5. Limitations

The limitations of this study were ,

i) The sample of this study was limited to high school male athletes and non-athletes.

ii) The sample of this study was limited to high school male students from grade 9 to 11.

iii) The sample of this study was selected from public school which represents the condition of middle socioeconomic status.

iv) Athletic sample of this study was limited by varsity high school team athletes.

1.6. Significance of the Study

Self-concept is an important aspect of individual's affective behavior. It is not an epiphenomenon, but rather a construct that we feel is important because it has some impact on the individual's life. The concept of self determines our acts and behaviours. For example; if an individual evaluates himself or herself as an athlete, he / she directs all of his or her effort and act toward sports, he/she wears like an athlete, he/she avoid smoking and alcohol that effect his or her success. Therefore, self-concept is a guiding power that observes us, evaluates us and helps to direct our behaviour inside of our body.

In sports situation, it is also important to understand the individuals self-concept to enhance the future participation and success. In physical education setting child acquire sense of importance of different personal skills and qualities provides a potential target

for improvement of self-concept. The physical education program or sports is unique medium for developing good feeling of individual about himself.

Body image is an aspect of self-concept. How a person feels about himself is closely related to how he feels about his body. These two closely related concepts are very important for educators, teachers, coaches and trainers. When the player or athletes are being selected; psychological test can take an important part of selection. Therefore; determining the individual's perceived competence or self-evaluation about his or her sports ability help us to select our player effectively.

Through the several years; around the world self-concept and body image have been studied. In our society, most self-concept and body image studies conducted in different areas of psychology but not in sport psychology. Determining the self-concept & body image of athletes give us some clues about psychological condition of athletes. If as a teacher, coaches & trainer can decide that individual have some negative thinking about different areas of life, then they can help the individual and try to find solution. As a result, individual's effectiveness, success increase in different area of life. In summary, closely related two terms self-concept & body image are very important for physical education & sport.

CHAPTER II

SELF-CONCEPT AND EXERCISE

2.1. SELF-CONCEPT

The self-concept, like many such constructs, has waxed and waned in importance throughout the history of psychology. No other psychological construct has captured such widespread interest as self-concept. Today there has been resurgence of interest in the self that has focused on the study of individual differences as well as developmental change. The self-concept has come to occupy a prominent role in human behaviour and positive self image is central to the adaptive functioning and everyday happiness of the individual (Harter, 1986; 1988a).

The volume of subjects have been written about this important psychological construct by psychologists, child developmentalist and educators. Nevertheless; in a review of both theoretical and emprical studies, Shavelson, Hubner and Stanton (1976) concluded that " research in this area suffers from lack of an agreed upon definition

of self-concept and lack of standardized measurements" (Marsh et.al,1985).

It is critical to appreciate the fact that the self-concept, like any psychological construct, can assume many different definitions. For example; Gallahue (1982: 321) defined "self-concept as an important aspects of children's affective behavior that is through world of games, play and vigorous movement." On the other hand, Shavelson (1976) proposed following definition of self-concept: " self-concept is an individual perception of him or herself through experience with the environment, interactions of his or her own behavior " (Marsh et. al,1983 :173).

Pangrazi (1982) defined self-concept as a system of ideas, attitudes, values and commitments that constitute person's inner world. Beside that; Fox (1988; 1990) described " self-concept as a self- description, whereby a series of statements are used such as " I am male " , " I am student ", to formulate a multifaceted personal picture ".

According to Burn (1982 :1) "the self-concept is composed of all beliefs and evaluations you have about yourself. These beliefs (self-images) and evaluations (self-esteem) actually determine not only who you are,

but what you think you are, what you think you can do and what you think you can become". This view of self-concept as a compound of two elements; self-image and self-evaluation places self-concept within the ambit of attitude study. As a result; belief, emotional and behavior components of attitude are similarly revealed in self attitudes so that self-concept combines:

- " (a) self-images- what the person sees when he looks at himself
- (b) affective intensity and evaluation - how strongly the person feels about the various facets; and whether the person has a favourable / unfavourable opinion of various facets of that image;
- (c) behavioural possibilities - what the person is likely to do in response to his evaluation of himself" (Burn,1982 :3).

The construct self-concept can further be defined by seven critical features (Shavelson et.al,1976) " (a) It is organized structured in that people categorize the vast amount of information they have about themselves and relate the categories to one another. (b) It is multifaceted, and the particular facets reflect the category system adopted by a particular individual and/ or shared by group. (c) It is hierarchical, with perception of behaviour at the base moving to inferences

about the self in subareas (e.g.; academic - english, history), then to interferences about self in academic and nonacademic areas and then interference about self in general. (d) General self-concept is stable but as one descends the hierarchy, self-concept becomes increasingly situation specific and as a consequence less stable. (e) Self-concept becomes increasingly multifaceted as the individual develops from infancy to adulthood. (f) It has both a descriptive and an evaluative dimension such that individuals may describe themselves (I am happy) and evaluate themselves (e.g.; I do well in school) (g) It can be differentiated from other constructs such as academic achievement " (Shavelson and Bolus, 1982 :3).

While Shavelson et. al (1976) defined self-concept with seven features Rosenberg (1979) said that " self-concept has three major components which are social identities, personal dispositions and physical characteristics " (Sonstream, 1984 :125).

2.1.1. Theories of Self-concept

There are many different theoretical approaches which permeate research and thinking about the self-concept. William James (1903) was first psychologist to elaborate on self-concept. James considered the global

self as simultaneously " me " and "I". They were discriminated aspects of the same entity, a discrimination between pure experience (I), and the content of that experience (me). According to James (1903) there were two different aspects of self-concept which each can not exist without the other, the self is simultaneously "me" and "I" because identity of I is me (Öner, 1985). For James, " global self-esteem was captured by the ratio of one's successes to one's pretensions. One's level of self-esteem hinged on the extent to which one considered oneself successful in domains where one had aspirations of success" (Harter, 1987 :220).

The study of self-concept moved temporarily away from mainstream psychology during the first decades of this century into a more sociological field, in which Mead and Cooley became the major theorists. They were symbolic interactionists who produced a new perspective on the individual society relationship.

Symbolic interactionism involves three basic premises. First, " humans respond to the environment on the basis of meaning that elements of the environment have for them as individuals. Second, such meanings are a product of social interaction and third these societal cultural meanings through individual interpretation

within the ambit of this shared interaction" (Burn;1982:16).

Cooley (1968) was first psychologist to examine self-concept from social perspective and he said that a major perspective of self-concept is the "other self" or how you think others think of you. Cooley (1968) who first pointed out the importance of subjectively interpreted feedback from others as a main source of data about the self. (Biyıklı;1989). In contrast to James, Cooley (1902) postulated that "the origins of our sense of self lie in our perceptions of what significant others think of us. According to Cooley, therefore, the self is a social construction, based on our appraisal of other's opinions about the self what is termed the looking-glass self " (Harter;1987:220).

Like Cooley (1902), Mead (1934) said that self-concept is social image. Self-concept has occurred through the time of socialization. He categorized self-concept as a " I" and "Me" into two. According to Mead "I" was the impulsive tendency, the unorganized, undisciplined, undifferentiated activity of individual. Every behaviour commences as an "I" but develops and as "Me" as it comes under the influence of societal constraints. "I" provides the propulsion ; " Me " provides direction (Burn, 1982 ; Dner, 1985 ; Can, 1990).

Another theoretical approach to self-concept is psychoanalytical approach which began with Sigmund Freud who emphasized on concept of ego. According to psychoanalytic approach the self-concept is a broad structure which composed of ego, id and superego. Ego is conscious and unconscious percept. Freud suggested that concept of superego and ego ideal represent social self which made up self-concept (Öner,1982).

Another psychoanalytical theorist who were Adler, Horney, Fromm and Sullivan said that role of self-concept is to serve as a vehicle between main motives and social reality (Koyuncu,1979).

Adler was Freud's collegeous who defined self-concept as specific construct that have interpretive ability and help to provide meaningful life for organism. He emphasized on creative self that always search life experiences which provide satisfaction for individual, if there are not found in the outside world, it would try to create (Geçtan, 1981).

Horney (1968) was another psychiatrist who mostly emphasized on " real self ". Horney said that self-realization is innate process of individual. She has concluded that if large discrepancy occur between ideal self and actual self individual become "self-alienation" (Koyuncu, 1979).

Another psychoanalytical theorist was Erikson. Erikson (1965) used the concept of identity in his writing rather than self and provided an extension of Freudian theory emphasizing ego development in cultural context. He described eight stages of identity growth and detailed the particular conflicts which are characteristic of different stages and qualities that emerge on resolving these conflicts. He defined "identity as a subjective sense of an invigorating sameness and continuity, yet he was someone reluctant to provide a tight definition of identity which was not just the sum of roles assumed by the person but also included emerging configurations of identifications and capacities, a function of direct experience of self and the world and perceptions of reactions of others to self. It was psychosocial in that it also involves an individual's relationships with his cultural context" (Burn, 1982: 19).

In addition to above theorist Fromm and Sullivan analyzed the self-concept from sociological perspective. For example; Fromm (1938) has investigated self, self-love . He has observed that a lack of self-love is frequently accompanied by inability to love others (Dner, 1985).

Sullivan (1953) is a psychiatrist who developed what has been called an interpersonal theory of personality development. " As Sullivan sees it, from the first day of life, the infant is immersed in continual stream of interpersonal situations in which he is recipient of never ending flow of reflected appraisals. It is through his assimilation of these reflected appraisals that the child comes to develop expectations and attitudes toward himself as an individual. If these appraisals have been mainly derogatory, then the self-image is apt to be disparaging and hostile. If on the other hand; the reflected appraisals have been chiefly positive and constructive, then one's feelings about himself are more inclined to be positive and approving " (Hamacheck, 1971:49). On the other hand, Allport used the self-concept and ego interchangeable and he has brought new term of " proprium " which involves combination of ego and self-concept (Oner, 1982). According to Allport (1961) the term of " proprium is intended to cover the self as the object of knowing and feeling to include in fact, the subjective elements that are essential to the concept " (Nash, 1971: 466).

Beside those theorist Super (1960) has looked self-concept with different view. Super mostly emphasized on vocation selection and self-concept. According to him the self-concept influences one's vocational choice but is in

turn affected by feedback after the choice is made (McCandless, 1970). He has suggested that self-concept consists of two kind of self perceptions which are simple self perceptions and complex self perceptions. He also identified 5 stages of development of self-concept which are discovery, differentiation, identification, role playing and testing of reality (Dner, 1982).

In a recent years ; new theoretical approach brought to the self-concept which is called the phenomenological approach (sometimes called a perceptual or humanistic approach) is a perspective which attempts to understand man through the impression of the subject and not through the eyes of an observer. It seeks to understand how the individual views himself, how his needs, feelings, values, beliefs and unique perception of his enviroment influence him to behave as he does. Perception is central concept in phenomenology and refers to the processes of selecting, organizing and interpreting material into a coherent construction of the psychological environment. This environment has variously been termed the perceptual field, the psychological field, the phenomenal field or life space (Burn, 1982).

The phenomenological psychologists, represented by Coombs and Snygg (1959), have perceptual approach in which the crucial element is the manner in which the

individual sees or interprets reality. In their view, behaviour is always reasonable and purposeful, through the definition of what is reasonable is individual, not objective and all behaviour is determined by perceptual field. According to Coombs and Snygg (1959 : 23) "concept of self mean more or less discrete perceptions of self which the individual regards as part, or characteristic of his being".

Another phenomenological psychologist was Rogers (1951) whose self theory and ideas about the fully functioning individual represent a synthesis of phenomenology as developed by Coombs and Snygg. The self, which is nuclear concept in Roger's theory, has numerous features, the most important of which are these " (a) the self strives for consistency, (b) a person behave in ways which are consistent with the self, (c) experiences that are not consistent with the self are perceived as threats and are either distorted or denied, (d) the self may change as a result of maturation " (Hamacheck ,1971:54).

It can be seen that there are many different theoretical approach to self-concept which began with sociological view through the phenomenological view of self-concept.

2.1.2. Models and Measures of Self-concept

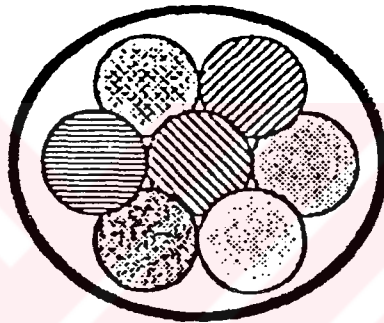
In literature, it is possible to find different models of self-concept which are proposed according to these different theories can be associated with a particular measurement strategy. Models of self-concept within the literature can be distinguished along a number of dimensions, the most important which is whether the self is best viewed as a unidimensional construct or as a self-evaluations that are more multidimensional in nature (Harter,1988 a).

For many years psychologist thought that children's self-concept could be assessed by simply adding by responses about feelings across a wide range of life situations such as in schoolwork, sports, health, music and friendships. Each aspects of self carried the same value with the emphasis being on the total self-concept score rather than part. This is called " unidimensional " approach (Fox, 1988 :247). Figure 1 shows this approach.

Coopersmith's (1967) model best represents this tradition, although the Piers- Harris (1969) self-concept scale was originally based on a model in which the self was also considered to be unidimensional. These model are based on the assumption that the self-concept is unitary construct best assessed by presenting the child

subject with items tapping a range of context, e.g., the child sense of self in school, with friends and with family. These unidimensional view has been challenged by those who argue that such an approach masks important evaluative distinctions that individual make about their competence in different domains of their life (Harter, 1988a :294 ; 1990:68-69).

A. UNIDIMENSIONAL



GLOBAL SELF-ESTEEM

Figure 1. Unidimensional Model of Self-Concept

(Fox, 1988 :248)

This single approach has been highly criticised because it fails to acknowledge that children and adults even more so, have different feelings about themselves in different aspects of their lives and these may vary in their contribution to overall self-esteem. As a result of this purposes ; a multidimensional approach has been put

forward as an alternative (Figure 2) Multiple conception of self is person may think highly of themselves as spouses, fairly, highly of themselves as employees and poorly of themselves as tennis player.

B. MULTIDIMENSIONAL



Figure 2. Multidimensional Model of Self-concept
(Fox and Corbin ,1989 :409)

According to Sonstroem and Morgan (1980) individual may have different perceptions of themselves as a professionals as family members, as leaders or as followers. This linking of self-concept to a specific situation finds a parallel in contemporary psychology's interpretation of personality -behaviour relationships. Behaviour is seen to result from the interaction of

central traits and setting where the behaviour occur (Bowers, 1973 ; Sonstroem,1984).

Proponents of this multidimensional perspective have put forth models and adopted measurement strategies that identify particular domains of self-evaluation assessing each separately (Harter,1985; 1986; 1990). For example ; Harter's Self-Perception Profile For Children and Marsh Self-Descriptive Questionnaire are originally based on this multidimensional model.

A third approach to the self-concept can be found among those who espouse hierarchical models of self. In these models, a construct such as self-concept represents a superordinate category underwhich order subcategories of the self are organized (Harter,1986).

Epstein (1971), Shavelson (1976) and L'Ecuyer (1981) have proposed different hierarchical models of self-concept (see Figure 3.). For example; Shavelson (1976) divided general self-concept into academic and non-academic second order levels. The non-academic self-concept is further partitioned into social, emotional and physical self-concepts. In addition to that, physical components and social components may be divided into two and there may be an emotional components and specific components of academic self-concept that correspond to

particular academic subject (Marsh et. al, 1983; Harter, 1986). Marsh (1984) has modified version of multidimensional models to hierarchical model according to Shavelson hierarchical approach (Marsh, 1986 ; Marsh et. al,1985 ; Fox and Corbin, 1989).

C. HIERARCHICAL

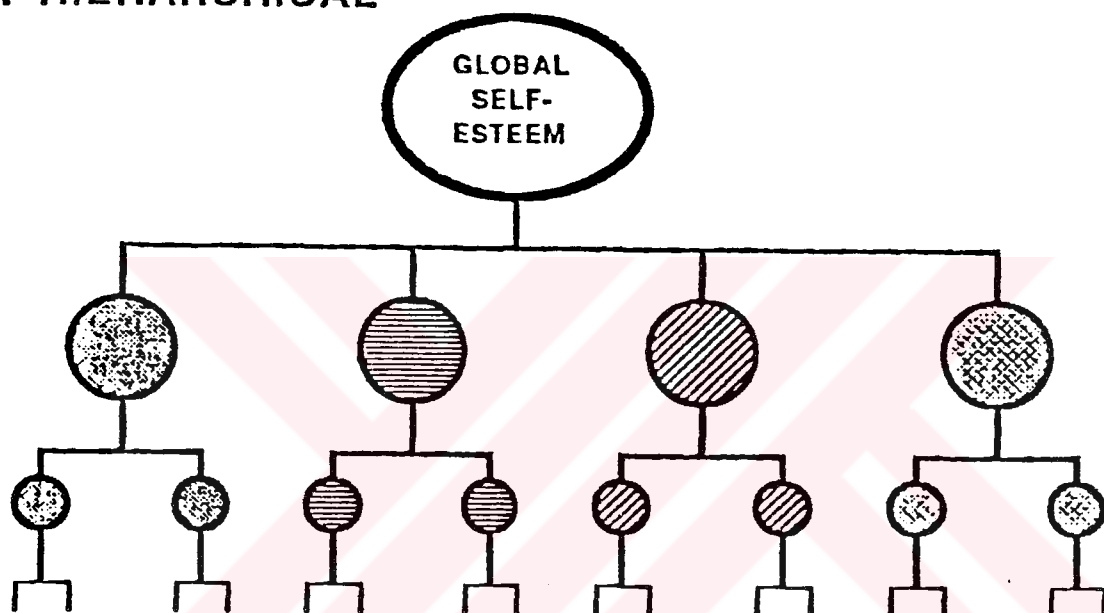


Figure 3. Hierarchical Models of Self-concept

(Fox, 1988: 248)

A fourth alternative model can be found in the work of Rosenberg (1979), who has emphasized global self-esteem the general regard one holds for the self as a person. Rosenberg has sought not to polarize the issue in the form of unidimensional versus multidimensional model

of self. He has argued that individuals possess a general sense of self-esteem or feelings of worth as a person, in addition to those evaluations of one's adequacy across the specific domains of one's life (Harter, 1986; 1988a, 1990). Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale was developed according to this model of self-concept.

Last approach to self-concept represents an integration of both unidimensional and multidimensional themes, at the level of both model and measurement. According to this approach, one needs to take account the multidimensional nature of domain specific judgements, as well as one sense of global self-worth assessing both. This model basically was based on Cooley and James theoretical formulation. For James (1892), global self-esteem represented the ratio of one's successes to one's pretension or aspirations toward success in the various domains of one's life. For Cooley (1902), the origins of our self lie in our perception of what significant others think of us (Harter, 1986; 1987; 1988a). From these theoretical perspective Harter was developed Self-Perception Profile for particular developmental period e.g. middle to late childhood, adolescence, college age and adulthood. This model underscores the importance of global judgements of esteem or self-worth, in addition to the evaluation of domain specific competencies (Harter, 1988a). In this study Harter's self-concept model and

her theoretical approach which combines both James and Cooley theoretical view was used.

2.1.3. Development of Self-concept

In recent years; there has been a renewed interest in how the self-concept may undergo developmental change. The empirical findings generally revealed that with development children shift their focus from behavioral characteristics of the self in the early years, to trait like construct during middle childhood and then more abstract psychological constructs during adolescence. In these shifting approaches to self-description by noting that the young child functions like a behaviorist, whereas in middle childhood the predominant orientation is that of a trait theorist; one sees yet another shift in the adolescent, who appears in the gurse of Freudian clinician. Historically; developmental psychologist have evaluated self-concept on the ontogenetic base while some of other researcher have proposed Piagetin - based model of self-description where the implications of cognitive developmental shift underscored (Harter, 1986 ; 1989a).

On the other hand; Doman and Hart (1988) have identified four developmental level of self-concept across childhood and adolescence. They have suggested

that at each of these levels, one may find behavioral, social and psychological descriptions of the self. " At level 1, the self understood only as separate categorical or taxonomic identification, for example, young children will describe typical behaviors or momentary moods, feelings, preferences, or aversions. At level 2, middle to late childhood, the self is defined comparatively, in relation to others or normative standards, for example, cognitive abilities relative to those peers. At level 3, early adolescence, for example, attributes or social skills that influence interactions with others or the individual's social appeal are prominent. At level 4, late adolescence, the self is described according to systematic beliefs, personal philosophy, and life plans including dimensions of personal choice, inner thought processes, and moral standards " (Harter, 1989a).

On the other hand; Harter (1983) has developed a more comprehensive model of the dimensions of developmental change. According to Harter (1988a) young children are incapable of making judgements about their self-worth. She has said that 4 to 7 year olds can make reliable judgements about the following four domains : their cognitive competence, physical competence, social acceptance and behavioral conduct, if they are pictorially depicted as concrete, observable behaviors. During middle childhood (8- 12 age), the structure of

self-concept changes in that not only are more domains differentiated, but ability to make meaningful and reliable judgements about one's self-worth emerges. Between these ages, children clearly differentiate on scholastic competence, athletic competence, peer social acceptance, behavioral conduct and physical appearance. During adolescence, adolescent make judgement on previous 5 domains and three additional domains : close friendship, romantic appeal and job competence. As it can be seen that her model is sensitive to both developmental as well as individual differences in self-evaluation. In her comprehensive model four different developmental themes have emerged. The first involves the need to include different item content at different developmental levels. She adapted a developmental perspective with regard to the concept of global self-worth. Third , level of description are suited to developmental level. Last one is type of developmental thinking at different developmental task. By integrating above themes she provided some standardized score or profile for self-concept and developed assesment technique for different developmental level. In this study Harter's Self-Perception Profile For Adolescent (HSPP) which was developed according to Harter's comprehensive developmental model was used.

In a summary self-concepts like other concepts has developed in a predictable way. In this pattern, development of awareness of self is not a unitary process, nor does it take place all at one time. Instead, the child perceives different aspects of himself at different time. He or she distinguishes between himself / herself and others before he forms concepts of his appearance of his abilities. As he grows older as his experiences broaden and as his intellectual capacities mature, his concepts of himself grow through the discovery of new qualities and new potentialities. " In the development of a healthy personality pattern, it is essential that the concepts of self change as new self-discoveries are made; the unrealistic and biased elements of early concepts must be replaced by more realistic and unprejudiced ones" (Hurlock; 1964: 52).

2.1.4. Factors that Effect the Self-concept Development

Many factors affect the predictable development of self-concept. These influencing factor were investigated by many researchers. For example; Wylie (1961) listed the following factors : " age, sex, achievement, socioeconomic level, ethnic group" (Türkmen; 1989).

2.1.4.1. Age :

In general most researcher investigated whether or not age effect the self-concept. For instance Spencer and Tordoff (1983) have found that there was no relationship between age of 28 through 69 and self-concept .

However; Nicholls (1979) has suggested that self-concepts of young children was be systematically more favorable and less correlated with actual ability than older children (Marsh et al, 1984). The same result was obtained by Can in 1990 . He has found that self-concept of young people are higher than self-concept of older people. In addition to that Cicirelli (1977) has said that there was a relation between self-concept and age, because with increasing age cognitive abilities increased and child made correct evaluation about themselves (Türkmen, 1989).

2.1.4.2. Sex:

Sex is another factor that effect the self-concept development. While Wylie (1979) had concluded that there was no evidence for gender differences in overall self-concept at any age level. Marsh et.al (1985) have found

" large gender differences in self facets of physical abilities, favoring boys and reading favoring girls " (Watkins and Regmi,1987-1989 :49). In addition to that Dusek and Flaherty (1981) have reported sex differences in adolescent self-concept. They have found that boys had higher self-concepts in masculinity and achievement/ leadership and girls had higher self-concept in congeniality and sociability (Marsh et.al,1984).

2.1.4.3. Academic Achievement :

Another important variable is academic achievement that effect the self-concept. Watkins and Astilla (1986) have found that self-concept was substantially correlated with achievement. In addition to that, same results were obtained by Fink in 1962. Fink (1962) has concluded that "there was a strong significant relationship between self-concept & academic achievement " (Hamachek,1971:184).

Can (1990) has found that students who had had high academic achievement score had higher self-concept score than low achiever students.

2.1.4.4. Socioeconomic Status :

Most of the researcher have showed that socioeconomic status (SES) is important factor that effect self-concept. Can (1990) and Ersek (1992) have resulted that individual who come from low socioeconomic level have lower self-concept than who come from higher socioeconomic level. Most of the researcher argue with this results. However; Soares and Soares (1969) and Trowbridge (1972) have found that "disadvantaged children actually had higher self-concept than advantaged children" (Marsh & Parker, 1984 :215). Wylie (1979) have explained the reason of this conflicting result. She said that many authors confuse disadvantaged status, SES and racial /minority group membership. In both of the studies using idiosyncratic instruments for measuring overall self-regard have yielded contrdictory, weak relationship of socioeconomic level & self-regard (Marsh & Parker, 1984).

2.1.4.5. Racial and Culture :

Culture and racial are also important factor influence self-concept development. There are many social influences on the development of self-concept, important among which is membership in a disadvantaged group.

Often such groups are minorities and often their disadvantages are social psychological rather than inherent. For instance; the North American Jews being in many other respects on advantaged groups perhaps because of selective factors in migration. Sometimes disadvantaged group are majorities such as is the case with the Negro in many parts of Africa. The influence that white domination has had on collective self-esteem is evident in much of reactive nationalism of the newly emerging states " (Nash,1971:468).

Most of the researcher have studied negro children as a minority group. For example; Morland (1958), Secord and Saumer (1960) and Stevenson and Stewart (1958) said that "White children generally learn to identify themselves with a racial group sooner than Negro children especially when Negroes and whites live in segregated sections of the community" (Hurlock,1964:530).

In another studies self-esteem of African-American was compared. The results of this study showed that African-American values differ from those of whites in different domains. There was stronger connection between school grades and self-esteem among whites than among African-Americans, which suggests that the two racial groups may well base their self-esteem on different attributes (Harter,1989b). As a results; differences in

social support, in the values and in the network of social comparison cause the racial differences which can in turn affect self-esteem.

2.1.4.6. Body Image :

It is possible to talk about effects of body image or physical body on self-concept development. How a person feels about himself is related to how he feels about his body. A person's height, weight, girth, eye color, hair color, complexion and general body proportions are very much related to his feelings of personal adequacy (Hamachek,1971).

Wylie (1974) stated that " it seems intuitively obvious that attitudes toward to the body are important aspects of self-regard ". It can be said that body image is an important aspect of self-concept. Body image was defined by many authors in different way and it has effect on self-concept or it is closely related to self-concept. Frostig and Horne (1964) described " body image as the subjective experience or feeling that a child has of his own body, derived from internal sensory stimuli and from the impressions he has gained of reactions of other people " (Whiting et.al, 1973 :46).

On the other hand; Hamacheck (1978:140) has defined "body image as an important aspects of one's self-concept. A person's physical self is the outer shell which houses all of his inner feelings and as such it deserves to be recognized and understood for whatever its potential is for eliciting social responses which contribute to an individual's overall concept of himself".

The importance of physical attributes or body image to self-conception is explicitly recognized by the developers of self-concept inventories. The Piers- Harris Children's Self-concept scale contains a subscale called Physical Appearance and Attributes (Cratty,1979); the self-concept inventory developed by Sears includes a physical ability subscale and the Tennessee self-concept Scale (TSCS) contains Physical Self as one of its five content subscales (Sonstroem, 1984). In recent years; like above inventory Harter Self-Perception Profile for Children, Adolescents, Adults, College age contains the Physical Appearance scale (Harter, 1985;1988b). In these inventory the operational definitions of the physical self have included measurement of satisfaction with the body parts (Secord and Jourard,1953), physical appearance (Harter, 1985; 1988b) , body consciousness, and physical competence (Harter, 1985; 1988b ;Sonstroem,1974).

Secord and Jourard (1953) developed empirical association between body cathexis and self cathexis scales. These scales assess feelings of satisfaction with various parts and processes of the body and self respectively. The authors have found body cathexis- self cathexis correlation 0.58 in college men and 0.66 in women. Like Secord and Jourard (1953) most of the other researcher has demonstrated a relation between self-concept and body image. For example; Rosen and Ross (1968) have studied 82 undergraduate subjects to determine whether satisfaction for body part score were related to measures of self-concept or not. They have showed that particular body parts rated as highly important by individual subjects developed higher relationships with overall body satisfaction than body parts rated lower in importance.

On the other hand; Zion in 1965 has found that score on a study developed body concept scale were related to self-esteem scores. Mahoney (1976) and Rosenberg (1979) have showed that self-perceptions of one's body to be an important aspect of self-regard. In other words; satisfaction with the body has repeatedly demonstrated strong empirical relationship with general self-regard (Sonstroem and Morgan, 1989).

In recent years; Can (1990) has concluded that

physical attractiveness is closely related with self-concept.

In a summary, it can be said that there is close relationship between outer and inner self. Perceptions of appearance may be more causally predictive of self-concept in a very large portion of the life span.

2.2. REVIEWS OF STUDIES ABOUT SELF-CONCEPT AND EXERCISE

Until 1960 there was little research found relating to physical education and its effect on behavioral characteristics of the individual. Since 1960 much research has been directed toward the psychological development of the individual through the advent of various types of physical education programmes.

Researchers have looked at the relationship between self-concept development and physical fitness, movement education programs, perceptual-motor programs, participation in physical education as opposed to no participation in physical education and special children involved in physical education programs.

2.2.1. Studies That Compare Self-Concept of Athletes & Non-athletes

Schumaker, Small, and Wood (1986) have examined high school subjects to assess the effects of athletic participation on self-concept and academic achievement. Athlete's group were selected from basketball, football, wrestling, softball, tennis, track and dance who had two year experiences and non-athletes were randomly selected from same school. They have found that the total self-concept scores of athletes were higher than non-athletes. Athletes also scored significantly higher than non-athletes on physical self, moral-ethical self, personal self, identity and behaviour subscales. In other scales athlete's score were higher than non-athletes but not statistically significant.

Like Schumaker, Smoll and Wood (1986), Salokun in 1990 has studied 202 Nigerian high school athletes and 108 non-athletes to determine the relation of participation in sports and self-concept of boys who participate in competitive sports and their peers who do not and to examine the relation between competence in sports and self-concept by comparing elites performers with their less skillful peers. He (1990b) has found that athletes scored significantly higher on all self-concept subscale except behavior, moral-ethical and

family. In addition to that higher performer significantly had higher score on all self-concept.

The same results obtained by Smith in 1986. He has examined the effects of competitive youth sports on aggression, anxiety and poor self-concept. He tried to determine the differences between self-concept of 104 participants and 104 non-participants who were selected from grade third through sixth. He has found that participants had significantly higher self-concept than non-participants but there were no significant main effects for grade and sex. In addition to these three studies, Hoffman (1986) has found that athletes have stronger self-esteem and self-confidence than non-athletes and Olszewska (1982) has suggested that players who achieved high level of performance effectiveness have high self-image. Snyder and Spreitzer (1976) have found that athletes had higher self-perceptions of athletic ability than non-athletes. Beside that Ibrahim and Morrison (1976) have compared the self-concept of 200 high school and college athletes. They have suggested that there were few significant differences between athletes and non-athletes in self-concept score both the high school and college level.

Like other researchers, Pothak, Kumar and Thakur (1985) have investigated the self-concept of athletes by

comparing individual athletes to team athletes. They have found that individual athletes were higher on personally perceived and socially perceived self than team athletes and non-athletes.

Unlike above studies; Magill and Ash (1976), Tiriyaki and Morali (1992), and Manning (1990) have concluded that there were no significant differences between athletes and non-athletes of self-concept.

2.2.2. Studies That Investigate the Effects of Exercise on Self-Concept

Exercise has assumed prominence in contemporary society for its substantiated effects of human physiological function. Associated with the use of exercise is an implicit assumption of mental and psychological benefit. The exercise has been used to treat depression to reduce anxiety and has helped to improve mood states in high risk middle aged men and postinfarct and normal middle aged men. Additionally; it has increased self-confidence and adjustment in college women and fostered positive feelings of well-beings .

Many researchers have investigated the effect of exercise on self-concept through the several years. For

example, Koacher (1971) has investigated self-concept changes in individuals as a result of increasing competence in swimming. Index of adjustment values was administered to subjects before and after 12 days program. After 12 days swimming, he has found that individual who learned to swim in the program did experience a decrease in self-ideal self-concept discrepancy of significant proportions as a result of increase self-concept. Subjects for whom swimming was already an area of competence or who failed to learn to swim maintained essentially the same self-concept discrepancy as they had from the outset.

Collingwood and Willett (1972) have studied five obese male teenagers to determine the effect of 3 weeks obesity physical training program on self-concept and body attitude. They have reported that there were a significant increase on the self-concept dimension, self-acceptance and non significant increase on the ideal self-dimension. In addition to that Jasnoski, Holmes, Saloman and Aguiar (1981) have conducted a study in order to provide an experimental test of psychological effects of participating in an exercise program and to determine what aspect of the program was responsible for these effects. They tried to investigate the effects of training program on self-perception and self-confidence of women subjects. They said that training was effective

in increasing subject's aerobic capacity and also have an effect on subject's perceptions of their abilities and their confidence both in the physical and non-physical area. According to their studies; changes in aerobic capacity were not related to changes in self perceived abilities and confidence. The effects of physical fitness training on self-concept was studied by many researchers. For example; Hilyer and Mitchell (1979) have investigated the effect of systematic physical fitness program combined with counseling on the low self-concept of college students who did not receive regular systematic physical fitness training. Subjects were assigned to control, running only and running with counseling group. After 10 weeks experimental period Tennessee Self-Concept scale was given to all subjects. The results of this study revealed that the greatest change in self-concept occurred among low self-concept students. The self-concept changes occur in both group. Less increase occur in physical self-concepts subscale than other scale. As a result ; students who received fitness training and counseling together and had low self-concepts on pre-test measure made positive changes in self-concept.

Most of other researcher studied the different type of training program on self-concept. For instance; McGowan, Jarman and Pedersen (1974) made one study to

determine the effects of success oriented competitive endurance training program on the self-concept and peer approval of seventh grade boys. They assigned the subjects as a experimental group who participated to 3 or 4 days running program per week participated in various competitive activities on non-running days and control group who do not attend regular physical education classes. At the end of 18 weeks semester, the competitive endurance training program increased self-concept and fitness but not peer approval.

Like McGowan, Jarman and Pedersen (1974); Marsh & Peart (1988) have investigated effects of competitive and cooperative physical fitness program on physical fitness and on different facets of self-concept of 137 girls attending to 8 grade. After pre-test measurement subjects were assigned to one of the two fitness programs and to control group. Control group was participated in a unstructured game of volleyball, during two experimental groups were participated aerobic training programs. They have reported that physical fitness as substantially correlated with physical ability self-concept was not significantly related to other areas of self-concept. The experimental intervention had significant effect on only 2 of 11 self-concept scores: physical ability and to a lesser extent, physical appearance. For both physical ability and physical

appearance scales, cooperative group score higher than competitive group but control group scores higher than competitive group and lower than cooperative group.

The purpose of Brown, Morrow and Livingston's study (1982) was to determine if self-concept changes in college age females occur as a result of involvement in 14 weeks physical conditioning program. Results have indicated that women showed significant differences in self-concept upon completion of conditioning program, however effects were not generalizable to all dimensions of self-concept. The increase in self-concept are the result of changes in subject's physiological functioning.

On the other hand; Hatfield, Vaccaro and Benedict (1985) used jump rope programs improving self-concept and cardiovascular fitness. They have studied 11 children aged from 9 to 11 years to describe some selected psychological and physiological changes in children engaged in 8 weeks precision rope jumping program. They said that although subjects had high self-concept before start of training there were significant improvement on self-concept after jump rope regimen.

Recent years; some of the researchers were interested in effect of aerobic exercise and anaerobic exercise program on self-concept. For example; Cocklin (1988) has examined the effects of participation in an aerobic dance class on self-concept. In addition to that he has determined if level of physical fitness and feelings about the body were significantly related to self-concept. 69 women aged 20-50 were randomly assigned to an experimental, placebo, or no treatment control group. The experimental and placebo groups participated in exercise classes 3 nights per week for 8 weeks. At the end of the study; he has concluded that self-concept increased significantly from pre to post test for both the experimental and placebo groups. Body cathexis and physical fitness were not found to be significantly related to self-concept. O'Neill (1989) has studied 53 non-athletes female for determining effect of 4 weeks aerobic exercise program on self-concept. She has found that aerobic exercise treatment subjects had significantly higher physical self-concept score than control group. Like O'Neill; Bothwell (1989) has concluded that 12 weeks aerobic dance program made a significant impact on the self-concept of 43 women and 6 men.

Furthermore; Plummer and Young (1987) have conducted a study on college women to determine whether self-

concept is related to participation in aerobics or not. After 10 weeks aerobic classes, there were a significant differences between control group and aerobic group. No significant differences were found for self-criticism and moral-ethical subscale.

Stein and Motta (1992) have compared aerobic exercise of swimming to the nonaerobic exercise of weight training on self-reported measures of depression and self-concept. Subjects consisted of 89 male and female undergraduate students between ages of 18 and 42 who had voluntarily registered during a fall semester for a section of swimming for fitness, weight training or introduction to psychology. The results of this study have showed that the nonaerobic group was superior to the aerobic group for enhancing self-concept which included physical aspects of self.

Through the several years ; strength training and its effect on self-concept was studied. Tucker was one of the researcher who studied very much the effect of strength training on self-concept. In his study, Tucker (1983a; 1987) has investigated the effects of 4 months weight training program on self-concepts of 240 college male. He has found that regular weight training program is significantly related to enhancement of self-concept of college male. Although the experimental and control

groups had congruent psychological profiles at the outset of the program, two groups differed significantly in global, internal and external self-concept at the conclusion of 16 weeks training. Again Tucker (1982a) in his earlier study which was done on 105 college male students found that 16 weeks weight training program have an effect on 8 of 9 self-concept subscales.

Brown and Harrison (1986) also have examined the effects of strength training program on the rate of strength gain and self-concept. They have used young and mature women as a subjects. Both age group assigned to experimental and control group. After subject's strength measured the experimental groups began 2 weeks of moderate intensity weight training which included 3 days a week for 60 minute each day and 3 sets of 10-12 repetitions of bench press and pulldown. After moderate intensity training, subject began 10 weeks of high intensity progressive weight training. They have found that 12 week strength training program was effective for increasing strength and self-concept on both age group.

Like Tucker (1983a; 1987) and Brown and Harrison (1986); Brone and Reznikoff (1989) have studied 60 varsity football team member to clarify the relationship between gain in strength and self-concept and locus of

control. The adjective Checklist and Rotter Internal-External Locus of control scale were administered the subjects before 5 days to start of weight training program. After 14 week strength training program; they have reported that participation in weight training program was related to participants view themselves as more disciplined and planful and changes in strength correlated positively with changes in self-confidence, few changes in self-concept and none in locus of control were observed.

Recently, Gysin (1989) has found that 10 week weight training program has an effects on physical self-concept of 88 college male students.

The purpose of Trujillo study (1983) was to investigate whether weight training and running exercise intervention programs would affect the self-esteem of 35 undergraduate female from Wisconsin University. 35 females were assigned to weight training group, running group and control group. After 16 weeks following results were obtained " changes in self-esteem, from pretest to posttest for each individual participant was found to be significantly increased in both the weight training and running group. The control group did not gain in self-esteem, but showed a slight decrease for this attribute.

Some researcher believe that creative dance movement activities have a influence on the self-concept development because dance involves vigorous activities. For instance; Blackman, Hunter, Hilyer, Harrison (1988) have studied adolescent female to determine to what extent self-concept and physical fitness affected by 4 months dance team participation in high school setting. 16 female adolescent were assigned to experimental group who were the member of dance team and control group who did not participate in any extracurricular activities. According to Tennessee Self-Concept scale's results there were significant increases in physical self and social self for experimental group. On the other hand; the aim of Miller studies (1988) was to examine the effects of dance movement on the development of self-concept in older adults. He said that dance / movement class was influenced positive image of self-concept for older adults. Experimental group possed stronger self-concept in the areas of physical self and personal self.

Marsh et. al. (1986) have examined systematic change and stability in multiple dimensions of self-concept, to test hypothesized effects of participation in the outward bound program on self-concept. A total of 27 group participated in 26 day residential program. Participant completed the Self-Description Questionnaire III one month before the start of program,

on the first day of program and on the last day of program. Participation in the program produced increase in the multiple dimension of self-concept over 26 days interval, demonstrating the program effectiveness. In addition to that Anshel, Muller, Owens (1986) have investigated efficacy of enhancing the various dimensions of self-concept in a situation of daily sports camp program which minimized competition and was high in instructional content. The subjects of this study were selected from 60 children who attended 6 weeks sports day camp ranged grade first to fourth. Student tested on a specially constructed sport self-concept test which yielded self-knowledge, self-esteem, self-ideal scores that related sport abilities. They have said that sport camp only influencing the specific area of self-concept rather than general self-concept.

Effects of participation in different type of sports on self-concept was investigated by some researcher. For example Miller (1989) studied 120 children from National Youth Sport Swimming program to determine its effect on self-concept of 9 to 14 year children. Subjects were divided into 3 groups according to skill level. Self-concept of children were measured before and after swimming program by Harter Self-Perception Profile for children. The findings revealed that there were changes in swimming skill for three group

subjects at the beginner level reported no significant differences on any of the Harter self-concept subscale. Subjects in the advanced beginner group reported significant increase in athletic self-concept. Athletic self-concept were high for intermediate group. As a result changes in athletic skill would be associated with changes in athletic self-concept.

Lee (1988) has studied 261 college students to determine the effects of participation in a selected physical activities on self-concept, self-acceptance and ideal self. 261 college students were participated in physical activity classess of weight training, karate, or golf and professional education class. He has found that students in academic subjects showed greater gain in their self-concept and discrepancy scores as well as between self-concept and ideal self than students in activity classess.

Another study conducted by Schmidt (1988). The purpose of his study was to investigate the effects of Shotokan karate training on self-concept of 161 students who were in educational foundations classes, health education classes, physical education, swimming and karate classes. He also investigated its effects on eastern cultural value orientation of college men and women. He found that no significant differences among

the group on the measure of self-concept, its subcomponents. There were positive gains in mean scores on self-concept and Eastern culture value orientation for the control and karate groups and negative gains on both variables for the swimming group, these changes were not statistically significant.

On the other hands; Hawkins and Gruber (1982) have investigated effects of a season of little league baseball on the self-esteem of 94 player. They have found that significant improvement in player's self-esteem, home-parents and school -academic scores . Social self scores significantly lowered on only two of the eighth teams.

Recent years; Salokun (1990a) has investigated the effects of 10 week basketball and field hockey training on the self-concept of 12-14 year old and 16-18 year old secondary school males and females. He has found that involvement in organized physical education and sports programmes in school improved the self-concept score of male and female subjects. The score of trained subjects were significantly higher in total positive self, self-satisfaction, physical self, personal self and social self.

2.2.3. Studies That Investigate The Relationship Between Fitness and Self-Concept

Earlier studies have showed that there were static relationship between self-concept and physical fitness. For example; Sherrill, Holquin and Coywood (1989) have investigated the differences in self-concept and attitude toward physical education in children of grade 4 and 5 who score high and low in physical fitness and to estimate correlation among fitness, self-concept and attitude. Texas physical fitness test was administered to all subjects and were assigned as boys of lowest fitness and girls of lowest fitness. Piers-Harris self-concept scale's results showed that highly fit girls had significantly higher attitude score and self-concept than least fit boys but the mean differences between groups were not statistically significant. In addition to that highly fit boys and girls had significantly better score in self-concept that of boys in low fitness but not girls.

Like Sherrill, Holquin and Coywood (1989); O'Donoghue (1989) has studied 58 female to determine the relationship between self-concept and fitness. He studied the model that the effect of fitness on self-concept is mediated by perception of fitness and body esteem. He has found that the effects of fitness on self-concept are mediated by perception of fitness and body esteem.

Fitness may not have direct effect on female self-concepts, the effects are better seen in subjects' perception of fitness and level of body esteem.

The aim of Young (1985) was to determine whether significant relationship exist between physical fitness, estimation of physical ability and self-concept for 7th, 8th, 10th grade adolescent females. He has found that there was a significant, positive relationship between physical performance and overall self-concept for grade 10 females and between overall self-concept and 600 yard run for grade 7 females. Estimation of physical fitness was significantly and positively related to overall self-concept for all females.

Like Young (1985); Guyot, Fairchild, Hill (1981) have found that boys and girls in the high physical fitness group scored significantly higher on self-concept than boys and girls in the low physical fitness.

In addition to that Polsom in 1991 has investigated the relationship among physical fitness and self-concept. He has concluded that physical fitness were best predictors of self-concept.

2.2.4. Studies on Physical Appearance, Self-Concept & Body Attitude

Research reveals that different body builds do elicit different reactions from others, which feeds back for some people as positive evaluation and for others, negative evaluation. On the basis of his body configuration, an individual typically receives consistent reactions from others which provides a framework for his body concept which is a significant part of his total self-concept.

Through the several years; many researcher determined the relationship between body type and personality. Generally, three model types of body build are associated with specific sets of personality characteristics. These are : endomorphic build, mesomorphic build, ectomorphic build.

Tucker (1983b) has investigated the relationship between self-concept and self perceived somatotypes. In others words; he tried to determine the differences in self-concept according to measure of perceived-ideal somatotype and self-ideal somatotype. Tennessee self-concept scale was administered to 284 male subjects. In addition to this self-concept scale perceived somatotype were given to subjects. The results of this study

revealed that self-perceived mesomorphs reported feelings of confidence, acceptance, satisfaction and self-worth that tended to be significantly more positive than did more ectomorphic or endomorphic males. Subjects who perceived the extreme mesomorphic physique as ideal showed a tendency toward lower external self-concepts when viewed compositely than did persons who perceived the meso-ecto or ecto-mesomorphic builds as the most desirable. Lastly, males who reported a somatotype as self that differed from the physique viewed as ideal (discrepancy) scored substantially lower in most every dimension of self-concept than did subjects who perceived no such self-ideal somatotype discrepancy.

In addition to that again Tucker (1982b) tried to determine whether male's attitudes differ toward the body and self according to self perceived somatotype or not. The Perceived Somatotype Scale and Body Cathexis Scale were administered to 88 male undergraduates. He has found that 65 % of the subject perceived themselves as a having body builds containing some ectomorphic traits. 60% male selected the mesomorphic figure as their ideal on the perceived somatotype ideal item. 70 % of male discrepancy between what they perceived as their somatotypes and what they would have liked their physiques to resemble. Beside that males who perceived their body builds to be mesomorphic tended to have body cathexis scores

significantly higher than did those of any other somatotype group. Subjects who saw themselves as having meso-ectomorphic somatotype, reported body cathexis score significantly higher than did self perceived mesoendomorphs, ectomorph and endomorph. None of the other somatotype groups differed significantly in mean body cathexis score. In another studies; Tucker (1983c) said that muscular strength to be significant predictor of body cathexis, extroversion, neuroticism and global self-concept. In general he suggested that relatively strong males were significantly more satisfied with their body parts and processes, less emotionally liable and anxious, more outgoing, socioable, impulsive and more confident and satisfied with themselves than their weaker muscularity counterparts.

Lawson has (1980) investigated the relation between self-esteem and peer group judgements to stereotypes attached to fat, average and thin body builds in 84 Australian boys and girls in grades 2, 4 and 6. Thus the design consisted of a comparison between judgements of body build types represented by drawings and judgements of classmates by peers and a comparison of individuals self-esteem with their body and with their peer ratings. He has found that subjects did not apply stereotypic judgements to their classmates, nor were subject's self-esteem score related to their own body build or popularity.

Like Tucker (1982b); Salokun (1991) has studied 288 Nigerian Junior and senior male students to find the trend of self-concept ratings among subjects differentiated according to perceived somatotype self (PSS), perceived somatotype ideal (PSI) and perceived somatotype discrepancy (PSD). The results of this study showed that significant differences in global self, external and internal self dimensions were evidenced between male adolescent groups differentiated according to self-perceived somatotype, perceived somatotype discrepancy groups. The PSS groups differ significantly in all dimension of self-concept except moral-ethical dimension. The PSI groups differed significantly on all dimensions of self-concept except behavioral and moral-ethical self subscale. In addition to that perceived ideal somatotype and self ideal somatotype discrepancy differentiated markedly among measures of self-concept. On the other hand; Felker and Kay (1971) have found that body type significantly effect on self-concept of 7th and 8th grade boys.

2.2.5. Studies That Investigate the Relationship Between Sport Participation and Body Image

Bucaria (1989) has examined whether males and females, female athletes and non-athletes differ on the variables of physical attractiveness, physical

effectiveness and self-esteem. She has found that female athletes differed from female non-athletes on body attractiveness. In addition to that there were no significant differences between female contact sport athletes and female non-contact sport athletes.

Snyder and Kivlin (1975) have examined the relationship between psychological well being and body image among women athletes and non-athletes , women gymnast and basketball players. The women athletes had higher score on both measures of psychological well being and body image.

Beside that Gökdoğan (1988) has found that individuals who participated any physical activity are more satisfied with their bodies than non - participant group. She also has concluded that participant girls are more satisfied from their muscle power, sports ability, height, mouth, shoulder, arm and wrist than non-participant girls. On the other hand; participant boys are more satisfied from their sports ability, muscle power, voice, amount of hair on face, sexual organ than non-participant.

Furthermore, Hallinan, Pierce, Evans, DeGrenier and Andres (1991) have examined the relationship between sex and perception of body image among athletes and non-

athletes. T- test result showed that no significant differences for men based upon athletic participation and that both athletes and non-athletes were satisfied with their body image . However, when comparing current image and ideal image, significant differences were found for women athletes and non-athletes.

2.2.6. Studies That Investigate Effects of Training on Body Image

Balogun (1987) has investigated the hypothesis that body image is not affected by cognitive feedback on the level of physical fitness. 45 health related course students participated 3 week period of physical fitness testing. Body Cathexis Scale was employed to subjects to determine the degree of feeling of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with various parts or processes of body. The results revealed that subjects showed improvement in the way they perceived their sundry parts and processes of the body after being provided with objective information on their level of physical fitness.

In another study; Puretz (1982) has studied the effects of modern dance on body image. Puretz's study was methodologically divided into two parts - to compare modern dance with other dance modalities as well

as with a non dance physical activity. In the first experiment the differences between modern dance, ballet and folk-dance were investigated. The subjects of first experiment were selected from female Suny New Paltz student who enrolled in modern dance I,II., Ballet I and Folk dance. Subjects were assigned to experimental and control group. Experimental groups participated Modern dance I and II . The control group were students in Ballet I and Folk dance. In experiment 2 subjects were selected from again female New Paltz Suny students who enrolled in Modern dance II and Ballet II served as experimental group. Control group were students in six physical conditioning classes which included flexibility, warm-up, weigth resistance training and jogging.

At the end of the study; she has suggested that the means of modern dance I, ballet and folk dance groups were not significantly different from each other while the modern dance II mean was significantly different from the other three means in experiment 1. In experiment 2 there were no significant differences between modern dance II and ballet II means but significant differences was found for physical conditioning mean. In addition to that participation in modern dance experiences improved the body image. Physical conditioning classes changed more in a positive direction than they did for women in either ballet II and modern dance II groups. As a result

it is apparent that the several different dance conditions did not enhance body image.

Sugerman and Harronian (1964) have reported that participation in athletic activities might also have direct effect on their body image. Athletic subjects presumably have more defined concept of their body boundaries and of their bodies than subjects without athletic experiences (Whiting et.al ,1973).

In addition to that Rohrbacher (1973), Fowler (1988), Kirshnit (1989) were other researchers who investigated the effects of sport or exercise on body image. They have found that exercise has an effect on body image of individuals. In other words; they have concluded that significant relation between athletic involment and body image.

Special primigravida people were studied by Duyt (1990) . He has found that participation in regular aerobic exercise is predicted to result in a more positive body image.

2.2.7. Studies That Investigate the Relationship Between Fitness and Body Image

Many researcher have described significant relations between individual's physical fitness and body image. For example; Adame and Johnson (1989) have investigated the relationship of actual physical fitness scores and scores on body image and locus of control for male and female college freshman. The results of the study indicated that women were more positive about their physical appearance than men. Men were more positive about their physical fitness than women. Furthermore; women with positive fitness scores on body self relations were more physically fit and internal in their locus of control. For men positive physical fitness scores were associated with high scores on physical fitness and internal locus of control. Internally oriented men and women tented to view the physical fitness domain of their body image positively. Internally oriented women had more positive perceptions of health aspects of their body image. Lastly; for both men and women there is an association between actual physical fitness, body image and locus of control.

Armstrong and Armstrong (1968) suggested that a relationship exists between physical fitness and body image for adolescent girls but not for boys. They said

that reason for the differences were that boys are socially pressured to take an active part in physical activity and many will consequently develop a high level of fitness while being quite disinterested. Secondly, the greater emotional and physical development of high school girls over boys of same age group may be a compatible factor.

2.2.8. Studies That Investigate Relationship Between Body Type and Body Image

Silverstein and Robinson (1961) have conducted an experiment in which 30 boys and 30 girls were asked to estimate their heights and weights, their ideal heights and weights and to complete the draw a person test. Significant correlations were found between actual and estimated heights and weights indicating a linkage between body image and body structure (Whiting et al., 1973).

Fisher and Cleveland (1958) studied "somatotype and body image using Sheldon's somatotype measurements and Rorschach scores from 70 college students as a measure of barrier index. They have found that a relationship between barrier score and body type concluding that the barrier score is not determined by actual body characteristics using Sheldon's rating.

Fisher and Cleveland implied that the body image, as assessed by their Rorschach technique bears little resemblance to the individual's literal body characteristics because the way in which an individual experiences his body from the very beginning is a function of his family and social milieu. In a summary they stated that body type may elicit one sets of responses from one family and an entirely different sets of responses from another" (Whiting et. al , 1973).

2.2.9. Studies That Investigate Relation Between Self-Concept and Body Image

Most research has demonstrated a relation between self-concept and body image. For example; Lerner and Gellert (1969) has showed that a relation between physique type and self-concept; specifically "chubby" male children and adolescents have unfavorable attitudes toward their physique, while those with " average " physique shows positive attitudes toward their bodies. These findings suggest a more relation between body attitudes should have generally more positive self-concept than those with negative body attitudes.

Secord and Jourard (1953) developed a test which they called measures of body cathexis and self cathexis.

They hypothesized that the scores they obtained on this body cathexis scale would be related to manner in which their subjects expressed their feelings about the more general cathexis scale, which included items like life goals, morals, moods ability to meet people and similar more global components of the human personality. Their findings point to moderate relationship between the total self-concept and individual's feelings about their bodies. The correlation ranged from + .58 for men to +.66 for women. It was believed by Secord that women develop more anxiety about their bodies, and it was shown that they expressed less neutral feelings about the body parts than did men in their sampling (Cratty, 1979).

Another study about the relationship body image and self-concept was conducted by Rosen and Ross (1968). They have studied 82 undergraduate subjects to determine whether satisfaction for body parts score were related to measures of self-concepts or not. They have found that satisfaction with body image and self-concept are positively related and that their measurement can be refined if the subjective importance of component aspects is given consideration.

Zion explored the relationship between a self-concept scale and test designed to evaluate attitudes towards one's body. Using a sample of 200 college women,

he has found positive correlation between the subjects appraise about themselves as persons and the way they evaluated their bodies.

Many other studies have shown that body image is significantly related to global self-esteem such as Johnson (1956), Schwab and Harmeling (1968), Berscheid, Walster and Bohrnsted (1973). Thus, it is likely that body cathexis which measure attitudes of individual toward their bodies will be positively correlated with the total positive, physical self and personal self subscales of the Tennessee Self-Concept scale (Balogun, 1986).

Balogun (1986) has investigated the reliability and validity of the body cathexis scale testing of 50 female college students who completed the Tennessee Self-Concept scale and Body Cathexis scale. In other words; he has looked the relation between attitude toward body and subscale of self-concept. He has found that Body cathexis scale were significantly correlated with those on physical self, personal self, family self, social self and total positive but not with moral-ethical self or self-criticism.

Lerner, Karabenick and Stuart (1973) have studied 118 male and 190 female college students to measure feelings of satisfaction with 24 parts of their body and

related overall mean satisfaction to a measure of self-concept. Subjects rated 24 body characteristics in terms of (a) how satisfied they were with each of these characteristics of their own body; (b) how important each part was in determining their own physical attractiveness; (c) how important each part was in determining opposite sex physical attractiveness. In addition to, all subject responded to a short self-concept scale. The results of this study showed that both males and females rate the importance of the various body parts for both own and opposite sex physical attractiveness in a markedly similar way. Beside that mean satisfaction ratings were significantly related to self-concept among both males and females and different body parts were differentially significantly related to self-concept. Weighting satisfaction ratings by corresponding importance ratings did not increase the satisfaction self-concept relation; but male's mean importance of opposite sex body characteristics ratings were significantly related to self-concept, while the corresponding relation was not significant for females, and subject's physique type was not related to self-concept.

Another study was conducted by Lerner, Orlos and Knapp (1976). They have used 124 male and 218 female 19 year olds in the study; subjects rated 24 body

characteristics in terms of physically attractive and how physically effective they assumed these part to be. Subjects also responded to a short self-concept scale. It was expected that attractiveness attitudes should contribute more to the self-concepts of female than should effectiveness attitudes while reserve pattern of interrelatedness was expected for males. Female's self-concepts appeared more strongly related to their attitudes about their bodies physical attractiveness than its physical effectiveness.

The males data, however; appears to be consistent with an orientation towards physical effectiveness. The findings suggested that for males self-concept was more highly related to body attitudes pertaining to individual physical effective than interpersonal physical attractiveness. The correlation between the effectiveness rating of 24 body part items and male self-concept was 0.58 while the corresponding relation between the attractiveness ratings self-concept was 0.52 while the corresponding result between the effectiveness rating and self-concept was 0.37. The body parts found to be most significant predictors of the female self-concept were face, waist, bust, teeth and mouth. These were only significant when rated in terms of attractiveness. However; the prediction of male self-concept were body parts rated not in terms of attractiveness but of

effectiveness such as height, body build, thighs, mouth and width of shoulders.

Recently Thomas (1989) has studied 200 women to investigate the relationship among body image variables, weight, age, self-concept and personality variables. He has found that body size dissatisfaction strongly was associated with weight and food attitude variables. He suggested that body perceptions, awareness and attitudes can not be wholly subsumed under constructs such as self-concept or self-esteem. In addition to that he investigated the effects of self vs. other comparisons on body size satisfaction. The results indicated that social stereotype which has important consequences for both self-concept and body image in women.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURE

The purpose of this study was to find out the differences in self-concept and body image scores between high school male athletes and their non-athletes counterparts and to test the relationship between self-concept and body image for athletes and non-athletes groups.

3.1. RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY TESTING

3.1.1. Selection of Subjects

The reliability testing was conducted ,on the Harter Self-Perception Profile (HSPP) , using 197 Turkish high school male students. 197 Turkish high school male students were randomly selected from one of the school in Ankara which was randomly selected from all school represent middle socioeconomic status because the socioeconomic status is important variable that effect self-concept (Ersek, 1992; Marsh and Parker 1984). After selecting the school ,from each grade level (9, 10, 11)

three classes were randomly selected. HSPP for Adolescent was given to all male students in these three classes from each grade level.

3.1.2. Procedure

For reliability and validity testing , HSPP for Adolescent was translated from English to Turkish. The Turkish form of HSPP for Adolescent was translated by specialist to English back and was compared with original form. Then instrument was given to 3 specialist in psychology field to determine the validity of HSPP by face validity method.

To test the reliability of HSPP for Adolescent ; of instrument were administered to 225 high school male student from three different grade level in Baskent High school with " test- retest " method. The instrument was administered to subjects with two weeks interval to find reliability coefficient . First administration was done on 225 high school male students but final sample consisted 197 subject who completed second assessment.

3.2. STUDY

3.2.1. Selection of Subjects

174 high school male athletes and 174 high school male non-athletes were selected from eight high schools which represents the middle socioeconomic status in the city of Ankara. The male athletes were selected from school team from ninth, tenth and eleventh grade . 174 male athletes had been participating in football, basketball, volleyball, handball and track and field.

174 male non-athletes were randomly selected from the same school from ninth, tenth, eleventh grade with equal number of athletes.

3.2.2. Procedure

In this study data was collected by using three different instruments which were Self-Report Questionnaire, Body Image Questionnaire, Harter Self Perception Profile for Adolescent were administered by researcher to 174 male athletes and 174 non-athletes.

For athletes ; these three instrument were administered prior to practice sessions. For non_

athletes, tests were given in their physical education and sports course . All subjects were aware that they were in a study. All subjects were informed that the results were anonymous and confidential.

3.3. INSTRUMENTS

In this study 3 different data collection scale were used.

3.3.1. Harter Self Perception Profile For Adolescents (HSPP)

Self-concept was measured by an inventory entitled What Am I Like (Harter, 1988b). This instrument include 45 items designed to measure global self-worth and eight specific self-concept domains:

- a) Scholastic Competence
- b) Social Acceptence
- c) Athletic Competence
- d) Physical Apperance
- e) Job Competence
- f) Romantic Appeal
- g) Behavioral Conduct
- h) Close Friendship

Explanations of each of these domains are below:

1. Scholastic Competence (Sch): This subscale taps one's perception of his/her competence or ability within the realm of scholastic performance, e.g, how well he/she is doing at classwork, and how smart or intelligent one feels one is.

2. Social Acceptance (Soc): This subscale taps the degree to which one is accepted by peers, feels popular, has a lot of friends, and feels that he is easy to like.

3. Athletic Competence (Ath): This subscale taps one's perceptions of his or her athletic ability and competence at sports, e.g, feelings that one is good at sports and athletic activities.

4. Physical Appearance (Phy): This subscale taps the degree to which one is happy with the way he looks, likes one's body and feels that he is good looking.

5. Job Competence (Job) : This subscale taps the degree to which one feels that he has job skills, is ready to do well part-time jobs and feels good about work at the jobs he has.

6. Romantic Appeal (Rom) : This subscale taps teenager's perceptions that one is romantically attractive to those in whom he is interested, is dating the people he would like to be dating and feels that he is fun and interesting on a date.

7. Behavioral Conduct (Beh) : This subscale taps the degree to which one likes the way one behaves, does the right thing, acts the way one is supposed to, and avoids getting into trouble.

8. Close Friendship (Clo) : This subscale taps one's ability to make close friends that he can share personal thoughts and secrets with.

9. Global Self - Worth (Glo) : These items tap the extent to which one likes oneself as a person, is happy the way one is leading one's life and is generally happy with the way one is. Thus it constitutes a global judgement of one's worth as a person, rather than domain specific competence or adequacy.

The instrument yielded 9 separate scores. Items were written in a structured alternative format in which the subject first indicated which of two types of individuals he/she was most like and then whether this

likeness was sort of or really true. An example of this type of item follows:

Really True For Me	Sort of True For Me	Really True For Me	Sort of True For Me
--------------------------	------------------------	-----------------------	---------------------------

BUT

Some Teenager

Do Very Well

at All Kinds

of Sports.

Some Teenager

Don't Feel That

They are Very Good

When it comes to

Sports.

This structured alternative format has been recommended as a way of minimizing socially desirable responses (Harter, 1988b). Also, these four choice format provides more information than the traditional 2 choice formats (e.g., Like me-Unlike me; Yes-No).

The subscales each consisted of 5 items, scored on a 4 point scale in which of 1 indicated low perceived competence or adequacy and a score of 4 indicated high perceived competence or adequacy. Test manual

instructions required that the item scores within each domain be averaged to obtain the subscales scores. Thus each subscale was examined independently from the others.

The psychometric properties of What Am I Like, based on 4 separate studies of 177, 109, 180, and 123 subjects, respectively, are presented in the test manual (Harter, 1988b). Validity was established by factor analysis. The internal reliabilities for each scale (Cronbach alpha) ranged from .75 to .92. This instrument was selected because it met standard validity and reliability requirement and was consistent with self-concept theory that supports analysis of separate measures for each self dimension and the use of a global score that is not the sum of the other measures. Harter's (1983) theoretical constructs have gained widespread acceptance in physical education.

3.3.2. Bersheid, Walster, Bohrnstedt Body Image Questionnaire

Berscheid, Walters, and Bohrnstedt Body Image Questionnaire was used to assess individual satisfactions with body parts. This Questionnaire includes 6 subcomponents which are general appearance of body, face, body limits, trunk, chest and sexual organs. In its

original form; under sexual organs subcomponent 2 different items are found were appearance of sexual organs and size of sexual organs. This questionnaire was applied to turkish society by Figen Gökdoğan (1988) and she eliminated 2 different items and put only sexual organs in one item. In Berscheid, Walster and Bohrnstedt Questionnaire; there are two items about hips but in Gökdoğan's Questionnaire hip was taken as only one item. At the end of evaluations of Questionnaire by specialist there are 6 item on the General body appearance subscale, 9 items for girls on the face subscale and 10 items for boys on the face subscale; under the body limb there are 5 items, 3 items on trunk and chest, and sexual organs. As a result; 26 items for girls and 27 for boys are found in this scale. In Berscheid, Walster and Bohrnstedt Body Image Scale items are evaluated on 6 point scale. However; in this questionnaire 5 point scale are used- strongly satisfaction, satisfaction, undecided, dissatisfaction and strongly dissatisfaction. When the items turn to score strongly satisfaction 5, strongly dissatisfaction 1 point.

3.3.3. Self Report Questionnaire (SRQ)

The self report questionnaire was used to obtain individual information about subjects. This questionnaire was included followings items.

- Name of subjects,
- Surname of subjects,
- Class,
- Name of the school,
- Kind of sports that involved in school team,
- How many years of sports experiences subjects have,

3.4. ANALYSIS

In this study some descriptive statistics (mean, standart deviation, frequency) were done among athletes and non-athletes.

To find the test - retest reliability of the subscale of HSPP for 197 male high school subjects , the Pearson Product correlational statistical technique was used. The internal consistency of HSPP's subscale was found with Cronbach alphas technique.

In addition to that to test the hypothesis I and to find the differences in body image satisfaction between male athletes and non-athletes t- test statistical procedure was used.

Pearson Product Correlational technique was used to test the correlation between self-concept and body image satisfaction of high school male athletes and non-athletes.



CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

4.1. RELIABILITY OF HSPP

4.1.1. Descriptive Information

The number of subject who participated the reliability testing study from each grade level is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Number of Subjects at each grade level

GRADE	N	PERCENT
9	67	34.1 %
10	62	31.4 %
11	68	34.5 %
TOTAL	197	100 %

As it can be seen from Table 1; the pilot study sample included 67 (34.1 %) subjects from grade 9, 62 (31.4 %) male students from grade 10 and 68 (34.5 %) subjects from grade 11.

4.1.2. Mean and Standart Deviation of HSPP

Table 2 provides means and standart deviations for subscales of HSPP in both test I and test II.

Table 2. HSPP Subscales Mean and Standart Deviation for 197 High School Male Students

Subscales of HSPP	TEST I		TEST II	
	MEAN	SD	MEAN	SD
SCHOLASTIC COMPETENCE	2.7840	.6535	2.8670	.6439
SOCIAL ACCEPTANCE	2.8590	.6816	2.9090	.6822
ATHLETIC COMPETENCE	2.8170	.7054	2.8370	.6920
PHYSICAL APPEARANCE	2.7970	.7869	2.9080	.7142
JOB COMPETENCE	2.7640	.5882	2.7970	.6119
ROMANTIC APPEAL	2.5990	.6741	2.6350	.6833
BEHAVIORAL CONDUCT	2.9590	.6498	3.0140	.6468
CLOSE FRIENDSHIP	2.9430	.7471	2.9700	.7407
GLOBAL SELF-WORTH	3.0180	.6626	3.0880	.6570

It can be seen that, in general, the means of both Test I and Test II fluctuate around the value of 2.8 and 2.9, which is above the midpoint of the scale. In addition to that, the greater mean among subscale in both Test I and Test II were obtained from global self-worth subscale of HSPP. The standart deviations ranged from .5882 to .7869 for test I and .6119 to .7407 for test II.

4.1.3. Internal Consistency of HSPP

Internal consistency reliability was addressed for each of the subscale of HSPP using Cronbach's Alpha. Table 3 shows reliabilities of HSPP subscales for 197 high school male students.

Table 3. Coefficient Alphas for HSPP subscale

SUBSCALE	Coefficient Cronbach Alpha N= 197
Scholastic Competence	0.8196
Social Acceptance	0.8749
Athletic Competence	0.9059
Physical Appearance	0.8616
Job Competence	0.7808
Romantic Appeal	0.8338
Behavioral Conduct	0.7770
Close Friendship	0.8763
Global Self-worth	0.8246
TOTAL SCALE	0.8158

Cronbach alpha coefficients or internal consistency for nine subscales of HSPP for 197 high school male students was ranged from 0.77 (Behavioral Conduct) to 0.90 (Athletic Competence). In addition to that; cronbach's alpha for total scale was 0.81.

4.1.4. Test-Retest Reliability of HSPP

Test-retest reliability data was collected from the sample of 197 public high school students retested after two weeks. The results in Table 4 shows test-retest reliability coefficients. These give a range of .75 to .87 indicating that responses are quite stable over two week periods.

Table 4. Test-retest Reliability of HSPP subscales

SUBSCALES OF HSPP	Test-Retest Reliability N=197
Scholastic Competence	.78 *
Social Acceptance	.83 *
Athletic Competence	.87 *
Physical Appearance	.81 *
Job Competence	.75 *
Romantic Appeal	.77 *
Behavioral Conduct	.75 *
Close Friendship	.83 *
Global Self-worth	.79 *

* $p < .05$

4.1.5. Intercorrelations Among Subscales of HSPP

The correlation of general self-worth subscale with each of eight subscales consistently tend to be among highest, in the range between .39 to .64 for test I and .47 to .70 for test II (Table 5). Physical Appearance was the subscale which was consistently and highly related to self-worth (r's falling with the range of .64 and .70). There also appeared a cluster involving Social Acceptance, Romantic Appeal and Physical Appearance, in that all three subscales were moderately related to one another. Scholastic competence subscale was highly related Social Acceptance and Job Competence (r's of .55 and .57).

In addition to that; there were close relationship between athletic subscale and social acceptance and scholastic competence. The correlation between them considering both two test were .59 and .55. The behavioral conduct subscale was moderately related to global self-worth (r's of .55 for test 1 and .61 for test 2). From Table 5 it can be seen that close friendship subscale was highly related to social acceptance scale. r value between these two scale was .58 for test 1 and .62 for test 2.

Table 5. Intercorrelations Among Self-Concept Variables

SCALES	Scholastic Competence	Social Acceptance	Athletic Competence	Physical Appearance	Job Competence	Romantic Appeal	Behavioral Conduct	Close Friendship	Global Self-worth
Scholastic Competence	— (—)								
Social Acceptance	.44 (.55)	— (—)							
Athletic Competence	.41 (.59)	.51 (.55)	— (—)						
Physical Appearance	.43 (.49)	.49 (.53)	.43 (.39)	— (—)					
Job Competence	.51 (.57)	.47 (.57)	.40 (.45)	.44 (.44)	— (—)				
Romantic Appeal	.38 (.50)	.51 (.49)	.48 (.50)	.50 (.43)	.43 (.44)	— (—)			
Behavioral Conduct	.41 (.46)	.48 (.54)	.45 (.51)	.44 (.49)	.50 (.43)	.39 (.42)	— (—)		
Close Friendship	.46 (.56)	.58 (.62)	.35 (.49)	.49 (.46)	.53 (.54)	.55 (.56)	.37 (.44)	— (—)	
Global Self-Worth	.51 (.60)	.53 (.56)	.39 (.50)	.64 (.70)	.51 (.49)	.44 (.46)	.55 (.61)	.52 (.54)	— (—)

Note : Parenthetical Values are those of Test II

4.2. RESULTS THAT ARE RELATED WITH SELF-CONCEPT OF
ATHLETES AND NON-ATHLETES

4.2.1. Descriptive Information

HSPP was administered to 174 varsity school team athletes and 174 non-athletes counterparts. Distribution of 174 athletes and non-athletes to three grade level (9,10,11) are presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Number of Athletes and Non-athletes
at each grade level

G R A D E	ATHLETES		NON-ATHLETES	
	N	%	N	%
9	48	27.5 %	48	27.5 %
10	78	45 %	78	45 %
11	48	27.5 %	48	27.5 %
TOTAL	174	100 %	174	100

48 athletes and 48 non-athletes (27.5%) from grade 9, 78 athletes and 78 non-athletes (45%) from grade 10, 48 athletes and 48 non-athletes (27.5 %) from grade 11. As it can be seen that sample included equal number of athletes and non-athletes at each grade level.

4.2.2. Mean and Standart Deviations of Self-Concept Subscales For Athletes and Non-athletes

Table 7 shows means and standart deviations of self-concept scores for athletes and non-athletes.

The mean and standart deviation of non-athletes groups on HSPP were 2.77 ± 0.57 (Scholastic Competence), 2.82 ± 0.57 (Social Acceptance), 2.81 ± 0.60 (Athletic Competence), 2.76 ± 0.66 (Physical Appearance), 2.76 ± 0.56 (Job Competence), 2.60 ± 0.57 (Romantic Appeal), 2.90 ± 0.57 (Behavioral Conduct), 2.92 ± 0.62 (Close Friendship) and 2.86 ± 0.61 (Global Self-Worth).

Means and standart deviations of self-concept subscale for athletes were 2.78 ± 0.59 (scholastic competence), 2.99 ± 0.52 (social Acceptance), 3.00 ± 0.46 (Athletic Competence), 2.91 ± 0.50 (Physical Appearance), 2.74 ± 0.49 (Job Competence), 2.69 ± 0.65 (Romantic Appeal), 2.87 ± 0.57 (Behavioral Conduct), 3.05 ± 1.70 (Close Friendship), 2.96 ± 0.58 (Global Self-Worth).

Table 7. Means and Standart Deviations for HSPP Among Athletes and Non-athletes

SUBSCALES OF HSPP	ATHLETES N=174		NON-ATHLETES N=174	
	X	SD	X	SD
SCHOLASTIC COMPETENCE	2.78	.59	2.77	.57
SOCIAL ACCEPTANCE	2.99	.52	2.82	.57
ATHLETIC COMPETENCE	3.00	.46	2.81	.60
PHYSICAL APPEARANCE	2.91	.50	2.76	.66
JOB COMPETENCE	2.74	.49	2.76	.56
ROMANTIC APPEAL	2.69	.65	2.60	.57
BEHAVIORAL CONDUCT	2.87	.57	2.90	.57
CLOSE FRIENDSHIP	3.05	1.70	2.92	.62
GLOBAL SELF-WORTH	2.96	.58	2.86	.61

4.2.3. Comparison of Self-Concept Score Between Athletes and Non-athletes

T- test statistical procedure was done to determine whether self-concept of athletes were different than non-athletes counterparts on nine subscale of self-concept or not. The results of t-test are presented in following tables.

Scholastic Competence :

The mean, standart deviation and t value of athletes and non-athletes on scholastic competence are given in Table 8.

Table 8. Mean, standart deviations and t-value for Scholastic Competence Among Athletes and Non-Athletes

VARIABLE	GROUPS	N	X	Sx	SD	t
SCHOLASTIC COMPETENCE	NON-ATHLETES	174	2.77	.043	.571	-.19
	ATHLETES	174	2.78	.045	.596	

P > .05

The mean and standart deviation of scholastic competence subscale was 2.77 ± 0.57 for non-athletes and 2.78 ± 0.59 for athletes and t calculated equals to $-.19$ (p >.05), t-table value at 345 degrees of freedom on two tailed test at .05 confidence level was 1.960. Calculated t value was smaller than t table so there was no significant difference in scholastic competence scores among high school male athletes and non-athletes.

Social Acceptance :

The mean, standart deviation and t value of athletes and non-athletes on social acceptance subscale are presented in Table 9 .

Table 9 . Mean; Standart Deviation and t-value for Social Acceptance Among Athletes and Non-Athletes

VARIABLE	GROUPS	N	X	Sx	Sd	t
SOCIAL ACCEPTANCE	NON-ATHLETES	174	2.8287	.044	.576	* -2.87
	ATHLETES	174	2.9977	.039	.520	

* P < .05

The mean and standart deviation of social acceptance for two groups were 2.82 ± 0.57 for non-athletes and 2.99 ± 0.52 for athletes. t value was -2.87. T calculated value (-2.87) was greater than t table value (1.960 at .05 confidence level). Therefore; significant difference was obtained on social acceptance scale among athletes and non-athletes ($p < .05$).

Athletic Competence :

Table 10 shows the mean, standart deviation and t value of athletes and non-athletes on athletic competence subscale of HSPP.

Table 10. Mean, Standart deviation and t-value for Athletic Competence Among Athletes and Non-Athletes

VARIABLE	GROUPS	N	X	S _x	SD	t
ATHLETIC COMPETENCE	NON-ATHLETES	174	2.8138	.046	.606	* -3.30
	ATHLETES	174	3.0046	.035	.462	

* P < .05

As it can be seen that mean and standart deviation of athletic competence subscale was 2.81 ± 0.60 for non-athletes and 3.00 ± 0.46 for group of athletes. T value of athletic competence subscale among athletes and non-athletes was -3.30 ($p < .05$). According to t values, significant difference was revealed between athletes and non-athletes on athletic competence.

Physical Appearance :

The mean , standart deviation and t value of athletes and non-athletes on physical appearance subscale are given in Table 11.

Table 11. Mean, standart deviation and t-value for Physical Appearance Among Athletes and Non-athletes

VARIABLE	GROUPS	N	X	S _x	SD	t
PHYSICAL APPERANCE	NON-ATHLETES	174	2.7690	.051	.668	* -2.27
	ATHLETES	174	2.9126	.038	.501	

* P < .05

The mean and standart deviation of physical appearance subscale was 2.76 ± 0.66 for non-athletes and 2.91 ± 0.50 for athletes and t calculated value equal to -2.27 ($p < .05$). According to t value, significant difference was obtained in physical appearance score among high school male athletes and non-athletes.

Job Competence :

The mean, standart deviation and t value of athletes and non-athletes on job competence are presented in Table 12.

Table 12. Mean, standart deviation and t-value for Job Competence Among Athletes and Non-Athletes

VARIABLE	GROUPS	N	X	S x	Sd	t
JOB COMPETENCE	NON-ATHLETES	174	2.7678	.043	.566	.46
	ATHLETES	174	2.7414	.037	.493	

$P > .05$

The mean and standart deviation of two groups on job competence subscale were 2.76 ± 0.56 for non-athletes and 2.74 ± 0.49 for athletes. T value among athletes and non-athletes was .46. T calculated value was smaller than

table value (1.960 at .05 confidence level). Therefore, no significant difference was found among 174 high school male athletes and non-athletes ($p > .05$).

Romantic Appeal:

Table 13 represents the mean, standart deviation and t-value of romantic appeal for athletes and non-athletes.

It can be seen from Table 13, the mean and standart deviation of romantic appeal subscale was 2.60 ± 0.57 for non-athletes and 2.69 ± 0.65 for group of athletes. T value of romantic appeal subscale among athletes and non-athletes was -1.32 . According to t value , no significant difference was revealed between male athletes and non-athletes on romantic appeal subscale ($p > .05$).

Table 13. Mean, Standart Deviation, t-value for Romantic Appeal Among Athletes and Non-athletes

VARIABLE	GROUPS	N	X	Sx	Sd	t
ROMANTIC APPEAL	NON-ATHLETES	174	2.6057	.044	.575	-1.32
	ATHLETES	174	2.6931	.050	.654	

$P > .05$

Behavioral Conduct :

Table 14 reveals the mean, standart deviation and t value of behavioral conduct subscale for athletes and non-athletes.

Table 14. Mean, Standart Deviation, t-value for Behavioral Conduct Among Athletes and Non-Athletes

VARIABLE	GROUPS	N	X	S x	Sd	t
BEHAVIORAL CONDUCT	NON-ATHLETES	174	2.9011	.044	.578	.47
	ATHLETES	174	2.8724	.043	.573	

P > .05

According to Table 14, the mean and standart deviation of this subscale was 2.90 ± 0.58 for non-athletes while 2.87 ± 0.57 for athletes group. T value of this subscale was .47 ($p > .05$). Therefore; there was no significant difference in behavioral conduct between athletes and non-athletes.

Close Friendship :

The mean, standart deviation and t value of close friendship for athletes and non-athletes are presented in Table 15.

Table 15. Mean and Standart Deviation and t-value
for Close Friendship Among Athletes and
Non-Athletes

VARIABLE	GROUPS	N	X	S x	Sd	t
CLOSE FRIENDSHIP	NON-ATHLETES	174	2.9241	.047	.620	- .94
	ATHLETES	174	3.0540	.129	1.705	

P > .05

It can be seen that, the mean and standart deviation of close friendship subscale was 2.92 ± 0.62 for high school male non-athletes and 3.05 ± 1.70 for high school male athletes. T calculated value was $-.94$ ($p > .05$). According to t table value (1.960 at .05 confidence level) no significant difference was obtained among 174 high school male athletes and non-athletes.

Global Self-Worth :

Table 16 shows the mean, standart deviation and t value of global self-worth subscale for athletes and non-athletes.

Table 16. Mean, Standart Deviation and t-value
for Global Self-Worth Among Athletes
and Non-Athletes

VARIABLE	GROUPS	N	X	Sx	Sd	t
GLOBAL SELF-WORTH	NON-ATHLETES	174	2.8644	.047	.618	-1.53
	ATHLETES	174	2.9632	.045	.589	

P > .05

According to Table 16 the mean and standart deviation of non-athletes on this subscale was 2.86 ± 0.61 , on the other hands; mean and standart deviation of athletes was 2.96 ± 0.58 on global self-worth subscale. T value of athletes and non-athletes on this subscale was -1.53 ($p > .05$). T table value at .05 confidence level was 1.960 so t calculated value was smaller than table value and there was no significant difference in global self-worth scores among athletes and non-athletes.

4.3.RESULTS THAT ARE RELATED WITH BODY IMAGE SATISFACTION LEVEL OF ATHLETES AND NON-ATHLETES

4.3.1. Descriptive Statistic

Table 17 presents the means and standart deviations of 26 body part's satisfaction level and general mean &

standart deviation of these body parts for athletes and non-athletes from higher score to lower score in a sequential order.

It can be seen that scale's mean of body image satisfaction across all items was 4.1215 ± 0.50 for athletes and 4.0232 ± 0.58 for non-athletes. Data in this table have coded that ranged from "5" strongly satisfaction through "1" strongly unsatisfaction. According to this coding both athletes and non-athlete's body satisfaction level were satisfactory level (4).

In Table 17, it can be seen that for athletes; shoulders (4.39 ± 0.80) were most satisfactory body part, then sport ability (4.38 ± 0.79), eyes (4.31 ± 0.86), body color, arms and hands (4.29 ± 0.87 ; 4.29 ± 0.81 ; 4.29 ± 0.91) followed shoulder. Least satisfactory body part of athletes were facial appearance (3.85 ± 1.01) and teeth (3.79 ± 1.14).

For non-athletes; arms (4.27 ± 0.93) were most satisfactory body parts, chin (4.24 ± 0.86), eyes (4.23 ± 1.02), hands (4.21 ± 1.10), sports ability (4.20 ± 0.95) and feet (4.20 ± 0.97) followed arms. Least satisfactory body parts of non-athletes were sexual organs (3.71 ± 1.04) and muscle power (3.68 ± 1.09).

Table 17. Descriptive Data For Athletes and Non-Athletes On Body Image Questionnaire

ITEMS	ATHLETES N=174		NON-ATHLETES N=174	
	X	SD	X	SD
Shoulder	4.39	.80	Arm	4.27 .93
Sport Ability	4.38	.79	Chin	4.24 .86
Eye	4.31	.86	Eyes	4.23 1.02
Body color	4.29	.87	Hands	4.21 1.10
Arms	4.29	.89	Sport Ability	4.20 .95
Hands	4.29	.91	Feet	4.20 .97
Legsand ankles	4.26	.86	Legs & ankle	4.18 .97
Chin	4.22	.90	Mouth	4.17 .99
Ears	4.22	.91	Body Color	4.17 .99
Feet	4.22	.96	Shoulder	4.15 1.01
Chest & upper extrimities	4.20	.97	Hairs	4.13 1.10
Mouth	4.18	.91	Ears	4.10 .95
Body Position	4.18	.92	Hips	4.08 .96
Hair	4.17	.99	Body Position	4.07 .96
Body PartRatio	4.13	.99	Nose	4.04 1.09
Abdomen	4.10	.97	Abdomen	4.01 1.04
Hips	4.08	.99	Hairs on face	3.96 1.04
Height	4.07	1.09	Body partratio	3.95 1.06
Voice	4.01	1.06	Facial Apperance	3.94 1.10
Weight	3.98	1.13	Voice	3.94 1.14
Muscle power	3.94	1.03	Chest& Upper Extrimities	3.93 1.00
Nose	3.92	1.07	Height	3.90 1.27
Hair on face	3.90	1.03	Teeth	3.85 1.10
Sexual organ	3.89	.89	Weight	3.80 1.21
Facial Appear- ance	3.85	1.01	Sexual Organs	3.71 1.04
Teeth	3.79	1.14	Muscle Power	3.68 1.09
Scale mean & Sd across all Items	4.12	.50	Scale mean & Sd Across all Items	4.02 .58

F.C. YÜKSEKÖĞRETİM KURULU
DOKÜMAN TASTIQA 11/07/2017

4.3.2. Comparison of Athletes and Non-athlete's Body Image Satisfaction

To determine difference in body image satisfaction among athletes and non-athletes counterparts t-test statistical procedure was done by using both mean satisfaction score and each of 26 body part's satisfaction scores.

Table 18 shows t-test results of mean body image satisfaction score among athletes and non-athletes.

Table 18. Mean, Standart Deviation and t- value for Mean Body Image Satisfaction Among High School Male Athletes and Non-Athletes

VARIABLE	GROUPS	N	X	S _x	Sd	t
MEAN BODY SATISFAC-TION	NON-ATHLETES	174	4.0232	.044	.583	-1.98*
	ATHLETES	174	4.1215	.039	.509	

* P < .05

It can be seen that the mean and standart deviation was 4.023 ±0.58 for non-athletes and 4.21 ±0.50 for athletes. According to t value (t = -1.98); a significant difference was found between athletes and non- athletes on mean satisfaction scores (p < .05).

The mean , standart deviation and t value of each of 26 body characteristics for athletes and non-athletes are presented in Table 19.

Male athletes scored significantly higher than male non-athletes on muscle power ($t=-2.28$, $p < .05$), shoulders ($t= -2.41$, $p < .05$) and chest and upper extrimities ($t= -2.56$, $p < .05$). In addition to that; male athlete's scores were higher than non-athletes on body part ratio, body position, sport ability, body color, height, weight, hair,eyes, ears, mouth, arms, hands, legs and ankles, feet, abdomen, sexual organs and voice ; but these differences were non-significant ($p>.05$).

On the other hand; male non-athletes had higher score on facial appearance, nose, teeth, chin, hair on face than male athletes but, these differences were not significant ($P > .05$).

Table 19. T-test Results for Each Body
Characteristic Among Athletes
and Non-Athletes

ITEMS	NON-ATHLETES			ATHLETES			T-RATIO
	N	X	SD	N	X	SD	
Body part ratio	174	3.95	1.05	174	4.13	.98	-1.63
Body Position	174	4.07	.96	174	4.18	.91	-1.08
Sport Ability	174	4.20	.94	174	4.37	.79	-1.90
Body Color	174	4.14	.99	174	4.28	.86	-1.38
Muscle Power	174	3.67	1.08	174	3.93	1.03	-2.28 *
Height	174	3.90	1.27	174	4.07	1.09	-1.36
Weight	174	3.80	1.21	174	3.98	1.13	-1.42
Facial Appearance	174	3.93	1.09	174	3.85	1.00	.76
Hairs	174	4.13	1.09	174	4.17	.99	-.36
Eyes	174	4.22	1.02	174	4.31	.86	-.79
Ears	174	4.09	.94	174	4.22	.91	-1.27
Nose	174	4.04	1.09	174	3.91	1.07	1.04
Mouth	174	4.17	.99	174	4.18	.90	-.11
Teeth	174	3.85	1.10	174	3.79	1.13	.48
Voice	174	3.94	1.13	174	4.00	1.05	-.54
Chin	174	4.23	.85	174	4.22	.90	.12
Hair on Face	174	3.95	1.04	174	3.89	1.02	.57
Shoulders	174	4.14	1.00	174	4.38	.80	-2.41 *
Arms	174	4.27	.93	174	4.28	.89	-.18
Hands	174	4.20	1.09	174	4.29	.90	-.80
Feet	174	4.20	.97	174	4.22	.96	-.22
Abdomen	174	4.00	1.04	174	4.09	.96	-.85
Hips	174	4.08	.96	174	4.08	.98	.00
Legs and Ankles	174	4.17	.97	174	4.25	.85	-.82
Chest & Upper Ext	174	3.93	1.00	174	4.20	.96	-2.56 *
Sexual Organs	174	3.70	1.03	174	3.89	.89	-1.78

* P < .05

**4.4.RESULTS THAT ARE RELATED WITH RELATION BETWEEN SELF-
CONCEPT AND BODY IMAGE SATISFACTION AMONG
ATHLETES AND NON-ATHLETES**

**4.4.1. Correlation Between Mean Body Satisfaction and
Self-Concept For Athletes and Non-athletes**

Pearson Product Correlational statistical Procedure was done to determine the correlation between self-concept and body image satisfaction among athletes and non-athletes.

Table 20 shows the correlation between self-concept's subscales and mean body part satisfaction level of high school male athletes and non-athletes.

Table 20. Correlation Results Between Self-concept &
Mean Body Image Satisfaction For Athletes
and Non-Athletes

VARIABLE	GROUPS	Scholastic Competence r	Social Acceptance r	Athletic Competence r	Physical Appearance r	Job Competence r	Romantic Appeal r	Behavioral Conduct r	Close Friendship r	Global Self-Worth r
MEAN BODY SATISFAC- TION	NON-ATHLETES	.2298 **	.1674 *	.1621 †	.3430 **	.0774	.2162 **	.2224 **	.1406	.3462 **
	ATHLETES	.2230 **	.1331	.2125 **	.2872 **	.0884	.1089	.0177	.0577	.1879 †

* P < .05
** P < .01

According to Table 20 , for athletes there was significant correlation between mean body image satisfaction and scholastic competence ($r = .2230, p < .01$) athletic competence ($r = .2125, p < .01$), physical appearance ($r = .2872, p < .01$) and global self-worth ($r = .1879, p < .05$) while for non-athletes significant correlation was found between mean satisfaction for each body parts and scholastic competence ($r = .2298, p < .01$), social acceptance ($r = .1674, p < .05$), athletic competence ($r = .1621, p < .05$), physical appearance ($r = .3430, p < .01$), romantic appeal ($r = .2162, p < .01$), behavioral conduct ($r = .2224, p < .01$) and global self-worth ($r = .3462; p < .01$). Beside that; no significant correlation was found between mean body image and social acceptance, job competence, romantic appeal, behavioral conduct and close friendship for an athletes ; but for non-athletes , no significant correlation was obtained between body image satisfaction and job competence and close friendship ($p > .05$).

CHAPTER V.

DISCUSSION

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the differences in self-concept and body image satisfaction among high school male athletes and their non-athletes counterparts and to determine the relation between self-concept and satisfaction with body part for male athletes and non-athletes. In addition to that; another concerns in this investigation were to determine the reliability of Harter Self- Perception Profile (HSPP) for Turkish high school students .

The results of reliability testing indicated that HSPP is equally valuable for use with Turkish high school students. The reliability as assessed through indexes of internal consistency (cronbach alpha), was found to be acceptable. The coefficient alpha value was approximately similar to original value. Harter (1988b) has found the alphas for HSPP scales were ranged from .75 to .92. In this study alphas for HSPP scales were around 0.81 or higher except for the athletic competence scales, which had alphas of 0.90 and other subscale's alphas

ranged from .77 to .90 . This range approximately equal to Harter's results.

The test-retest coefficients of HSPP (range from .75 to .87) support the reliability of this test. According to Bloxom (1972) and Knapp (1976) " acceptable" test-retest correlations within a range of .55 to .85 (Waite et.al., 1990). Test-retest correlation for HSPP fell within that range (range from .75 to .87).

A similar subscale intercorrelations was found among subscales like manual value. The correlation among each specific domain and global self-worth are very high. The global self-worth subscale was highly correlated with physical appearance subscales which range from .64 to .70 was similar with original results (Harter,1988b). Also other subscale's correlations were found as approximately equal to Harter's (1988b) correlation results. As a result; HSPP provides a valuable instrument for research that investigate self-perceptions of Turkish high school students and teenagers.

As revealed by the results, participation in physical activity is related significantly to enhancement of the self-concept of high school males. High school male athletes scored higher than non-athletes on social acceptance, athletic competence and physical appearance

subscales of self-concept. The previous research support results of this study. For example; Vincent (1976) has found that college athletes had higher self-concept scores than non-athletes. Hawkins and Gruber (1982) showed that self-concept of junior high school boys increased over the course of baseball season.

On the other hand, many studies conducted by using different self-concept scale to determine differences in self-concept among athletes and non-athletes. For instance; Salokun (1990b), Schumaker et.al. (1986) have found that significant differences in self-concept scores among high school athletes and non-athletes by using Tennessee Self-Concept Scales. Also some differences were found in self-concept scores among athletes and non-athletes on Piers-Harris Self-Concept Scale by Guyot et.al. (1981). Guyot et.al. have concluded that sport participation of boys significantly correlated with increasing in all self-concept subscale's score of Piers-Harris Self-Concept scale. The present studies findings are similar to above studies. The findings of this study showed that there were significant differences in three subscales of HSPP (soc, ath, phy) among athletes and non-athletes.

In addition to that; the results of present study was supported by results of Smith (1986), Hoffman

(1986), Snyder and Spreitzer (1986) and Ibrahim and Morrison's (1976) studies. However; the findings of this study were dissimilar with the studies of Magill and Ash (1976), Manning (1990) and Tiryaki and Morali (1992).

According to jasnoski et.al. (1981) participation to physical activity program changes self-concept of individual. He (1981) suggested that " the changes in self-concepts were due to personal or social factors associated with the physical activity program such as group participation, expectancies". Therefore; differences in social acceptance scores between athletes and non-athletes may results from these aspects of physical activity program. Physical activity program or sports participation offers the oppurtunity of being needed, wanted and accepted by others through the team and group activities. This situation may be another reason for difference in social acceptance scores among athletes and non-athletes.

In addition to that ; the social institution of sports which involves the learning of skills in games can offer variety of stimulating interpersonal situations and ingredients for feeling good. The dynamic interplay of human personalities in physical education and sports programs characteristics the association between the students, peer and instructor or coaches. Therefore; this

process is an important for development of social scheme of individual and self-concept (Salokun, 1990a). Beside that Kenyon, McPherson (1972) and Snyder and Spreitzer (1974) have focused that social processes, interaction with significant others, and modeling that socialize one into the sports role. In reality both socialization via sport and into sport occurs. Thus; differences between athletes and non-athletes are likely to be function of both selection of certain types of athletics and the socialization consequences of this participation (Snyder and Spreitzer, 1976). These explanations explain the reason for differences in social acceptance scores among high school male athletes and non-athletes.

Many researcher (Miller,1989; Koacher,1971) have suggested that the acquisition or mastery of new skill often enhances self-concept. Rehearsing a skill already mastered can help retain the present self-concept and may improve it . For example; Miller (1989) has said that participation in sports programm is important to individual and improvement in skill can lead to increase in self-concept. Like Miller (1989) and Koacher (1971); Aronson et.al. (1962), Hellinson (1970) Kay (1972) and McGlenn (1976) have concluded that " there is a positive relationship between ability in physical activity, sports and the development of positive self-concept " (Salokun, 1990a). Physical education and sports programmes provide

the acquisition of skills. This evidence may explain the reason of difference in athletic competence scores among athletes and non-athletes.

Another significant difference was obtained in physical appearance scores among athletes and non-athletes. Pangrazi (1982) have said that physical appearance is a significant predictor of self-concept. In addition to that Wylie (1961) explored " the theoretical importance of person's bodily characteristics and their role in the development of self-concept " (Guyot et. al., 1981). Beside that most of the studies showed that athletes were more satisfied with their appearance than non-athletes (Gökdoğan,1988 ; Can, 1990). Participation to athletic activity provide a muscular body appearance for participant. Tucker (1982b; 1983b) and Salokun (1991) have found that individual who had muscular looking (mesomorphic body build) had higher scores on self-concept scales. As a result ; the differences in physical appearance among athletes and non-athletes may be explained by this evidence.

Another results of present study revealed that there was significant differences in mean body satisfaction scores among athletes and non-athletes. The general implication of previous studies that mean satisfaction scores of athletes with their body characteristics were

higher than non-athletes. For instances; Gökdoğan (1988) has found that male and female high school students who participated physical activity programs had higher mean body image satisfaction score than non-participant counterparts. Bucaria (1989) also has found significant difference between female athletes and non-athletes on body attractiveness scores. In addition to that ; Snyder and Kivlin (1975) have found similar results. The results of this study support the result of present investigation.

Beside that the scores of high school male athletes and non-athletes on 26 body parts were compared with t-test statistical procedure. The results of t-test showed that male athletes scored significantly higher than male non-athletes on muscle power, shoulders and chest and upper body. Male athlete's scores were higher than non-athletes on body part ratio, body position, sport ability, body colour, height, weight, hairs, eyes, ears, mouth, arms, hands, feet, abdomen, legs and ankles, sexual organs and voice but these differences were non significant. These results were supported by Gökdoğan's (1988) results. She has found that male students who participated physical activiy programm were more satisfied from their muscle power, shoulders, sport ability, height, eyes, mouth, teeth, arms, legs and ankles than non-participants. As it can be seen that

there was significant difference between athletes and non-athletes on scores of muscle power; shoulders, chest and upper body which are important elements of sport activity. The scores of athletes also was higher than non-athletes on sport ability that is another important elements of sport activity; but difference was not significant.

Many researcher stated that attitudes toward the body are important aspects of self-concept (Lerner & Gellert, 1969; Lerner et al., 1973; Rosen and Ross, 1968). Several studies have investigated the relationship variety of body attitude scale and different self-concept scale on male and female subjects from different developmental period such as college age, adolescence. For example; Zion (1965) explored the relationship between a self-concept scale (Bell's Index of Adjustment and Values) and test designed to evaluate attitudes toward one's body. Using sample of 200 college women, he has found a positive correlation between the subjects appraise themselves as a persons and the way they evaluated their bodies. Beside that Balogun (1986) has investigated the relation between attitude toward body and subscale of Tennessee Self-Concept scale. He has concluded that body cathexis scale was significantly correlated with physical self, family self, social self and total positive self but not with moral- ethical self

or self-criticism. In addition to these studies, many other studies have shown the significant relation between body image and global self-esteem (Secord and Jourard, 1953; Rosen and Ross, 1968; Rohrbacher, 1973). However; there were no studies which have determined the relation between subscale of HSPP and body image satisfaction for group of athletes. As a result; the present study was designed to determine the relation between subscales of HSPP and body image satisfaction for high school male athletes and non-athletes.

The results on body image and self-concept indicated that there was significant correlation between four subscales of self-concept (scholastic competence, athletic competence, physical appearance, global self-worth) and mean body image satisfaction for 174 high school male athletes. The findings suggest that the individuals who exhibited positive body image tended to be more confident in school, athletic events and general life than individuals with negative body image. The findings of this study also suggested that as body image improves a person's sense of adequacy worth in his athletic ability, in school and work of general life. On the other hand; there were significant correlation between seven subscales of self-concept (except; Job competence and close friendship) and mean body image satisfaction for high school male non-athletes. The

results of present study were consistent with Balogun's results. He has found significant relations between physical self, personal self, global self, social self, family self and body image. The findings of present study showed that non-athletes feel themselves as more confident in school, in athletic event, social life, general life and in romantic events. According to this results body image increase, a person's sense of adequacy worth in his social interaction with peers. These results also indicated that body image was not related to job competence and close friendship for non-athletes.

In sum; the results of present study indicated that participation to sport events have psychological effect. This effect causes some differences in different psychological constructs such as self-concept and body image among athletes and non-athletes.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

CONCLUSIONS

Within the scope and limitations of this study and based on the null hypothesis statements, the results have suggested following conclusions :

1. There was a significant difference in social acceptance, athletic competence and physical appearance subscales of self-concept between high school male athletes and non-athletes at .05 confidence level.

2. There was significant difference in mean body image satisfaction between high school male athletes and non-athletes at .05 confidence level.

3. There was a significant difference in satisfaction level of muscle power, shoulders, chest and upper extremity and among athletes and non-athletes at .05 confidence level.

4. There was a significant correlation between mean body image satisfaction and scholastic competence, social acceptance, athletic competence, physical appearance, romantic appeal, behavioral conduct, global self-worth subscales of self-concept for high school male non-athletes.

5. There was a significant correlation between mean body image satisfaction and scholastic competence, athletic competence, physical appearance, global self-worth subscales of self-concept for high school male athletes .

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. It is recommended that HSFP should be used to develop the norm for Turkish high school students.

2. It is recommended that difference in self-concept and body image satisfaction among athletes belonging to different sport branch and different year of sports experience should be investigated.

3. It would be better to determine the self-concept of athletes prior to athletic participation.

4. It is recommended that situation specific self-concept scales should be used to determine differences in self-concept among athletes and non-athletes.

5. It would be better to use elite level of athletes to determine difference in self-concept and body image among athletes and non-athletes.

6. It is recommended that difference in self-concept and body image satisfaction between female athletes and non-athletes should be investigated.

7. It is recommended that sex differences in self-concept and body image satisfaction should be investigated among both athletes and non-athletes.

8. It is recommended that relationship between self-concept and body image satisfaction should be investigated among athletes belonging to different subgroups such as different sport branches, individual sport athletes versus team sport athletes, female athletes versus male athletes and different year of sport experiences.

REFERENCES

- Adame, D.D., Thomas C.L., and Stevens P.L., 1989. "Physical Fitness, Body Image, and Locus of Control in College Freshman Men and Women", Perceptual and Motor Skills, 68, 400-402.
- Anshell, M.H., Douglas M. & Virginia L.O., 1986. "Effect of A Sports Camp Experience on The Multidimensional Self-Concepts of Boys", Perceptual and Motor Skills, 63, 363-366.
- Armstrong, H.E. & Dollie C. Armstrong, 1968. "Relation of Physical Fitness To A Dimension of Body Image", Perceptual and Motor Skills, 26, 1173-1174.
- Balogun, J.A., 1986. "Reliability and construct validity of the Body cathexis scale", Perceptual and Motor Skills, 62, 927-935.
- Balogun, J.A., 1987. "Body Image Before and After Assessment of Physical Performance ", Journal of Sport Medicine and Physical Fitness, 27, 343-344.

Bıyıklı, Latife, 1989. Bedensel Özürlü Çocukların Benlik Kavramı (Aile Kabul Düzeyi Açısından), Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi, Ankara.

Blackman, L., Garry Hunter, Jim Hilyer and Peg Harrison, 1988. " The effects of Dance Team Participation On Female Adolescent Physical Fitness & Self-Concept ", Adolescence XXIII (90),437-447.

Bothwell, J. Harman, 1989. " The Effects of An Aerobic Exercise Program on Self-Concept, Health, Locus of Control and Health Related Behaviors of Zuni Indians", Dissertation Abstracts International,50,6, 2613 (B).

Bowers, K. S., 1973. "Situations in Psychology : An Analysis and Critique ", Psychological Review, 80, 307-336.

Brane,R. and Marvin Reznikoff, 1989." Strength Gains, Locus of Control and Self Description of College Football Players", Perceptual and Motor Skills, 69, 483-493.

- Brown, Rebecca D. and Joyce M.H.,1986." The Effects of a Strength Training Program On The Strength and Self-Concept of Two Female Age Groups",Research Quarterly For Exercise and Sport, 57,4,315-320.
- Brown, E.Y., James R. Morrow, and Stephen M. Livingston, 1982. "Self-Concept Changes In Women As a Result of Training", Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 4,354-363.
- Bucaria, L.J., 1989. " The Relation of Sport Status To Body Image, Self-Esteem and Fearfulness in High School Adolescents " , Dissertation Abstract International, 50(9), pp.3086-A.
- Burn, Robert,1982. Self-Concept Development & Education, Holt; Rinehart and Winston, Newyork.
- Can,G., 1990. Lise Öğrencilerinin Benlik Tasarımlarını Etkileyen Etmenler, Anadolu Üniversitesi Yayınları, Eskişehir.
- Cocklin, J.C.,1988. " The Effects of Physical Fitness and Body Cathexis on Self-Concept Change in Women After Aeorobic Conditioning " , Dissertation Abstracts International, 49(19),4594-B.

Collingwood, Thomas R. & L. Willet, 1971. " The Effects of Physical Training Upon Self-Concept and Body Attitude ", Journal of Clinical Psychology , 27, 411-412.

Combs, A.W., & Donald Snygg, 1959. Individual Behavior: A Perceptual Approach To Behavior, Revised Edition, Harper and Row Company, Newyork.

Cratty, Bryant, 1979. Perceptual and Motor Development in Infants and Children, Second Edition. Prentice Hall, New Jersey.

Duyst, J.B., 1990. "The Relationship Between Exercise and Body Image In Primigravida", Dissertation Abstracts International, Mai.29(3),435.

Ersek, İrfan, 1992. "İşitme Engelli Öğrencilerin Benlik Kavramlarının İncelenmesi " , Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Ankara Üniversitesi ; Sosyal Bilimler Fakültesi.

Felker, D.W. and R.S. Kay, 1971. " Self-Concept, Sports Interests, Sports Participation, and Body Type of Seventh and Eight Grade Boys", The journal of Psychology, 78,223-228.

Fowler, E.M., 1988. "Body image of Female Aerobic Dancers and Nonexercising Women." Dissertation Abstracts International, 49, 08, 3488-B.

Fox, K., 1988. "The Child Perspective in Physical Education : The Self-Esteem Complex ", The British Journal of Physical Education , 19(6), 247-252.

Fox, K.R. and D. Corbin, 1989. "Physical Self- Perception Profile : Development and Preliminary Validation", Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 11, 408-430

Fox, K. R. ,1990. The Physical Self-Perception Profile, Manual, University of Northern Illinois.

Gallahue, D. L., 1982. Understanding Motor Development in Children , John Willey and Sons, Newyork.

Geçtan, E., 1981. Psikaanaliz ve Sonrası, Hür Yayıncılık, İstanbul.

Gökdoğan, F., 1988. "Orta Öğretime Devam Eden Ergenlerde Beden İmajından Hoşnut Olma Düzeyi", Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Ankara Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü.

Gyot, Gary W., Louis Fairchild, Mary Hill, 1981. " Physical Fitness, Sport Participation, Body Build, and Self-Concept of Elementary School Children " , International Journal of Sport Psychology, 12, 105-6.

Gysin, Oliver John, 1989. " Effects of A Weight Training Conditioning Program on the Self-Concepts of Selected Male Students", Dissertation Abstracts International, 50(07), pp.3204-B.

Hallinon, Christopher, Edgar E. Pierce, Jan E. Evans, Jane D. De Greiner, Fredrick F. Andres, 1991. " Perceptions of Current and Ideal Body Shape of Athletes and Non-Athletes", Perceptual & Motor Skills, 72, pp.123-130.

Hamacheck, D. E., 1971. Encounters with the Self, Holt, Rinehart and Winston; Inc., Newyork.

Hamacheck, D.E., 1978. Encounters with the Self, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Newyork.

Harter, S., 1983. Developmental Perspectives on the Self-System. In M. Hetherington (Ed.), Handbook of Child Psychology , Vol.4, Socialization, Personality and Social Development, John Willey, Newyork.

Harter, S., 1985. Self- Perception Profile For Children ,
Manual, University of Denver.

Harter, S, 1986. Processes Underlying the Construction,
and Enhancement of the Self-Concept in children. In
J. & Suls, A. G. Greenwald (Eds.) , Psychological
Perspectives on the self (Vol.3), Lawrence Erlbaum
Associates, Hillsdale N.J.

Harter,S., 1987. The determinants and mediational role of
global Self-Worth in children. In N. Eisenberg (Ed),
Contemporary topics in developmental Psychology,
John Wiley & Sons , Newyork.

Harter, S.,1988a. Issues in the assessment of the Self-
Concept of Children and Adolescents. In A. La Greca
(Ed.); Childhood Assessment : Throungh the Eyes of
child. 292-235. Allyn and Bacon, Newyork.

Harter, S., 1988b. The Self-Perception Profile For
Adolescent, Manual, University of Denver.

Harter, S., 1989 a. Processes Underlying Adolescent Self-
Concept Formation. In R. Montemayor (Ed), Advances
In Development, Vol.2:The Transition From Childhood
to Adolescence, Sage, Newyork.

Harter, S., 1989b. Adolescent Self and Identity Development. In S. Feldman and G. Elliot (Eds.), At The Threshold : The Developing Adolescent, Harvard University Press, Cambridge.

Harter, S., 1990. Causes, correlates and the functional role of global Self-Worth: A life span perspective. In J. Kolligan and R. Sternberg (Eds.), Perceptions of Competence and incompetence across the life span, pp. (67-98). Yale University Press, New Haven.

Hatfield, B.D., P. Vaccaro and G.J. Benedict, 1985. "Self-Concept Responses of Children To Participation In An 8 Week Precision Jump Rope Program", Perceptual & Motor Skills, 61, 1275-1279.

Hawkins, D.B. and J.J. Gruber, 1982. " Little League Baseball and Player's Self-Esteem ", Perceptual and Motor Skills, 55, 1335-1340.

Hilyer, J.Cand, W. Mitchell, 1979. " Effect of Systematic Physical Fitness Training Combined With Counseling On the Self-Concept of College Students ", Journal of Counseling Psychology, 26,5,427-436.

Hoffman, A., 1986. " Competitive Sport and The American Athlete : How much is Too Much? ", International Journal of Sport Psychology, 17,390-397.

Hurlock, E.B., 1964. Child Development. 4th Edition, McGraw Hill Book Company, Newyork.

Ibrahim, H. and N. Morrison, 1976. " Self-Actualization & Self-Concept Among Athletes." The Research Quarterly, 47, 1, 68-79.

Josnoski, M.L., D.S. Holmes, S. Salamon & Chris Aguiar , 1981. " Exercise Changes in Aeorobic Capacity and Changes in Self - Perceptions : An Experimental Investigation", Journal of Research In Personality, 15, 460-466.

Kirshnit, C.E., 1989. "Athletic Involvement During Early Adolescence: Factors Affecting Sports Participation and The Effects of Athleticism on Perceptions of the Self", Dissertation Abstracts International, 50, 07, 3187-B.

Koacher, G.P. 1971. " Swimming, Competence and Personality Change, " Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 18(3), 275-278.

Koyuncu, N., 1979. " Üstün Yetenekli Öğrencilerin Benlik Tasarımı ve Rehberlik Hizmetleri ", Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Ankara Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü.

Lawson, M.C., 1980. "Development of Body Built Stereotypes, Peer Ratings & Self-Esteem In Australian Children", The Journal of Psychology, 104, 111-118.

Lee, J.M., 1988. "An Investigation of the Effects of Selected Physical Education Activities Upon Self-Concept of College Students ", Dissertation Abstract International, 49 (10), 2963- A.

Lerner, R.M. and E. Gellert, 1969. " Body Built Identification, Preference & Aversion in Children", Development Psychology , 1, 456-462.

Lerner , R.M. Stuart A.K., Doyce L.S., 1973. " Relations Among Physical Attractiveness, Body Attitudes and Self-Concept in Male and Female College Students", Journal of Psychology, 85, 119-129.

Lerner, R.M., Dames B.O., and John R.K., 1976. " Physical Attractiveness, Physical Effectiveness and Self-Concept in Late Adolescent", Adolescence, 11, 43, 313-326.

Magill, R.A., and Michael J.A., 1979. " Academic, Psycho-Social, and Motor Characteristic of Participants and Non-participants in Children's Sport", Research Quarterly, 50, 2, 230-240.

Manning, F.A., 1990. "The Relationship of Self-Concept, Sex Role Orientation and Locus of Control Between Female Athletes and Non-athletes with Further Investigation of Birth Order, Commitment, and Influencing Agent Among The Athletes", Dissertation Abstracts International ,51 (8), 2684-A.

Marsh, H. W. et.al., 1983. "Self-Concept : The Construct Validity of Interpretations Based Upon SDQ ", Journal of Personality and Social Psychology ,45(1) 173-187.

Marsh ,H.W. et.al., 1984." Self Description Questionnaire: Age & Sex Effects In the Structure and Level of Self-Concept for Preadolescent Children ", Journal of Educational Psychology, 76(5), 940-956.

Marsh ,H.W. and J.W.Parker, 1984. "Determinants of Student Self-Concept : Is it Better to be a Relatively Large Fish in a Small Pond Ever If You Don't Learn to Swim As well? ", Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 47, 213-231.

Marsh, H.W. et.al., 1985. "Self-Other Agreement on Multidimensional Self-Concept Ratings : Factor Analysis & Multitrait-Multimethod Analysis ", Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 49(5), 1360-1377.

Marsh, H. W., 1986. " Global Self-Esteem :Its Relation To Specific Facets of Self-Concept and Their Importance ", Journal of Personality and Social Psychology , 51 (6), 1234-1236.

Marsh , H . W., et. al., 1986. " Multidimensional Self Concepts : The Effect of Participation In An Outward Bound Program", Journal of Personality and Social Psychology , 50 (1),195-204.

Marsh, H.W. and N.D. Peart, 1988. "Competitive and Cooperative Physical Fitness Training Programs for Girls : Effects on Physical Fitness and Multidimensional Self-Concepts", Journal of Sports and Exercise Psychology, 10, 390-407.

McCandless, B.R., 1970. Adolescents Behavior and Development , The Dryden Press, Illinois.

Mc Gowan, R.W., Boyd O.J., & Darhl M.P., 1974. " Effects of a Competitive Endurance Training Program On Self-Concept & Peer Approval", The Journal of Psychology 86,57-60.

Miller-Berryman ,S., 1988. " Dance/Movement : Effects on Elderly Self-Concept",Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance, May-June , 42-46.

Miller, Rosalie, 1989. " Effect of Sports Instruction on Children Self-concept ", Perceptual and Motor Skills 68, 239-242.

Nash, J., 1970. Developmental Psychology : A Psychobiological Approach , Prentice Hall, New Jersey.

O'Donoghue , R.K., 1989. " A causal Analysis of the Interrelationship Among Physical Fitness, Body Esteem, Perception of Fitness and Self-Concept For Female Participants of Non-Competitive Sport", Dissertation Abstracts International, 50(8), 2424-2425-A.

Olszewska, G. 1982. " The Relation of a Self-image, Self-Estimation and a Tendency To Dominate Or To Submit The Effectiveness of the Performance of Team Players", International Journal of Sport Psychology, 13, 107-113.

O'Neill, M.P. 1989. " Physical Self-Concept and Psychological Mood State : Their Relationship to Aerobic Exercise ", Dissertation Abstract International , 50(10), 4780-B.

Öner, U., 1982. " Benlik Kavramı ile Mesleki Benlik Kavramı Arasındaki Farkın Akademik Başarı ile İlişkisi ", Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi, Ankara Üniversitesi.

Öner, Ugur , 1985. " Benlik Gelişimine İlişkin Kuramlar",
Ergenlik Psikolojisi (icinde), Derl. ve Yayınlayan
B. Onur. Hacettepe Taş Kitapçılık , Ankara.

Pangrazi, Robert, 1982. " Physical Education, Self-
Concept and Achievement. Journal of Physical
Education Recreation and Dance, November/ December,
16-18

Plummer,O.K. and Young O K. , 1987. " Effects of Aerobic
on Self-Concepts of College Women ", Perceptual and
Motor Skills, 65, 271-275.

Polsom- Meek ,S.L., 1991." Relationships Among, Attributes
Physical Fitness, and Self-Concept Development of
Elementary School Childrens ", Perceptual and Motor
Skills , 73,2,379-383.

Pothak , N., Kumar A. and Thakur G.F., 1985." Self-Esteem
In Individual Athletes, Team Members , and Non-
Athletes ", Perceptual and Motor Skills, 61-178.

Puretz , S.L., 1982. " Modern Dance's Effect On The Body
Image ", International Journal of Sport Psychology,
13,176-186.

Rohrbacher, R., 1973. " Influence of A Special Camp Program For Obese Boys on Weight Loss, Self-Concept, and Body Image ", Research Quarterly, 744, 2, 151-157.

Rosen , G.M. and Alan O.R., 1968. " Relationship of Body Image to Self-Concept ", Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 32, (1), 100.

Salokun, S. O., 1990a. " Effects of Training in Basketball and Field Hockey Skills on Self-Concepts of Nigerian Adolescents" , International Journal of Sport Psychology , 21, 121-137.

Salokun, S.O., 1990b. "Comparison of Nigerian High School Male Athletes and Non-athletes on Self-Concept ", Perceptual and Motor Skills , 70, 865-866.

Salokun , S.O., 1991. " Perceived Somatotype As Related to Self-Concept in Nigerian Adolescent High School Students ", Journal of Sports Medicine and Physical Fitness, 31, 4, 611-617.

Schmidt , R.J. , 1988. " The Effects of Shotakan Karate Training on Self-Concept and Eastern Cultural Value Orientation of College Men and Womens ", Dissertation Abstracts International, 49 (10), 2952-2953-A.

Schumaker , J.F., Linwood S. and Jacey W., 1986. " Self-Concept, Academic Achievement and Athletic Participation ", Perceptual & Motor Skills, 62,387-390.

Secord, P.F. and S.M. Jourard, 1953. " The Appraisal of Body Cathexis : Body Cathexis and The Self ", Journal of Counselling Psychology , 36, 343-347.

Shavelson, R.J. and R. Bolus, 1982. " Self-Concept : The Interplay of Theory and Methods " , Journal of Educational Psychology , 74 (1), 3- 17.

Sherill , C., Omar H. and Alma J.C.,1989. " Fitness, Attitude Toward Physical Education and Self-Concept of Elementary School Childrens ",Perceptual & Motor Skills, 69, 411-414.

Smith, T.L. , 1986. " Self-Concepts of Youth Sport Participants & Non-Participants in Grades 3 and 6 ", Perceptual and Motor Skills, 62,863-866.

Snyder , E.E. and J.E. Kivlin, 1975. " Women Athletes and Aspects of Psychological Well Being & Body Image ", The Research Quarterly , 46,2,191-199.

Synder , E.E. and E. Spreitzer, 1976. " Correlates Sport Participation Among Adolescent Girls ",The Research Quarterly , 47,4,804-809.

Sonstroem, R.J., 1974. " Attitude Testing Examining Certain Psychological Correlates of Physical Activity ", Research Quarterly, 45, 93-103.

Sonstroem, R.J. , 1984. " Exercise and Self-Esteem ",
In Exercise and Sport Sciences Reviews, 12,123-155.

Sonstroem ,R.J. and W.F. Morgan , 1989. " Exercise and Self-Esteem : Rationale and Model ", Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise , 21 (3) 329-337.

Spencer, P. and S. Tordoff, 1983. " Age, Self-Concept and The Adult Student " , National Institution of Adult Education, 56 (3),256-258.

¹²Stein, P.N. and R.W. Motta, 1992. " Effects of Aerobic & Nonaerobic Exercise on Depression & Self-Concept ",
Perceptual and Motor Skills , 74, 79-89.

Thomas, Cherly Dawne, 1989. " Body Image & Self-Concept In Women : Toward An Emprical Identification of the Body Image Constructs ", Dissertation Abstracts International, 50(04), pp. 1679-B.

Tiryaki , M.S. and S. Moralı, 1992. " Sportif Katılımın Liseli Sporcuların Benlik Saygısı Üzerine Etkisi ", Spor Bilimleri Dergisi, 3,1, pp. 1-9.

Trujillo , Carla M., 1983." The Effect of Weight Training and Running Exercise Intervention Programs on the Self-Esteem of College Women ",International Journal of Sport Psychology , 14pp. 162-173.

Tucker , Larry A. ,1982a. " Effect of A Weight Training Program on the Self-Concepts of College Males ", Perceptual & Motor Skills , 54, pp. 1055-1061.

Tucker, L. A. , 1982b . " Relationship Between Perceived Somatotype and Body Cathexis of College Males ", Psychological Reports , 50,983-989.

Tucker , L.A. , 1983a. " Effect of Weight Training on Self-Concept : A Profile of Those Influenced Most ", Research Quarterly For Exercise and Sport,54,4, 389-397.

Tucker, L.A., 1983b. " Self-Concept: A Function of Self-Perceived Somatotype ",The Journal of Psychology, 113, 123-133.

Tucker , L.A., 1983c." Muscular Strength : A Predictor of Personality in Males ", Journal of Sports Medicine & Physical Fitness ,23, 213-219.

Tucker, L.A.,1987. " Effect of Weight Training on Body Attitude : Who Benefits Most ", Journal of Sports Medicine , 27, 70-78.

Türkmen , Figen, 1989. " Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Benlik Kavramı ", Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Ankara Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü.

Vincent, M. F., 1976. " Comparison of Self-Concepts of College Women: Athletes and Physical Education Majors", Research Quarterly, 47,218-225.

Waite, B.T.; B. Gansneder and R.J. Rotella, 1990. " Sport Specific Measure of Self-Acceptance", Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology,12,264-279.

Watkins , D. and E. Astilla , 1986. " Causal Dominance Among Self-Concept, Locus of Causality, and Academic Achievement." The Journal of Psychology, 120,6, 627-633.

Watkins, D. and M. Regmi, 1987-1989. " A Nepalese Investigation of the Antecedents of Self-Esteem ", Psychology and Human Development , 2 (2), 49-54.

Whiting, H.T.A., K.Hardman, L.B.Hendry, M.G. Jones, 1973.

Personality and Performance in Physical Education & Sport. Henry Kimpton Publisher, London .

Wylie, R.C., 1974. The Self-Concept : A Review of Methodological Consideration and Measuring Instrument, University of Nebraska Press, Lincoln.

Wylie, R.C., 1979. Self-Concept: Theory and Research on Selected Topics , Vol.2, revised Edition, University of Nebraska Press, Lincoln.

Young , M.L. , 1985. " Estimation of Fitness and Physical Ability, Physical Performance and Self-Concept Among Adolescent Females ", Journal of Sport Medicine and Physical, Fitness , 25, 144-150.

¹⁹Zion , L.C., 1965. " Body Concept As It Relates to Self-Concept ", The Research Quarterly , 36,4, 490-495.



APPENDICES

APPENDIX A. INSTRUMENTS

KİŞİSEL BİLGİ FORMU

1. Adınız:
2. Soyadınız:.....
3. Sınıfınız:.....
4. Okulunuzun Adı:
5. Cinsiyetiniz:
6. Okul takımınızın lisanslı sporcusu musunuz?

EVET ()

HAYIR ()

Eğer cevabınız evet ise 7., 8. soruları cevaplandırınız.

7. Aşağıdaki spor branşlarından hangisine katılıyorsunuz?

Futbol ()

Yüzme ()

Basketbol ()

Hentbol ()

Voleybol ()

Güres ()

Atletizm ()

Cimnastik ()

Diğer(belirtiniz)

8. Kaç yıldan beri bu spor branşı ile uğraşıyorsunuz?

.....

APPENDIX B

BEDEN BÖLGELERİNDEN ve ÖZELLİKLERİNDEN HOŞNUT OLMA

ÖLÇEĞİ

ACIKLAMA:

Bu araç, sizin beden bölgelerinizden ve özelliklerinizden hoşnut olup olmadığınızı ve ne derece hoşnut olduğunuzu belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Sıra ile belirtilen beden bölgelerinizden çok hoşnut iseniz "son derece hoşnutum" hoşnut iseniz "oldukça hoşnutum", söz konusu beden bölgenizden hoşnut olup olmama konusunda bir fikriniz yok ise "kararsızım", hoşnut değilseniz "hoşnut değilim", hiç hoşnut değilseniz "hiç hoşnut değilim" seçeneğinin altındaki boşluğu işaretleyiniz. Lütfen hiç bir maddeyi boş bırakmamaya çalışınız.

ÖRNEK: Ten rengi maddesinde, ten renginizden hiç hoşnut değilseniz "hiç hoşnut değilim" ifadesinin altındaki boşluğu işaretleyiniz.

son derece	oldukça	kararsızım	pek hoşnut	hiç hoşnut
hoşnutum	hoşnutum		değilim	değilim

() () () () ()

Acıklamalar:

Beden Oranları : Bir insanın bedeninde gövde, kol, bacak ve ayakların birbiri ile oranları.

Bedenin Duruşu: Bir insanın boyunu belli edecek genel görünümü, endam.Dik yada eğik, kambur vb. duruşlarla ilgilidir.

BEDEN BÖLGELERİNDEN VE ÖZELLİKLERİNDEN HOŞNUT OLMA ÖLÇEĞİ
(ERKEKLER)

	Son Derece Hoşnutum (5)	Oldukça Hoşnutum (4)	Karar- sızım (3)	Fek Hoşnut Değilim (2)	Hiç Hoşnut Değilim (1)
BEDENİN GENEL GÖRÜNÜMÜ					
Beden Oranları:	()	()	()	()	()
Bedenin Duruşu:	()	()	()	()	()
Spor Yeteneği :	()	()	()	()	()
Ten Rengi :	()	()	()	()	()
Kas Gücü :	()	()	()	()	()
Boy :	()	()	()	()	()
Kilo :	()	()	()	()	()
<u>YÜZ</u>					
Yüz Güzelliği :	()	()	()	()	()
Saçlar :	()	()	()	()	()
Gözler :	()	()	()	()	()
Kulaklar :	()	()	()	()	()
Burun :	()	()	()	()	()
Ağız :	()	()	()	()	()
Dişler :	()	()	()	()	()
Ses :	()	()	()	()	()
Çene :	()	()	()	()	()
Yüzdeki Kıl Mik:	()	()	()	()	()
<u>BEDEN ÜYELERİ :</u>					
Omuzlar :	()	()	()	()	()
Kollar :	()	()	()	()	()
Eller :	()	()	()	()	()
Ayaklar :	()	()	()	()	()
<u>GÖVDE</u>					
Karın :	()	()	()	()	()
Kalçalar :	()	()	()	()	()
Bacak ve Bilekler :	()	()	()	()	()
<u>GÖĞÜSLER VE</u>					
ÜST BÖLGE :	()	()	()	()	()
CİNSEL ORGANLAR:	()	()	()	()	()

APPENDIX C

HARTER SELF-PERCEPTION FOR ADOLESCENTS

ACIKLAMA

Aşağıda kendinizi düşünerek cevaplayabileceğiniz bir dizi farklı davranış biçimlerini belirten cümleler verilmektedir. K.T.O. Fatih Eğitim Fakültesi Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Bölümü tarafından yürütülen bu araştırmada sizlerin yardımlarınıza gerek duyulmuştur. Bu bir test değildir, bu nedenle önceden belirlenmiş doğru ve yanlış cevap anahtarı yoktur. Her birey diğerinden farklı olduğundan herbirinizin aşağıdaki cümlelere farklı cevap vermesi doğaldır.

Sayfanın üst kısmında bir örnek verilerek bu cümleleri nasıl cevaplayabileceğiniz anlatılmaktadır. Bu örnekte 2 farklı grup gençten söz edilmektedir. Sizden beklenen kendinizi bu 2 farklı gruptan hangisine daha yakın bulduğunuzu belirtmenizdir. Bir başka deyişle; hangi grup gence daha çok benzemekte olduğunuzu ifade etmenizdir.

Bu ayırımı yaptıktan sonra 2. aşamada bu benzemenin size ne derece (tamamen, oldukça) uyduğunu belirlemeniz gerekmektedir. Eğer bu gruplardan birine tamamen benzediğinizi düşünüyorsanız "tamamen bana uygun" ifadesinin altını işaretleyiniz. Eğer bu gruplardan birine oldukça benzediğinizi düşünüyorsanız bu kez de "oldukça bana uygun" ifadesinin altını işaretleyiniz. Her bir cümle için ifadelerden yalnızca birini işaretleyin. Bu işaret bazen sayfanın bir tarafında bazense diğer tarafında yer alacaktır.

Araştırmada sizin değerlendirmelerinizden yararlanabilmemiz için listedeki tüm cümlelerin boş bırakılmadan derecelendirilerek işaretlenmesi gerekmektedir. Bu derecelendirmeyi yaparken dürüst ve açık olmanız, geçerli bir değerlendirme yapılmasına yardımcı olacaktır.

Sizlerden sağlanan veriler bu araştırma çerçevesinde kalacak, başka bir amaçla ya da araştırmanın dışındaki kimselerce kullanılmayacaktır.

Göstereceğiniz ilgi ve özene çok teşekkür ederim.

	Tam bana uygun	Bana oldukça uygun			Tam bana uygun	Bana oldukça uygun
7-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler genellikle doğru davranırlar. FAKAT	Diger gençler sıklıkla doğru bildikleri şekilde davranmazlar.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler gerçek yakın arkadaşlıklar kurabilirler. FAKAT	Digerleri için gerçek yakın arkadaşlıklar kurmak güçtür.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler sıklıkla kendilerinden hoşnut değillerdir. FAKAT	Diger gençler kendilerinden oldukça hoşnuturlar.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler okul ödevlerini bitirmede oldukça yavaşlar FAKAT	Diger gençler okul ödevlerini daha çabuk yapabilirler	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençlerin birçok arkadaşı vardır FAKAT	Diger gençlerin ise çok fazla arkadaşları yoktur	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler herhangi yeni bir spor etkinliğini hemen en iyi biçimde yapabileceklerini düşünürler FAKAT	Diger gençler yeni bir spor etkinliğini iyi yapamayacaklarından korkarlar	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler bedenlerinin farklı olmasını isterler FAKAT	Digerleri bedenlerinin şu anki durumundan hoşnuturlar	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler bir işi yapabilecek yeterli becerilere sahip olduklarını hissederler FAKAT	Diger gençler bir işi yapabilecek becerilere sahip olduklarını hissederler	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler gerçekten çekici buldukları kişilerle çıkmazlar FAKAT	Diger gençler çekici buldukları kişilerle çıkarlar	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazılarının davranışları nedeniyle başları sık sık derde girer FAKAT	Digerleri genellikle başlarına dert açacak davranışlarda bulunmazlar	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Tam bana uygun	Bana oldukça uygun			Tam bana uygun	Bana oldukça uygun	
17-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençlerin sırlarını paylaşabilecek yakın arkadaşı vardır.	FAKAT	Diger gençlerin sırlarını paylaşabilecek gerçek yakın arkadaşları yoktur	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler sürdürmekte oldukları yaşam biçimlerinden hoşnut değillerdir.	FAKAT	Digerleri ise sürdürmekte oldukları yaşam biçimlerinden hoşnutlardır	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler sınıf çalışmalarını çok iyi yaparlar	FAKAT	Diger gençler sınıf çalışmalarını çok iyi yapamazlar	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençleri sevmek çok güçtür	FAKAT	Diger gençleri sevmek ise gerçekten kolaydır	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler sporda diğer yaşitlarından daha iyi olduklarını düşünürler	FAKAT	Diger gençler baskaları kadar iyi oynayamayacaklarına inanırlar	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler fizik görünümünün farklı olmasını isterler	FAKAT	Diger gençler sahip oldukları fiziki görünümelerinden memnundurlar	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler kendilerini para karşılığında bir işi üstlenebilecek ve sürdürebilecek yaşta hissederler	FAKAT	Digerleri kendilerini bir işi gerçekten iyi yapabilecek yaşta hissetmezler	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler yaşitlarının kendilerini duygusal yönden çekici bulacaklarına inanırlar	FAKAT	Diger gençler yaşitlarının kendilerini çekici bulup bulmayacaklarından endişelidirler	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler davranış biçimlerinin gerçekten iyi olduğuna inanırlar	FAKAT	Diger gençler çoğunlukla davranış biçimlerinin iyi olduğuna inanırlar	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler birşeylerini paylaşabilecek gerçek yakın arkadaşını olmasını arzular	FAKAT	Diger gençlerin birşeylerini paylaşabilecekleri yakın arkadaşları vardır	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Tam Bana
bana oldukça
uygun uygun

Tam Bana
bana oldukça
uygun uygun

- 27- Bazı gençler çoğu zaman kendilerinden hoşnutlar FAKAT Diğer gençler sıklıkla kendilerinden hoşnut değildirler
- 28- Bazı gençler okulda, soruları yanıtlamakta zorlanırlar FAKAT Diğer gençler hemen hemen her zaman yanıt bulabilirler
- 29- Bazı gençler yaşlıları arasında popülerdir FAKAT Diğer gençler pekde popüler değildir
- 30- Bazı gençler kendileri için yeni olan açık hava oyunlarını iyi yapamazlar FAKAT Diğer gençler ise bu yeni oyunlarda hemen başarılı olurlar
- 31- Bazı gençler güzel olduklarını düşünürler FAKAT Diğer gençler ise güzel görünmediklerini düşünürler
- 32- Bazı gençler para karşılığı çalıştıkları bir işi daha iyi yapabileceklerini düşünürler FAKAT Diğer gençler para karşılığı yapmekte oldukları işi gerçekten iyi yapacaklarını düşünürler
- 33- Bazı gençler kendilerinin karşı cinsle olan ilişkilerinde ilgi çekici ve eğlenceli olduklarını düşünürler FAKAT Diğer gençler ise karşı cinsle olan ilişkilerinde nasıl ilginç ve eğlenceli olabileceklerini merak ederler
- 34- Bazı gençler yapmaları gerektiğini bildikleri şeyleri yaparlar FAKAT Diğer gençler ise yapmaları gerektiğine bildikleri şeyleri yapmazlar
- 35- Bazı gençler gerçekten güvenilebilir arkadaşlık kurmayı zor bulurlar FAKAT Diğerleri ise gerçekten güvenilir yakın arkadaşlıklar kurabilirler
- 36- Bazı gençler kendileri gibi kişilerden hoşlanırlar FAKAT Diğer gençler ise sık sık başka birisi gibi olmayı isterler

Tam bana uygun	Bana oldukça uygun		FAKAT		Tam bana uygun	Bana oldukça uygun	
37-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler oldukça zeki olduklarını düşünürler	FAKAT	Diger gençler kendi kendilerine zeki olup olmadıklarını sorarlar	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
38-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler toplumda kabul edildiklerine inanırlar	FAKAT	Diger gençler ise vasıtalarından çoğunun kendilerini kabul etmelerini isterler	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
39-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler pek atletik olduklarını düşünmezler	FAKAT	Diger gençler kendilerinin atletik olduklarına inanırlar	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
40-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler kendi görünümlerinden gerçekten hoşlanırlar	FAKAT	Diger gençler ise daha farklı görünmeyi isterler	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
41-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler para karşılığı yürütülen bir işi üstlenebilmeye gücüne sahip olduklarını hissederler	FAKAT	Digerleri ise bu işi yapmaları gerektiği kadar iyi yapıp yapmadıklarından emin değillerdir	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
42-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler genellikle birlikte olmaktan gerçekten hoşlanacakları kişilerle birlikte olmazlar	FAKAT	Diger gençler ise gerçekten birlikte olmak istedikleri kişilerle birlikte olurlar	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
43-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler genellikle kendilerinden beklenen biçimde davranırlar	FAKAT	Diger gençler ise çoğunlukla kendilerinden beklenen biçimde davranmazlar	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
44-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençlerin gerçekten kişisel düşüncelerini paylaşabilecek yakınlıkta arkadaşı yoktur	FAKAT	Diger gençlerin ise kişisel duygularını ve düşüncelerini paylaşabilecekleri yakın arkadaşı vardır.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
45-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler hallerinden çok mutludurlar.	FAKAT	Diger gençler farklı olmayı dilerler.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**T.C. YÜKSEKÖĞRETİM KURULU
DOKÜMANTASYON MERKEZİ**