

# THE RELATIONSHIP OF GOAL ORIENTATION, SELF-ESTEEM, SITUATIONAL MOTIVATION AND SATISFACTION FROM SPORTS AMONG YOUNG KARATE ATHLETES

SHKELZEN SHALA<sup>1</sup>, BEJTULA EMINI<sup>2</sup>, ZORICA STANKOVSKA<sup>3</sup>, VALON NIKQI<sup>4</sup>, SERJOZA GONTAREV<sup>5</sup>, ZHARKO KOSTOVSKI<sup>5</sup>

<sup>1</sup>AAB Kolegij, Prishtina, Kosovo

<sup>2</sup>Mother Teresa University, Faculty of Social Sciences, Skopje, North Macedonia

<sup>3</sup>University Ss. Cyril and Methodius, Faculty of Pedagogy, St. Kliment Ohridski, Skopje, North Macedonia

<sup>4</sup>Faculty of Sports Sciences, University of Prishtina, Kosovo

<sup>5</sup>Ss. Cyril and Methodius University, Faculty of Physical Education, Sports and Health, Skopje, North Macedonia

## Correspondence:

Valon Nikqi, Faculty of Sports Sciences, University of Prishtina, Kosovo

valon.nikqi@gmail.com

**Abstract:** The main problem of the research was to determine the relationship between goal orientation, satisfaction, self-esteem, and situational motivation among young karate athletes from Republic of North Macedonia. The research was carried out on a sample of 100 respondents who are engaged in karate sport between the ages of 11 and 14 from Republic of North Macedonia. The sample is divided into two subsamples according to gender, namely 54 male respondents and 45 female respondents. The sample was drawn from several karate clubs in Republic of North Macedonia. In order to realize the goals of the research, several scales were applied to assess goal orientation, satisfaction, self-esteem and situational motivation. The obtained data were processed with appropriate parametric statistical methods. Based on the obtained results, it can be concluded that a larger number of respondents (young karate athletes) from our sample are more focused on developing and improving their competence, and less on achieving results and relying on their abilities. Interrelationships among the four subscales assessing the level of self-determination to be physically active, as expected the more proximal along the continuum are more positively correlated with task orientation than those more distal along the continuum. The research results confirm that task orientation is more positively related to more self-determined types of situational motivation (the internal motivational regulator -intrinsic motivation and the identification motivational regulator -identified regulation) and negatively related to less self-determined types of situational motivation (external motivational regulator- external regulation and guilt regulator - introjected regulation). Based on all that has been stated, it can be concluded that among young karate athletes aged 11 to 14, internal motives (i. e. fun, personal challenge, etc.) or so-called essential motives for playing sports should be promoted.

**Key words:** goal orientation, satisfaction, self-esteem, situational motivation, karate athletes.

## INTRODUCTION

Karate is a martial sport that is experiencing a great expansion today and is trained by millions of people today. The reasons for this expansion can be found in the very original characteristics of karate, which is the main reason why karate is transformed into a dynamic sports discipline, which enjoys great popularity in our country. Practicing karate is an ideal prerequisite for developing positive psychophysical qualities among young people. Contrary to the prejudices that martial sports are violent, karate primarily offers practitioners discipline, respect, and self-control as a basic assumption for engaging in this sport. A number of authors consider that karate is an ideal sport, which basic elements can be applied in the physical and health education of young people (Sližnik and Bartik, 2004). What is it that “drives” athletes on a daily basis - day after day, week after week, year after year - regardless of the weather conditions, regardless of the current mood, regardless of how hard the training is and regardless of whether they win or not, to go on the field or in the gym and train hard? Why is the desire for success, commitment, discipline and perseverance in some athletes more pronounced than in others? What is it that ignites the embers and the fire in the view of some sportsman? The answer to this question is motivation!

When taking into account the large volume of training and competition activities, it is not surprising that achievement motivation is the key determinant of movement and direction of sports activity. Two basic components of sport are training and competition, so in the nature of sport one of the ultimate goals is to achieve the best competitive

result. However, athletes differ among themselves in the reasons and ways in which they approach the activity, the meaning they give to it, and the quality assessment measures. So for example, one athlete may engage in a certain activity in order to improve his competence, another athlete may perform that same activity to show and prove his competence to others.

One of the leading theoretical frameworks for studying achievement motivation is the social-cognitive approach and within it the theory of goals - Achievement Goal Theory - AGT4 (Duda & Ntoumanis, 2005; Roberts, Treasure, & Sogpou, 2007). The core of the theoretical construct of this theory is goal orientation, which is considered a cognitive pattern that arises through specific experience during sports socialization and is relatively stable over time (Roberts, 2001). Goal orientation maintains a person's belief about an activity about how success can be achieved and failure avoided, as well as about the criteria for evaluating performance (Duda, 2001). There is a difference between the orientation of learning and improvement - task orientation and the orientation of achieving results - ego orientation (Duda & Hall, 2001; Duda & Nicholls, 1992; Roberts et al., 2007). For athletes who are dominated by the orientation of learning and improvement (task orientation), a striving towards personal advancement and improvement of competence is characteristic. They believe that by making an effort they can improve their competence, they immerse themselves in the activity, they try to find a strategy that will successfully respond to the demands of the activity.

For them, the basic criterion of success is the subjective feeling of improvement and performance, and essentially they use self-referential criteria for assessing performance. For athletes who are dominated by the goal of achieving results (ego orientation), progressing and performing skills in it is not enough to feel successful.

They believe that the basis of success is high abilities. They experience success on the basis of comparison with others "Being successful" for them means "Being better than the other". They use normative performance assessment criteria. When they achieve success without effort, then they highlight the significance of their abilities. They attribute failure to insufficient effort and thus avoid the demonstration of incompetence. To avoid failure, they often choose goals that are significantly below their real capabilities.

Children at different ages compare their abilities differently. At the age of two to six years, children usually observe the abilities in relation to the success of the performed task during the last rehearsal. If they notice an improvement in performance from one trial to the next, they assume that ability has increased. The amount of effort invested is considered by the child as evidence of high ability. In this period, it can be seen that the child is focused on the tasks. With further development and at the age of six and seven, the child observes his abilities in relation to others. It's no longer just about performing the task, it's about doing the task performed better than others. High ability is only implied if they are better than other children. This is the period when the child is primarily focused on the goal. After 11-12 years, the child can show ego or task orientation, which mostly depends on environmental factors. Environmental factors aimed at social comparison orientation produce ego orientation, while guiding through mastering the tasks thereby produces task orientation. A greater benefit of task orientation has been found for the development of positive self-concept (Cox, 2005).

As already mentioned, social factors play a major role in forming the orientation of children. Ego-oriented environments can be quite detrimental to low-ability children, while high-ability children thrive in both types of environments. Of course, it is necessary to create an environment of improvement that can change the negative influence of the ego-oriented environment, which acts on the child with low abilities who is afraid of competitive situations (Guda et al., 1995, according to Cox, 2005). This climate of improvement creates greater independence, self-esteem and identity in children and should be aimed at (Cox, 2005).

The problem of this research is to determine the relationship between goal orientation, satisfaction, self-esteem and situational motivation among young karate athletes from the Republic of North Macedonia.

## **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### ***Sample of respondents***

The research was carried out on a sample of 100 respondents who are engaged in karate sport between the ages of 11 and 14 from Republic of North Macedonia. The sample is divided into two subsamples according to gender, namely 54 male respondents and 45 female respondents. The sample was drawn from several karate clubs in Republic of North Macedonia.

### ***Methods of data collection***

The data were collected using the method of a structured survey questionnaire. The survey questionnaire consists of three separate units that enable the formation of variables.

### ***Task-and-Ego-Orientation Assessment Questionnaire (Task-and-Ego-Orientation)***

The most commonly used instrument for assessing goal orientation among youth in sports (Biddle, Wang, Kavassanu, & Zrgau, 2003; White, 2007) is the TEOSQ (Task-and-Ego-Orientation). Respondents answer by circling one of the offered answers on a Likert-type scale (from 1- "do not agree at all" to 5- "completely agree"). The questionnaire contains two subscales: goal orientation of the improvement and goal orientation of the result. Each item begins with "I feel most successful in sports when...". Reliability coefficients in previous research on samples of athletes range from .70-.86 for the achievement orientation scale, .77-.89 for the result orientation scale (Bortoli, Bertollo, Comani, & Robazza, 2011; Givvin, 2001; Hom Duda, & Miller, 1993; Sit & Lindner, 2005; Treasure et al., 1994; Vesković & Milanović, 2011; White, 1996; White, et al., 1998).

### ***A scale for assessing satisfaction with sports***

The ASQ scale will be used to assess satisfaction. The scale was constructed by Raimrer and Chelladurai (Raimrer, & Chelladurai, 1998 according to Veskovic, 2012). It consists of 8 particle-items and is of graphic type, 7 degrees, ranging from 1 (I am not at all satisfied) to 7 (I am very satisfied). The result is obtained as an average value of the responses from all particles. A higher score indicates that the respondent has a higher degree of satisfaction.

### ***Sample variables for assessing motives for physical activity***

Situational motives for physical activity will be assessed with the scale: Behavior Regulation Exercise Questionnaire (BREQ) constructed by Mullan, Markland, and Ingledew (Mullan, Markland, and Ingledew, 1997). Respondents answer by circling one of the offered answers on a Likert-type scale (from 1- "do not agree at all" to 5- "completely agree"). It consists of 15 items, and is divided into several subscales: external regulation (example. I exercise because other people say I should), guilt regulator - introjected regulation (example. I feel guilty when I don't exercise), identified regulation (example. I exercise because I have health, aesthetic benefits from exercise), internal regulator - intrinsic motivation (example I exercise because it's fun). From the four subscales, an autonomous index of the strength of self-regulation of motivation towards physical activity is obtained, which is calculated according to the formula:  $(-2) (EXT) + IJ + ID + 2(IM)$ . Four factors were determined by conformational factor analysis, Cronbach alpha coefficient was also quite high for the four factors (external = 0.79, introjected = 0.76, identified = 0.78, intrinsic = 0.90).

### ***Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale***

The self-esteem scale consists of 10 items and was constructed by Rosenberg (Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, RSE; Rosenberg, 1965). It is a 4-point scale, ranked from 1 (completely disagree) to 4 (completely agree). The result is obtained from the average value of the responses of all 10 particles. Based on the answers received, the respondents are categorized into three categories: low, medium and high self-esteem. The interconsistency of the scale in previous research ranges from .80 to .60.

### ***Data processing methods***

For all quantitative variables, the basic descriptive statistical parameters were calculated, namely: arithmetic mean (X), standard deviation (SD). Differences in variables for assessing goal orientation, satisfaction with sport, were determined by univariate analysis of variance. The relationship between the variables for assessing satisfaction with sports, goal orientation, self-esteem and situational motivation (the level of self-determination), between sports tradition in the family and the variables for assessing goal orientation, satisfaction with sports, self-esteem and situational motivation was determined by the bivariate Pearson correlation.

The data were processed with the statistical packages SPSS for Windows Version 22.0 and STATISTICA for Windows Version 12.0.

## RESULTS

In order to determine the relationship between the variables for assessing satisfaction with sports, goal orientation, self-esteem and situational motivation (the level of self-determination), Pearson's bivariate correlation was calculated for the sample as a whole and individually for the male and female subsamples. These values are shown in Tables 1, 2 and 3.

**Table 1.** Correlation analysis between the variables for assessing satisfaction with sport, goal orientation, self-esteem and situational motivation among the entire sample of respondents

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
ASQ	1.00							
Self Esteem	.17	1.00						
Ego Orientation	.49	.26	1.00					
Task Orientation	.32	-.06	.06	1.00				
External Regulation	.02	-.29	-.02	-.19	1.00			
Introjected Regulation	.35	-.12	.35	.04	.29	1.00		
Identified Regulation	.01	-.16	.06		.20	.14	1.00	
Intrinsic Motivation	-.29	-.16	-.33	.14	.43	-.23	.53	1.00

From the review of table 1, it can be seen that a positive average correlation was established between the scale for assessing satisfaction with sports and orientation towards achieving results ( $r=.49$ ), orientation towards perfecting goals ( $r=.32$ ) and regulator of guilt - introjected regulation ( $r=.35$ ). A low negative correlation was established between the variable for assessing satisfaction from sports and the internal motivational regulator - intrinsic motivation ( $r= -.29$ ). Self-esteem has a low positive correlation with the variable focus on achieving results ( $r=.26$ ) and a low negative correlation with the variable external motivational regulator - external regulation ( $r=-.29$ ). Variable focus on achieving results (ego orientation) has a low positive correlation with guilt regulator - introjected regulation ( $r=.35$ ) and a low negative correlation with the internal motivational regulator - intrinsic motivation ( $r=-.33$ ). The variable directed towards the improvement of goals has an average positive correlation with the identified motivational regulator - identified regulation ( $r=.52$ ).

From the overview of table 2, which shows the cross-correlation coefficients among the respondents (young karate athletes) from the male gender, it can be seen that a positive average correlation was established between the variable for assessing satisfaction from sports and the orientation towards achieving results - ego orientation ( $r=.47$ ), the focus on improving goals ( $r=.41$ ) and a low correlation with self-esteem ( $r=.29$ ). Self-esteem has an average negative correlation with the external motivational regulator - external regulation ( $r=-.39$ ), guilt regulator - introjected regulation ( $r=-.44$ ) and identified motivational regulator - identified regulation ( $r=-.32$ ). Variable focus on achieving results (ego orientation) has a low positive correlation with guilt regulator - introjected regulation ( $r=.25$ ). The variable directed towards the improvement of goals has an average positive correlation with the identification motivational regulator - identified regulation ( $r=.58$ ) and the internal motivational regulator - intrinsic motivation ( $r=.51$ ).

**Table 2.** Correlation analysis between the variables for assessing satisfaction with sports, goal orientation, self-esteem and situational motivation among male respondents

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
ASQ	1.00							
Self Esteem	.29	1.00						
Ego Orientation	.47	.14	1.00					
Task Orientation	.41	-.03	.17	1.00				

External Regulation	-.10	-.39	.08	-.24	1.00			
Introjected Regulation	.17	-.44	.25	-.18	.39	1.00		
Identified Regulation	.12	-.32	.08	.58	.14	-.04	1.00	
Intrinsic Motivation	-.05	-.12	-.18	.51	.10	-.25	.59	1.00

From the overview of table 3, which shows the cross-correlation coefficients among the respondents (young karate athletes) from the female gender, it can be seen that a positive average correlation was established between the variable for assessing the satisfaction from the sport and the focus on achieving results - ego orientation ( $r=.50$ ), guilt regulator - introjected regulation ( $r=.62$ ) and a low positive correlation with the orientation towards perfecting goals ( $r=.23$ ).

**Table 3.** Correlation analysis between the variables for assessing satisfaction with sport, goal orientation, self-esteem and situational motivation among female respondents

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
ASQ	1.00							
Self Esteem	-.03	1.00						
Ego Orientation	.50	.43	1.00					
Task Orientation	.23	-.11	-.09	1.00				
External Regulation	.14	-.20	-.11	-.16	1.00			
Introjected Regulation	.62	.43	.56	.32	.20	1.00		
Identified Regulation	-.07	.01	.06	.48	.25	.35	1.00	
Intrinsic Motivation	-.49	-.23	-.54	-.10	.60	-.24	.50	1.00

Self-esteem has an average positive correlation with focus on achieving results - ego orientation ( $r=.43$ ) and guilt regulator - introjected regulation ( $r=.43$ ). A low negative correlation was determined between self-esteem and the external motivational regulator - external regulation ( $r=-.20$ ) and the internal motivational regulator - intrinsic motivation ( $r=-.23$ ). The variable focus on achieving results (ego orientation) has an average positive correlation with the guilt regulator - introjected regulation ( $r=.56$ ) and an average negative correlation with the internal motivational regulator - intrinsic motivation ( $r=-.54$ ). The variable directed towards the improvement of goals has an average positive correlation with the identification motivational regulator - identified regulation ( $r=.48$ ) and guilt regulator - introjected regulation ( $r=.32$ ).

The obtained results showed that no significant bivariate correlation was established, i.e. an orthogonal relationship was established between the variables task orientation and ego goal orientation (orientation towards achieving results), and the same was confirmed in several previous studies (Duda, Fox, Biddle, & Armstrong, 1992; Fox et al., 1994; Roberts et al., 1996). In order to obtain additional information about the relationships between the constructs of situational motivation and goal orientation, four target groups were formed based on the extreme values of the medians of the two variables for assessing goal orientation (orientation towards achieving results, Median = 3.25; orientation towards tasks Median = 4.00). Table 4 shows the basic descriptive statistical parameters and the level of statistical significance for each of the four extreme groups. In order to determine whether the respondents belonging to the different groups differ in the constructs of situational motivation, satisfaction with sport and self-esteem, a one-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) was applied.

From the review of table 4, it can be seen that statistically significant univariate between-group differences between the respondents (young karate athletes) who belong to different extreme groups are determined in the variables of satisfaction with sports ( $F= 21.83$ ,  $p=.000$ ), guilt regulator - introjected regulation ( $F= 6.04$ ,  $p=0.00$ ), identification motivation regulator - identified regulation ( $F= 9.22$ ,  $p=0.00$ ), internal motivation regulator - intrinsic motivation ( $F= 4.98$ ,  $p=0.00$ ) and autonomous index of the strength of self-regulation of motivation ( $F= 3.71$ ,  $p=0.01$ ).

**Table 4.** Intergroup differences between four target groups based on the extreme values of the medians of the two variables for assessing goal orientation

	High Task /High Ego		High Task /Low Ego		Low Task /High Ego		Low Task /Low Ego		F	Sig.
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
ASQ MEAN	5.54	0.80	4.25	0.57	4.73	0.60	4.32	0.55	21.83	0.00
External Regulation	3.44	1.17	3.25	0.63	3.72	0.45	3.53	0.42	1.76	0.16
Introjected Regulation	3.54	1.08	2.81	0.29	3.49	0.69	3.35	0.53	6.04	0.00
Identified Regulation	4.17	0.50	4.14	0.43	3.72	0.71	3.42	0.69	9.22	0.00
Intrinsic Motivation	3.87	0.98	4.45	0.37	3.86	0.62	4.16	0.38	4.98	0.00
Self Esteem	2.55	0.47	2.44	0.17	2.66	0.37	2.60	0.49	1.51	0.22
Avtonomen indeks	12.14	1.05	12.15	0.89	11.35	1.35	11.39	1.32	3.71	0.01

## DISCUSSIONS

Consistent with previous research (Guay et al., 2000; Standage et al., 2000; Treasure et al., 1994), the results of this study provide additional empirical support for the model and the relationships among the subscales for assessing the level of self-determination, being physically active, satisfaction from sports, self-esteem and goal orientation. Based on the obtained results, it can be concluded that a larger number of respondents (young karate athletes) from the sample of respondents are more focused on developing and improving their competence, and less on achieving results and relying on their abilities. They put effort into the activity, trying to find a strategy with which they will successfully solve the set tasks. They feel successful when they improve their performance, and the dominant criterion for assessing performance is personal progress in performance (improvement of technique, tactics, motor skills, etc.). For these karate athletes, compared to others, the feeling of success is not a priority criterion (to win at any cost, to prove oneself in front of others, to be better than others, etc.). The research results are in accordance with the results of a larger number of previous studies carried out on samples of athletes who train in different sports disciplines (Balaguer, et al., 2002; Duda & Hom, 1993; Gano-Overwaya, et al” 2005; Gershgoren, et al “ 2011; Givvin, 2001; King, & Williams, 1997; Waldron & Krane, 2005; White, et al” 1998). According to TGO theorists (the theory of goal orientation), the dominance of goal orientation toward improvement over orientation toward achieving results is considered a significant factor for achieving adaptive motivational patterns (Duda, & Hall, 2001).

The interrelationships between the four subscales assessing the level of self-determination to be physically active, as expected the more proximal on the continuum are more positively correlated with task orientation than those more distal on the continuum (Ryan & Connell, 1989). This pattern of significant correlations indicates that SIMS underlies multidimensional motivation consistent with the theoretical principles proposed by Deci and Ryan (Deci & Ryan 1985, 1991).

The research results confirm that task orientation is more positively related to more self-determined types of situational motivation (intrinsic motivation and identified regulation) and negatively related to less self-determined types of situational motivation (external motivational regulator and guilt regulator - introjected regulation). The results are consistent with the meta-analysis conducted by Ntoumanis & Biddle (1999) which found a moderate to strong relationship between task orientation and increasing intrinsic interest in physical activity. Contrary to this, it was determined that ego orientation (orientation towards result) is less related to autonomous types of situational motivation. This finding is of particular importance, as a lower self-determined type of motivation relates to lower positive outcomes than a higher self-determined type of motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Vallerand, 1997). For athletes who are dominated by the goal of achieving results (ego orientation), progressing and performing skills in it is not enough to feel successful.

Although the results of the correlation analysis provided some insight into the relationships between goal orientation and situational motivation, taking into account the results of previous research, and confirmed by the results of this research, which indicates that ego orientation and task orientation are orthogonal (not correlated). In that direction, the results of the analysis of the formed extreme groups provide a more complete (more precise) insight into

the relationships between goal orientation and situational motivation. Situational motivation of the individual differs depending on which group he belongs to. Namely, the results of the research indicate that respondents who belong to the High Task/Low Ego and High Task/High Ego groups have a higher identification motivation and autonomous index of the strength of self-regulation of motivation in relation to the groups defined as Low Task/High Ego and Low Task/Low Ego. On the other hand, respondents from the group defined as High Task/Low Ego have a much higher internal motivation compared to all three other groups. In accordance with previous research and the results of our research, they indicate that in general the group dominated by both goal orientations is also adaptive, as Duda (1997) claims, "What can High Task/High Ego motivated individuals do over a longer period of time? is the fact that their strong task orientation can set them back even when their sense of normative dependence is in danger." According to Duda's research (Duda, 1997), task orientation in this research is a decisive construct for increasing motivation. Furthermore, it can be stated that the dominance of ego orientation somewhat weakens task orientation (Roberts et al., 1996). On the other hand, the results indicate that the groups defined as Low Task/High Ego and Low Task/Low Ego has a higher level of external regulation in relation to the groups defined as High Task/Low Ego and High Task/High Ego. In addition to the lack of internal criteria of success, given the controlled nature of external regulation, it seems that for these individuals and their perception of abilities is normatively stated and influenced mostly by external factors (example rewards, threats, etc.). With this in mind we agree with Brunel (1996), who states that it is important to remind athletes that they engage in sport to learn (improve skills) and not to outperform their peers at all costs. If the emphasis is on being better than one's peers at all costs, then such a situation is difficult for the karateka (Nicholls, 1989).

It is interesting that the results indicate that the group defined as Low Task/High Ego has higher values of the external motivation regulator - external regulation and guilt regulator - introjected regulation compared to the group defined as Low Task/Low Ego. These findings are consistent with the findings of Roberts et al. (1996) who determined that the group defined as Low Task/High Ego was the least autonomously motivated group. These results indicate that the low level of autonomous motivation is more pronounced in athletes who have a lack of task orientation accompanied by a high disposition of ego orientation. A certain number of researches are not in agreement with these findings, that is, it has been determined that the most risky group with the lowest level of autonomous motivation is Task/Low Ego (Pensgaard & Roberts, 2002). Of course, additional research is needed to confirm which target group has the greatest risk from a motivational perspective.

The coach is a key factor in encouraging the motivation of young karate athletes and promoting and dictating a certain climate in training and competitions. Coaches with their attitude towards young athletes can influence their internal (autonomous) motivation. There are two basic styles in interacting with athletes, and they are controlling or maintaining the athletes' autonomy (Vallerand & Losier, 1999). In the first case, the coaches control the athlete's behavior by strictly determining what, how and when he will work in training, while in the other case, the athlete is left room to make some decisions independently or make a choice. Research indicates that coaches who support autonomy in their interaction with young athletes stimulate intrinsic motivation in athletes to a greater extent than coaches who are characterized by a style of strict control (Goudas et al., 1994). An athlete's perception that a coach is autonomy supportive is a positive predictor of autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Standage & Gillison, 2007). Athletes who were included in training programs with an emphasis on supporting their autonomy showed a greater desire to exercise and were more often physically active in their free time compared to athletes who were not included in this program (Chatzisarantis & Hagger, 2009).

Based on all that has been stated, it can be concluded that among young karate athletes aged 11 to 14, internal motives (ie fun, personal challenge, etc.) or so-called essential motives for playing sports should be promoted. There are a number of scientific studies that indicate the way in which intrinsic motivation (essential motives) influence an increase in sports activity (Ryan, 2000; Frederick & Ryan, 1993),

Although extrinsic motivations such as appearance or fitness can be significant in motivating young people to start participating in sports (Wankel, 1993; Frederick & Ryan, 1993), they are not sufficient to maintain the same activity. longer time. On the other hand, if the initial motives and process variables are related to intrinsic motivation, and especially those like enjoyment/interest, the activity is maintained for a much longer time. Encouraging intrinsic motivation in young karate athletes through promotion and messaging can contribute to increasing sports activity and the health benefits associated with it.

## CONCLUSION

The research results confirm that task orientation is more positively related to more self-determined types of situational motivation (intrinsic motivation and identified regulation) and negatively related to less self-determined types of situational motivation (external motivational regulator and guilt regulator - introjected regulation). Namely, the results of the research indicate that respondents who belong to the High Task/Low Ego and High Task/High Ego groups have a higher identification motivation and autonomous index of the strength of self-regulation of motivation in relation to the groups defined as Low Task/High Ego and Low Task/Low Ego. On the other hand, respondents from the group defined as High Task/Low Ego have a much higher internal motivation compared to all three other groups. On the other hand, the results indicate that the groups defined as Low Task/High Ego and Low Task/Low Ego has a higher level of external regulation in relation to the groups defined as High Task/Low Ego and High Task/High Ego. Based on all that has been stated, it can be concluded that among young karate athletes aged 11 to 14, internal motives (i. e. fun, personal challenge, etc.) or so-called essential motives for playing sports should be promoted.

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