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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SOCIAL PHYSIQUE ANXIETY and SELF-CONFIDENCE: A RESEARCH ON ELITE ICE HOCKEY PLAYERS

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to examine the relationship between social physique anxiety and self-confidence in elite ice hockey players. This research is quantitative research and has been prepared according to the principles of the screening model. The population of the research consists of 221 ice hockey players who played in the Turkish Ice Hockey Federation U18 and U20 leagues in the 2020-2021 season. The research sample consists of 112 ice hockey players selected by convenience sampling method from the specified universe. In the study, the personal information form including questions about the demographic information of the participants, the social appearance anxiety scale developed by Hart et al., (2008) and adapted to Turkish by Doğan (2010), and the self-confidence scale developed by Akın (2007) were used. Cronbach Alpha coefficients were used for the reliability of the measurement tools, and the skewness and kurtosis values were examined for the normality distribution of the data. Pearson Correlation Analysis was used to determine the relationship between social physique anxiety and self-confidence, while differences between groups were determined by independent sample t-test and OneWay Anova. In the study, it was observed that there was a statistically significant difference in the social physique anxiety scale only according to the gender variable, while no significant difference was found in any of the other variables and scales. In addition, it was observed that there was a low-level negative relationship between social physique anxiety and self-confidence levels of elite ice hockey players.

Keywords: Social physique anxiety, self-confidence, ice hockey players

INTRODUCTION

Humans are social beings and social acceptance is one of the most important motivation sources for humans (Arkin, 1981). People generally want to look good physically and make a positive impression on others because a good appearance in social life provides various advantages both psychologically and socially (Urbatsch, 2018). Therefore, physical appearance has always had an important place in social life. While a good physical appearance is an advantage, physical dissatisfaction can cause discomfort. The realization that others evaluate one's body negatively is defined as social physique anxiety. Social physique anxiety is a type of anxiety that arises when one's physical appearance is or is likely to be evaluated by others, and it is especially related to the physical characteristics of the person such as body structure, shape, body fat ratio, and muscle structure (Hart et al., 1989). Fields related to physical activity such as sports, exercise, and physical education are also social in nature, and the form and function of the body are of great importance in these environments. For this reason, social physique anxiety has been a frequently studied subject in areas related to physical activity (Sabiston et al., 2014). Hart et al. (1989) stated that social physique anxiety is related to body image and body dissatisfaction. However, developing literature has revealed a wide variety of dimensions of the subject. Social physique anxiety has been discussed in many different sample groups, associating it with eating behaviors, body dissatisfaction, dating anxiety, self-esteem and self-presentation (Crawford & Eklund, 1994; Lantz et al., 1997; Niven et al., 2009; Eriksson et al., 2008; Hagger & Stevenson, 2010; Russell & Cox, 2003; Sicilia et al., 2016; Schlenker & Leary, 1982). Studies have reported that social physique anxiety can lead to a number of harmful psychological and physiological consequences, from eating disorders to depression, from the urge to be thin to cosmetic surgery (Mohammadi et al., 2015; Krane & Ark., 2001; Brianne, 2014; Alcaraz-Ibanez & Sicilia, 2020).

Self-confidence is probably one of the most important factors for people striving for excellence in sports or trying new activities (Graydon, 1997). While Feltz (1988) defines self-confidence as *"one's belief that they can achieve a goal successfully"*, Ferguson (1996) defines self-confidence as *"one's belief that they know how to do something and that they have the ability to achieve something"*. In other words, people are in a continuous learning process and gain various ideas about their abilities through the decisions they make. Beliefs developed regarding these abilities are defined as self-confidence (Park et al., 2007). Self-confidence is one of the psychological factors that is thought to affect sports performance and is called the most critical cognitive factor in sports (Gill, 1986). In sports literature, the most common concept used in relation to the concept of self-confidence is Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory. Bandura defines self-efficacy as *"beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations"*. In other words, while self-efficacy is mostly used to express one's belief about one's abilities to perform a certain activity or achieve a certain result, self-confidence is defined as one's general beliefs about one's own abilities (Bandura, 1995; Graydon, 1997). In other words, while self-confidence is a more general expression of belief in success, self-efficacy refers to self-confidence stemming from a skill specific to a particular field (George, 1994).

The most basic psychological variable for success in sports is self-confidence. When athletes feel safe, they are more ready to transform their sportive potential into high performance (Kuloor & Kumar, 2020). Confident athletes have full faith in what they can achieve. In this respect, they strive to obtain the physical and mental skills that need to be fulfilled. Athletes who lack self-confidence doubt whether they are good enough or whether they have the necessary qualifications for success (Plakona et al., 2014). For this reason, athletes constantly endeavour to make their self-confidence levels stable and resistant in order to regulate the ups and downs in their performance and to overcome negative situations that may affect their performance such as being injured or suspended (Bačanac et al., 2011) because self-confidence is one of the most important elements for sustainable success in sports. In a study conducted by La Fratta et al., (2021) to measure some physiological and psychological parameters that occur in athletes before the competition, it was seen that the self-confidence levels of the team athletes who won the competition were significantly higher in the pre-competition measurements compared to the team athletes who lost the competition. In a study conducted by Lengkana et al., (2018), it was found that self-confidence had a 20% effect on the success of elite athletes. Although it is believed that success increases self-confidence, the opposite is often true: good performance is a "result" of self-confidence. In other words, self-confidence is both the cause and the result of success in sports (Plakona et al., 2014).

It is stated that people with high self-confidence have lower general anxiety levels, are more successful in coping with stress, and have higher job and life satisfaction (Ireland et al., 1992). In addition, it is stated that high self-confidence increases athletes' motivation levels and reduces anxiety symptoms making it easier for them to manage their emotional reactions, (Lundqvist et al., 2011; Siekanska & Wojtowicz, 2020; Junli et al., 2021). Self-confidence is the most consistent factor in distinguishing between highly successful and less successful athletes. People who believe in their abilities and have high self-confidence experience less anxiety. Moreover, when anxiety levels rise, they tend to interpret it as encouraging rather than discouraging (Plakona et al., 2014). In a study conducted by Wiggins et al., (2005) to determine the anxiety and burnout levels of female ice hockey players and football players, it was found that female ice hockey players and football players with high self-confidence had lower anxiety levels. In a study conducted by Javaid et al., (2016) on elite athletes to examine the effect of anxiety and self-confidence on sportive performance, it was found that anxiety and self-confidence are predictors of sportive performance. The aim of this study is to examine the relationship between social physique anxiety and self-confidence in elite ice hockey players. Studies in which multidimensional psychological analyzes are carried out in ice hockey are rarely encountered in literature (Géczi et al., 2008). In the literature review, no other study on social physique anxiety and self-confidence levels of ice hockey players was found. The problem statement of this research is "Is there a relationship between social physique anxiety and self-confidence levels of elite ice hockey players?" has been a question. The sub-problems of the research are as follows:

- 1- Do the social physique anxiety and self-confidence levels of elite ice hockey players differ according to gender?

- 2- Do the social physique anxiety and self-confidence levels of elite ice hockey players differ according to age?
- 3- Do the social physique anxiety and self-confidence levels of elite ice hockey players differ according to the duration of doing licensed sports variable?

METHOD

Research model

This research is quantitative research and has been prepared according to the principles of the screening model. In the scanning model, a past or present situation is tried to be revealed in its current form. Data such as “documents, statistics, images, or pictures” are tackled and interpreted within a system (Karasar, 2020). In quantitative research, “phenomena are objectified by abstracting from the processes and factors in their environment”. Then, these phenomena are converted into observable and measurable units (Erdoğan, 2003), allowing the comparison and interpretation of the relationships between different groups or variables (Büyükoztürk et al., 2016).

Study group

The population of the research consists of 221 ice hockey players who played in the Turkish Ice Hockey Federation U18 and U20 leagues in the 2020-2021 season. The universe calculation of the relevant leagues is calculated according to the league status of the Turkish Ice Hockey Federation and the number of teams in the league (TBHF, 2022). The sample of the study consists of 112 ice hockey players selected by convenience sampling method from the specified universe. The study was filled out by the participants through the online form. Before the study, the "clarified consent form" was read by the participants, and those who agreed to participate in the study were included in the study. Participant information is given in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic variables

Variables	Subgroups	Frequency	%
Gender	Female	51	45,5
	Male	61	54,5
Age	Ages 17 and under	85	75,9
	Ages 18 and over	27	24,1
Duration of Doing Licensed Sports	3 years and less	46	41,1
	Between 4-6 years	38	33,9
	7 years and above	28	25
Total		112	100

Data collection tools

In the study, a personal information form including questions about the demographic information of the participants, social physique anxiety scale, and self-confidence scale were used. The social physique anxiety scale was developed by Hart et al., (2008) and adapted to Turkish by Doğan (2010) along with its validity and

reliability. The "Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale" was used for the concordance validity of the social physique anxiety scale and the correlation between the two scales was found to be .60. For the reliability of the scale, the Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient was checked, and the Cronbach Alpha coefficient for the whole scale was calculated as .93. The scale, which was prepared in a 5-point Likert type, consists of a single dimension of 16 items. The lowest 16 and the highest 80 points can be obtained from the scale. A high score on the scale indicates high social physique anxiety, while a low score indicates low social physique anxiety. The self-confidence scale, which was developed, and found valid and reliable by Akın (2007) was prepared in 5 Likert type and consists of 33 items and 2 sub-dimensions. The "Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory" was used for the congruent validity of the self-confidence scale and the correlation coefficient between the two scales was found to be .87. For the reliability of the scale, the Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient was checked, and the Cronbach Alpha coefficient for the whole scale was calculated as .91. The lowest 33 and the highest 165 points can be obtained from the scale. A high score on the scale indicates a high level of self-confidence, and a low score indicates a low level of self-confidence. There is no reverse-scored item in any of the scales.

Data analysis

In the research, the analyzes were analyzed through the SPSS package program. Before the analysis, missing or incorrect forms were determined and excluded from the study. Skewness and Kurtosis were used for the normal distribution of the data, and Cronbach's Alpha (α) values were used for representation. As a result of the normality test, Skewness (.228) and Kurtosis (.453) values changed between -2 and +2, and it was determined that they showed normal distribution in the past (Şencan, 2002). Reliability analysis, on the other hand, was made separately for the overall scales and sub-dimensions. The Cronbach's Alpha (α) value of the social perspective measure was found (.963). While Cronbach's Alpha (α) coefficient was found (.960) for the overall self-confidence structure, it was established as (.927) for the internal self-confidence sub-dimension and (.923) for the external self-confidence measure. It shows that corridors obtained from Cronbach's Alpha (α) coefficients are in high perception (Kayış, 2013). The normality and visual test results of the data are given in Table 2. In the study, the independent sample t-test was used to determine the differences between paired groups, OneWay ANOVA test was used to determine the differences between multiple groups, and the LSD test was used to determine from which group the significant difference originated. In the study, Pearson correlation analysis was conducted in order to determine whether there is a significant relationship between social physique anxiety and self-confidence levels of elite ice hockey players and to determine the direction and strength of this relationship. The margin of error in the study was taken as 0.05. Ethics committee approval was obtained for the study with the ethics committee decision of Ankara University Ethics Committee dated 29.11.2021 and numbered 19-215.

Table 2. Findings of Normality and Reliability

Scales	N	Skewness	Kurtosis	(α)
Social Physique Anxiety Scale	112			,963
Self-Confidence Scale	112	,228	,453	,960
Self-Confidence Scale Sub-Dimensions	N			
Internal Self-Confidence	112			,927
External Self-Confidence	112			,923

FINDINGS

The data obtained from the scale were analyzed according to the demographic variables of elite ice hockey players. Tables related to the data obtained as a result of these analyzes are given below.

Table 3. t-test Findings by Gender Variable

Scales	Gender	N	\bar{x}	SD	t	df	P*
Social Physique Anxiety Scale	Female	51	2,39	1,01566	2,716		,008*
	Male	61	1,91	,85593			
Self-Confidence Scale	Female	51	4,02	,75791	,217	110	,828
	Male	61	3,99	,66052			
Internal Self-Confidence	Female	51	3,95	,80053	,074		,941
	Male	61	3,94	,67955			
External Self-Confidence	Female	51	4,08	,74310	,360		,719
	Male	61	4,03	,69674			

(P* $<$ 0,05).

Table 3 shows that, according to the gender variable, the overall self-confidence scale [t=,217, p<0.05], the internal self-confidence sub-dimension [t=,074, p<0.05] and the external self-confidence sub-dimension [t=,360, p<0.05], no significant difference was found. In the social physique anxiety scale, it was determined that female's social physique anxiety levels (\bar{x} =2.39) were higher than male's (\bar{x} =1.91) [t= 2.716, p<0.05].

Table 4. t-test Findings by Age Variable

Scales	Age	N	\bar{x}	SD	t	df	P*
Social Physique Anxiety Scale	Ages 17 and under	85	2,17	,97266	,734		,464
	Ages 18 and over	27	2,01	,91935			
Self-Confidence Scale	Ages 17 and under	85	3,97	,74434	-,761	110	,448
	Ages 18 and over	27	4,09	,55796			
Internal Self-Confidence	Ages 17 and under	85	3,91	,77351	-,880		,377
	Ages 18 and over	27	4,06	,59060			
External Self-Confidence	Ages 17 and under	85	4,03	,75341	-,577		,565
	Ages 18 and over	27	4,12	,58680			

(P* $<$ 0,05).

Table 4 shows that, it is seen that none of the scales and subscales according to the age variable (general social physique anxiety scale [t=,734, p<0.05], overall self-confidence scale [t=-,761, p<0.05], internal self-confidence subscale dimension [t=-.880, p<0.05] and external self-confidence sub-dimension [t=-,577, p<0.05]) no statistically significant difference was found.

Table 5. Anova Test Results According to Duration of Doing Licensed Sports

Scales	Groups	\bar{x}	Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F	P*	Difference (LSD)
Social Physique Anxiety Scale	3 Years and Less (a)	2,12	100,956 101,942	2 109 111	,493 ,926	,532	,589	-
	Between 4-6 years (b)	2,24						
	7 years and Above (c)	2,00						
Self-Confidence Scale	3 Years and Less (a)	3,97	54,814 54,922	2 109 111	,054 ,503	,107	,899	-
	Between 4-6 years (b)	4,00						
	7 years and Above (c)	4,05						
Internal Self-Confidence	3 Years and Less (a)	3,92	59,418 59,752	2 109 111	,167 ,545	,306	,737	-
	Between 4-6 years (b)	3,91						
	7 years and Above (c)	4,04						
External Self-Confidence	3 Years and Less (a)	4,03	56,747 56,804	2 109 111	,028 ,521	,054	,947	-
	Between 4-6 years (b)	4,08						
	7 years and Above (c)	4,06						

(P* $<$ 0,05).

Table 5 shows that, no scale and sub-dimension (social physique anxiety scale overall [F(2,109)=,532,p<0.05], self-confidence scale [F(2,109)=,107,p] according to the variable of licensed duration of doing sports) <0.05], internal self-confidence sub-dimension [F(2,109)=,306,p<0.05], external self-confidence sub-dimension [F(2,109) =,054,p<0.05]) no statistically significant difference was found .

Table 6. Social Physique Anxiety Scale and Self-Confidence Scale Pearson Correlation Analysis Results

Scales	Social Physique Anxiety Scale	Self-Confidence Scale
Social Physique Anxiety Scale	1	-,267*
Self-Confidence Scale	-,267*	1

(P* $<$ 0,05).

As a result of the Pearson Correlation analysis, it was determined that there was a low, negative (r = -.267; p<0.05) significant relationship between the social physique anxiety levels and self-confidence levels of elite ice hockey athletes (Alpar, 2016).

CONCLUSION and DISCUSSION

According to the gender variable, no significant difference was found in the general and sub-dimensions of the self-confidence scale. This may be the result of the natural dynamics of the sport of ice hockey because ice hockey is a high-intensity contact sport in which players can reach a speed of 48 km per hour, with in-game features such as agility, coordination, and aggressive stick use (Benson et al., 2005). For this reason, ice hockey players, whether men or women, have to be strong both mentally and physically. In a study conducted by Theberge, (2003) on adolescent ice hockey girls, the participants emphasized the need to be fearless and aggressive, as well as a strong body structure in ice hockey. Therefore, due to the nature of ice hockey, it is very difficult for athletes with low self-confidence to continue doing this sport for a long time. In addition, the fact that all the athletes participating in our study were elite-level athletes may have been effective in the absence of a significant difference in the gender parameter. In a study conducted by Soltani et al., (2013) to determine

the self-confidence levels of elite and non-elite volleyball players, it was found that the self-confidence levels of elite volleyball players were statistically significantly higher than those of non-elite volleyball players. In addition, when the literature is examined, studies in sports-related fields showing that there is no statistically significant difference according to the gender parameter draw attention (Cengiz et al., 2023; Karataş et al., 2022; Gürer, 2017; Krane & Williams, 1994). The findings of the studies given above, and the findings of our study comply with each other. However, in a meta-analysis study by Lochbaum et al., (2022), which included 41 articles from 15 countries on self-confidence and sportive performance, it was found that gender and the type of sport (individual or team) had an effect on the self-confidence of the athlete. When the literature is examined, although there are mostly studies demonstrating that men's self-confidence levels are higher than women's (Mansell & Turner, 2022; Toktas & Baş, 2019; Javaid et al., 2016; Aygün & Öztaşyonar, 2019), there are also studies demonstrating that women's self-confidence levels are higher than that of men's (Taşkın, 2020; Bostancı et al., 2019).

A statistically significant difference was observed in the social physique anxiety scale. It was determined that the social physique anxiety levels of elite female ice hockey players ($\bar{x}=2.39$) were higher than male ice hockey players ($\bar{x}=1.91$) [$t= 2,716$, $p<0.05$]. This situation may be a result of the pressure that women should always look beautiful and well-groomed as a reflection of consumer society. Oğuz (2010) states that women have to constantly think about how they look due to social pressure, they feel constantly under surveillance, and this situation turns into a desire to be liked by others over time. In a study conducted by Kowalski, et al., (2006) to determine coping strategies of adolescents with social physique anxiety, it was found that women developed a total of 1051 coping strategies, whereas men reported only 473 coping strategies. The fact that women develop more coping strategies with social physique anxiety can be seen as another indicator of the plurality of women's concerns about this situation. When the literature is examined, it is noteworthy that there are studies showing that women's social physique anxiety levels are higher than men's (Lantz et al., 1997; Mastro et al., 2016; Robinson & Lewis, 2016; Korajlija et al., 2017). Studies above support the findings of our study. In addition, in a meta-analysis study by Sabiston et al., (2014) that included 126 articles on physical activity and social physique anxiety, men associated social physique anxiety with strength, muscularity, and body fat ratio, while women associated it only with body fat ratio.

No statistically significant difference was found in any scale and sub-dimension according to the age variable. Studies have shown that age has an effect on self-confidence, and the level of self-confidence increases as age increases (Buğdaycı et al., 2016; Alejo et al., 2020; Yamak et al., 2022). The lack of significant difference in the age variable in our study may be due to the fact that all of the participants were 20 years old or younger than 20 years old. As a matter of fact, in another study conducted by Aygün & Öztaşyonar (2019) on ice hockey players, it has been found that self-confidence differs according to age, and ice hockey players aged 26 and above have the highest self-confidence level among age groups. Although the literature findings suggest that age is an effective parameter on self-confidence, there are also studies showing that there is no significant difference between self-confidence and age (Cengiz et al., 2023; Musa, 2020; Doğan, 2022; Taşkın, 2020; Çoban

et al.,2020; Strachan & Munroe-Chandler, 2006). The findings of our study show similarities with the studies given above. On the other hand, there are also studies in literature showing that there is a significant difference between self-confidence and age (Gürer, 2017; Pinar et al.,2018). From this point of view, although there are more studies in the literature showing that self-confidence increases as age increases, the findings to the contrary are that the relationship between self-confidence and age in the field of sports is not certain, and this relationship may differ according to the branch, age of performance or the type of sport (team or individual).

Studies have revealed conflicting results between social physique anxiety and age parameter. This may be due to the fact that the sample groups of studies on age and social physique are generally selected from adolescents and women (Kroon et al., 2022; Venetsanou & Ioannidou,2019; Sabiston et al., 2007). When the literature is examined, it is seen that the results revealed generally manifest as two different findings. The first of these findings is that the level of social physique anxiety is high at younger ages, and social physique anxiety decreases when age increases (Hagger & Stevenson, 2010; Mcauley et al., 1995; Hagger et al., 2010). The second is that there is no relationship between age and social physique anxiety (Frederick & Morrison, 1996; Musa, 2020; Kalyva et al., 2021; Türker et al., 2018; Göksel et al., 2018; Çakır & Karaağaç, 2021; Yalçın & Kurnaz, 2021). The findings of our study are similar to those of studies showing that there is no relationship between age and social physique anxiety.

No statistically significant difference was found in any of the scales and sub-dimensions according to the licensed duration of doing sports variable. Ice hockey is a competitive sport with one of the highest injury rates among sports branches (Mosenthal et al., 2017). It is stated that the experience gained in competitive sports contributes more to the self-confidence levels of the athletes and their belief in themselves (Comeig et al.,2016; Munroe-Chandler et al.,2008). The fact that there was no difference in the findings of our study in terms of the variable of years of playing a licensed sport may be a result of the reflection of the competitive structure of ice hockey on the players. It is noteworthy that there are studies that show that there is no significant difference between the duration of licensed sports and self-confidence, especially in studies conducted in sports-related fields in recent years (Çoban et al., 2020; Toktas & Baş, 2019; Musa, 2020; Mutlu et al., 2016). The findings of our study are similar to the results of the study given above. However, Bandura (1977) argued in his theory of self-efficacy that “learning through experience that an individual can overcome obstacles with a determined effort after a set of failures has a great effect on self-confidence and this will happen depending on a process”. In addition, Feltz & Petchlikoff (1983) stated that self-confidence in sports is based on continuity and that continuing without giving up is effective on self-confidence. In this context, some studies in the field of sports suggest that more experienced athletes have higher self-confidence levels, contrary to our study, and support the above-mentioned opinions (Tomé-Lourido et al., 2019; Bostancı et al.,2019; Lane et al.,1995; Buğdaycı et al., 2016; Zisi, et al., 2009).

Studies demonstrate that physical activity or sports are directly related to social physique anxiety, and individuals participating in physical activity or sports have low levels of social physique anxiety (Haase &

Prapavessis, 2001; Bissell & Porterfield, 2006; Üstün, 2020). In addition, it has been stated that the social physique anxiety levels of the athletes competing in sports where aesthetic appearance and weight are important such as figure skating and gymnastics are higher than the athletes competing in sports that do not have the concern of aesthetic appearances, such as basketball, football or ice hockey (Sabiston et al., 2014; Gay et al., 2011). Ice hockey is a difficult sport that requires a high level of gliding skills, muscle-nerve coordination, and physical conditioning (Goto & Menetrey, 2022). The fact that there was no significant difference in our study according to the licensed duration of doing sports may be due to the fact that the ice hockey players participating in our study have been doing this sport for a long time, which requires complex physical features, without any aesthetic concerns. When the literature is examined, it is noteworthy that there are studies showing that there is no statistically significant difference according to the variable of the duration of doing licensed sports (Türker et al., 2018; Var et al., 2018; Musa, 2020). The findings of our study are similar to the results of the study given above.

As a result of Pearson Correlation analysis, a statistically significant relationship was found. It has been observed that there is a low-level, negative relationship between the social physique anxiety levels of elite ice hockey players and their self-confidence levels. In other words, it can be said that social physique anxiety levels and self-confidence levels of elite ice hockey players are inversely proportional, as their social physique anxiety levels increase, their self-confidence levels decrease, or as their self-confidence levels increase, their social physique anxiety levels decrease. Lundqvist et al., (2011) stated that high self-esteem helps to reduce anxiety symptoms and helps to turn emotional reactions into positive situations. In the study conducted by Musa (2020) to examine the social physique anxiety and self-confidence levels of individuals who do sports in fitness centers, it has been found that there is a high, negative relationship between social physique anxiety and self-confidence levels. The findings of this study and our study show similarity.

Consequently, it was observed that there was a low level of negative relationship between social physique anxiety and self-confidence levels of elite ice hockey players, and as their social physique anxiety levels increased, their self-confidence levels decreased. In addition, while there was no statistically significant difference in all and sub-dimensions of the self-confidence scale according to the gender variable of elite ice hockey players, it was observed that the social physical anxiety levels of women were higher than men. In addition, there was no statistically significant difference in any scale or sub-dimension according to age and licensed sports branch. In general, it was seen that elite ice hockey players had low levels of social appearance anxiety ($\bar{x}=2.13$) and high self-confidence ($\bar{x}=4.00$).

SUGGESTIONS

This study is carried out only on ice hockey players who have played in the U18 and U20 leagues. The same study can be applied to ice hockey players aged 20 and above so that the results obtained can be compared in a healthy way. In addition, studies can be designed to compare the social physique anxiety and self-confidence levels of athletes engaged in different types of team or individual sports and ice hockey players. When the

literature on the field of sports is examined, it is seen that most of the studies aimed at measuring social physique anxiety have been conducted on adolescent women. These studies can be carried out especially on elder athletes who do active sports or on male and female athletes who completed their active sports life.

ETHICAL TEXT

This article followed the journal writing rules, publication principles, research and publication ethics, and ethical journal rules. The author is responsible for any violations that may arise regarding the article. Ankara University Ethics Committee obtained the ethics committee approval of the article with the decision dated 29.11.2021 and numbered 19- 215.

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