

THE STUDY OF THE SOURCES OF SPORT CONFIDENCE AMONG MYANMAR INTER-UNIVERSITY ATHLETES*

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Abstract

Sport confidence is defined as the beliefs in individual's capability to be successful in sport (Vealey, 1988). This study has been conducted in order to explore sources of self-confidence among university athletes and to determine if there are differences between demographic factors such as age, gender, competitive level of athletes and branches of sport on the sources of self-confidence. A cross-sectional research design was used to examine the sources of sport confidence among randomly selected university athletes (n =200) from inter-university sport competition in Myanmar. Data were collected with the Sources of Sport Confidence Scale (SSCS) developed by Vealey (1988) adapting to Myanmar version Questionnaire, and the values converted into percentage of maximum possible scores. Among the highest rated sources of sport confidence were coaches' leadership (M = 78.67±20.63), mastery (M = 75.05±22.05), physical and mental preparation (M = 74.63±20.21) and demonstration of ability (M = 73.40±21.00). Athletes differed significantly across gender in mastery (p = .02), coaches' leadership, (p=.04), social support (p=.03), with females recording higher scores. Significant differences were observed among university players in their sources of sport confidence, specifically in physical self-presentation (p = .01), social support (p = .02), environmental comfort (p = .008), and situational favorableness (p = .006), as defined by the university. Mastery factor also yielded significant difference (p=.02) between zone level and non-zone level players. The university football players were lower than those who play in sepak takraw as demonstration factor and social support of self-confidence. However, in the environmental factors and situational favorableness of self-confidence university athletes who play in soccer are higher than those who play in sepak takraw. Findings of this study could practically provide for the selection and training process of university athletes in competition.

Keywords: sources of sport confidence, university athletes, gender, players' level, branches

Introduction and Background

Over the years, many trainers, coaches, and sport scientists have acknowledged that the psychological characteristics of athletes are among the primary determinants of success and sustained performance in sports (Whelan et al., 1991; Gould et al., 1999; Ritz, 2012). Self-confidence, defined as a person's belief in their own ability to carry out life tasks, relates to their competence and self-esteem (Moritz, Hall, Martin & Vadocz, 1996; Vealey & Chase, 2008). Sports practitioners, theorists, and researchers have long considered self-confidence a critical mental skill and psychological attribute that influences sport performance (Moritz et al., 1996; Vealey & Chase, 2008). Indeed, a positive relationship between self-confidence and athletic performance has been reported in sport psychology literature (Edwards & Hardy, 1996; Weinberg & Gould, 2003; Woodman & Hardy, 2003).

Sport psychologists define self-confidence as the belief that one can perform a desired behavior successfully. The desired behavior can be anything; the main thing is that one believes in their abilities to get the job done (Weinberg & Gould, 2007, p. 323). In sports, self-confidence

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is defined as a social cognitive construct that can be either trait-like or state-like. Trait-like self-confidence is part of one's personality and changes very little, making it very stable. State-like self-confidence is very unstable, changing from day to day and from situation to situation. According to Vealey & Knight (in Weinberg & Gould, 2007, pp. 323-324), self-confidence can be multidimensional and consist of several aspects. These aspects include confidence in one's abilities to perform tasks requiring physical skills, confidence in one's abilities to use psychological skills, confidence to use perceptual skills (decision making, adaptability), confidence in one's level of physical fitness and training status, and confidence in one's ability to learn and develop skills.

Vealey define sport confidence as the beliefs in individual's capability to be successful in sport (Vealey, 1986). In this regard, Vealey (1986) developed the sport confidence model in which nine sources of sport confidence were identified. These include mastery, demonstration of ability, physical or mental preparation, physical self-presentation, social support, coaches' leadership, vicarious experience, environmental comfort, and situational favorableness.

Mastery occurs when sport confidence is derived from proficiency or improvement of skills. Exhibition of best skills gives better performance in sports competition. When the athlete master on skills of the particular game he can perform better. Proper and regular training is necessary to develop skills and finally to became master on skills. Then athlete can confidently exhibit the skills in the competitions and get good performance. Performance accomplishments have proved to be the most influential source of efficacy information because they are based on one's own mastery experience (Bandura, 1997)

Demonstration of ability is a source of confidence when athletes compare their ability to that of their opponents or demonstrate superiority over opponents. Physical self-presentation indicates an athlete's perception of his/her physical self. The strength, endurance, flexibility, speed is very necessary for the sports performance. All these components are making the athlete fit. Fitness of the athlete is one of the factors to decide the performance in competitions. Fitness builds confidence himself on athlete. Physical or mental preparation reflects the feeling of being physically and mentally prepared with an optimal focus for performance. For every competition the athlete undergoes training plans. It may be short, medium- or long-term training plans. Both the physical and mental training is required for better performance. Physical training improves the strength of the body as well as mental training prepare an athlete mentally for the competitions. Psychological variables like confidence, mental toughness, emotional control, concentration are necessary for a high performer athlete. Before the competition the athlete must actively involve in warming up sessions. It prepares the body and mind for the competitions. Imagery techniques prepare an athlete mentally to perform higher.

Social support involves perceiving support or positive feedback and encouragement from significant others in sport such as teammates, coaches and family. Motivation and encouragement are necessary to make the athlete to perform better. Encouragement by the team mates inside and outside the playing area is to boost the athlete perform well. Understanding between the players improve the combination in the teams. The team combination is the major factor to success in the competition in sports. Family support is also important to an athlete to get in to the training regularly. The coach is to support the trainee otherwise the performance will not gain. Coach is to

know everything about the student and according to students the needs he must facilitate. Nicolas (2010) study showed that coaches' autonomy support facilitates self-determined motivation and sports performance.

Coaches' leadership is based on the athlete's belief in the coach's decision making skills. Coach is leader to his trainees. His personality definitely influences on sports persons. Personality of the coach motivates and improves self confidence among students / players. He is the model to the students.

Vicarious experience involves gaining confidence from watching others such as teammates or friends perform successfully. An athlete learns most from the past experiences. Past experience may change attitudes may provide motivation. Experience can strengthen or weaken athlete's confidence. Learning from own experience or learning from others experience is called vicarious experience. Losing a game or winning a game motivate the athlete for higher performance. Suffering an injury can teach an athlete to take better care of their body and appreciate their health.

Environmental comfort is a source of sport confidence that comes from feeling comfortable in a competitive environment where competition will be held such as the particular field, gymnasium or pool. The environment factors like heat, rain, cold, high altitude, wind, air pollution effect on sport performance. An investigation done by Alessandro Pezzoli (2013) and others argued that the weather forecast at different time's term can be used to improve sports performance. The temperature, humidity and wind strongly influence on sports performance. The sport like cycling, shooting is influence by rain and fog. Study says the athletes, coaches and technicians are doing climatological analysis to finalize the sports training well in advance from the date of the event and to get better performance. Situational favorableness involves gaining confidence by feeling that the breaks of the situation are going in ones' favor.

Based on the Vealey's theoretical model a multitude of studies have been carried out on the sources of sport confidence among athletes but the findings are largely inconclusive and conflicting (Clark, 2013; Hays et al., 2007; Krane & Williams, 1994; Lirgg, 1991; Machida, Ward & Vealey, 2012; Michael, 2011; Vargas Tonsing & Bartholemew, 2006; Wilson, Sullivan, Myers & Feltz, 2004; Woodman & Hardy, 2003). Some of these studies such as Machida et al. (2012) and Vealey et al. (1998) proposed that the stability of sport confidence was a function of the sources upon which individuals base their beliefs. These include controllable sources such as mastery and physical/mental experiences which would facilitate stable confidence beliefs, and uncontrollable sources such as environmental comfort and physical self-presentation that would create less stable and weaker perceptions of sport-confidence (Machida et al., 2012; Vealey et al., 1998). Therefore, it appears that the sources of information that athletes use to judge their abilities are critical factors in developing and maintaining a stable level of confidence (Bandura, 1997; Machida et al., 2012; Vealey et al., 1998).

A number of studies indicate that the sources of sport confidence can change due to individual and contextual factors. For instance, while some studies have reported that male athletes demonstrate higher levels of confidence than females on sources of sport confidence (Krane & Williams, 1994; Lirgg, 1991; Meyers, LeUnes & Bourgeois, 1996; VargasTonsing & Bartholemew, 2006), other investigations did not find gender differences on the sources of sport

confidence (Cox & Whale, 2004; Perry & Williams, 1998). In Kingston, Lane and Thomas (2010) reported that female athletes relied more on mastery, physical self-presentation, social support, environmental comfort and coach leadership as sources of sport confidence than male athletes. Hays et al. (2007) found that females derived confidence from the coaches' encouragement and positive feedback whereas males' derived confidence more from a belief that the coach would set an appropriate training program for performance enhancement. From the above studies, it appears that male athletes' sources of confidence centered on competition outcomes, while for female athletes' good personal performance was a strong motivating factor. In this regard, researchers have contended that the gender differences in social support could be attributed to social approval cues that influence the confidence of female athletes. Therefore, it is important to establish the sources of sport confidence among university athletes and examine whether it could differ based on gender and other contextual factors. Such information will be quite salient to coaches and technical officials who manage university athletes.

Vealey et al. (1998) found that high school and college athletes gained most of their confidence in sport from physical and mental preparedness, social support, mastery, demonstration of ability and physical self-presentation factors. Machida et al. (2012) also reported that the highest rated in terms of importance sources of sport confidence for the athletes were social support, mastery, physical/mental preparation, coaches' leadership and demonstration of ability among college athletes. However, college athletes placed a greater emphasis on their physical self-presentation than high school athletes. In another study, Demaine and Short (2007) found among collegiate basketball players that the five most popular sources of sport confidence were social support, coach's leadership, physical and mental preparation and mastery. Furthermore, the sources of sport confidence among the players did not differ according to sport involvement factors of age, total years playing, playing time and athletic scholarship.

Research Aims and Questions

Vealey's sport confidence model is very useful for explaining sources of sport confidence. This study initially aims to transculturally adapt the Sport Confidence Inventory (Vealey, 2003) into the Myanmar language for examining the sources of sport confidence among Myanmar university players and to explore their dependence on gender, university, type of sport or branches, and competitive level of the athletes. The research questions for this study are as follows:

1. What are the different sources of sport confidence for male and female university athletes?
2. How do the sources of sport confidence vary among athletes from different universities?
3. How do the sources of sport confidence differ based on players' skill levels?
4. What are the differences in the sources of sport confidence among various types of sports or branches of sports?

In this study, we shall look at how a theory of sources of sport confidence can be applied within the real setting of university in Myanmar. Conducting the study in inter-university sport competition gives an opportunity to examine sources of sport confidence among Myanmar university-level athletes, such as mastery, demonstration of ability, social support, coaches' leadership, physical and mental preparation, physical self-presentation, vicarious experience,

environmental comfort, and situational favorableness. Furthermore, the valuable information about demographic data such as gender, age, branches of sport, and players' levels that affect the sources of sport confidence among a variety of university athletes will be presented.

In view of the above background, it is hypothesized that the sources of sport confidence among university athletes will differ based on those demographic variables. The study hypotheses are as follows:

1. There are gender differences in the sources of sport confidence among university athletes.
2. The sources of sport confidence differ among athletes from different universities.
3. There are differences in the sources of sport confidence based on the competitive level of the athletes.
4. The sources of sport confidence vary among different branches of sports.

The findings of the study could be valuable for preparing university-level players for sports competitions. Specifically, this study may provide insights into the different sources of sport confidence related to demographic factors among university-level athletes, which could help maximize their gains and minimize their losses in competitions.

Material & Methodology

Study design and Participants' characteristics

A cross-sectional research design was applied in this study using purposive sampling method. This research sample is consisted of 200 university athletes (52 females and 148 males) aged between 18 and 31 years from university student athletes who participated in Inter-University Sports Competitions for the 2023-2024 academic year of the Ministry of Education. The competitions comprise football, volleyball, track & field, Sepak Takraw and table tennis events at Wunna Theikdhi Stadium, gymnasiums and football training grounds in Nay Pyi Taw. The athletes who volunteered to participate in this study were table tennis ($n = 83$), volleyball ($n = 29$), soccer ($n = 35$), Sepak Takraw ($n = 48$) and track & field ($n = 5$) players. They belonged to the following age categories: 18-20 (69) (34.5%), 21-23 (112) (56%), and 24-26 (18) (9%) 27 and above years (1) (0.5%). Regarding players' level, 59% had been participating in their sport at the university election level and 41% belonged to the university zone team level. Distribution of the players' general characteristics according to age, gender, players' level and types of sport was described in Table 1.

Table 1: General characteristics of participants ($n = 200$).

		Participation	%
Sex	Female	52	26.0
	Male	148	74.0
Age (years)	18-20	69	34.5
	21-23	112	56
	24-26	18	9
	27 & above	1	0.5

		Participation	%
Sex	Female	52	26.0
	Male	148	74.0
Players' Level	Zone University-Level	82	41
	Non-Zone University-Level	118	59.0
Branches of sport	Sepak Takraw	48	24
	Soccer	35	17.5
	Volleyball	29	14.5
	Table Tennis	83	41.5
	Track & Field events	5	2.5

Study Instrument

In order to determine the level and sources of sport self-confidence of the athletes, Sources of Sport Confidence Scale (SSCS) developed by Vealey (1988) was used adapting to Myanmar language for this study. This SSCS Myanmar version was used for data collection and to assess athletes' sources of sport confidence. It consists of 43 items that represent nine sources of confidence in sport: Mastery (five items) demonstration of ability (six items), mental and physical preparation (six items), physical self-presentation (three items), social support (six items), coach's leadership (five items), vicarious experience (five items), environmental comfort (four items) and situational favorableness (three items). The items are scored on a Likert scale ranging from 'not at all important' to 'very important' to assess the importance of each source to the participants in the sport context. Its content and construct validity has already been established for college athletes (Vealey et al., 1988). The reliability of Myanmar version SSCS in the local context test was developed among Myanmar inter-university athletes. Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the answers given by those athletes to 43 items in the scale was calculated as .830.

Data collection procedures

The study included university elite athletes who were playing in inter-university-level sport competition. First of all, the researcher explained the study's objectives and questionnaires item to athletes involved in this study. The participants in the study was voluntary, that their responses would be anonymous and that they could withdraw from the study at any stage. Data were collected from January 11 to 19, 2024. Data collection procedure for each person took approximately 15–20 minutes to complete. The SSCS was subsequently administered to the athletes after the competition matches. The targeted population was Myanmar Inter-University-Level Athletes in 2024 sport competition and sample size was 200, which was considered adequate for the study.

Data analyses

Data were collected with coding and analyzed with Statistical Package for Social Sciences IBM (SPSS) version 25 and descriptive statistics of the data collected in the research (number of people, minimum, maximum, average, standard deviation) were calculated. It has been examined whether sources of sport confidence of athletes show a significant difference

according to their genders, competitive level of athletes, variety of university and types of sports or branches. To examine the assumptions of the tests, independent sample t-test was used to check differences in the university athletes' sources of sport confidence defined by gender and type of sport or special branches. Moreover, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test for differences among student athletes defined by university and competitive level of players. In the difference tests, a probability level of $p \leq .05$ was taken to indicate significance.

Results

The summary scores of inter-university-level athletes on the sources of sport confidence are described in Table 2.

Table 2: Distribution of Mean and SD scores for the various sources of sport confidence (N=200)

Sources of Sport Self-Confidence	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Mastery	14	35	29.76	4.63
Demonstration of Ability	12	42	34.02	6.3
Physical & Mental Preparation	18	42	35.91	4.85
Physical Self-Presentation	3	21	13.14	4.38
Social Support	15	42	33.29	5.19
Coaches Leadership	11	35	29.88	4.95
Vicarious experience	11	58	26.73	5.78
Environmental Comfort	4	28	20.58	4.69
Situational favorableness	3	21	14.87	4.09

The Percentage of Maximum possible scores of the athletes on the sources of sport confidence are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Percentage of Maximum Possible (POMP) scores (means and standard deviations) for the various sources of sport confidence (N = 200).

Sources of Sport Self-Confidence	Mean	SD
Coaches Leadership:	78.67	20.63
Mastery:	75.05	22.05
Physical & Mental Preparation:	74.63	20.21
Demonstration of Ability:	73.40	21.00
Environmental Comfort:	69.08	19.54
Social Support:	67.74	19.22
Situational Favorableness:	65.94	22.72
Physical Self-Presentation:	56.33	24.33
Vicarious Experience:	33.47	12.30

As shown in table 3, the scores indicate that the highest rated sources of confidence in terms of importance for university athletes were coaches' leadership, mastery, physical and mental preparation and demonstration of ability. However, social support, situational favorableness, physical self- presentation and vicarious experience seem to be the weaker sources of sport confidence among the athletes.

It has been examined whether the sources of self-confidence of athletes show a significant difference according to their genders, university, level and branches. The influence of gender on the sources of sport confidence among university athletes are seen in Table 4.

Table 4; T-test results of the measurement among inter-university athletes calculated for sources of sport confidence across gender (N = 200; Female = 52, Male = 148).

Sources of Sport Self-Confidence	Gender	Mean	SD	T	df	Sig
Mastery	Female	30.98	3.93	2.23	198	0.027*
	Male	29.33	4.78			
Demonstration of Ability	Female	35.27	5.42	1.66	197	0.098
	Male	33.58	6.54			
Physical & Mental Preparation	Female	36.15	5.27	0.43	198	0.668
	Male	35.82	4.70			
Physical Self-Presentation	Female	14.10	4.09	1.85	198	0.066
	Male	12.80	4.45			
Social Support	Female	34.58	4.19	2.10	198	0.037*
	Male	32.84	5.44			
Coaches Leadership	Female	31.04	4.67	1.98	198	0.049*
	Male	29.47	5.00			
Vicarious experience	Female	27.98	4.89	1.83	198	0.068
	Male	26.28	6.01			
Environmental Comfort	Female	21.12	4.97	0.96	198	0.340
	Male	20.39	4.59			
Situational favorableness	Female	15.42	4.01	1.14	198	0.254
	Male	14.67	4.11			

* Significant at $p < .05$

The t-test results described in table 4 show that there were significant differences ($p < .05$) in the sources of sport confidence between male and female athletes according to mastery ($t=2.23$, $df=198$, $p=.027$), social support ($t=2.10$, $df =198$, $p=.037$), and coaches' leadership ($t=1.98$, $df=198$, $p=.049$). Female athletes had high mean scores than male athletes according to the above all factors.

Table 5: One-way ANOVA for the level of sources of self-confidence among inter-university athletes according to their universities.

Sources of Sport Self-Confidence		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Physical Self-presentation	Between Groups	763.456	24	31.811	1.818	.015*
	Within Groups	3061.899	175	17.497		
	Total	3825.355	199			
Social Support	Between Groups	1021.513	24	42.563	1.716	.026*
	Within Groups	4341.667	175	24.810		
	Total	5363.180	199			
Environmental comfort	Between Groups	923.833	24	38.493	1.951	.008**
	Within Groups	3452.887	175	19.731		
	Total	4376.720	199			
Situational favorableness	Between Groups	712.785	24	29.699	1.985	.006**
	Within Groups	2618.570	175	14.963		
	Total	3331.355	199			

* Significant at $p < .05$, ** $P < .01$

Table 5 shows that ANOVA results on athletes who played among inter-university sport competition had significantly superior scores in the following sources of sport confidence according to the university factor: Physical self-presentation ($F, 24, 175 = 1.82, p = .015$), social support ($F, 24, 175 = 1.72, p = .026$), environmental comfort ($F, 24, 175 = 1.95, p = .008$), situational favorableness ($F, 24, 175 = 1.99, p = .006$)

Table 6: One way ANOVA for the difference sources of sport confidence among zone level players and non-zone-level players

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Mastery	Between Groups	365.107	7	52.158	2.572	.015*
	Within Groups	3893.373	192	20.278		
	Total	4258.480	199			

* Significant at $p < .05$

Regarding the competitive level of athletes, table 6 presents that significant differences are found in mastery of sport confidence with zone-level players and non-zone-level players among inter-university athletes. ($F, 7, 192 = 2.57$ ($p = .015$))

Table 7. T-test results of unrelated measurements of university football and volleyball players calculated for sport self-confidence levels.

Sources of Sport Confidence	Branches	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig
Demonstration	Soccer	35	34.23	3.78	1.33	62	.037*
	Volleyball	29	32.59	5.69			
Physical & Mental Preparation	Soccer	35	35.89	4.04	.83	62	.042*
	Volleyball	29	34.76	6.28			
Social Support	Soccer	35	33.03	4.02	.77	62	.020*
	Volleyball	29	32.07	5.60			

* Significant at $p < .05$

According to their branches of sport, table 7 shows that significant difference between university-level football players and volleyball players on the demonstration factors ($t_{(3.78)} = 1.33$; $P < 0.05$), physical & mental preparation factor ($t_{(4.04)} = .83$; $p < 0.05$), social support factor ($t_{(4.02)} = .77$; $p < 0.05$) of sources of sport self-confidence were found between those players. In other words, university-level athletes who play soccer is significantly higher than those who play volleyball in the demonstration, physical and mental preparation and social factor of sport confidence.

Table 8. T-test results of unrelated measurements of football and sepak takraw players calculated for the sources of sport self-confidence.

Sources of Sport Confidence	Branches	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig
Demonstration	Sepak Takraw	48	34.25	7.01	.02	81	0.05*
	Soccer	35	34.23	3.78			
Social Support	Sepak Takraw	48	33.23	5.90	.17	81	0.046*
	Soccer	35	33.03	4.02			
Environmental comfort	Sepak Takraw	48	19.06	5.79	2.04	81	.005**
	Soccer	35	21.31	3.58			
Situational favorableness	Sepak Takraw	48	13.98	4.78	1.23	81	.005**
	Soccer	35	15.11	3.04			

* Significant at $p \leq .05$ *, $P < .01$ **

As shown in Table 8, there are significant differences in the sources of sport self-confidence between university-level football and sepak takraw players. Specifically, the demonstration factor ($t_{(7.01)} = .02$; $P < 0.05$), social support factor ($t_{(5.90)} = .17$; $p < 0.05$), environmental factor ($t_{(5.79)} = 2.04$; $P < 0.01$) and situational factor ($t_{(4.78)} = 1.23$; $P < 0.01$) all showed significant differences. In other words, university athletes who play football have lower

self-confidence in terms of demonstration and social support factors compared to those who play sepak takraw. However, in terms of environmental comfort factors and situational favorableness factors, football players have higher self-confidence than sepak takraw players.

Discussion

This study indicated that the highest rated in terms of important sources of sport confidence for the athletes were coaches' leadership, mastery, physical and mental preparation and demonstration of ability among Myanmar university athletes. The findings of the study showed that female athletes demonstrate higher levels of confidence than males in sources of sport confidence and female athletes relied on mastery, coaches' leadership and social support as more important sources of confidence than male athletes. These findings did not support previous studies (Krane & Williams, 1994; Lirgg, 1991; Meyers, LeUnes & Bourgeois, 1996; VargasTonsing & Bartholemew, 2006). According to Krane & Williams (1994) have reported that male athletes demonstrate higher levels of confidence than females in sources of sport confidence, other investigations did not find gender differences in the sources of sport confidence (Cox & Whale, 2004; Perry & Williams, 1998). It could be that female athletes often build confidence through social support, coaches' leadership, demonstration, and breaking of gender norms in sports. Moreover, they may get positive feedback and strategic guidance from the coaches rather than male athletes. Female athletes may receive and value more emotional support from peers, family, and coaches, which can enhance their self-confidence. They may rely more on intrinsic motivation, finding confidence in their personal goals, passion for the sport, and internal satisfaction rather than external validation. They often focus on personal improvement and mastery of skills, deriving confidence from their progress and development.

Findings of this study showed that student-athletes who played in inter-university sport competition had superior scores in terms of physical self-presentation, social support, environmental comfort and situational favorableness in the sources of sport confidence according to university. It may differ from one university to another according to support nutrition, quality training facilities, equipment and its different cultural backgrounds.

The results found that athletes who had competed at university zone team level had higher scores than those who were not zone-level athletes on the sources of mastery sport confidence. It could be that confidence is heavily influenced by the strength of team bonds, trust among teammates, and effective communication. Zone team athletes may receive specialized training and good preparation for elite competition levels rather than non-zone team levels.

As a specific branch of sport, it was also found that the athletes who play soccer had more confidence in terms of demonstration, physical and mental preparation and social support than those volleyball players. University athletes who play football have lower self-confidence in terms of demonstration and social support factors compared to those who play sepak takraw. However, in terms of environmental factors and situational favorableness, football players have higher self-confidence than sepak takraw players.

Conclusion and Recommendation

This study detected a variety of sources of sport confidence among university election athletes defined by gender, university, level of players and specific branches of sport for the

future generation of university athletes in Myanmar. Uncovering the sources of sports confidence among university-level athletes could provide for their selection, training and competition processes. Furthermore, the SSCS questionnaire applied in this study is so reliable that it is particularly effective in evaluating the sources of confidence for university athletes. This study provides valuable information for encouraging athletes by identifying factors related to different sources of sport confidence. It may lead to develop an understanding of athletes' self-confidence and exploring the sources of their self-confidence and how it is operationalized.

By examining the relationship between selected demographics and sport-specific factors with sources of sport confidence, the findings offer practical insights for the selection and training processes of university athletes in sports competitions. University sport committee members and authorized personnel should consider the implications of relevant demographic factors to enhance sport confidence and desired behaviors among student-athletes.

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