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Anahtar Kelimeler: Anahtar Kelimeler başlığı italik ve 10 punto olmalı, en az 3 en çok 5 kelimedenden oluşmalıdır. Anahtar kelimeler virgül (,) işareti ile birbirinden ayrılmalı, küçük harfle yazılmalıdır. Giriş ile anahtar kelimeler arasında 1 satır boşluk bırakılmalıdır.

Giriş: Makalenin ana bölüm başlıkları Giriş, Yöntem, Bulgular, Sonuç ve Tartışma olmak üzere numaralandırma yapmadan sola dayalı, 11 punto, kalın ve büyük harflerle yazılmalıdır. Çalışmada paragraf başı yapılmamalıdır. Paragraf sekmesinde girintiler bölümünde; önce ve sonra alanı 6 nokta satır aralığı 1 olmalıdır. Problem durumu, giriş bölümü içinde açıkça belirtilmelidir. Makale MS Office Word programında uzantısı .doc ya da docx olacak şekilde kaydedilmelidir. Metin, A4 boyutuna üst, alt, sağ ve sol boşluk 2,5 cm. bırakılarak tek satır aralıklı yazılmalıdır. Times New Roman yazı karakteri kullanılmalı ve tek sütun olmalıdır. İkinci düzey başlıklar numaralandırma yapmadan sola dayalı, 11 punto, ilk harfleri büyük, kalın ve italik olarak yazılmalıdır. Kendinden önceki paragraftan bir satır boşluk ile ayrılmalıdır.

Biçimlendirmeyi bozmadan bu kısmı silip makale metnini yazabilirsiniz.

Yöntem: “Giriş” bölümünü sırasıyla “Yöntem”, “Bulgular”, “Sonuçlar ve Tartışma” bölümleri izlemelidir. Belirtilen yazım esaslarına uygun olarak hazırlanan ve inceleme kurulu tarafından onaylanan makaleler yayımlanır.

Örneklem/Çalışma Grubu/Katılımcılar: Araştırmada, grubun oluşturulma biçimine göre Örneklem, Çalışma Grubu ya da Katılımcılar başlıklarından biri kullanılmalıdır. Araştırmanın çalışma grubunun kimlerden oluştuğu ve örnekleme yöntemine ilişkin bilgiler bu bölümde belirtilir.

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Tablolar, rakamla numaralandırılmalı ve Tablo başlığı tablonun üstünde kelimelerin baş harfleri büyük, sola dayalı 11 punto ile yazılmalıdır. Tablo başlığı kalın veya eğik yazı şeklinde olmamalıdır. Tablo numarasından sonra nokta işareti konup tablo adı yazılmalıdır. Tablo içi değerler/yazılar ise 9 punto olmalıdır. Tablo başlığı ile tablo arasında boşluk bırakılmamalıdır. Tablolar metin içinde tablo sayısı verilerek belirtilmelidir. Tablolar, metin içinde kullanıldıkları veya izleyen sayfada yer almalıdır.

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Tartışma ve Sonuç: Buraya sonuç, tartışma ve öneriler kısmı eklenmeli ve yukarıda verilen yazım kurallarına dikkat edilmelidir. Metin içi 11 punto, tek satır aralıklı ve burada verilen biçime uyularak hazırlanmalıdır.

Kaynakça: Kaynakça, APA 6 Publication Manual yayım ilkelerine uygun olarak hazırlanmalıdır. Daha fazla bilgi için; <http://www.apa.org> bakınız. Kaynaklar başlık dahil 10 punto ile tek satır aralığında hiç boşluk bırakmadan alfabetik sıralı yazılmalıdır. Paragraf girintisi sağdan asılı 1,16

cm'dir. Her kaynakçanın bu metinde gösterildiği şekilde ikinci ve daha sonraki satırlar içe 1,16 cm girintili olacak şekilde hazırlanmalıdır. Sayfa alt üst bilgileri makale kabulünden sonra düzenlenebilir. Dergi sistemindeki şablondaki hali ile çalışmanızı sisteme yükleyebilirsiniz. Burada açıklanan yazım kurallarına uymayan makaleler editörler tarafından reddedilir, incelenmek üzere hakemlere gönderilmez.

Makale ile Birlikte Gönderilmesi Beklenen Dosyalar

1) İntihal Raporu (Makaleler, alınan karar gereği 2017 itibari ile intihal (iThenticate, Turnitin, vb) raporu ile birlikte değerlendirilmeye alınmaktadır.) İntihal raporu eklenmediği takdirde editör kurulu iThenticate yazılımında intihal olup olmadığını kontrol ederek makaleyi direk reddetme hakkına sahiptir.

2) Telif Hakları Devir Formu (doc) Makalelerin telif hakkı devri, dergi internet sayfasında sunulan form doldurulup imzalanmak suretiyle alınır. İmzalı [Telif Hakkı Devir Formu](#)'nu buradan indirerek, imzalandıktan sonra tarayıcıdan geçirilerek sisteme PDF olarak yüklenmelidir. Bu formu göndermeyen yazarların yayınları basılamaz.

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Relationship with physical activity habits, quality of life and sleep quality in different exercise types

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A B S T R A C T

In this study, the relationship between physical activity habits, quality of life and sleep quality of individuals who exercise regularly and those who do not, were examined by considering exercise types. In the study, 300 participants (\bar{X}_{age} : 33.92±9.59) from individuals who regularly do sports (Fitness, Tennis, Swimming) by random sampling method and 200 participants who do not regularly do sports (\bar{X}_{age} : 32.72±8.45) individuals by simple random selection method from defined units participated voluntarily. In this study, in addition to the personal information form created by the researcher, three data collection tools were used: Baecke Physical Activity Habit Questionnaire (BFAA), Quality of Life Scale (SF 36), and Pittsburg Sleep Quality Index (PUKI). In the analysis of the data obtained by the face-to-face survey technique, t test in independent groups, one-way analysis of variance test and Pearson product of moments were used to observe the relationship between the variables. When the physical activity habit scores of the participants were examined according to their regular exercise status; Statistically significant differences were found in favor of the exercising group in all sub-dimensions of the SF-36 scale, except for the work index sub-dimension in BFAA. When examined in terms of different sports branches, there was no difference between the groups according to PUKI, while it was observed that BFAA and SF-36 were statistically lower in those who did not exercise compared to all other variables. In addition, the sports index sub-dimension of those who do fitness is higher in physical function, general health perception, social function and mental health sub-dimensions of those who do tennis. While sleep quality was associated with all sub-dimensions of quality of life, no statistically significant relationship was found in terms of physical activity habits. As a result, it has been observed that the quality of life increases as physical activity habits increase, and sleep quality increases as the quality of life increases, and it is thought that sleep quality is indirectly affected in terms of regular exercise.

Keywords: Exercise, Quality of Life, Sleep Quality, Physical Activities

INTRODUCTION

Exercise is one of the biggest factors in the physical fitness of the human body. Nowadays, healthy life plans and programs are planned in many sports branches, and exercises are offered to individuals regarding their needs. Considering exercise as a part of our daily life is important in terms of minimizing the problems that will be encountered in the future for our health.

Physical fitness, which is effective in moving life forward, helps to minimize risks such as cardiovascular system diseases, type 2 diabetes, some types of cancer, osteoporosis psychological disorders, as well as fitness and weight control. Therefore, a good level of physical fitness in individuals who exercise at the appropriate level in terms of duration and severity will protect against many diseases, and support reserves that will allow them to recover easily from the disease (Genç et al., 2011). However, despite this, studies have shown that physical activity is the most important condition

in terms of being healthy, and many health problems are caused by living a sedentary life (Kitiş & Gümüş, 2015).

In addition to objective assessments in determining the health status of people, the concept of quality of life has also been established and has defined as the general perception of people's lives within the scope of the cultural values they are in. It has been defined as not only being biologically healthy and not having a disease state, but also being in a state of complete well-being physically, psychologically, mentally, and socially (Başaran, Güzel & Sarpel, 2005). In this context, general perceptions of individuals regarding their physical and sexual health also include their independence status and social communication, dreams for the future, interests and living conditions (Ekim & Ocağcı, 2012). A better quality of life makes it necessary to "work, produce and be healthy". In this context, it constitutes the basis of human mobility in daily life (Vural, 2010).

Physical activity and exercise are associated with better sleep and less sleep disturbance in healthy adults (Çalık & Algün, 2013). Sleep quality is related to feeling healthy after waking up (Karakaş et al, 2017). Sleep is an indispensable necessity for every human being. Adequate sleep time varies from individual to individual. Sleep needs of people can be affected by various conditions such as "age, gender, physical condition, work, exercise, nutrition, health status, environmental conditions and individual characteristics" (Çelik, 2011). Sleep, which is especially important for human health in physiological and psychological terms, protects people from diseases and disabilities, contributes to their recovery, renews themselves physiologically and spiritually and makes people ready for the next day. Sleep loss causes a general decrease in human performance (Guyton & Hall, 2001; Davenne, 2009). In Turkey, the data showing that sleep quality and physical activity quality of life examined together are limited. Besides, no study was found in the literature in which the sleep quality was measured by comparing the branches with each other in the country. It is thought that this research will create an opportunity to improve physical activity and quality of life in individuals. Therefore, this study aimed to examine the relationship between the quality of life and sleep quality of individuals who exercise regularly and who do not regarding different types of activities.

For this reason, this study aimed to examine the difference between the quality of life and sleep quality of individuals who do and do not exercise regularly, and to evaluate their exercise status. Accordingly, the hypotheses of the study were formed as follows.

- A difference was examined between physical activity habits, quality of life, and sleep quality according to exercise status.

- A difference was detected between physical activity habits, quality of life and sleep quality according to different activity types.

- A relationship was detected between Physical Activity Habits and participants' quality of life and sleep quality.

METHOD

Participants and Procedures

In the study, we examined the physical activity habits, quality of life and sleep quality of individuals who exercise regularly and individuals who do not exercise regularly with the screening model (Karasar, 2009). In this study, which was planned to follow the relational model, the physical activity habits, quality of life and sleep quality of the individuals of sports facilities, who exercise regularly and the individuals who do not exercise were examined. Ethics committee approval was obtained for this study, with the number E-26428519-044-1536, as a research project with file number 100/1520 by the Ethics Committee of Sakarya University of Applied Sciences.

The participants of the study was carried out with two-stage sampling method. The participants who exercise regularly were selected by the simple random sampling method from facilities affiliated with the Spor Istanbul institution within the IMM, Tuzla Kafkale, Pendik Kurtköy, Pendik Çamlık and Kartal Hasan Doğan. 142 women and 158 men ($n=300$; (\bar{X}_{age} : 33.92±9.59; (\bar{X}_{height} : 1.71±.09 cm; \bar{X}_{weight} : 71.81±.12.97 kg; \bar{X}_{bmi} : 24.33±3.23), and who do not exercise regularly were selected by simple random selection method from defined units, 103 women (51.5%) and 97 men (48.5%) ($n=200$; (\bar{X}_{age} : 32.72±8,45 (\bar{X}_{height} : 1.70±.10cm; \bar{X}_{weight} : 69.47±14.23kg; \bar{X}_{bmi} : 23.79±3.72). Individuals who have been exercising regularly for a minimum of 5 weeks do fitness ($n=100$), tennis ($n=100$) and swimming ($n=100$) exercises for 1 hour a day, 2 days a week. The individuals who do not exercise consist of individuals residing in the Kartal, Tuzla and Pendik districts of Istanbul province who are outside of Spor Istanbul for the research. The descriptive statistics of the participants according to the groups were given in Table 1.

Table 1. Describing statistics of participants

Type of exercise	n	Age (year)	Height (cm)	Weight (kg)
Tennis	100	33.43±9	1.71±0.1	70.87±11.7
Fitness	100	32.11±10.6	1.72±0.1	72.54±14.4
Swimming	100	36.22±8,8	1.72±0.1	72.01±12.8
Non-exercise group	200	31.13±7.7	1.70±0.1	69.48±14.2
Total	500	32.80±9	1,71±0.1	70.87±13.5

Data Collection Tools

Personal information form: It is intended to determine the regular exercise status, height, body weight, age and gender of the participants in the study.

Baecke questionnaire for the evaluation of habitual physical activity: The Exercise Habit Questionnaire developed by Beacke et al., (1982). The questionnaire consisted of three parts: exercises done at work, exercises done within the scope of sports, and exercises in leisure. These sections consisted of 16 questions in total (Salcı & Koçak, 2001). The maximum score that can be obtained from each section was 5. In this context, the highest total score of the questionnaire was 15. As the scores of the participants increased, their physical activity habits also increased; As their scores decreased, physical activity habits also decreased (Arat et al., 2006). The questionnaire was adapted into Turkish by Karaca & Turnagöl (2007) and in the reliability analyses performed, it was determined that the coefficient of this questionnaire varied between .78 and .94." When the Cronbach's α coefficients obtained in this study were examined; The total score was determined as .85, Baecke work index was .88, Baecke sports index was .79 and Baecke leisure index was .84.

Quality of life scale (SF 36): SF 36 is used to determine the quality of life of individuals. The Turkish adaptation of the scale developed by Ware et al. (1992) was performed by Koçyiğit et al. (1999). The scale consisted of 8 dimensions and 36 items. The Scale had 8 dimensions as Physical function, Physical role, Pain, General health perception, Vitality, Social function, Mental role and Mental health. Regarding sub-dimensions, the health of the participants scored between 0-100. In this context, as the scores approach 0, the health status deteriorates, while the health status improves as the scores approach 100. The Cronbach's α value for the scale and its sub-dimensions was found to be between .73 and .76 (Şen, 2013). When the Cronbach's α coefficients obtained in this study were examined; physical function was calculated as .74, physical role as .81, pain as .80, general health perception as .74, vitality as .78, social function as .82, mental role as .79 and mental health as .77.

Pittsburg sleep quality index: It was a data collection tool developed by Buysse et al. (1989). In this scale, participants were expected to answer 24 questions considering their sleep quality in the last 30 days. The Turkish reliability studies of the scale were performed by Ağargün et al. (1996). According to Ağargün et al. (1996), the internal consistency value of the scale was .80. This survey consisted of 7

components: sleep quality, the time required to go to sleep, length of sleep, sleep disorder, sleep habits, use of sleeping pills and daily activity disorder. Each component scored between 0-3. In this context, the total score index ranges from 0 to 21. As the scores approach 0, sleep quality increased and decreased as they approach 21 (Buysse et al., 1989).

The PSQI form used to determine sleep quality consisted of 24 questions, 19 of which were self-evaluations of the participants. Moreover, the 19th question in the scale was not considered in scoring. The high values obtained indicated the sleep quality was poor and the sleep disorder level was high. The diagnostic sensitivity of the scale was 89.6%, and the specificity was 86.5% in the determination of sleep disorders. The total score index varied between 0 and 21" (Ağargün, 1996). In this study, the Cronbach's α reliability coefficient of the scale was found to be .75.

Data Analysis

The data were analysed by SPSS and Microsoft excel programs. The data were checked for normality using the criteria of skewness and kurtosis between ± 2 (George & Mallery, 2016) and Mardia's multivariate kurtosis coefficient (Mardia, 1985). In this context, the evaluation of pairwise analysis of the participants' mean scores was performed with Independent Samples T-test, while more than two examinations were performed with the One-Way Anova test. According to the Anova test results, Tukey HSD tests were used when the variances were homogeneous in the variables with a difference between them, and Games Howel Post Hoc tests were used when they were not. Pearson Moment Corelation analysis was used to analyze the inter-scale relationships.

RESULTS

The descriptive statistics of Baecke questionnaire for the evaluation of habitual physical activity, the Quality-of-Life Scale and the Pittsburg Sleep Quality Index of the individuals participating in the study who exercise and do not exercise were given in Table 2.

According to Table 2, the physical activity habits of the participants who exercise regularly was found 8.95 ± 0.82 and who do not exercise $7.06 \pm .96$. Quality of life of exercising group was found in physical health 85.38 ± 18.20 , mental health 76.01 ± 21.41 and in non-exercising group was found physical health 73.75 ± 24.39 , mental health 66.43 ± 24.25 . Sleep quality of exercising group and non-exercising group were 4.42 ± 2.46 and 4.66 ± 2.62 , respectively.

The results regarding the differences in physical activity habits, quality of life and sleep quality of the

participants according to their regular exercise status were given in Table 3.

Table 2. Descriptive findings of participant’s physical activity habits, quality of life and sleep quality

Scale	Dimension	Exercise Group (n=300)			Non-Exercise Group (n=200)		
		\bar{x}	Min	Max	\bar{x}	Min	Max
Baecke	Total	8.95±.82	6.63	10.88	7.06±.96	4.63	9.63
Physical Activity Questionnaire	Work Index	2.57±.49	1.38	4.00	2.60±.48	1.50	3.88
	Sports Index	3.19±.37	2.00	4.50	1.89±.34	1.00	3.00
	Leisure Time Index	3.19±.61	1.50	4.75	2.57±.72	1.00	4.50
Quality of life scale (SF 36)	Physical Health	85.38±18.20			73.75±24.39		
	Physical function	90.83±15.17	5	100	80.43±19.62	5	100
	Physical role	85.92±26.68	0	100	71.13±40.16	0	100
	Pain	88.57±15.31	22.5	100	79.96±21.37	10	100
	General health perception	76.22±15.63	10	100	63.50±16.40	20	100
	Mental Health	76.01±21.41			66.43±24.25		
	Vitality	69.70±16.59	15	100	58.53±18.55	5	100
	Social function	81.96±18.23	12.5	100	70.38±22.41	0	100
	Mental role	79.56±34.81	0	100	71.67±39.69	0	100
	Mental health	72.84±16.03	12	100	65.16±16.37	8	100
Pittsburg Sleep Quality Index		4.42±2.46	0	13.00	4.66±2.62	0	11.00

Table 3. Examination of participants' physical activity habits, quality of life and sleep quality according to their exercise status

Scale	Dimension	Exercise Status	\bar{X}	t	p
Baecke Physical Activity Questionnaire	Total	Regularly	8.95±0.82	23.54	.000***
		Non	7.06±0.96		
	Work Index	Regularly	2.57±0.49	-0.75	.455
		Non	2.60±0.48		
Sports Index	Regularly	3.19±0.37	39.73	.000***	
	Non	1.89±0.34			
Leisure Time Index	Regularly	3.19±0.61	10.38	.000***	
	Non	2.57±0.72			
Quality Of Life Scale (SF 36)	Physical function	Regularly	91.36±13.80	6.82	.000***
		Non	80.43±19.67		
	Physical role	Regularly	86.16±26.34	4.65	.000***
		Non	71.13±40.26		
	Pain	Regularly	88.49±15.35	4.86	.000***
		Non	79.96±21.42		
	General health perception	Regularly	76.28±15.63	8.76	.000***
		Non	63.50±16.44		
Vitality	Regularly	69.92±16.45	7.01	.000***	
	Non	58.53±18.60			
Social function	Regularly	82.05±18.28	6.11	.000***	
	Non	70.38±22.46			
Mental Role	Regularly	79.53±34.96	2.27	.024*	
	Non	71.67±39.79			
Mental Health	Regularly	73.14±15.67	5.47	.000***	
	Non	65.16±16.41			
Pittsburg Sleep Quality Index	Regularly	4.42±2.47	-1.03	.306	
	Non	4.66±2.62			

*p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

According to Table 3, when the physical activity habit scores of the participants were examined according to their regular exercise status; a significant difference was found in favor of the participants who exercise regularly in total score, Baecke sports index and Baecke leisure index (p<0.001). However, the groups were found to be similar in the Baecke study index (p>0.05). When quality of life scores are examined according to regular exercise; Statistically significant differences

were found in favor of the exercising group in all sub-dimensions. On the other hand the sleep quality scores of the participants were examined according to their regular exercise status; no significant difference was found between the groups (p>0.05).

The results regarding the differences in physical activity habits, quality of life and sleep quality of the participants according to the type of exercise performed regularly were given in Table 4.

Table 4. Examination of participants' physical activity habits, quality of life and sleep quality according to exercise type ($n_{fitness}=100$, $n_{tennis}=100$, $n_{swimming}=100$, $n_{non-exercising}=200$)

Scale	Dimension	Exercise Type	X	F	p	Dif.
Baecke Physical Activity Questionnaire	Total	1. Fitness	9.02±0.88	185.881	.000***	1>4
		2. Tennis	9.00±0.77			2>4
		3. Swimming	8.83±0.80			3>4
		4. Non-Exercise Group	7.06±0.96			
	Work Index	1. Fitness	2.61±0.48	.659	.578	
		2. Tennis	2.53±0.48			
		3. Swimming	2.56±0.50			
		4. Non-Exercise Group	2.60±0.48			
	Sports Index	1. Fitness	3.27±0.40	534.934	.000***	1>4
		2. Tennis	3.14±0.34			1>2
		3. Swimming	3.16±0.35			2>4
		4. Non-Exercise Group	1.89±0.34			3>4
	Leisure Time Index	1. Fitness	3.14±0.54	38.480	.000***	1>4
		2. Tennis	3.33±0.64			2>4
		3. Swimming	3.10±0.63			3>4
		4. Non-Exercise Group	2.57±0.72			
Quality of life scale (SF 36)	Physical function	1. Fitness	91.20±14.53	21.740	.000***	1>4
		2. Tennis	95.25±9.28			2>3
		3. Swimming	87.55±15.80			2>4
		4. Non-Exercise Group	80.43±19.67			3>4
	Physical role	1. Fitness	85.75±27.81	8.433	.000***	1>4
		2. Tennis	86.25±24.46			2>4
		3. Swimming	86.48±26.90			3>4
		4. Non-Exercise Group	71.13±40.26			
	Pain	1. Fitness	85.90±17.02	10.457	.000***	1>4
		2. Tennis	91.28±12.52			2>4
		3. Swimming	88.29±15.85			3>4
		4. Non-Exercise Group	79.96±21.42			
	General health perception	1. Fitness	75.15±17.90	28.183	.000***	1>4
		2. Tennis	79.65±13.15			2>3
		3. Swimming	73.98±15.03			2>4
		4. Non-Exercise Group	63.50±16.44			3>4
Vitality	1. Fitness	68.60±18.05	18.743	.000***	1>4	
	2. Tennis	72.85±14.50			2>4	
	3. Swimming	68.27±16.36			3>4	
	4. Non-Exercise Group	58.53±18.60				
Social function	1. Fitness	80.50±19.41	17.805	.000***	1>4	
	2. Tennis	87.50±14.97			2>1	
	3. Swimming	78.06±19.00			2>3	
	4. Non-Exercise Group	70.38±22.46			2>4	
Mental Role	1. Fitness	74.67±40.24	3.030	.029*	3>4	
	2. Tennis	79.33±34.42				
	3. Swimming	84.69±28.79				
	4. Non-Exercise Group	71.67±39.79				
Mental Health	1. Fitness	69.40±18.53	13.657	.000***	2>1	
	2. Tennis	76.68±12.65			2>4	
	3. Swimming	73.35±14.53			3>4	
	4. Non-Exercise Group	65.16±16.41				
Pittsburg Sleep Quality Index	1. Fitness	4.36±2.41	2.487	.060		
	2. Tennis	4.90±2.89				
	3. Swimming	4.00±1.96				
	4. Non-Exercise Group	4.66±2.62				

* $p<.05$; ** $p<.01$; *** $p<.001$

According to Table 4, when the physical activity habit scores of the participants were observed according to the type of exercise; In the total score, Baecke sports index and Baecke leisure index, the

scores of the participants who did fitness, tennis and swimming exercises were found to be significantly higher than the scores of the participants who did not exercise ($p<.001$). However, the groups were found

to be similar in the Baecke study index ($p > .05$). Besides, it was examined that the sports index scores of the participants doing fitness exercises were higher than the participants doing tennis exercises ($p < .05$).

When the quality-of-life scores of the participants were examined according to the type of exercise performed regularly; In general, it was observed that the sub-dimension scores of the participants who did not exercise in all sub-dimensions were statistically lower than the participants who participated in different types of sports. In the physical function sub-dimension, those who did not exercise were lower than the other groups ($p < 0.001$), while the scores of those who did swimming exercise were lower than those who did tennis exercise ($p < 0.001$). In the sub-dimensions of physical role, pain and vitality, the group that did not exercise were found to have statistically lower scores than the others ($p < 0.001$). In the general health perception sub-dimension, the participants who did not exercise were statistically lower than the other groups, but it was examined that the scores of those who participated in swimming exercise were lower than tennis exercise participants ($p < 0.05$). According to the social function sub-dimension, it was examined that those who did not exercise were lower than the other groups, but those who participated in the tennis exercise scored higher than the other groups ($p < 0.001$). According to the mental role sub-dimension, the scores of the participants who did swimming exercises were higher than those who did not exercise ($p < 0.01$). In the mental health sub-dimension, the participants who exercise tennis appeared to be higher than those who did not exercise and the fitness exercise group, while swimmers scored higher than those who did not exercise (0.01). No difference was observed between the groups in terms of sleep quality.

The results regarding the relationship between the physical activity habits, quality of life and sleep quality of the participants according to their exercise status were given in Table 5.

As seen in Table 5, weak positive correlation was observed in sub-dimensions of quality of life according to total physical activity habit scores; physical function ($r = 0.263$, $p = 0.001$), physical role ($r = 0.195$, $p = 0.00$), general health perception ($r = 0.314$, $p = 0.00$), physical function ($r = 0.263$, $p = 0.00$), vitality ($r = 0.258$, $p = 0.00$). A very low correlation was observed in the sub-dimensions of pain ($r = 0.13$, $p = 0.00$), mental health ($r = 0.191$, $p = 0.00$) and social function ($r = 0.173$, $p = 0.00$).

According to the work index, no relationship was observed in the physical and mental role sub-dimension, while a very low relationship was observed in other dimensions. According to the sports index, weak positive correlation was observed with physical function ($r = 0.288$, $p = 0.00$), general health perception ($r = 0.309$, $p = 0.00$), vitality ($r = 0.246$, $p = 0.00$), and social function ($r = 0.20$, $p = 0.00$). On the hand a very low correlation was observed in the physical role ($r = 0.184$, $p = 0.00$), pain ($r = 0.16$, $p = 0.00$) and mental health ($r = 0.143$, $p = 0.00$) sub-dimensions.

According to the leisure time index, weak positive correlation has been observed with physical function ($r = 0.242$, $p = 0.00$), general health perception ($r = 0.278$, $p = 0.00$), vitality ($r = 0.285$, $p = 0.00$), mental health ($r = 0.288$, $p = 0.00$) and very low correlation in the physical role ($r = 0.194$, $p = 0.00$), pain ($r = 0.131$, $p = 0.00$) and social function ($r = 0.19$, $p = 0.00$).

It is seen that sleep quality is not affected by physical activity scores, but it has a weak negative relationship with quality of life sub-dimensions.

Table 5. The relationship between participants' physical activity habits, quality of life and sleep quality.

		Quality of Life								Pittsburg Sleep Quality Index
		Physical Health				Mental Health				
		Physical Function	Physical Role	Pain	General Health Perception	Mental Role	Vitality	Mental Health	Social function	
Baecke PAQ (Total)	r	.263**	.195**	.13**	.314**	.056	.258**	.191**	.173**	-.064
	p	0.00	0.00	0.004	0.00	0.209	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.152
Baecke Work Index	r	-.104*	-0.053	-.096*	-.054	-.095*	-.116**	-.144**	-.130**	.03
	p	0.021	0.237	0.032	0.231	0.034	0.009	0.001	0.004	0.509
Baecke Sports Index	r	.288**	.184**	.16**	.309**	.069	.246**	.143**	.20**	-.074
	p	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.125	0.00	0.001	0.00	0.101
Baecke Leisure Time Index	r	.242**	.194**	.131**	.278**	.093*	.285**	.288**	.19**	-.059
	p	0.00	0.00	0.003	0.00	0.037	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.189
Pittsburg Sleep Quality	r	-.242**	-.335**	-.333**	-.363**	-.259**	-.354**	-.232**	-.337**	1
	p	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In this study, the difference between the quality of life and sleep quality of individuals and the relationship between physical activity habits and quality of life and sleep quality was observed by considering exercise status and different types of activities.

Table 3 showed that there was a statistically significant difference between individuals who exercise regularly and those who did not, according to the Baecke Physical Activity Habits Questionnaire total scores. Although both groups showed moderate activity habits, physical activity habits were higher in the exercising group ($p < .001$). It was examined that both groups were similar in the physical activity habit and work index sub-dimension, but the statistical difference was observed in favour of the exercising group in the sports index and leisure time indexes also affect the total score (Baecke Sports Index $t=39.73$, $p < 0.001$; Baecke Leisure $t=10.38$, $p < 0.001$). In this sense, it can be said that the exercise group spent more active time outside of work. Although the selected sports branches (Tennis, Fitness, swimming) were determined as moderate (1.26 mJ/s) (Yazıcı et al., 2021; Florindo et al., 2003; Ainsworth et al. 2000) activities were based on the population of the research, this result can be considered as an expected result.

In terms of quality of life, it was observed that there was a statistically significant difference in favour of the exercising group in all sub-dimensions of the quality-of-life scale in individuals who exercise and non-exercise. In terms of sleep quality, although individuals who exercise had better scores than those who did not, no statistically significant difference was observed between the groups. In the literature, there were many studies describing the positive effects of exercise on quality of life and sleep quality in studies conducted on both healthy individuals and patients. It was concluded that the employees participating in sports activities have a positive difference in the quality of life variable and all other variables related to the research (Cited from Bardakçı, Biçer, 2022). Also, in a master's thesis study, which was designed with a remote exercise method with experiments and control groups during the pandemic period, it was stated that an increase in the quality of life and sleep quality was observed in the exercise group and there was no change in the control group (Küçük, 2021). Banno et al. (2018) pointed out that although higher quality studies were needed according to their systematic review and meta-analysis study on whether exercise can improve sleep quality, they pointed out that exercise

can improve sleep quality without significant negative effects.

In addition, the study by Yaran, Ağaoğlu & Tural (2017), differentiates university students according to whether they regularly did exercise or did not exercise, physical activity habits, quality of life and sleep quality in both groups. At the end of the research, the physical activity habits of the group that regularly did exercise were found to be significantly higher than the physical activity habits of the group that did not do exercise. In this context, based on the results of both studies, it can be said that regular exercise increased physical activity and habits. In addition, in the study of Yaran, Ağaoğlu, and Tural (2017), it was found that similar to this research, the state of exercise did not make a significant difference in sleep quality.

The differences between the physical activity habits, quality of life and sleep quality of the participants in the exercise type were given in Table 4. Physical activity habit scores of individuals engaged in fitness, tennis and swimming exercises were found to be significantly higher than the scores of individuals who did not exercise regularly. Although this result was an expected result in terms of the population of the research, when the sub-dimensions of the scale were observed, there was no difference between the group that did not exercise and other types of activities according to the sub-dimension of the work index. According to the sports index sub-dimension, it was observed that the sports index of the group doing fitness was higher than the group that non-exercising and tennis, and the group that non-exercising had a lower index than the other groups. According to the Baecke leisure time index, it was seen that the group that non-exercising had a lower score than all other groups. In this sense, it can be said that the exercise group spent their spare time more actively, regardless of the type of sport.

It was observed that the scores of the non-exercising group were statistically lower than the other groups in all sub-dimensions of quality of life except for the mental role. It was known that exercise contributed to the quality of life for many individuals. Although the type of exercise depended on the exercise-related parameters and the exercise environment, it contributed widely to the quality of life (Berger, 2009). Physical function was the most important component of quality of life that affects the ability to perform daily activities comfortably. In this study, where tennis players had the highest score, it was observed that those who did not exercise scored lower than other exercise groups. In addition, it was observed that the physical functions of tennis players were higher than swimmers.

In terms of physical role difficulty, which represents the absence of problems in physical health at work or in other daily activities, and in the pain dimension, which represents limitation due to pain, the sub-dimension score means of those who non-exercise were lower than other types of exercise. However, no statistical difference was found between exercise types.

In the general health perception dimension, which expressed the belief that their health was perfect, it was seen that the participants who play tennis had the highest score, similarly, those who did not exercise have a lower score than the others, but the participants who play tennis have higher scores than the swimmers.

It was observed that the participants who play tennis have higher scores and those who did not exercise have statistically lower scores than other types of exercise in the dimension of vitality, which expresses constantly feeling alive and energetic, and social function, which represents carrying out ordinary activities without interruption due to physical or emotional problems. In addition, there was a statistically significant difference between those who play tennis and those who prefer fitness and swimming exercise type. In this case, it can be thought that the participants who play tennis do not have problems in carrying out social activities compared to others.

Depending on the high scores obtained, it was observed that there was a statistical difference only between the swimmers and those who did not exercise, according to the mental role, which represents the absence of problems in work or other daily activities due to mental problems, and it can be thought that a more similar distribution was achieved between the groups compared to other dimensions. Finally, in the mental health sub-dimension, which expresses feeling calm, happy, and comfortable all the time, although the tennis group got the highest score, it was seen that there was a statistical difference between the fitness group and the exercising group, and there was a statistical difference in favour of the swimmers between the swimmers and those who did not exercise. Eime, Harvey et al. (2010) observed differences in quality of life and life satisfaction of individuals participating in different types of physical activities such as tennis and netball club activities, gymnastics activities and walking, and stated that the tennis and netball club group had a statistically higher mean.

There was no difference found between the exercise groups in terms of sleep quality. In the study of Seferoglu et al. (2013) wanted to examine the relationship between skill acquisition, quality of life, sleep quality and depression levels in a 12-week

experimental study, and according to the results of the study, a relationship was observed between the quality of life and sleep quality, but it was that other parameters were not affected as tennis skill increased. In a study observing the relationship between fitness and quality of life in individuals aged 80 and over, it was concluded that an increase in physical fitness levels contributes to the quality of life even in older ages (Takata et al. 2010).

Yfanti et al. (2014) stated in their research that they wanted to examine the effects of recreational swimming exercises on physical condition and quality of life in females and stated that swimming contributes to the prevention and treatment of chronic diseases, increasing the quality of life, well-being, and longevity. Swimming was a sport suitable for all age groups with its physical and mental benefits that work the whole body and have a low risk of physical injury.

The relationship between physical activity habits and quality of life and sleep quality was given in Table 5. It was seen that there was a weak positive relationship between physical activity habit and quality of life in other sub-dimensions except for the mental role sub-dimension. Again, it was observed that there were positive and significant relationships in the physical health dimensions compared to the sports index sub-dimension of the Baecke Physical Activity Questionnaire, while there were significant weak relations between the quality-of-life sub-dimensions in the leisure time sub-dimension. However, it was observed that there were significant but very low-strength positive correlations in the sub-dimensions of work index and quality of life.

In terms of sleep quality, it was observed that the quality of life increases as the sleep index score decreased, which showed that the sleep quality of individuals with increased quality of life also affects positively. However, in this study, it was observed that sleep quality was not directly related to physical activity habits and sub-dimensions. In this respect, it suggested that sleep quality was affected by other variables (age, gender, mood, illness, lifestyle, drug use and environmental factors). In addition, Çalık & Algün (2013) evaluated the relationship between physical activity and sleep quality of the elderly who did not exercise. At the end of the study, it was determined that the physical activity and habits of the elderly individuals who did not exercise, similar to this study, were not related to their sleep quality.

In a study conducted by Alkaya and Okuyan (2017) on the exercise habits of nurses and the factors affecting their quality of life, it was observed that the sleep quality of those who did not exercise was lower.

In addition, it was stated in the literature that people who exercise regularly face fewer insomnia problems. It was also observed that exercise improves sleep quality by providing a smoother and more regular transition between sleep cycles and stages, and moderate-intensity exercises lasting 20-30 minutes four to five times a week help better sleep (Kelley & Kelley, 2017; Tuncer et al., 2020).

In conclusion, it was observed that physical activity habits were statistically different in individuals who did exercise and did not exercise and that their quality of life was statistically different in favour of the physical activity group in all sub-dimensions, but there was no significant difference between sleep quality.

It was observed that the physical activity habits of the participants included in different types of exercise were different from those who did not exercise. Quality of life sub-dimensions were lower in those who did not exercise. On the other hand, it was observed that the scores of the tennis-playing group in the physical function, general health perception, social function and mental health sub-dimensions were higher than the fitness and swimming groups. There was no statistical difference observed between sleep quality and exercise types.

It was observed that there was a significant positive weak relationship in all sub-dimensions of physical activity habit and quality of life, and the highest correlation with the quality of life was observed in the Baecke Sports index and Leisure time index sub-dimensions. In addition, while there was no direct relationship between sleep quality and physical activity habits, it was observed that it was associated with quality of life.

In future studies, the relationship between life and sleep quality can be evaluated with experimental studies, taking into account the reasons why individuals prefer sports branches.

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COMPLIANCE WITH ETHICAL STANDARDS

Authors' Contributions

Authors contributed equally to this paper.

Conflict of Interest

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

Ethical Approval

For this type of study, formal consent is not required.

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Leisure and youth in the southeast region in Brazil

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A B S T R A C T

The aim of this study was to identify the interests of young people in their occupation of free time that configures the experiences they have lived and to analyze what they would like to live in terms of leisure, but that, due to some impending factor, do not do so. The research is linked to a larger study: "Leisure in Brazil" that analyzed the ways of living leisure in the national territory. The article dealt specifically with youth leisure in the southeast region and the information was collected through structured interviews. Despite the existing differences due to the socioeconomic situation, gender, and education of young people, we identified the relevance attributed to leisure in the company of friends, confirming the socializing and unifying role of groups through leisure. The analysis pointed out the economic and educational inequality, reflected in the access to leisure activities and justifies the need to abandon a homogenizing view of youth.

Keywords: Leisure, Youth, Free Time, Tourism, Education

INTRODUCTION

Leisure discussions have gained greater prominence in different areas of society in recent decades. This evidence given to leisure gains notoriety in magazines, newspapers, advertising pieces of different products and services, becoming a reflection of the intensification of investigations on the topic that, gradually, is becoming an object of studies in the Humanities.

Although the sociological studies point to internal divisions, giving rise to the sociology of youth, leisure, and education, it is important to highlight that the specific domains of sociological studies need to ensure the comprehensiveness of the vision and understanding of the analyzed subject because, if such integrity does not occur, we run the risk of building fragmented views of the topic.

In the sociology of youth, Pais (1990), who studies youth culture, argues that youth behaviour is directly linked to issues of free time, being, "in the field of leisure that youth cultures acquire greater visibility and expression" (p. 591). He also argues that the investigative possibilities that this area of knowledge presents are legitimized as an important field of interdisciplinary studies of life, customs, and various social manifestations. In other words, to talk about youth, it is necessary to discuss leisure (Pais, 1990).

Leisure can be understood as a historical-cultural manifestation intrinsic to the complexities of life in society and, as well as other dimensions of human experience, it is constituted by and in the relationships that people establish with their peers and with the structures that make up the uniqueness of each social scenario (Soutto Mayor & Isayama, 2017). Therefore, thinking about youth based on leisure experiences reflects the dialogue established between different sociologies, with a view to valuing the wealth and

diversity that make up human activities. In this perspective, youth is taken as a social category that has gained prominence in the last decades, making comprehensive studies necessary to be able to encompass the different youths in a contextualized and dialogical way with the different social aspects that comprise them.

Youth is understood as a social historical category and, therefore, presents itself from age markers only due to methodological criteria established in data collection, without being its main determinant. Thus, youth take place in the plural sense, comprising all youth formed by diversity and plurality, recognized in a country of continental proportions, such as Brazil. Likewise, it is necessary to consider that the line that demarcates the different phases of life, according to Pais (2009), appears increasingly tenuous, undoing age marks and rites of passage.

Currently, the features that define the boundaries between the different life stages are more fluid and discontinuous (Pais, 2009, p.373), and the age factor only is not enough to classify this phase of human development. The complexity that accompanies the topic in line with the lack of consensus among scholars makes it difficult to construct a concept of youth. Approaching more a diverse set of ways of life than the age limits, youth constitute a socially constructed category and subject to the countless and constant transformations of its time.

Research carried out with young people from Catalonia (Spain) by Lopes-Sintas, Gharaman, and Rubiales (2017) demonstrated that youth is not a homogeneous category. The authors concluded that leisure habits varied according to social class and, within the same class by age and gender. It is in this regard that cultural practices and specifically leisure take a privileged position in the lives of young people, insofar as they provide sociability, identity construction, and human development.

These aspects were identified by Brenner, Dayrell, and Carrano (2008) in the survey "Profile of Brazilian Youth." According to the authors, it is necessary to provide access to spaces, equipment, institutions, and leisure services that contribute so that young people can make choices in their free time. The study showed that inequalities in access to leisure, in youth, were more present when considering the categories "gender" and "income range."

Son (2017) states that social justice in leisure should provide equal access to different spaces and leisure equipment with the development of activities and programs without the risk of discriminatory practices on the part of the recreation team, or other members of the community.

In this context, this study aimed to know the leisure experiences of a portion of Brazilian youth residing in the southeast region of the country, and in a specific way to: a) identify the interests of young people regarding the occupation of free time, which configure the experiences they lived and, b) analyse their main desires, what they would

like to experience at leisure, but do not do, recognizing the impeding justifications.

METHOD

Leisure in Brazil: youth and the southeastern region of the country

This research is part of a study that analyzed the involvement of Brazilian citizens with leisure experiences. This is the research "Leisure in Brazil: representations and realizations of everyday experiences," the universe of which considered individuals who reside in the Brazilian territories, covering the 26 states of the federation and the Federal District, targeting Brazilians over seven years old, selected to compose the research sample. Based on socioeconomic, educational, geographic, and gender variables, among others, different social groups, their preferences, and desires for leisure experiences were analyzed.

The research had a qualitative-quantitative character, developed by means of a sample survey, with collection carried out through personal interviews, at flow points, in the cities previously drawn to compose the sample. Using the survey technique, a structured interview form containing open and closed questions was used as a research instrument.

As an evaluation parameter, in a probabilistic sample, the survey showed a maximum sampling error of 2% for the country and a confidence level of 95%. The total sample size was 2,400 interviews, divided into the five regions of the country. Interviewers applied the interview forms structured individually and according to the pre-defined quotas (municipality, sex, age, education, and income).

After checking and validating, the data were inserted into a bank developed exclusively for this purpose, containing validation rules that prevented the entry of data unrelated to the possible answers to closed questions. The functionalities, as predicted, encompass several crossings between the collected data, offering possibilities and points of view that can enrich the results, when exploring to the maximum the possible observations in this universe (Stoppa & Isayama, 2017).

For this text, we opted for a sampling of young people, between 15- and 24-years old living in the southeast region of Brazil, composed of the states of São Paulo, Rio de Janeiro, Espírito Santo, and Minas Gerais. The size of the excerpt considered the IBGE (Brasil, 2010) data referring to the total population of the southeast region: 80,364,410, of which 16.9% relate young people. In total, the clipping considered 198 young people living in the southeast region and presented a maximum sampling error of $\pm 7\%$. Thus, the sample was constructed by representative quotas of the population considering the variables of region and state. In addition, the survey considered, in each state, sex, age, education, and family income, according to the IBGE census (Brasil, 2010)

quotas, respecting the proportionality of the sampling established here.

For organization of the collected data, the classification of cultural interests, used in Brazil, prepared by Dumazedier (1980) was used, distinguishing five fields: physical sports; social; artistic; manuals; and intellectual. Camargo (2017) adds a sixth interest, referring to tourist interests. We also consider idleness as another leisure possibility informed by the research participants. These fields are closely related, being differentiated only to denote the cultural diversity that encompasses leisure.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Presentation and discussion of the results will take place in two parts and aims to know leisure experiences lived after the fulfilment of the obligations, for which the following question was asked: Excluding activities that are your obligations, what do you do the rest of your time? This question was repeated, specifying weekdays and weekends. These initial questions give evidence of the ways of occupying the time free from obligations.

After viewing this panorama and wishing to know more details about the leisure habits of this portion of the Brazilian youth, other questions were developed that will be presented in the second part of this session: 1) what are the interests of young people in the southeast region, regarding occupation of free time? The questions that guided the second part of the research were: what would you like to do in your free time? This question was repeated, specifying weekdays and weekends, as well as: 2) what are the factors that hinder experiences in free time? It is worth mentioning that this survey considered the following variables: gender, education, and income.

The analyses about leisure experiences occurred among the different groups of young people in southeast Brazil were carried out by grouping the data of individuals who had similar socioeconomic, educational, and gender characteristics and, subsequently, compared with answers that detailed the activities carried out. Finally, these crossings were broken down looking for similarities and differences in the leisure activities experienced between the groups.

It is worth mentioning that, even within the framework of youth established for analysis in this research, there are peculiarities between each individual and between the groups that are part of the spectrum of young people aged between 15 and 24 years in the southeast region, which do not allow their homogenization, because of socioeconomic and educational differences. The analyses considered these differences, authorizing the use of the term youth, in the plural and thinking about specificities that bring these individuals together in the form of occupation of time.

The first analysis carried out focuses on the social classes in which young people are distributed. The graph (Figure 1) below illustrates the forms of occupation of time depending on different Brazilian social classes, showing opportunities for some and difficulties for others.

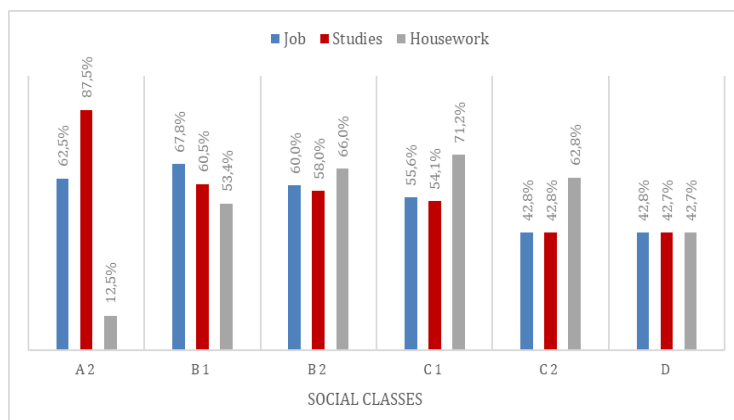


Figure 1. Relationship between activities performed by obligation and social class (Source: Data from the survey "Leisure in Brazil.")

Social class A2 has the possibility to invest most of their time in studies, 87.5%, which represents more than twice the percentage of young people in classes C2 and D, who have said to dedicate their time to studies. Such disparities configure the difference in opportunities that each social group has for itself and that feed back into the distancing of classes. This reality is not only reflected in the ways of experiencing leisure, but also in the ways of accessing the labour and income market, perpetuating social distance, which generates the injustices perceived daily. Once again, data from Brazilian surveys involving youth (Brasil, 2013; Brenner et al., 2008), do not allow us to understand it in the singular, as the differences refer to thinking about youths, burdened with social economic, educational, geographical differences, perpetuating the huge inequalities that divide the Brazilian population

To analyse the social leisure dynamics adopted by this portion of Brazilian youth, one considers the heterogeneity of people included in this classification, with differences that do not allow generalist statements. The misunderstanding of formulating a unique image for all youth, according to Brenner et al. (2008) is partly the result of an association with the time of youth, and of youth cultures, essentially to moments of fun and pleasure, far from work obligations, an activity that would represent adulthood.

Analyses made from the survey of information bring characteristics not of the Brazilian youth, in a generalized way, but they approach in a concrete way a segment of the analysed youth. It is also important to highlight that, even the geographic profile used for the purposes of the present study does not allow a consensual understanding of youth, as socioeconomic, educational, gender issues, among others, permeate and build the multiplicity and diversity related to

this and the other stages of human development. Activities pointed out to be enjoyed at leisure give evidence of the construction of an understanding that has been adopted by this part of society and also, about how youth expresses itself in the choice of these experiences.

When it comes to access to leisure activities, social markers such as economic, educational, and social power can be decisive, especially considering the existence of the entertainment industry that fosters advertising and universal access to leisure practices and imposes limitations on access to those segments of youth with lower financial conditions, who are unable, due to economic reasons, to access and have certain experiences. However, it is important to highlight that, although a segment of youth has less economic power, they also have their leisure experiences and do so according to their economic, geographical, and social possibilities.

Among the countless possibilities of experiencing leisure, interest in group activities, classified as social, represented the form of leisure time occupation most frequently reported by young people, regardless of the respondents' family financial status or social class. This information indicates the preference for sharing leisure moments with friends, partners, boyfriends/girlfriends. Brenner et al (2008) call attention to the centrality of peers in the formation of identity and the role that leisure has in this process. Research by Martins, Trindade, Menandro & Nascimento (2014) also shows the relevance given by young people to occupy their free time with friends, and this time is decisive in the formation of each individual's identity and in the lifestyle, they choose to follow.

Leisure time carries a character of freedom in which young people can relate to their peers more freely, away from the eyes and rules of adults, enabling the creation of types of codes and laws of their own conduct, forming collective and individual identities. This way of experiencing leisure is observed in all the youth studied here, regardless of social strata, despite changes in the amount of time available for daily obligations that is influenced by the class of individuals. Young people from lower income classes have, in general, less time available for leisure, even so, when possible, they dedicate part of their leisure time to activities with peers.

As a higher family income was observed, the occupation of leisure time with social activities was also greater. This result may have occurred due to the time differences available for obligations between groups. Young people who grow up in family environments with lower incomes need to enter the world of work earlier, acquire more obligations, sometimes even reconcile work and studies, leaving less time for leisure between peers.

Leisure has a socializing and unifying role for groups, based on the social interests of leisure, Lazcano, Romera and Freitas (2020) state that youth leisure goes beyond the idea of simple enjoyment of time, and is realized as an authentic sign of identity.

In this sense, the data indicate that in addition to social meetings with peers, the most frequently performed activities as a form of leisure, considering all the young people analysed (men and women), were physical-sports, artistic, leisure, and tourism. Although such activities are experienced by young men and women, there are marked differences when analysed from the perspective of weekdays, weekends.

It is observed that, during the week, leisure time is reserved for physical-sports activities (26.6%), social (17.5%), leisure (10.5%), intellectual (8.5%) and tourism (4.5%).

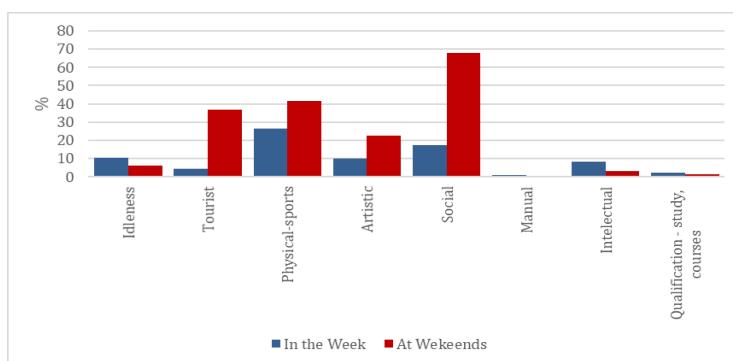


Figure 2. Relationship between leisure activities performed during the week and the weekend. (Source: Data from the survey "Leisure in Brazil.")

During the weekend, the percentage of participation in tourist activities (36.7%) and physical-sports (41.7%) increases, while leisure falls to 6.1% and activities classified as intellectual 3% (Figure 2).

Data presented shows a low participation in artistic and intellectual activities. Comparing the data to official surveys of the Brazilian government, such as: Information System and Cultural Indicators (Brasil, 2013) and Profile of Brazilian States and Municipalities (MUNIC): Culture - 2014 (Brasil, 2015), it is possible to list supposed reasons for little adherence to artistic activities by young people. MUNIC: Culture - 2014 (Brasil, 2015) points out that the frequency of traditional cultural facilities that fit the scope of artistic and intellectual interests, such as: museums, theatres, movie theatres, bookstores, and cultural centres, are still low in the Brazilian territory, although the Southeast has a higher average number of cultural facilities than other regions of Brazil.

Public libraries showed a leap in dissemination from 1999 to 2014, moving from 76.3% of municipalities to 97.1% in fifteen years, being the most common cultural equipment in the national territory. Museums, cinemas, and theatres or concert halls also grew, reaching 27.2%, 10.4%, and 23.4% of municipalities in Brazil, respectively. On the other hand, bookstores showed a decrease of 8.7% in the fifteen years evaluated. Despite the progression in the offer of cultural activities by the State, these numbers are still considered low because more than 70% of Brazilian cities do not have museums or theatres and almost 90% do not have cinemas (Brasil, 2015). The lack of infrastructure that allows free access for young people is not the only problem; even the cities privileged in equipment for activities of this type, sometimes lack public policies that encourage the

participation of young people in artistic and intellectual activities, directly reflecting on interests of occupying their leisure time.

It is relevant to highlight that, in addition to the presence of the leisure facilities mentioned above, it is also important to consider the cultural entertainment policies that such facilities require, as well as education for this type of leisure. In general, it means, to promote an education for leisure experiences that go beyond physical sporting interests and also encompass an education for the understanding of other artistic manifestations combined with leisure policies that favour access to equipment, often concentrated in central regions of cities.

Regarding the development of programs and their liveliness processes, Theriault (2019) states that the evaluation of leisure programs for black youth needs to be carried out critically. According to him, to realize the potential of a programming strategy that brings social transformations to the local reality, specific questions about the action deserve attention, such as, what specific skills, attitudes, and knowledge young people must master so that they can transform their communities? Which characteristics, such as degree of structure, social norms, among other elements are important in this transformation? How are challenges negotiated and implemented, such as financing issues? For Theriault (2019), understanding these questions can provide practical answers related to leisure programs and the possibility of social transformation, as well as understanding when and how organized recreation programs are of real importance to youth.

It is also important to consider, according to Munné (1980), that the self-conditioning and hetero-conditioning factors determine forms of time occupation by different age, ethnic, gender, social, and intellectual groups, etc. Such processes are anchored in the idea that all human actions are impregnated with two types of conditioning that will interfere with different degrees of intensity. Thus, self-conditioning is related to doing what is desired, with freedom, and without the character of obligation, whereas, hetero conditioning is related to doing by necessity, in a mandatory way, driven or directed by factors extrinsic to man. Here we have the possibility of influencing the hetero-conditioned experiences of young people through education for leisure, expanding the repertoire of possibilities and perceptions with an emphasis on promoting well-being, stimulating new values, and changing the focus of consumption, expanding the collection of possibilities.

For this youth to enjoy incorporating intellectual and artistic activities in their leisure time, consideration must be given to the preparation received to enjoy this type of leisure, that is, aspects related to leisure education. For Fredricks & Eccles (2006), the incentive to participate in planned out-of-school activities would be one of the ways to stimulate the expansion of the youth's leisure repertoire, capable of providing different opportunities for personal and collective growth and development. The aim of pointing out the need

for educational development so that young people can enjoy more cultural activities is not, at any time, to create a sort of ranking of the best and worst activities, it is just a questioning regarding the finding of low participation in activities of this among young people.

The second most widespread group of equipment in the municipalities are sports stadiums or gyms, which can be related to the general population's interest in sports practices (Brasil, 2015). Data show that, among the young audience, there is a high interest in physical sports practices, being the second most performed activity by young people at leisure, behind only social activities. Sports participation of young people allows problematizing issues based on gender markers, when it is observed that the participation of women in these activities was lower. During the weekends, 10% of them affirmed to practice some sport activity, while during the week 13% do so. Men presented 69.2% of participation in any sport or exercise on weekends and 40.6% during the week. These data are in line with research carried out with young Croatians (Ópic & Duranovic, 2014), in which men prefer to spend their free time with sports activities, while this option is not mentioned by women.

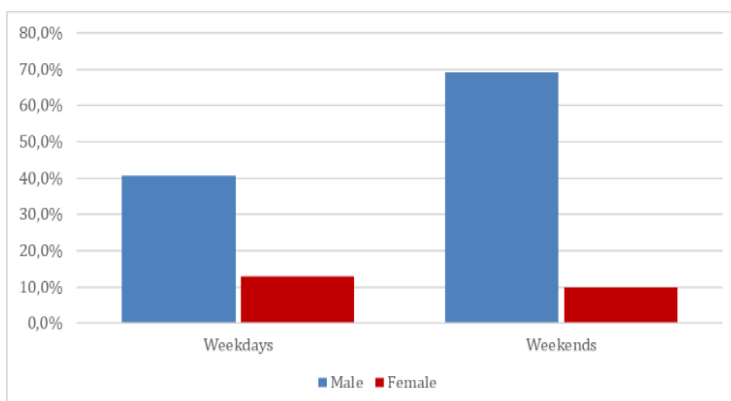


Figure 3. Comparison between participation in physical-sports activities during the week and on weekends according to gender (Source: Data from the survey "Leisure in Brazil")

Whether due to factors such as public security that imputes greater risks of locomotion and occupation of community spaces to women, or due to the fact that women still dedicate themselves to a longer working day than men when taking on more domestic tasks in the time outside formal work, or even because it is an interest in which, culturally, men are even more stimulated in Brazilian society; the fact is that women have reported less participation in physical activities, suggesting that there is a socio-spatial division influenced by gender in the southeast. According to Brenner et al (2008), men have greater mobility in public spaces while women remain more present in domestic spaces with less participation in extra-family activities.

When we analyse social leisure experiences based on the gender marker, we notice that the percentage of young women who choose social activities increases to 73% on weekends, while among young men it was 63.1%. Even though the increase in participation in leisure situations at social events experienced by young women on weekends is greater

than that performed by young male audiences, it is observed that the time invested in leisure experiences during weekdays is greater among young boys (Table 1).

Table 1. Activities usually performed during holidays, weekdays, and weekends according to gender

Activity	Period	Women	Men
Idleness	Weekdays	1%	8.1%
	Weekends	5%	6.1%
Touristic	Weekdays	6%	1%
	Weekends	42%	31.4%
Physical-sports	Weekdays	13%	40.6%
	Weekends	10%	69.2%
Artistic	Weekdays	10%	7%
	Weekends	26%	16.2%
Social	Weekdays	11%	18.2 %
	Weekends	73%	63.1%
Manual	Weekdays	2%	-
	Weekends	-	-
Intellectual	Weekdays	13%	4.0 %
	Weekends	6%	1%
Qualification – Study, Courses	Weekdays	4%	1%
	Weekends	2%	1%
Others	Weekdays	100%	100%
	Weekends	53%	63.1%

Source: Data from the survey “Leisure in Brazil.”

Time spent on obligations, analysed based on the gender marker, shows that 84% of young women said they had a stimulated obligation to do household chores and 27% with their family/children. Conversely, 48.8% of young men said they were obligated to do household chores and 18.2% had an obligation to take care of their family and children during the day. The scenario presented indicates that, despite the changes and advances in women's rights, women in the Southeast of Brazil play a more focused role in caring for the home and raising families, obligations that have been stimulated since childhood, while men are more stimulated for life outside the home.

Historically the role of women in Brazilian homes has been reflected in their leisure options since their youth, and it can be seen that while 18.2% of young men said they participated

in social gatherings during the week, 11% of young women said they reserved part of their time for such an experience. These are social roles dictated by Western culture, although, gradually, there are changes in the performance of these socially established roles.

WHAT YOUNG PEOPLE WOULD LIKE TO EXPERIENCE IN THEIR FREE TIME

Apart from the leisure experiences that are possible to be carried out, there are those that still linger in the field of young people's dreams, wishes, or desires. To approach these desires, young people were asked about what they would like to experience at leisure. In the first place of preferences, both female (40.18%) and male (37.25%) appear tourist activities. Young people cited tourist activities – understood here from the concept of Camargo (2017) as trips and excursions – as the main leisure choice on weekends and stated that they had the desire to continue experiencing it. When relating income to schooling, this trend has not changed; the preference of young people remains focused on tourism.

Social markers influence access to leisure, and, in the case of tourist leisure, they are even more difficult to reach because it is an experience that depends on financial resources. We can infer that these young people possibly still want to travel to other more distant places or that demand more expenses, without yet obtaining it.

Krippendorf (1989) points out that all social strata should have access to vacations and travel, but, in Brazil, we do not yet have public policies with tourism programs especially aimed at young people. Even after the creation of the Ministry of Tourism in 2003, the implementation of specific policies related to youth and tourism promotion was minimal, limiting possibilities of the right to leisure provided for in the Constitution.

Studies have shown the importance of tourism for young people; Abreu's research (1995) with Portuguese young people, mostly with university degrees (75.4%) analysed motivations and imagination regarding leisure travel for this audience. The young people surveyed, men and women worked, and international tourism was part of their leisure habits. Nevertheless, the trips they experienced were offered by Portuguese associations at more affordable prices than travel agencies. These young people pointed out four dimensions of representations about leisure travel: cultural dimension (getting to know new places and new cultures), sociability (meeting people, making new friends), rest (breaking routine and doing nothing) prestige (everyone travels, traveling is important).

Wang' study (2017) with young Chinese people showed that leisure tourism represented a factor that brought satisfaction (physical and social) with the comfort, stimuli, and novelties experienced in the trips by the studied group.

Cavaton (2015) analysed low-income youth (IBGE), men and women, students at a Federal Institute (high school) in

Brasília (Distrito Federal/Brazil), who described their desires in relation to leisure travel. The author identified that the young people had not travelled in the last three years and pointed out many concerns related to leisure tourism: experiencing stewardship, comfort, rest, fun, reduction of social controls, contemplating landscapes, traveling in a group, among others. The study pointed out the lack of access of these young people to tourism, as a leisure option due to financial conditions, as well as highlighting that the wishes indicated would be possible to be satisfied and points out the need to implement public policies for this audience (Cavaton, 2015). The data are in line with this research, as tourist interests are present in the imagination of young people, however, the socioeconomic condition and the absence of public policies inhibit and prevent a segment of the youth from accessing this type of leisure.

High school students from a suburb on the outskirts of Porto Alegre (Rio Grande do Sul/Brazil) pointed out the lack of opportunities for leisure tourism. Such young people did not have tourist leisure habits in childhood, and this extended to youth. They stated that tourism motivates the search for new knowledge, new perspectives, and learning and, therefore, the author states that this experience should be offered through educational programs (Nunes, 2014). When relating the importance of education and tourism, the author emphasizes that “tourism encourages students to better understand their socio-cultural reality, committing themselves as citizens to preserve it, through the maintenance, care, and improvement of natural and cultural heritage” (p. 17).

Currently, there are low-cost trips and new possibilities that enable more economical tourism (coaching surf, hostels, Airbnb, Uber, among others). These forms of accommodation and shared means of transport are more accessible than those offered on the market. Rosa’s research (2000) studied young tourists who participated in the carnival in Ouro Preto/Minas Gerais/Brazil and proved that students’ houses/hostels represent a more accessible option that young people use to stay. Even with these new ways of traveling, tourism, in these studies, represented a little democratic modality and access to the most favoured sections of the population.

However, tourism proved to be a yearning for the various youths and corroborates the data of this research because, regardless of education and income of the young people studied, tourist leisure is the main desired experience. Tourism should be available mainly to low-income young men and women, as they face greater barriers to accessing leisure. Leisure tourism is a right and allows young people to break their routine, slow down the processes of social control, allow for new forms of behaviour and various opportunities for experimenting with novelty and identity negotiation for this audience (Abreu, 1995).

Followed by the option of experiencing tourist activities, both young women and men showed a desire to practice physical and sports activities and represented the second

leisure option highlighted as an activity they would like to experience in their free time. These are habits that these young people said they already have, both during the week (first option) and on weekends (second option), but they would like to continue experiencing them.

Research conducted by Cavichioli, Mezadri & Starepravo (2006) sought to understand the consumption and formation of sport and leisure habits of young Brazilians between 18 and 30 years old and demonstrated that, at the beginning of this age group, there was a greater incidence of sports activities, but as there was an increase in age, young people decreased the practice of physical and sports activities. This also occurred with those who had small children, both among the women and men studied.

Manual, intellectual, and artistic activities were little indicated among young women, while among men, there was no choice for these options. In the artistic activities, there was a preference for the male group, whose frequency occurs among higher education students. We understand the importance of education for leisure and knowledge of different activities so that the choices are more authentic in free time. Perhaps the lack of knowledge of these types of possibilities, lack of infrastructure to experience these possibilities, minimum of experimentation in childhood, can explain the little indication of manual, intellectual, and artistic activities.

Among the less expressive activities and interests among young men, we have: social (5.76%) and qualification (4.8%). Although social activities were more marked in the experiences of young people and little mentioned among the activities they would like, sociability permeates all other leisure experiences. Manual, intellectual, and leisure activities are among the least preferred by young people in the Southeast, for both sexes.

Information related to artistic, social, qualification/studies, and ‘doing nothing’ proved to be less relevant than information related to tourism and physical sports. According to the information collected, young women have a greater preference for social activities (12.14%) and qualification (10.28%) than in artistic activities (6.54%), leisure (2.8%), manual and intellectual (0.93%), and ‘doing nothing’ appears with 7.4% of the choices (Figure 4).

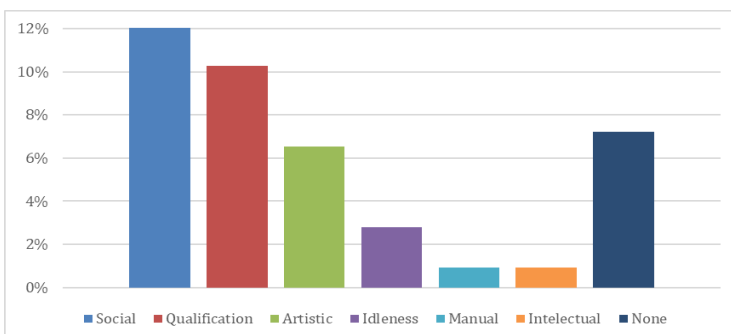


Figure 4. Female interests in addition to tourist and physical-sports preferences according to income (Source: Data from the survey “Leisure in Brazil.”)

The possibility of occupying time with 'doing nothing' is representative for a small part of the interviewees (7.2% for women and 7.69% for men), which may reflect the society that impresses the need to always be busy or producing, as the capital logic rules both working time and free time (Padilha, 2004). In this perspective, time, whatever it may be, must be linked to productivity while any trace of idleness must be avoided at all costs.

Among young men, artistic activities appear with 8.82% of the preferences followed by doing nothing, with 7.84%. There is a proximity between social activities and qualifications with 4.9%, followed by 2.94% who prefer something other than the options listed in the questionnaire, and 1.96% would like to practice idleness. Manual and intellectual activities are not among the preferences of the young people surveyed (Figure 5).

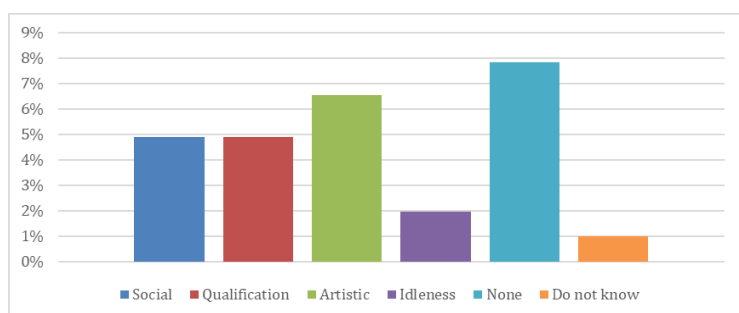


Figure 5. Male interests in addition to tourist and physical-sports preferences according to income (Source: Data from the survey "Leisure in Brazil.")

Young men are less concerned with social activities and qualification, with 4.9% of the choices in both, than women, with 12.14% for social activities and 10.28% for qualifications and studies.

These data corroborate the research by Araújo, Chauvel & Schulze (2011) in which they sought to know the options, reasons, and meanings of leisure for young women and men in a community in Rio de Janeiro/Brazil. The respondents, mostly low-income and with incomplete high school, recognize leisure as something important in their lives, even though they have few resources (financial and little free time) to experience it. Part of the free time of these young women was used for reading and studies, carried out alone at home or in the community library. Young women, who were early mothers, said they used their free time as an opportunity to qualify and be able to return to the job market. This is, without a doubt, a legitimate way to visualize and value the occupation of free time, considering that leisure is not an isolated phenomenon, but a potential possibility of individual development that supposes a perspective of social development.

When the analyses fall on what they would like to do in their free time, analysed from the family income of young people in the Southeast, the data point to practically the same dimension when crossed with the data about what they would like to do in their free time vs. schooling, suggesting these different youths have the same yearnings for leisure

experiences. However, it is noted that the highest concentration of young people in the southeast region has an income between one and five minimum wages, a factor that generates discrepancies perceived in this study. The analysis of income seems to be directly linked to the level of education, as confirmed in the first part of this study. This information makes us think that the economic power of families accompanies the possibilities of educational advancement, as a segment of the youth needs to choose work over study to help with household expenses, making access to and permanence in school seats difficult, especially after completing high school. This analysis reinforces the idea that social, economic, educational, geographic differences are inhibiting factors for access to leisure for young Brazilians (Figure 6).

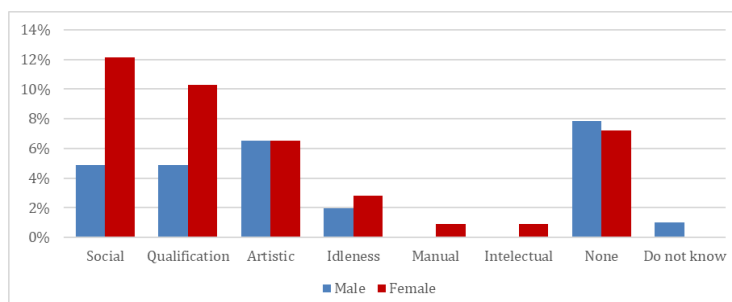


Figure 6. Relationship between preferences and total (Source: Data from the survey "Leisure in Brazil.")

A study by Cavichioli et al. (2006) showed that this segment of youth does not use their free time as they would like and points out several factors that hinder the experience of leisure, both by women and men. The lack of financial conditions was the most cited and limiting difficulty to experience leisure for young people from less favoured socioeconomic classes. However, for young people with higher education and income, lack of time was the main barrier to access to leisure.

Physical-sports activities represented the second option of activities that young people would like to experience, with 14.9% of female preferences, and 27.45% of male preferences. It is important to consider that in order to experience a physical-sports practice, in addition to time, spaces and material resources are necessary. Research carried out by Santos (2009) with young people from the periphery showed that a segment of young people would like the neighbourhood to have more squares and sports courts and indicated that the street represented the space in which it was possible to play sports on weekends.

On the other hand, a study with young people frequenting a square close to the centre of Caçador/Santa Catarina/Brazil revealed several problems related to sports spaces, with emphasis on the "lack of maintenance of equipment (court floor, beams, etc.); absence of materials such as balls and nets to be made available to practitioners; uncoated walking/running track, in addition to the lack of security for users" (Rotta & Pires, 2010, p. 14).

These studies demonstrate the needs of young people in relation to resources for experiencing different physical and sports activities. The young women and men studied in the southeast pointed out the relevance of physical-sports activities in their leisure experiences and who would like to continue experiencing them. This panorama needs to be considered in the formulation of public policies so that these different youths have access to leisure as a constitutional right.

CONCLUSION

The socio-economic and educational possibilities unfairly distributed in the country make it possible to perceive the differences in opportunities and access to leisure, justifying the need to treat youth in the plural. Even further away from a more homogeneous conception of youth, we also perceive class differences in leisure and, consequently, in opportunities to access and experience the diversity that leisure experiences can provide.

The most privileged strata of society are given more time for studies and professional training and, in a direct manner, for the less favoured strata, less time for studies as they need to spend more time for work and household chores. This data alone already signals and confirms the differences in opportunities and, consequently, the various youths that make up the Brazilian youth, ratifying a country of social inequalities that continues to perpetuate itself.

Social markers such as economic, educational, and social power are determining factors for leisure experiences, especially when we consider that there is an entertainment industry that, at the same time that promotes advertising and universal access to leisure practices, promotes limitations access to some segments of youth.

The difference between genders is also one of the determining factors for leisure experiences, mainly due to the fact that the time available for leisure is mostly shorter among women and the locomotion and occupation in public spaces, especially at night, is still greater on the part of men. Apparently, despite the changes in the way of life in recent years, with achievements and advances in women's rights that have reduced the distance between men and women, it is still perceived that women occupy more time with domestic tasks, reducing the period available for leisure activities. Violence against women is another factor that sometimes inhibits the occupation of certain leisure spaces.

The relevance attributed to leisure experiences in the company of friends confirms the importance of peers, giving leisure a decisive time in the formation of the individual's identity and in the lifestyle, he chooses to follow. Leisure has a socializing and unifying role for groups according to social interests of leisure, especially valued because it represents a time and space far from adult control.

We understand leisure as a phenomenon that presents multiple possibilities for the manifestation of culture, in which

young people express themselves and build identities. We also understand that living and choosing different leisure interests are directly related to the degree of knowledge and, consequently, to an educational process built throughout life.

Through the analyses, we reflect on some issues, such as, for example, the imagination of leisure being directly linked to travel for both young women and men, both for what they experience, and what they would like to experience in their free time and holidays. It also draws attention to the importance given to physical and sporting interests. The little choice in what I would like to do in my free time and holidays for artistic interests, but it depends on knowledge of the different artistic languages and, it can still be related to the various social barriers.

Finally, it reveals the need for policies for access to leisure as well as education for leisure that enable new experiences that go beyond physical sporting interests. Leisure policies need to dialogue with other initiatives in order to provide leisure experiences that go beyond the territorial limits of a certain segment of youth, giving them, in fact, access to the new.

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COMPLIANCE WITH ETHICAL STANDARDS

Authors' Contributions

Authors contributed equally to this paper.

Conflict of Interest

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

Ethical Approval

For this type of study, formal consent is not required.

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Investigation of career goal discrepancy of individuals who are preparing for PVTC exams and their reasons for preference

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ABSTRACT

In this research, it is aimed to examine the career goal discrepancies of individuals preparing for the physical course and oral interviews organized by the Police Vocational Training Center and the reasons for their orientation to the police profession through a mixed research approach. The research was carried out with a total of 212 candidates, 137 (64.6%) female and 75 (35.4%) male, who were preparing for the Police Vocational Training Center Examinations (PVTC) in the 27th Term of 2020–2021, in 29 different cities in Turkey. The data in the quantitative part of this study were obtained with the "Personal Information Form" prepared by the researchers and the "Career Goal Discrepancies Scale" consisting of 12 items developed by Creed and Hood (2015) and adapted into Turkish by Yam, Alkin, and Bartur (2020). Qualitative data were obtained with a "semi-structured interview form" prepared by the researchers. As a result of the research, it can be said that certain variables differentiate the career goal discrepancies, and that the participants prefer PVTC interviews instead of the career steps of the department of education, and the reason for this is the difficulty of being appointed in their own department and the desire to work in government positions.

Keywords: Police, Exam, Career goal discrepancies, Reasons for preference

INTRODUCTION

Due to the education system in Türkiye, the fact that the school success scores at each stage are effective during the determination of the next school, makes the school success scores in the current education period important (Polat, 2017). In this process, which starts with primary school and continues until university, choosing high school, choosing a university, exam anxiety is a painful period in which individuals have to cope with these problems in order to shape their future. Anxiety begins with the choice of university that individuals have made in order to get a good education before entering the university, and during their education life at the university, multiple factors such as the city where they studied, their socio-economic status, housing problem, social relations play an active role on the anxiety levels of the students.

In the last years of school life, the biggest source of anxiety for university students is the concern for the future,

and in connection with this, worry of having a job, in other words "unemployment anxiety" (Dursun & Aytaç, 2009). Career is a concept that defines an individual's lifelong pursuits and the roles s/he plays throughout his/her life. The career determination and decision-making process, which usually covers high school or university years, is an issue that should be emphasized because it is also related to the rest of life (Sharf, 2017). Young people who cannot gain their economic power have to continue to live dependent on their families, cannot establish an independent life, and despair about the future (Ersoy & Erdost 2008). As a result of this hopelessness, discrepancy occurs in career goals of university students due to their future anxiety. Career goal is where the individual wants to be in his/her future business life, that is, it can be said that the individual's route in the business world (Özden, 2007). Career goal discrepancy is defined as the incompatibility and discrepancy that occurs between the career goals that the person wants to see him/herself in the future and career goals s/he wants to reach and the current career level s/he is in (Carver & Scheier, 1990;

Higgins, 1987). The career goals that individuals have determined and whether these goals are attainable or not is an important situation in terms of career goal discrepancy that may occur. It is because high school and university students who experience discrepancy about career goals may have difficulties in their career plan and may feel negative emotions (anxiety, sense of failure, burnout, inadequacy) (Anderson & Mounts, 2012; Kerpelman, et al., 1997; Williams et al., 2000).

Unemployment and employment are among the most important problems of developed and developing countries. The unemployment problem, which has become widespread with the globalization of the world, also significantly affects the young population who have just graduated from the university. The main purpose of university education is to make the personnel who will work in the relevant sectors ready for the business world by training them specific to their fields. In our country, the increase in the number of universities and accordingly, the rapid increase in the number of graduates cause the graduates to compete with each other in finding a job. Just in this process, the orientation to the policing profession, which seems to be the guarantee profession of today, and which individuals look at as a short-cut profession, has also increased considerably in consequence of the decrease in employment as a result of the increase in the number of graduates with the increase in the number of universities in our country and the negative effects of the virus on the markets and employers, with the Covid 19 pandemic that started in 2020. It is known that individuals preparing for PVTC Physical Course and Oral Interviews have already graduated from associate and undergraduate degrees. The reasons why individuals preparing for PVTC want to prepare for the police profession instead of the career goals of the department they studied at the university have also been a matter of curiosity for us. Therefore, in this study, it is aimed to examine the career goal discrepancy of individuals who are prepared for the PVTC physical course and oral interviews and their reasons for preferring the policing profession. Within the scope of the research, answers to the following questions are sought:

1. What level is the career goal discrepancy of the individuals who are preparing for the PVTC physical course and oral interviews?
2. What are the reasons for individuals preparing for the police profession to turn to the police profession instead of the career steps of the associate and undergraduate departments from which they graduated?

METHOD

In this study, convergent parallel (simultaneous diversification) methodology (Giannaki, 2005; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011) was used, which is one of the mixed research models that ensures that the results obtained from different methods and designs are close to each other or support each other. In this design, quantitative and qualitative

data are collected simultaneously at one stage of the research. Usually, the results of the two methods are considered together in the interpretation stage (Creswell, 2009).

Study Group

The research was carried out on a total of 212 candidates, 137 (64.6%) female and 75 (35.4%) male, selected by simple random sampling method, who were preparing for the Police Vocational Training Center Examinations in 29 different provinces in Turkey in the 27th term of 2020-2021. The descriptive analysis of the study group is given in Table 1.

Data Collection

The data in the quantitative part of this study were obtained with the "Personal Information Form" prepared by the researchers and the "Career Goal Discrepancy Scale" consisting of 12 items developed by Creed and Hood (2015) and adapted into Turkish by Yam, Alkın, and Bartur (2020). The data obtained in the study were collected through Google forms, and the career goal discrepancy scale was used in addition to the personal information form in the study. Regarding this search, from the Gazi University Ethics Committee dated 21.01.2022 and 77082166-604.01.02 / E. Ethics committee approval was obtained based on the letter numbered 271047.

Career Goal Discrepancy Scale

The original form of the scale developed by Creed & Hood (2015) consists of one dimension and 12 items. The scale was prepared in a seven-point Likert type. There is no reverse item in the scale. The scale was adapted to Turkish by making validity and reliability analyses by Yam, Alkın, and Barut (2020). In the current study, the internal reliability coefficient for the Career goal discrepancy scale was determined as .91.

In the qualitative part of the study, a "semi-structured interview form" was included, which gave the researcher the opportunity to obtain more detailed information about the reasons for preferring the police profession. The questionnaire consists of 6 questions aiming at descriptive analysis. Details on the analysis of the data are included in the findings section.

Data Analysis

Since it was determined that the data showed normal distribution, parametric tests were applied. Descriptive statistics, independent sample T-test, one-way analysis of variance ANOVA and post hoc tests were used. Descriptive analyses for the participants are shown in table 1.

RESULTS

In this part of the research, there are quantitative data in Tables 1-9 and findings for qualitative analysis in tables 10-12.

Most of the participants consists of people who were mostly female (64.6%), from other cities (33.0%), had undergraduate education (61.8%), had academic average

between 2.51-3.00 (49.1%), had moderate income level (56.1%), received mostly family support (93.9%) and stated that they would still prefer to be a policeman (72.2%) (Table 1).

Table 1. Percentage and frequency distributions for the study group

N=(212)	Variable	f	%
Gender	Male	75	35.4
	Female	137	64.6
City	Ankara	69	32.5
	Istanbul	33	15.6
	Antalya	40	18.9
	Other	70	33.0
Educational level	Associate's Degree	81	38.2
	Bachelor's degree	131	61.8
Academic average	2.01 - 2.50	38	17.9
	2.51-3.00	104	49.1
	3.01-3.50	58	27.4
	3.50 and above	12	5.7
Income level	Low	93	43.9
	Moderate	119	56.1
Getting family support	Yes	199	93.9
	No	13	6.1
The state of still preferring to be policeman	Yes	153	72.2
	No	59	27.8

It was observed that the participants exhibited career goal discrepancy below the average (27.45±11.01). Since the kurtosis skewness values were determined in the direction of the normal distribution of the data, the analyses were carried out with parametric tests (Table 2).

Table 2. Arithmetic mean, standard deviation and kurtosis skewness values for the career goal discrepancy scale

N=(212)	Min.	Max.	\bar{x}	Skewness	Kurtosis
Career goal discrepancy	12.00	57.00	27.45	0.469	-0.540

Participants' career goal discrepancy does not differ according to gender. However, although there was no significant difference, it was determined that male participants exhibited higher career goal discrepancy than female participants (Table 3).

Table 3. Independent sample T-Test results between career goal discrepancy scale and gender variable

N=(212)	Gender	n	\bar{x}	sd	t	p
Career goal discrepancy	Male	75	29.00	12.37	1.513	0.132
	Female	137	26.61	10.15		

p<0.05

As a result of the analysis made between career goal discrepancy and the city they live in, it was determined that the participants' city and career goal discrepancy differed. Intra-group differences were determined according to the findings obtained from post hoc tests. Accordingly, it was determined that there was a career discrepancy in favour of the participants from other cities regarding the significant

difference between the participants living in other cities and those living in Ankara and Antalya (Table 4).

Table 4. One-way analysis of variance ANOVA test results between career goal discrepancy and city of residence

N=(212)	City of residence	n	\bar{x}	sd	F	p
Career goal discrepancy	Ankara	69 ²	24.10	10.39	6.332	0.000*
	Istanbul	33	26.84	12.49		
	Antalya	40 ³	26.22	9.31		
	Other	70 ¹	31.75	10.60		

p <0.05* 1>2>3>

The independent sample t-test results between the education level of the sample group in the study and the career goal discrepancy scale indicate that there is no significant difference between the education level and career goal discrepancy. However, although there is no significant difference, it is seen that undergraduate students exhibit higher career goal discrepancy (Table 5).

Table 5. Independent sample T-Test results between career goal discrepancy scale and education level variable

N=(212)	Educational level	n	\bar{x}	sd	t	p
Career goal discrepancy	Associate's degree	81	26.58	11.12	-0.911	0.363
	Bachelor's degree	131	28.00	10.96		

p <0.05*

As a result of the analysis between the academic averages of the participants and the career goal discrepancy, there was no significant difference between the academic average and career goal discrepancy.

Table 6. Independent sample T-Test results between career goal discrepancy and academic mean variable

N=(212)	Academic Average	n	\bar{x}	sd	t	p
Career goal discrepancy	2.01-2.50	38	28.00	10.04	2.017	0.045*
	2.51-3.00	104	27.84	10.92		
	3.01-3.50	58	26.06	11.54		
	3.51 and above	12	29.08	12.85		

p <0.05*

Independent sample T-test findings between income level and career goal discrepancy indicate that participants who have low-income level show higher career goal discrepancy (Table 7).

Table 7. Independent sample T-Test results between career goal discrepancy scale and income level variable

N=(212)	Income level	n	\bar{x}	sd	t	p
Career goal discrepancy	Low	93	29.17	11.04	2.017	0.045*
	Moderate	119	26.11	10.85		

p <0.05*

When the family support variable, which examines the status of getting family support in determining the career goals of

the participants, it was determined that it did not significantly change the career goal discrepancy (Table 8).

Table 8. Independent sample T-Test results between career goal discrepancy scale and getting family support variable

N=(212)	Getting family support		n	\bar{x}	ss	t	p
	Yes	No					
Career goal discrepancy	199	13	199	27.11	10.66	-1.777	0.077

p < 0.05

The independent sample T-Test results of the study group between the state of still preferring to be policeman and career goal discrepancy show that they revealed a significant level of career goal discrepancy in favour of those who answered no. Therefore, it was determined that the career goal discrepancy of those who said they would not prefer to be a policeman was higher than those who said they would still prefer to be a policeman. In this part of the research, qualitative findings obtained in line with the answers given to the study questions are included (Table 9).

Table 9. Independent sample T-Test results between the career goal discrepancy scale and the variable of still preferring to be policeman

N=(212)	The state of still preferring to be policeman		n	\bar{x}	sd	t	p
	Yes	No					
Career goal discrepancy	153	59	153	25.07	9.93	-5.405	0.000*

p < 0.05*

In Table 10, when the findings regarding the reasons for preferring the department of education are examined, it is seen that the majority of the participants made their choices due to interests and predispositions (f=56), the high opportunity to find a job (f=40), due to pressure and demands (f=36), and being their dream department (f=29). In addition, the education they have received in secondary education (f=18) and their desire to have a bachelor's degree (f=17) are also the reasons for preferring the departments.

Table 10. Findings on the reasons for preferring the department of education

Answer categories	f	Sample statements
Interests and predisposition	f=56	"I preferred it because it covers the courses within my field of interest." (P29).
Job opportunity	f=40	"I preferred this department to find a job easily when I graduated." (P107).
Pressure and request	f=36	"...I can say that I preferred this department because of the pressure of my family" (P32).
Dream and love	f=29	"It was a department that I dreamed of since I was little and I preferred it fondly." (P46).
Education received in secondary education	f=18	"...I preferred it because I studied this department in high school, too" (P170).
Having a bachelor's degree	f=17	"...I made my choice with the approach that just getting a university degree is enough." (P68)

In Table 11, when the findings regarding the employment opportunities of the department of education are examined, it is understood that the majority of the participants see insufficient employment opportunities in the private sector (f=144) and government sector (f=20) in general, while a small number of participants see their departments as sufficient (f=21) in terms of job opportunities.

Table 11. Findings regarding the employment opportunities of the department of education

Answer categories	f	Sample statements
Insufficient	f=144	"...I preferred this department due to the job opportunities, but unfortunately things did not go as I wanted." (P56).
Sufficient	f=21	"...I think it's sufficient, if I can't get a job or be appointed, it's my problem." (P21).
Insufficient in government sector	f=20	"...There are jobs in the private sector, albeit with low wages, but unfortunately it is almost impossible to find a job in the government sector." (P202).

In Table 12, when the findings regarding the reasons for preferring the PVTC physical course interviews instead of the career steps of their department of education are examined, it was determined that the participants wanted to participate in the PVTC physical course interviews to become a policeman for reasons such as difficulty in appointment in the department (f=82), desire to work in government sector (f=50), desire to be a policeman (f=44) and sufficient salary (f=18).

Table 12. Findings on the reasons for preferring the PVTC physical course interviews instead of the career steps of the department of education

Answer categories	f	Sample statements
Difficulty in appointment in the department	f=82	"...I can't be appointed as a teacher; I'm preparing to be a policeman because maybe my destiny is here" (P96).
Desire to work in government sector	f=50	"Because it's a lifetime job and I want to secure myself" (P140).
Desire to be a policeman	f=44	"It's my dream since I was little and I love it" (P88).
Sufficient salary	f=18	"Because they give very good wages in Turkey conditions..." (P46).
Difficulty in appointment in the department	f=82	

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In this research, PVTC examined the career goal discrepancy of individuals who were preparing for the physical course and oral interviews and the reasons for orientation to the police profession. It was observed that the participants exhibited career goal discrepancy below the average (27.45±11.01). Therefore, it can be stated that they are relatively successful in reaching the goals they set in their careers. At the same time, it was determined that career goal discrepancy did not change according to gender, but the findings obtained indicate that although there is no significant difference, male participants exhibit higher career

goal discrepancy than female participants (Tablo 2). This is similar to the results of Bacanlı et al. (2013) studies. In Öztemel's (2012) study on career indecision, it was determined that male students had higher career indecision than female students. Gökbaraz's (2021) study also shows that male students experience career goal discrepancy. This situation also coincides with Esmer's finding that according to the Turkish values atlas published in 2012, three out of every four people agree with the statement "the head of the family should be male". It is thought that the hasty decisions of boys as a result of more intervention and pressure from the society compared to girls in the decision-making process for their career goals will be effective in directing them to a profession they will not want in the future.

As a result of the analysis made between income level and career goal discrepancy, it was revealed that the participants who stated that they had a low-income level showed higher career goal discrepancy (Table 6). Contrary to these findings, Aktaş & Şahin's (2019) study, which examined the career indecision of university students during their career process, concluded that socioeconomic level did not statistically significantly differentiate career indecision.

Yes (72,16%) answer to the question "If you were going to have a career related to your department, would you still prefer the police profession" (Table 8) is thought to be related to the conclusion of the study by Arslan & Olgun (2009) on the police profession that the academic staff and students see the police profession as a respectable and prestigious profession.

In Table 10, when the findings regarding the reasons for preferring their department of education are examined, it is seen that the majority of the participants made their choices due to interests and predispositions (f=56), the high opportunity to find a job (f=40), due to pressure and demands (f=36), and being their dream department (f=29). In addition, the education they have received in secondary education (f=18) and their desire to have a bachelor's degree (f=17) are also the reasons for preferring the departments. In the study by Atılı & Gür (2019), it was revealed that in terms of the ideal job characteristics which high school students look for, the three most important characteristics are, respectively, "it should have a good income" stated by 201 (23.5%) students, "it should make me happy" stated by 186 (21.8%) students, and "it should be easy and comfortable" stated by 118 (13.8%) students, and the reasons why students prefer the departments they are currently graduated from show similarity.

When the findings regarding the employment opportunities of their department of education are examined, the students think that the employment opportunities of the department they study are insufficient (f=144). Compared to the results in Table 10, this reveals that the participants do not have enough information about the job opportunities of the departments or they have a shallow knowledge while making their choices.

When the findings regarding the reasons for preferring the PVTC physical course interviews instead of the career steps of their department of education are examined, it was concluded that the participants wanted to participate in the PVTC physical course interviews to become a policeman for reasons such as difficulty in appointment due to their department of education (f=82), desire to work in government sector (f=50), desire to be a policeman (f=44) and sufficient salary (f=18). With this result, the lack of employment opportunity in the department they study and their desire to become a civil servant with state assurance also coincide with the studies of Atılı & Gür (2019). It is considered that the police profession has a higher probability of being appointed compared to other professions.

As a result of the research, although there is no significant difference in career goal discrepancy according to gender, it is seen that men exhibit higher career goal discrepancy than women. It is seen that the participants with low-income level show higher career goal discrepancy. It was concluded that there was no significant difference between career goal discrepancy and variable of getting family support. On the other hand, it was revealed that the "difficulty of being appointed due to their department of education and the desire to work in government sector" outweighed the fact that the participants preferred the PVTC physical course interviews instead of the career steps of their department of education. It was concluded that the participants still want to prefer the profession of police instead of the career opportunities of the department they graduated from. In Kılıç's (2013) study, it was concluded that university graduate police officers could not internalize the police profession and wanted to leave the police profession within the opportunity and possibilities.

When the results of the current research are evaluated in general, the results of the investigation of career goal discrepancy of individuals preparing for PVTC examinations according to gender, education level and income level have contributed to the literature. In the qualitative part of the research, it was revealed why individuals who are already associate degree and undergraduate graduates do not want to do their own profession, what obstacles are in front of them in doing their 2-year and 4-year department profession, and why they prefer the police profession. As a result of the research, it can be said that certain variables differentiate career goal discrepancy, and that the participants prefer PVTC interviews instead of the career steps of their department of education, and the reason for this is the difficulty of being appointed in their own department and the desire to work in government sector.

COMPLIANCE WITH ETHICAL STANDARDS

Authors' Contributions

Authors contributed equally to this paper.

Conflict of Interest

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

Ethical Approval

This study was approved by the Gazi University Ethics Committee (Approval date: 21.01.2022, Approval No: 77082166-604.01.02, Approval letter no: 271047)

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Focus groups: A practical guide for sport education research

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A B S T R A C T

The aim of this article, in the context of sports education research, is to present a practical approach for focus group interviews, one of the data collection techniques used in qualitative research. In the research, document analysis method was used. An extensive research was carried out to provide a broader understanding about the background and theoretical basis of the focus group interview, in the context of sports education. A frame was formed for focus group interviews in sports education research. Primarily, answers were sought about how focus group interviews were used in sports education research. Secondly, the titles that show the correct and consistent ways to solve the problems encountered in focus group interviews were presented. The open concerns for the focus group interview (writing, reporting, coding of the questions) were also dealt. The research will provide a deeper understanding about the nature of the focus group interview for academicians who will do research in the context of sports education.

Keywords: Focus-group interviews, Sport education, Qualitative data analysis

INTRODUCTION

More and more research started to point out that focus group interview is one of the most common methods for collecting qualitative data in the academic field (Liamputtong, 2011; Vaughn et al., 1996). Qualitative research patterns in education (action research, phenomenology, case study) may differ. All these studies are conducted through various data collection techniques (interviews, focus groups, observations, texts) (Harding & Whitehead, 2013). "Focus group interview", a popular data collection technique used in qualitative research, was initially defined by Merton & Kendall (1946). Then, it started to be used frequently in the educational context.

First of all, education and training applications have been an area where qualitative paradigm methods are used frequently. The use of learning tools related to students' learning tools (James et al., 1997), the evaluation of their knowledge and attitudes about curriculum subjects (Pugsley, 1996), and the development of scales in the field of education are some of the areas and subjects studied. At the same time,

it has been used in many different areas such as school development, student attitudes, student cooperation, teacher empowerment and professional development (Chan & Cruz, 2006).

Even though focus group interview is among the most common data collection techniques in educational research, it is a technique that is generally poorly understood (Stalmeijer et al., 2014). Focus group interview is a data collection technique that has aspects beyond discussions that need to be understood more.

Focus groups are groups of interacting individuals gathered by a moderator or interviewer who lead groups and their interactions to make them learn about a specific research topic. This interaction is at the individual level in the discussions (Michell, 1999). At the same time, even determining when, how, where and how focus group interviews will take place depends on certain criteria. In other words, all the processes of the data to be collected differ from the interviews at certain points (McLafferty, 2004). In other words, all the processes of the data to be collected differ from the discussion in certain points (McLafferty, 2004).

In educational research, focus group interviews are very important, because they build an area of interaction among participants, as well as being suitable for a number of research approaches used in sports education (Vaughn et al., 1996). When the body of literature is examined, it is seen that there are many qualitative researches related to sports education researches. Among these, there is a considerable amount of research using focus group interviews (MacPhail & Kinchin, 2004b). For example, Wahl-Alexander et al. (2017) examined the moments of a considerable number of sports education terms over a five-year period with focus group interviews. As a result, it was shown that participation in sports education leads to a stronger sense of fair play and well-developed student role. In another study, Linda Rikard & Banville (2006) examined the attitudes of high school students towards fitness and sports activities learned in physical education and the effect of the physical education curriculum on improving their fitness and skill levels. As a result, when the relevant body of literature is examined, it is seen that many researchers use focus group interviews in sports education research (Hastie & Sinelnikov 2006; Fittipaldi-Wert et al., 2009). At the same time, when sports education researches are considered in more detail, it is seen that there are studies in which focus group interviews are used with other data sources. Chan & Cruz (2006) used researchers' field notes, student reflective logs, individual and group interviews in their research as data sources. In addition, focus group interviews were carried out on different sample groups (Hastie & Curtner-Smith, 2006). For example, Gould et al. (2008) examined, in the sample of coaches, the role of parents in the sportive success of students who received tennis training. All these studies indicate that focus group interviews are suitable for a range of research and data collection approaches. Nevertheless, because of these discussions' features such as conducting them within the framework of predetermined guidelines, prioritizing the subjectivity of the interviewees, in accordance with the logic of this method and drawing attention to the discourse of the participants and the social context of this discourse, the realization of these discussions contains many difficulties.

When the related body of literature is examined, it is seen that although the focus group interviews are generally discussed in the context of education (Williams & Katz, 2001), in particular, it is considered in contexts such as nurse education (MacIntosh, 1993) or medical education (Stalmeijer et al., 2014), but not sports education. This research was conducted for this reason.

Literature Review

Focus group interview in sports education research

Sports education model is a model developed by Siedentop (1987) in order to find solutions to problems encountered in physical education practices. After the development of this model, sports education research has become an area that focuses on new research questions and where studies are initiated in new contexts (Hastie et al., 2011; Evangelio et al., 2018). It was found that among sports education research,

there are studies in which focus group interview technique is used to scrutinize this model (Brock et al., 2009; Wahl-Alexander et al. 2017).

By 1990s, sports research in general and sports education research in particular, began to use the qualitative paradigm (Carlson, 1995; Grant, 1992). After the 2000s, the use of qualitative paradigm methods has increased in sports education research (Hastie et al., 2011). The increasing penetration of the qualitative paradigm in the sports literature brought along different data collection techniques. One of them is focus group interviews. Over time, focus group interviews started to create a unique attraction within sports education research, as in other scientific fields.

When the body of literature is examined, it is seen that sports education research are in the fields of motor skills, tactical knowledge and performance, fitness, personal & social development, student attitudes and values (Wallhead and O'sullivan, 2005). Qualitative and quantitative paradigms were adopted while carrying out these studies, and different data sources were used (Hastie et al., 2011). One of these utilized data sources is the focus group interview. Focus group interviews were used in many publications in the context of sports education research. Table 1 includes some features of research based on focus group interviews in sports education.

In sports education field, research based on focus group interviews were conducted in different branches (basketball, football, baseball etc.) and different data sources were used beside the focus group interviews. It is also seen that quantitative and qualitative (combined) methods are used together in some studies. In Table 2, information about some studies in which focus group interviews were applied at some point are presented.

Despite all these, in sports education research where focus group interviews are used as data source, the problems encountered include not conducting the focus group interviews properly, not preparing the questions about the research problem appropriately, not reporting in accordance with the qualitative paradigm, not coding and the matizing in accordance with the theoretical and conceptual framework, and not using qualitative programs. Therefore, the purpose of this article is to present a guideline for the proper conduct of focus group interviews especially for sports education research.

METHOD

Research goal

In this research, document analysis method was used. Document analysis method was applied to collect the required data where an educational phenomenon is tried to be explained in depth within its own context (Özkan, 2019). Document analysis is a systematic process used to examine or evaluate both printed and electronic materials (Bowen, 2009). This method was primarily utilized to seek answers

about how focus group interviews are used in sports education research. Secondly, the titles that show the correct

and consistent ways to solve the problems encountered in focus group interviews were presented.

Table 1. Research based on focus group interview from sports education research

Author(s)	Data sources	Sport(s)	Participants/Context
Hastie & Sinelnikov, (2006)	- Videotaping of Lessons - Survey to Students - Group Interviews	Basketball	37 sixth-grade students
D'Elia, (2020)	- Document Review - Group Interviews	-	Teachers
Başkonuş & Soyer, (2020)	- Document Review - Group Interviews - Survey with teachers	-	Teachers
Brock & Hastie, (2007)	- Researcher's Field Notes - Videotaping of all lessons - Individual Interviews - Group Interviews	Football	10 students
Sinelnikov & Hastie, (2008)	- Videotaping of all Lessons - Researcher's Log - Interactive Student Journals (Daily) - Group Interviews	Basketball	42 students
Brock et al. (2009)	- Videotaping of all Lessons - Researcher's Log - Lesson Plans - Small-Group Interviews - Individual Interviews - Interviews with the Teacher (After Each Lesson) - Student Journals	Football	10 students
Fittipaldi-Wert et al. (2009)	- Researcher's Log - Individual Interviews - Group Interviews - Sports Camps Evaluation Instrument	Baseball, bocce and goalball	28 students with visual impairment
MacPhail & Kinchin, (2004b)	- Student Drawings - Group Interviews with Students	Team invasion game with a large ball	46 students
Chan & Cruz, (2006)	- Researcher's Field Notes - Student Reflective Logs - Individual Interviews - Group Interviews	Football	28 students

Table 2. Focus group interview matter in sports education research

Example: Program Evaluation

Hastie & Sinelnikov (2006), in their research in which they implemented focus group interview at some point, examined the students of 6th grade, in which a sports education model in basketball was applied for 18 lesson hours from two teachers in Russia, one experienced and the other novice. In the interviews made during the research, the students stated that they enjoyed being a student coach and developed important team relationships (Hastie & Sinelnikov, 2006).

Example: Program Evaluation

Brock & Hastie (2007) examined the fair play understanding of the students of 6th grade in America who were applied the sports education model in football during 26 lesson hours in their research in which they also applied focus group interviews at some point. The results showed that students' understanding of fair play has changed (Brock & Hastie, 2007).

Example: Program Evaluation

Sinelnikov & Hastie (2008) also examined the reactions of 9th grade students in Russia to participation in sports education model practices during 18 class hours in their research in which they also applied a focus group interview at some point. As a result of the research, it was seen that some students who had problems in their social lives stated that this model was a different form of entertainment, while some students stated that it was a way to develop team relationships and reach goals that were not possible before in physical education (Sinelnikov & Hastie, 2008).

Example: Program Evaluation

Brock et al. (2009) aimed to discover the social interactions and feelings of students aged 11-12 during the application of football sports education model during 26 lesson hours in their research in which they conducted a focus group interview at some point. As a result of the research, it was concluded that the economic level, attractiveness, athletic participation and personality traits of students affect their social interactions (Brock et al., 2009).

Example: Program Evaluation

MacPhail et al. (2004b) examined the results of a 16-week sports education model application to 5th grade students in the UK in their research, in which they also applied a focus group interview. As a result of the research, it was determined that being in touch with a team is an impressive feature that physical education brings (MacPhail & Kinchin, 2004b).

Example: Program Evaluation

Bulca et al. (2012) examined the opinions of physical education teachers about the efficiency of the teacher training program in their research, in which they also applied a focus group interview at some point. At the end of the research, the teachers stated that they were unqualified in terms of how to transfer the lessons of theoretical field knowledge to practice, and it would be beneficial if these lesson contents were reviewed and the curricula of the Ministry of National Education and the university was in parallel (Bulca et al., 2012).

Data Collection

Document analysis method has limits as well as all data collection methods. According to Bowen (2009), choosing data that will serve the purpose of research rather than evaluating all documents constitutes the focal point of document analysis. Instead of analyzing the content, basic information that would serve the purpose of research was included in both sports education research using focus group interviews and research related to focus group interviews. According to Silverman (2000), this method is used in document analysis.

RESULTS

What is focus group interview?

In recent years, focus group interviews are widely used as a qualitative data collection tool in educational sciences as well as in social sciences (Vaughn et al., 1996). Despite this trend, analysing qualitative data constitutes an impediment for most researchers, especially in the context of focus group interviews (Rabiee, 2004).

The focus group interview has been defined by many researchers. Kroll et al. (2007) used the expression “group interviews with group interaction” while defining the focus group interview, while Bowling (2002) expressed these interviews as “group interviews in which individuals interact with each other”. In addition, some researchers have described the focus group interviews as unstructured interviews (Bowling, 2002). Freeman (2006), in his definition, highlighted the context of the focus group interview that “pays special attention to the interaction between participants”.

The most underlined point when defining focus group interviews is the importance of group interaction. At this point, focus group interviews differ from interviews. The interaction of individuals in the group with each other is the dynamic that stimulates more extensive discussions and new ideas (Parker & Tritter, 2006). Details such as being able to benefit from the effect of group dynamics, obtaining in-depth information, unstructured interviews, and small groups give clues on how to conduct a focus group interview (Bowling, 2002). As a result, focus group interviews can be defined as a qualitative data collection technique in which the participants are selected for a certain purpose, performed according to a predetermined order, a specific group is sampled, and the characteristics of the interviewees are prioritized.

No matter what scientific context is used, the participants in focus group interviews should be selected from those who have experience on the subject being researched, can talk about that subject, provide detailed information when appropriate and be interacted easily (Vaughn et al., 1996). These participants should be brought together in a non-threatening atmosphere and the interview should be planned carefully (Krueger, 2014).

The point that distinguishes focus group interviews from individual interviews is group dynamics. The data obtained from the group would be deeper and richer thanks to social interaction. In other words, in focus group interviews, the subject studied can be learned from all aspects (Vaughn et al., 1996). While individuals may express many common statements about a subject in focus group views, there may also be differences of opinion among group members (Kamberelis & Dimitriadis, 2013).

Why/When to use focus groups?

The aim of focus group interviews is to get in-depth, detailed and multidimensional qualitative information about the participants' perspectives, lives, interests, experiences, tendencies, thoughts, perceptions, feelings, attitudes and habits on a specified topic (Gibbs, 1997; Powell & Single, 1996; Morgan, 2002). When the related body of literature is examined, it is seen that the opinions about why focus group interviews should be preferred are based on general rules, whereas these rules point to situations where other qualitative methods (standard interview) may also be appropriate (Morgan & Krueger, 1993). The primary reason for using focus group interviews is the group dynamics factor (Rosenthal, 2016). The mutual communication between the participants and the moderator not only provides an opportunity to present experiences but also prepares the conditions in which meaning can be constructed (Rabiee, 2004). Focus group interviews are also suitable for research on new, poorly understood or poorly defined topics (Kitzinger, 1995). As a result, it can be argued that focus group interviews are particularly suitable to conduct exploratory research.

When are focus groups used?

When the body of literature on focus group interviews is examined, it is seen that there is a lot of information about when, why and how focus group interviews will be used. MacPhail and Kinchin (2004a) conducted group interviews during one lesson season. Hastie and Sinelnikov (2006) conducted the interviews in the middle of the season and at the end of the season. This is an example of how focus group interviews can be conducted before, during and after the research. When the sports education studies are examined in detail, it is seen that there is information about how the focus group interview will be applied and when it will be used (Hastie and Sinelnikov, 2006; Brock and Hastie, 2007; Fittipaldi-Wert et al., 2009).

Sampling

Sample selection and what the minimum sample size will be is a constant problem in focus group interviews as well as in qualitative research. Even the use of the word sample is criticized in qualitative research. In quantitative studies, it is stated that working with small samples generally fails to achieve the purpose of the research. However, in qualitative research, it is emphasized that an appropriate sample size is determined by whether to answer the research question sufficiently (Marshall, 1996). For this reason, it is stated that it

would be more convenient to meet with suitable people rather than with many people in focus group interviews (Trotter II, 2012). This situation has led to the emergence of new concepts in qualitative research such as the saturation point. Saturation point can be defined as the repetition of concepts that might be the answer to the research question (West, 2001). Despite the fact that the size of the appropriate sample in qualitative research is associated with the extent to which the purpose of the research is met, choosing the appropriate sample in interviews is critical for the success of focus groups (Kroll et al., 2007).

Theoretical sampling

In quantitative research, sampling is related to the representation ability of the population. However, when choosing a sample in qualitative research, it is important to be able to associate it with the characteristics of the group rather than considering the ability to represent (Barbour, 2008). Theoretical sampling is done to revisit the steps and follow a new path when there are unconfirmed categories and newly emerging, incomplete ideas (Charmaz & Belgrave, 2007).

When viewed in the context of sports education research, what should be done if there are uncertain or temporary categories in a research, in other words, if the categories and characteristics cannot be determined clearly? The answer to this question is to collect more data, in addition to the categories and attributes created. This strategy is theoretical/ hypothetical theoretical sampling.

In other words, while sampling criteria are determined before the research in purpose sampling, in theoretical sampling, it occurs as data collection progresses (Strauss & Corbin, 1994). In theoretical sampling, data collection continues until the uncertain categories are made certain. In addition, this sampling type brings along systematic checks and revisions (Stalmeijer et al., 2014). In short, theoretical sampling is associated with the theoretical and conceptual development of analyzes (Charmaz & Belgrave, 2007).

Purpose sampling

In purpose sampling, researchers determine the participants by searching for the most suitable features for the study. Participants are chosen through including people who can speak about the purpose of the research and excluding those who are not fit for the purpose. In other words, previous experiences or their knowledge about the subject studied play a determining role in the selection of the sample (Barbour, 2008). In this sampling method, the main point is that the participants are selected due to their qualifications (Etikan et al., 2016).

In a study on the use of teaching styles by experienced physical education teachers, the inclusion of physical education teachers who worked for a certain period of time in the focus group interview can be considered as an example of sports education research. The aim is to create a more accurate theoretical framework (Bernard, 2017). This implies

that a specific number is not needed in sample selection. In qualitative research sampling, the aim is not to reach a certain number, but to find individuals who can provide the required information (Etikan et al., 2016).

Number of people to be interviewed

In focus group interviews, participants with mostly the same demographic characteristics (age, socio-economic level, profession, etc.) come together under the direction of a moderator and the subject of the research is discussed in a group environment (Vaughn et al., 1996). However, there are different opinions about group size in focus group interviews. In the focus group interview, there are researchers who argue that the number of people in the group will be less than that of adults, especially if the audience to be interviewed consists of children (Heary & Hennessy, 2002). In addition, there are different opinions about how many people the group will consist of.

When the relevant body of literature is examined, it is seen that the appropriate number of participants is 6-10 according to MacIntosh (1993), 4-9 according to Kitzinger (1995), 8-12 according to Byers & Wilcox (1991), 15 according to Goss and Leinbach (1996) and 6-12 according to Gibbs (1997). Therefore, there is a consensus that the interview should be between 4 and 10 people. According to Edmunds (1999), having more than 10 people in the group can weaken the dynamics of the group, reduce the effect of the interaction between the participants, and thus the control of the group can become more difficult.

Preparing for focus groups

First of all, if it is decided that the most appropriate method to achieve the research objective is the focus group interview, then the data collection phase can be started. Determination of Questions: Krueger (1997) divided the questions in focus group interviews into five stages according to their categories:

Opening questions: These are the questions asked to focus group interview participants to let them introduce themselves in a very short time. At this stage, personal information is asked, not attitudes and ideas. Example: How many years have you been a physical education teacher?

Introductory questions: These are the questions that the research topic is introduced, and the focus group participants can reflect on. Questions are open ended.

Example: What do you think are the important characteristics of the teaching profession?

Transition questions: These are questions that go into more detail than the questions at the introductory stage. At this stage, it moves from the general conversation stage to questions focusing on the main issues.

Key questions: These questions are the main questions of the focus group. In other words, they are the questions that guide the research. A minimum of two and a maximum of five questions are optimal for this phase. The moderator leading

the discussion should allow enough time to answer these questions. Especially at this stage, the moderator must be someone who has a good command of the subject so that the participants can learn the core of the research sufficiently. Example: Could any of you explain the developmental stages you think students go through during a term as they gain game skills?

Ending questions: Participants are allowed to say their last sentences. The moderator provides a summary of the questions asked for the purpose of the research and asks the participants if they have any thoughts they would like to add.

The classification of the interview questions used in the focus group interviews is structured, semi-structured or unstructured questions to be applied in the same way in personal face-to-face interviews.

Structured questions: The questions of the subject to be researched are pre-determined and standardized. Options are presented to the interviewee. In-depth information cannot be obtained, the information obtained is only related to the given options (Rogers, 2018). These questions are often used as introductory questions to learn about the group's personal details (age, gender, etc.).

Semi-structured questions: Unlike structured interviews, it is possible to examine the subject investigated in depth with these questions. There are standardized and non-standardized questions (Longhurst, 2003).

Unstructured questions: It is the type of interview that consists of open-ended questions and aims to learn the subject with all the details regarding the purpose of the researcher (Longhurst, 2003). Open-ended questions are questions that require explanation as an answer. Unstructured interviews consist of these questions (Kallio et al., 2016).

In focus group interviews, the questions should be easily understandable by the participants, reflect the research purpose and can be answered easily (Krueger, 1997). As focus group interviews are mostly studies that use group dynamics, they should be able to reveal the purpose of the study with certain expressions.

Running a focus group

The role of the moderator

The role of the moderator in focus group interviews is to manage the focus group interview in a predetermined order (Stewart & Shamdasani, 2014). The moderator must have certain qualifications in order for the research to work in order. Being a good listener, having an optimistic disposition towards the participants, and being able to respond to discourses are among these qualifications (Redmond & Curtis, 2009). Krueger (2014) states that the moderator has general duties such as welcoming participants, and special duties such as explaining the research purpose, and providing an overview for the research. Being able to make the research work in an order depends on the duties of the moderator

before, during and immediately after the interview (Doody & Noonan, 2013).

The moderator should be familiar with the concept or subject being researched and should play a role in conducting the research in accordance with the group participants and enabling the participants to share their experiences. The researcher acts as a moderator in most educational research. Even so, knowing the duties of the moderator is an important factor to conduct sports education research properly.

The role of the observer

An observer should be present to assist the moderator in the focus group interviews. The main task of the observer is to observe the session and take notes. At the same time, any signs people show in qualitative research is important. Therefore, the observer should take note of the situations of body language, even if this is a nod without saying anything (Stalmeijer et al., 2014). In other words, non-verbal details can be missed by the moderator. The observer notes opinions and additional observations and contributes to the proper conduct of the research (Gibbs, 1997).

Execution of focus group reviews

Focus group interview is a data collection method that allows to understand the participant's perspective on a subject through qualitative paradigm approach and to learn about that subject with all its details (Sánchez-Gómez & Martín-Cilleros, 2017). The realization of this goal is related to certain tasks that need to be done before, during and after the focus group interviews (Kitzinger, 1995). The preparation of name badges, the preparation of the environment for the interview and the preparation of the devices to record the conversation can be given as examples of these tasks. Making these preparations is to prevent the focus group interview from being interrupted for various reasons (Çokluk et al., 2011).

Quality of focus group research

Good qualitative research should be able to meet certain qualifications. This is related to the reliability and verifiability of qualitative research.

Reliability

The reliability of the research is determined according to the criteria of credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability. Credibility is related to how reliable and persuasive research findings are for others (Stalmeijer et al., 2014). Transferability is about what extent findings can be adapted to other contexts. Reliability means reaching the same findings with the same participants in the same context. Confirmation is to show that the findings are derived from the experience and thoughts of the participants, not the researcher (Shenton, 2004).

Credibility: According to Merriam & Tisdell (2015), the equivalent of internal validity in positivist paradigm is credibility in qualitative research. Several techniques have

been suggested in the body of literature to provide credibility. One of these techniques is inter-coder agreement.

Inter-coder agreement: The main point of this technique is whether encoders use similar codes for the same data pieces. The number of codes that are independently agreed and disagreed on the codes in the two coder datasets is critical in the results of inter-coder agreement (Kuckartz & Rädiker, 2019; Sevilmiş & Yıldız, 2021). Also, the agreement between coders can be calculated by means of certain programs (MAXQDA).

Analyzing focus group research

In focus group interviews, analysis should be given as much importance as collecting data. Especially in order to achieve the aim of the research, creating appropriate categories and assigning appropriate codes to them are of great importance in focus group interviews (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015).

The primary stage in the analysis phase is the coding stage. Coding stage is the stage where data is dissociated, classified, and synthesized. Coding refers to data slicing and labels that describe what each of these slices are (Charmaz & Belgrave, 2007). In the focus group interview, the dissociation made by reading the data with all its details will ensure full compliance with the categories. Codes are components of the created category. Harmonization of code and category, in other words, assigning the code to the correct category is the most important step of the analysis.

Using qualitative programs in analysis

In focus group interviews, it is easily detected who is speaking at what point thanks to the use of audio and imaging devices (video). Afterward, what participants point out during their speech can be understood better through gestures and facial expressions. At the same time, this data can be analyzed more easily through the features of qualitative data analysis programs (Kuckartz & Rädiker, 2019; Sevilmiş & Yıldız, 2021).). For example, in the interface of the MAXQDA, which is a qualitative data analysis program, focus group transcriptions are imported with a different reasoning than standard interviews. In standard interviews, each participant takes place in a separate document system, while focus group interviews are included in a single document (MAXQDA, 2020).

For example:

Moderator: How satisfied are you with your health?

Max: I am pretty happy...

Robyn: I am relatively happy...

Joanna: Overall I am pretty happy with my mental....

As seen in the example above, when the focus group interview is transferred to the MAXQDA program, the statements are automatically coded with the names of the speakers. If the focus group transcriptions contain time stamps (e.g. video and audio recording), it can be coded over the video and audio recording and the analysis options can be expanded further.

Another convenience provided by qualitative programs is that the encoded data can be brought back easily. For example, assume that 20 codes are assigned to the X theme in a research on sports education, these codes can be viewed quickly, and their contents can be read. Another feature in qualitative programs is that coding options can be visualized in detail. The occurrence of two or more codes together (associated codes) is visualized in one section. In addition, citations of related or unrelated coding can be presented in qualitative programs with all their details and many different options (MAXQDA, 2020).

Reporting

The systematic writing of the answers to the questions about a scientific research, why the research was conducted, which hypotheses were tested and what kind of research technique and statistical analysis were used in the research, and what the research includes is called a research report (Çokluk et al., 2011).

The methods of reporting qualitative research are diverse. For example, whether the research is a thesis or an article also changes reporting. For example, when it comes to an article, some journals highlight frequencies, while some journals want the densities to be visualized (Saban & Ersoy, 2017). Despite these differences of opinion, all qualitative reports must meet features such as justification, procedural carefulness, representativeness, interpretative carefulness, carefulness about presentation and evaluation, and transferability (Kitto et al., 2008). In addition, it is important how the differences in the thoughts revealed individually and as a group in focus group interviews are presented (Kitzinger & Farquhar, 1999).

DISCUSSION

Focus group interviews can be defined as a qualitative data collection technique that is conducted within the framework of predetermined guidelines, prioritizes the subjectivity of the interviewees in accordance with the logic of this method, and draws attention to the discourse of the participants and the social context of this discourse. In addition, focus group interviews are a qualitative data collection technique that aims to learn the reasons behind their behavior by using group dynamics features. Conducting sports education researches with appropriate qualifications depends on learning the knowledge of focus groups that can reflect them such as emotions, thoughts, experiences, tendencies in accordance with the research purpose.

In this context, the researcher should first decide whether the research objective is suitable for focus group interview. Deciding when to use or not focus group interviews, depending on the appropriate criteria, is also important for the reliability of the information to be obtained in research (Morgan & Krueger, 1993).

The second issue is related to sample selection. Theoretical sampling should be used if there are uncertain,

temporary categories, while purpose sampling should be used if the categories are determined. It should not be forgotten that a second data will be collected if a decision is made on the theoretical sample. Because in such a case, there will be uncertain categories.

If purpose sampling is to be used, attention should be paid to whether the participants have the appropriate qualifications for the study. In other words, the participants' previous experiences and knowledge on the subject should be enough (Barbour, 2008). In the purpose sampling, rather than the number of people to be interviewed, it is important to select individuals who are suitable for the research purposes and who will not weaken the dynamics of the group. It was decided that the number of people to be interviewed should be between 4 and 10 people (Byers & Wilcox, 1988).

In the focus group interview, the questions are asked in four stages: introductory, transition, key and ending questions. Key questions are the main questions for the focus group. At each stage, the participant is given a certain amount of time and these questions can consist of structured, semi-structured and unstructured questions (Longhurst, 2003).

A good focus group interview should meet the credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability criteria for the reliability of the research (Stalmeijer et al., 2014). At the same time, creating appropriate categories in focus group interviews and assigning appropriate codes to these categories are important in achieving the aims of the research (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015).

CONCLUSION

This research aimed to discuss the basis of focus group interviews in sports education research. It was carried out to answer the most frequently asked questions about focus group interviews done for this purpose by researchers who conduct research in the field of sports education.

Individual and focus group interviews have been generally evaluated as the same data collection tool until now; however, there are some features of focus group interviews that cannot be ignored. These features are discussed in the research.

There are some features that distinguish the focus group interviews from individual interviews. While there is an individual interaction with the members in individual interviews, in focus group interview, group members also interact with each other. This interaction comes with some research benefits. An idea expressed by a member can be developed by other members so that more detailed information about individuals can be obtained. For this reason, focus group interview is a qualitative research technique that can be preferred in some studies (such as grounded theory), especially if rich information is desired to be provided in the context of research.

Recommendations

This research, which discusses problematic areas that need improvement in data collection methods used for focus group interviews, also has certain limitations. First of all, although a comprehensive search was made, some information may not be included in this study, considering the different resources related to the focus group interview that could not be reached. This research reveals how specific research questions can be applied by explaining the basic research methods of focus group interviews.

Limitations

The research titles were shaped by the related body of literature. For this reason, it is recommended that future studies should address each title in a broader framework and provide more detailed and specific information.

COMPLIANCE WITH ETHICAL STANDARDS

Authors' Contributions

Authors contributed equally to this paper.

Conflict of Interest

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

Ethical Approval

This study was approved by the Karamanoglu Mehmetbey University Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Committee (Approval date: 22.02.2021, Approval No: E-95728670-100-4708)

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Predictions for activity involvement via PERMA well-being model in mountain climbing-hiking participants on Mt.Olympus

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ABSTRACT

The present study aims to investigate predictions for activity involvement per PERMA well-being model in outdoor activities such as mountain climbing-hiking on Mt.Olympus. Specifically, in the last 30 years, thousands of nature lovers/naturalists have been visiting this legendary mountain to admire up close its unfathomable natural beauty, wander in its trails and plateaus, and conquer its summits. For this research, we gathered data from participants in mountain climbing-hiking on Mt.Olympus. The total sample was 200 participants (N=200). For the measurement of well-being, we used the questionnaire by Kern et al. (2015), which encompasses five elements: positive emotions, engagement, relationships, meaning, and accomplishment. To measure the involvement, we used the scale by Kyle and Chick (2002) and investigated three parameters namely attraction (3 questions), centrality (3 questions) and self-expression (3 questions). It seems that mountain climbing continues to be an activity enjoyed mainly by ages over 30 years. Substantial average scores were noted for Attraction (mean=5.7), which refers to the pleasure the individual feels when participating in an outdoor leisure activity, and for Self-expression (mean=4.8), referring to the potential for validation of the individual through their participation in an activity. The PERMA model was a significant contributory factor for predictions in all three involvement parameters. Specifically, the "Attraction" dimension was significantly predicted by the "positive emotions" and "Meaning & Purpose" dimensions. The Centrality dimension was significantly predicted by the Importance & Purpose dimension. For the prediction of "Self-expression" all the factors of the well-being scale offered a statistically significant contribution.

Keywords: Perma, Mountaineering, Hiking, Olympos, Involvement, Leisure, Recreation, Consumer behavior

INTRODUCTION

There is extensive knowledge and plenty of documented research on the importance of physical activity, especially for the physical/ mental health and well-being (Cavill et. al 2006). Moreover, there is growing evidence for the benefits that humans derive from living in nature or being in contact with the natural environment (Ten Brink et al. 2016). There is a lot of research and discussion on issues related to outdoor physical activities and their benefits. In this context, experts from different fields have highlighted the positive impact of outdoor activities on mental, social and physical level (Kaplan 1984, Scherl 1989; Thompson Coon et al. 2011). Leisure outdoor activities are the activities that take place in natural settings and involve some kind of interaction between the participants and the environment (Miles & Priest, 1990). Sport tourism and generally the participation in outdoor activities in

Greece have seen an incredible growth in recent years. According to international studies, sport tourism is the reason for 220 million tourists traveling the world every year (22% of the European travel packages), while representing a steadily growing percentage in the overall tourist inflows of all categories. Although there is no official data, according to the numbers derived from Adrenaline-Hunter.com, the international booking platform for extreme sports and outdoor activities worldwide, Greece is the third most preferred destination for outdoor activities during the summer season (April 1–October 31, 2018). A study conducted by the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) Charters & Saxon, 2007 found that mountainous areas attract 15-20% of worldwide tourism, holding the second place in terms of attraction as tourist destinations after coastal areas and islands (Mountain Agenda, 1999).

This upward trend gives rise to a specialized form of tourism called "mountain tourism".

Mountaineering is a widespread activity in Greece, mainly due to the high hilly and mountainous terrain of the country. The term of mountaineering (mountain climbing, in Greek: "orivasia" from the words oros and vato, which literally means "going up the mountain") refers to any sports activity aiming at climbing, rock climbing and/or rope-free climbing up the peaks of mountains, and generally exploring the mountain landscape. Typically, the basic techniques that compose mountaineering are mountain hiking, rock climbing, rope-free climbing and alpine skiing (Karalis & Theodoropoulos, 2007). Each of these techniques encompasses a number of other more specialized techniques that range from simple mountain hiking to ice climbing and alpinism.

Mountain Hiking

Mountain hiking, or simply walking in mountainous fields, is the technique by which we approach a gentle or high slope mountain in the intention to climb up, climb down or cross the mountain complex. This activity does not require specialized knowledge and technical equipment and is the most common activity in mountaineering clubs in Greece and worldwide. It is commonly referred to as hiking to describe walking on marked trails in winter or summer. In some cases, usually in dangerous passages or loose fields, climbing techniques may be needed to overcome obstacles or to secure exposed sections of a route. Therefore, the climber who is mainly engaged in mountain hiking should also have knowledge of safety tips and techniques in order to move safely on the mountain.

Mount Olympus

Mountains occupy about 27% of the earth's surface and are home to 22% of the earth's population (WMF, 2016). Greece is characterized as a mountainous country as most of its terrain (70%) is mountainous and has geologically fascinating mountains, rich in vegetation and water resources, with an important mythological and historical heritage. Since the ancient times, the mountains in Greece, due to the mystery that surrounded them, their inaccessible character and their unique, intact and wild beauty, were considered to be the residence of gods. Particularly, Mount Olympus was thought to be the place where the gods took their form. The mountain range of Olympus was the first National Park that was established by Royal Decree in 1938, while the Olympus National Park Regulations were instituted with a Presidential Decree in 1985. In 1981, Olympus was declared a Biosphere Reserve by the UNESCO Man and Biosphere Program (MAB). The massif has also been included in the NATURA 2000 Network as a Special Area of Conservation (SAC) and a Special Protection Area for Birds (SPA) under the code name "Mount Olympus-GR1250001", in accordance with the European Directive 92/43/EEC on natural habitats and the Directive 2009/147/EU on wild birds.

There are many well-kept and marked mountaineering and hiking trails with access to many mountain shelters (8 organized and 6 emergency shelters). Most tourists prefer to visit Olympus in summer. However, in recent years, there are

many Greeks and foreigners who also choose alpine skiing and winter hiking on Olympus to experience the "white" magic of the mountain.

Literature Review

The Involvement Theory

Involvement is an important concept in the Decision-Making Model, as it implies a positive attitude and behavior towards the participation in leisure sports activities (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004).

According to Zaichkowsky (1985), involvement is defined as "a person's perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values and interests". Highly involved persons have also a high consumer desire to search for relevant products and services and gather information (Celsi & Olson, 1988). They can also highly identify the activity and the branded products, they are loyal to specific trainers or leisure programs (Alexandris et al, 2008) and they are highly attached to the activity or the organizing agency (company) (Kyle et al, 2004). Therefore, there is a positive correlation between involvement and positive attitude and behavior towards participation, both regarding the intention to continue the activity and in terms of the frequency of participation.

Similar results were drawn in a recent study by Alexandris et al., (2012), who focused on the involvement and the frequency of participation in private club tennis players. Those who participated very often in the activity also had a high involvement in the dimensions "Attraction" and "Centrality".

Involvement Scales

For the measurement of involvement, two theoretical models were used, the "*Personal Involvement Inventory*" (McQuarrie & Munson, 1987; Zaichkowsky, 1985) and the "*Consumer Involvement Profile*" (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985).

The "*Personal Involvement Inventory*" (PII) is composed of the following two dimensions: "Perceived Importance", which is the cognitive component, and "Pleasure" which is the affective component.

The "*Consumer Involvement Profile*" (CIP) suggests the following five dimensions:

- a) The "*Perceived Importance of the Product*", which refers to the importance attributed to the activity by the participant.
- b) The "*Risk Importance*", which refers to the importance of the negative effects that the purchase of the product has on the consumer.
- c) The "*Risk Probability*", which refers to the probability of the consumer having made a wrong choice (decision).
- d) The "*Sign*", which reflects the symbolic value given to the product by the consumer.

e) The “*Pleasure*”, which refers to the pleasure experienced by the consumer when using the product or service.

Leisure involvement researchers have used both models to measure and assess involvement in order to develop a more useful model. Disagreement has arisen in the number of dimensions (Havitz & Dimanche, 1997), but the most commonly used are the following three: Attraction, Centrality and Self-expression.

The dimensions of this scale have been used in several studies in the field of sports (Kyle et al., 2004) as well as by other researchers in the field of leisure studies (Alexandris et al. 2008; Alexandris et al., 2011). In more detail, “*Attraction*” refers to the pleasure experienced by the individual who participates in a leisure activity, as well as to how important this activity is to the individual (McIntyre & Pigram, 1992). “*Centrality*” refers to the role that activity plays in the life of an individual and how it is expressed in his everyday life and social interactions (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004). “*Self-expression*” indicates the possibility of an individual to affirm his identity by participating in a leisure activity and the image he wishes to project to others through his participation (Wattanasuwan, 2005).

Taking it a step further, Kyle and his colleagues in 2007 Kyle et al. (2004) developed the “*Modified Involvement Scale*” which was first used in earlier studies by McIntyre and Pigram (1992). This new version of the scale involved the dimension of “*Social Bonding*”, which refers to the extent, to which the social network or environment influences the individual’s participation in the activity.

According to Kyle and Chick (2002), the social environment of individuals significantly affects their participation and their continued participation in an activity. Furthermore, in the modified scale, the dimension of “*Self-expression*” is divided in two more dimensions “*Identity Affirmation*”, which is the extent, to which the activity enables the individual to affirm his identity, and “*Identity Expression*”, which refers to the extent, to which the activity enables the individual to express his feelings to others.

The final version of the “*Modified Involvement Scale*” (MIS) by Kyle et al. (2007) includes the following five dimensions: Attraction, Centrality, Social Bonding, Identity Affirmation, and Identity Expression. Many studies have later confirmed the reliability of this scale Alexandris et al. 2011; Kyle et al., 2004) and suggested that the involvement in a leisure activity is directly correlated with the motives, the preferences and the perceived constraints in the decision to participate in a leisure sports activity (Alexandris et al., 2008; Havitz & Dimanche, 1997).

The implementation of this correlation in practice can be very helpful to those organizing training courses and to professionals as they can record and classify the athletes or clients according to their level of involvement (high, medium, low) and design strategies to increase the frequency of participation and the intention to continue the participation.

For example, individuals classified in the high involvement group with their specific qualities can be used as a “*model*” to design strategies for the improvement of low involvement groups.

Involvement in activity means the extent, to which a person is loyal to the activity, in which he is engaged (Engel & Blackwell, 1982).

Kyle & Chick, (2002), Havitz & Dimanche, (1990), Laurent & Kapferer, (1985) suggest that the involvement in a leisure activity reveals certain internal meanings and answers sought by the individual, thus demonstrating the motives that guide the individual’s behavior towards the leisure activity.

Alexandris et al. (2008), researching the involvement and loyalty of skiers in the ski resorts of Greece, found that the dimensions of “*attraction*” and “*centrality*” were important signs of loyalty, while on the contrary “*self-expression*” was not. In an earlier study in 2007, the same researchers studied the motives of leisure skiers. It was found that negotiation strategies are decisive for the loyalty to skiing. However, location attachment and quality of services seemed to influence the development of loyalty to the ski resort. (Alexandris et al., 2006).

The PERMA model (Positive Emotion-Engagement-Relationships-Meaning-Achievement)

The PERMA model was designed by Martin Seligman and encompasses five core elements of psychological well-being and happiness. Seligman claims that these five elements can help individuals to achieve a life of fulfilment, happiness, and meaning. This model can also be applied to various institutions for the actualization of programs aiming to facilitate individuals develop new cognitive and emotional tools.

Positive emotions

This element of the PERMA model is the one that has a profound connection to happiness. The ability to focus on positive emotions moves beyond just smiling; it reflects the ability to be optimistic and look at the present, past, and future with a positive attitude. This perspective can facilitate and ease relationships -both personal and work- and instill creativity and active decision-making.

Positive emotions is the driving force motivating human actions. People read, travel or do whatever makes them feel happy. Positive emotions also improve work performance, reinforce physical health, and promote optimism and hope for the future.

Engagement

This is a term that refers to attachment, participation, concentration, and tendency towards activities such as leisure, hobbies, or work (Higgins, 2006; Schaufeli et al., 2006). The basic tenet behind it is flow, i.e. when time seems to stand still and the individual loses the sense of self and focuses intensely on the present/gets in the zone. In positive psychology, ‘flow’ describes a state of absolutely joyful

immersion in the present moment. When we focus on doing things we truly enjoy and care for, we begin to engage ourselves with the present moment and enter a situation which is to be known as 'flow' (Seligman, 2011).

Relationships

People share a strong internal need for connection, love, physical, and emotional contact with others. This allows us to improve our well-being by establishing powerful networks of relationships with other individuals around us. Positive relationships, as well as powerful connections with family and friends or weak relationships with colleagues instill a sense of belonging (Sandstrom & Dunn, 2014).

Meaning and Purpose

Meaning –as an intrinsic human quality– requires search and the need to have a sense of personal value. To that end, meaning is discussed as serving a purpose greater than ourselves. We reach the peak of our personal best when we devote time to a purpose higher than the individual self. This could be pursued through volunteering, being a member of a community, a group of people or a religious group, or learning something to achieve a personal goal. Such activities have a sense of purpose, which by definition is the most substantial reason why people do what they do.

Achievement

As a term, it reflects the course of a productive and meaningful life. It is the result of working toward and reaching goals even though this may not bear any positive emotions, any meaning, or anything contributory to positive relationships (Seligman, 2011). To achieve well-being, individuals need to be able to look back to their lives with a sense of fulfilment and pride: I've done it and I've done it well.

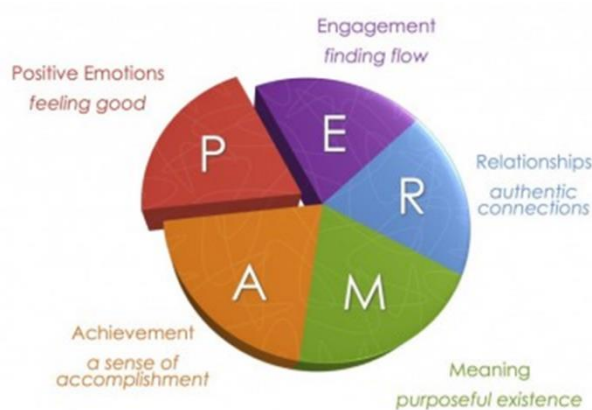


Figure 1. Graphical representation of the PERMA model

The PERMA model

Well-being, according to Seligman (2011), is a construct not to be confused with happiness on account of the former being the result of positive psychology. Well-being features five core elements (PERMA):

- ◆ Positive emotion
- ◆ Engagement
- ◆ Relationship

◆ Meaning

◆ Accomplishment

With regard to positive emotion, the PERMA model was developed to establish those mental conditions that impact experience in the past (satisfaction, fulfilment), present and future (hope, optimism, confidence) (Seligman, 2002). These emotions related to our well-being (Seligman et al., 2006) because they help to:

- ✓ Reinforce positivity attributed to past memories
- ✓ Protect the individual from negative emotions or diseases (depression) in the future.

Engagement refers to the degree of immersion and focus the individual experiences or directs to an activity (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). The immersion the individual directs to supporting their favorite team becomes so overwhelming that the individual loses their sense of self when dealing with activities related to that team (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990).

According to Filo & Coghlan, (2016), commonalities in engagement have been found in their research among participants in hiking, running, and swimming; nonetheless, engagement was found to be the least important PERMA element in their study.

Relationships refer to our connection with others. Participation in sports activities naturally facilitates the creation of relationships, which in turn improve our well-being (Brajsa-Zganec et al., 2011). Further, Funk et al. (2011) have found that passionate runners preferred the company of other runners at a running festival and enjoyed it more.

Meaning is another element of well-being, which describes the importance and the notion that our lives have meaning (Seligman, 2011). Research has shown that meaning contributes in active participation in volunteer sports events, thus establishing its emotional, functional, and symbolic value (Coghlan & Filo, 2013; Filo et al. 2008, 2009).

Achievement reflects the sense of accomplishment of an individual after they have succeeded in a particular goal or goals (Forgeard et al., 2011). According to (Filo & Coghlan, 2016; Filo et al. 2009), participants in a sports event can benefit their well-being by accomplishing certain objectives related to the event or even, succeed in their personal targets during their participation in the event.

Various studies have been conducted to study how well-being impacts different situations. Few, however, take into account those situations related to sports or exercise. Doyle et al. (2013) in their research focused on the advantages of watching sports by applying the PERMA model to the sports viewer. They found that positive emotions, relationships, meaning, and achievement of viewers' goals are activated both during sports season and off it.

Croom (2014) maintains that frequent participation and training in martial arts can positively impact all five elements of the PERMA model, resulting in establishing the positive impact of martial arts in our personal and social lives. Further, Coffey et al. (2016) did research with university students and

concluded that the PERMA model is a valid measurement unit for well-being thus rendering it a useful tool for their prediction in students' physical health and success in university.

The degree of interaction between involvement- active participation and well-being has been under substantial scrutiny from time to time by the scientific community. Specifically, quite extensive research has been done on whether higher degree of involvement-active participation can lead to well-being. For example, a study done on Icelandic young adults by Vihjalmsson & Thorlindsson (1998) investigated the interaction between involvement-active participation in sports and a variety of psychological, social, and demographic variables. They found that the participants' sex plays a major role in involvement-active participation but most importantly, that involvement-active participation in physical activities increases sociability. Another study, focused on teenagers, found that the degree of involvement-active participation in sports activities was linked to lower levels of depressive mood, higher levels of achievement and more social activities (Mechanic & Hansell, 1987). Specifically, the researchers studied the connection of different degrees of involvement-active participation in sports activities with social and psychological variables, including depression, in American teenagers. The principal conclusion was that teenagers with higher degrees of involvement-active participation showed lower levels of depression, closer relationships with family and friends, and a greater average score in their school performance. Finally, involvement-active participation in leisure (e.g. physical activity) is positively correlated with well-being in stark contrast to passive leisure (e.g. watching TV, playing computer games etc), which is negatively correlated to well-being (Mark et al., 2009).

The PERMA model has received wide acclaim and is applied to various research fields (Butler & Kern, 2016; Kun, Balogh & Krasz, 2017).

Kern et al. (2015) applied the model to 1300 secondary school students in Australia. Their results confirmed the original PERMA model findings, i.e. that well-being positively affects the feelings of hope for the future and satisfaction in life. However, well-being in sports tourism and leisure is a new concept for research (Doyle, et al., 2016; Rodríguez, et al., 2008). In this respect, the PERMA model was first applied to sports viewers. Doyle et al. (2016; 2019) measured the degree in which the systematic viewing of a sports championship (e.g. rugby) can contribute to an individual's well-being and also to what extent well-being is affected on season and off season. The results of their studies revealed the substantial contribution of sports viewing to the four elements of the PERMA model namely positive emotion, relationships, meaning, achievement. It was also evident that well-being reaches its peak as the championship progresses to the finale while it decreases during the off-season. Sato et al. (2016) studied the impact of the individuals' involvement in outdoor running on the development of positive intentions and reinforcement of the feeling of life satisfaction. It has been

established, after all, that the more time is spent outdoors doing activities, the greater the sense of well-being in life (Korpela, et al., 2014). Nonetheless, more research on the concept of well-being and how it relates to sports events is encouraged (Kavetsos & Szymanski, 2010; Korpela, et al., 2014). A final note regards the suggestion by Doyle et al. (2016) to apply the PERMA model on different fields of sports tourism.

Aims of the study

The present study aims at investigating issues related to the participation in outdoor activities such as mountaineering and hiking on Mount Olympus (frequency of participation, demographic variables, wellbeing (perma), involvement in the activity). Specifically, the purpose is to investigate the prediction of involvement based on the dimensions of the perma scale in the activity of mountaineering and hiking on Mount Olympus, as well as to define the profile of the participants. The hiking activity was chosen because it is the most popular activity that takes place on Mount Olympus, and according to data from the shelter reservations, more than 25,000 visitors hike on Mount Olympus every year.

Significance of the study

The significance of this study lies in its originality, the possibility of entrepreneurs and local agencies utilizing the results, as well as in the lack of relevant research in Greece. Moreover, the study proposes strategies for promoting the athletic lifestyle in society, as well as developing and promoting mountaineering on Mount Olympus and optimizing the quality of services. In order to design better programs to improve the facilities and services provided (trails, shelters, cleaning, feeding, safety), it is important to know the profile, needs and behavior of climbers, so as to ensure the best possible experience and the establishment of a relationship that will raise the chances of participating in a future.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

To conduct the study, research data were collected from individuals participating in the activity of mountaineering and hiking on Mount Olympus. The total research sample was two hundred one participants (N=200). To measure well-being, the questionnaire of Kern, et al. (2015) was adopted, which contained five dimensions: Positive emotions, Commitment, Relationships, Meaning, Achievement.

To measure the involvement, the (Kern et al, 2015) scale was used, consisting of four factors: Attraction (3 questions), Centrality (3 questions), Self-expression (3 questions) and Social Bonding (3 questions). The answers to both questions were noted on a seven-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 7= strongly agree).

RESULTS

Demographic characteristics of the sample

With regard to the profile of the participants engaged in mountaineering, 65% were men and 35% were women. 14% of the participants were 18-22 years of age. The largest percentage of participants (53%) were over 31 years old, while 28% of the sample was between 23 and 30 years old. Moreover, 70% of the participants were single, while 25% were married, and 5% did not answer. 77% of the participants said they have no children, 9% have 1 child, 11% have 2 children and only 3% have 3 children. In matters of education, 30% were junior/ senior high school graduates (gymnasium/ lyceum), 19% were graduates of a technical educational institute (TEI), 29% were university graduates, 16% had a master's degree and 6% were graduates of an institute of vocational training (IEK). As regards the manner, in which they participated in the activity, 25% participated with a mountaineering club, 67% participated alone or with friends, and 8% participated with a leisure company. In matters of financial situation, it seems that the largest percentage (52%) had a moderate financial situation, followed by 32% with a good financial situation, 10% with poor, 3% with very good, and 3% with very poor finances.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the participants

Age	Gender	Marital status	Education
18-22: 14%	Men: 65%	Single: 70%	High school: 30%
23-30: 28%	Women: 35%	Married: 25%	TEI: 19%
> 31: 53%		No answer: 5%	IEK: 6%
No answer: 5%		Children: 0-77%, 1 -9%, 2-11%, 3-3%	University: 29%
			Master's degree: 16%

Regarding the average participation in hiking and mountaineering, the research findings showed that on average the participants visit the mountains about 30 times a season, especially Olympus about 20 times a season. Regarding the most favorite mountains for hikers, the favorite mountain is Olympus with 65%, followed by the Pindos Mountain range with 13.5%, Tymfi with 8.5%, Kissavos with 7.5% and Paggai with 5.5%. Among the most favorite activities of the participants, the largest percentage (60%) was mountaineering, followed by cycling (33%), rock climbing (21%), running (38%), yoga (11%) and skiing (10%). The money spent on average by the participants for equipment and related gear for mountaineering is around 50 euros (15.5%), 100 euros (14.4%), 200 euros (13.4 %) and 150 euros (11.4%), and there are also those who do not spend any money at all (11.4%). Finally, those who participate alone or with friends represent the largest percentage (67.2%), followed by those who participate with a mountaineering club (24.4%), and finally those who participate with leisure companies (8.5%).

Financial situation of the participants

Regarding the financial situation of the participants, the largest percentage are those with moderate financial status

(52%), followed by those with good financial situation (32%), 10% seem to have a poor financial status, while the lowest percentage are those with a very good (3%) and very poor (3%) financial status, respectively (Table 2).

Table 2. Financial situation

Financial Situation	Ratio
Very poor	3%
Poor	10%
Moderate	52%
Good	32%
Very good	3%

Prediction of participation

When asked whether they will continue visiting Olympus for hiking, 70% of the respondents answered in the affirmative, and 76.7% said they would suggest friends to visit Olympus for hiking.

Mean values of the dimensions of involvement

Regarding the internal consistency of the subscales, the alpha indices showed satisfactory values as they ranged above 0.70, while the mean values of the subscales ranged from 4.2 to 5.7. The respective indices and values are presented in detail below (Table 3).

Table 3. Mean values of the dimensions of involvement

	M. V.	S. D.	alpha
Attraction	5.7	1.2	.86
Centrality	4.2	1.6	.81
Self-expression	4.8	1.4	.84

Mean scores of the PERMA model elements

As per the internal coherence of the sub models, alpha values were satisfactory since they ranged over 0.70 (Churchill, 1979; De Vellis, 2003) while mean scores of the sub models ranged from 4.1 to 4.5. Scores and values are presented below (Table 4).

Table 4. Mean scores of the PERMA model elements

	M. O.	T. A.	alpha
Positive emotions	4.4	0.7	.84
Socialization	4.1	0.8	.83
Achievement	4.5	0.6	.80

Prediction of involvement in activity using the PERMA model

The results from the regression analysis for the prediction of involvement parameters -particularly that of Attraction- using the PERMA model revealed substantial contribution in predicting attraction. In detail, for the prediction of involvement, the contribution of PERMA model elements was deemed statistically important ($F= 2.5, p<.05$), namely Positive emotions ($t=4.1, p<.01$) and Meaning and Purpose ($t=3.3, p<.005$) while the element of Relationships does not seem to have statistically important contribution to prediction of involvement (Table 5).

Table 5. Relation between the PERMA model and Attraction

PERMA model	B	β	t	p
Positive emotion	0.7	0.0	4.1	0.00
Socialization	-0.0	-0.0	-0.2	n.s
Achievement	0.5	0.2	4.1	.001

$$F=48.3, p<.01, R^2=0.42$$

For the prediction of centrality, a statistically significant contribution ($F=21.7, p<.01$) was provided by the "Achievement" factor ($t=4.1, p<.01$) of the well-being scale (Table 6).

Table 6. Relation between the PERMA model and Centrality

PERMA model	B	β	t	p
Positive emotion	0.4	0.2	4.1	n.s
Socialization	0.1	0.0	-0.2	n.s
Achievement	0.6	0.2	4.1	$P<0.05$

$$F=21.7, p<.01, R^2=0.2$$

For the prediction of Self-expression, all of the elements of the PERMA model are deemed to have statistically important contributors ($F=39.3, p<.01$); specifically, Positive emotions ($t=2.0, p<.05$), Socialization ($t=2.3, p<.05$) and Achievement ($t=3.2, p<.05$) (Table 7).

Table 7. Relations between the PERMA model and Self-Expression

PERMA model	B	β	t	p
Positive emotion	0.4	0.2	2.0	$<.05$
Socialization	0.3	0.1	2.3	$<.05$
Achievement	0.6	0.2	3.2	$<.05$

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Profile of participants in mountaineering

Mountaineering is one of the most popular activities in Greece thanks to the numerous mountain masses that adorn and dominate the territory of Greece. Olympus, with the highest peaks in Greece and its impressive volume, is a symbol of the Greek spirit, faith and freedom, cultural navel of Greece and a world natural monument.

According to above research, 65% of the participants in mountaineering are men and 35% are women. In an earlier study by (Dimitrios, & Sterios, 2022), 80% of the participants were men and 20% were women. A study conducted by the outdoor participation report (2013) found that men participate in outdoor leisure activities more than women. On the contrary, women participate more in indoor activities. The largest percentage of participants (53%) is over 31 years old, while 28% are from 23 to 30 years old. In an earlier study by (Dimitrios, & Sterios, 2022), the demographic results showed that 11% were 18-22 years old, 37% were 23-30 years old, and the highest percentage (52%) were over 30. It seems that mountaineering continues to be an activity enjoyed mainly by people over the age of 30. The largest percentage of participants said they are single, with no children. In matters of education, the participants seem to be mainly university and high school graduates and a smaller percentage are TEI

graduates. Most of them participate alone or with friends and few participate with a mountaineering club. A very small percentage of participants choose professionals for their mountain climbing. This shows the lack of advertising and promotion of the activity by both local agencies and leisure companies. The increased rates of fatal accidents on Mount Olympus (66 climbers in 50 years, 1960-2022) testify to the need for more organized excursions and the huge need for a special helicopter rescue team of European standards. It can be easily assumed that the more the interest of Greeks in mountain sports, and the number of tourists arriving in the country to engage in sports and adventure activities increases, the more the number of accidents will increase, too.

In regard to the financial status of the participants, it seems that the largest percentage is in moderate to good financial situation, with a percentage of 52% and 32% respectively. Regarding the average participation in mountaineering and hiking, research showed that on average the participants visit the mountains about 30 times a season, especially Olympus about 20 times a season. According to the research results, the favorite mountain to climb is Olympus and Pindos. Favorite activities of the participants are mountaineering followed by cycling, rock climbing and running. The money spent on average for equipment and related gear seems to be around 50 euros to 100 euros, a justified percentage due to the financial crisis, although the most dedicated to the activity do not hesitate to spend more money on equipment.

Involvement in the activity

The highest mean values were recorded in the dimensions "Attraction" ($M.O = 5.7$) which refers to the pleasure that the individual derives from participating in an outdoor recreational activity, but also to how important this activity is to the individual, and "Self-expression" ($M.O = 4.8$) which indicates the possibility of the individual to affirm his identity through his participation in a leisure activity as well as the image he wishes to project to others through his participation. It seems that the participants feel pleasure and satisfaction as their participation in outdoor recreational activities plays a very important role in their lifestyle. They seem to organize their lives around these activities as this is where they choose to spend their leisure time on.

It is proposed to:

- Study the factors that lead to the development of self-expression
- Develop an Olympus information center for those who wish to be daily informed (e.g. weather conditions, actions, etc.)
- Organize events related to Olympus in large urban centers
- Organize educational events related to Olympus (hikes, herbs gathering, tastings) in schools

Concluding remarks

The present study has been conducted to investigate involvement in activity using the PERMA model. Further, it aimed to profile participants in mountain climbing-hiking on Mt. Olympus. It seems that participants share feelings of joy and satisfaction on account of the importance they place on outdoor leisure activities. They organize their schedule around these activities and devote their free time there.

The participants wish to continue visiting Mt. Olympus in the future which in turn, means that they are profoundly attached to the location. Overall motivation has statistically important contribution to the predictions of all three parameters of involvement in the activity. Mountain climbing plays a decisive role in the lives of participants both in their interaction and their social life. It is true that when people with common interests interact, then the experience of the activity itself is more intense and pleasurable.

Limitations and Suggestions for further research

The research sample is deemed as somewhat limited and in no way is it indicative of all Greek participants. More data needs to be gathered including other types of outdoor activities so as to better investigate the concept of involvement. It is suggested that a series of concepts be investigated too such as profile, quality of services, branding, consumer connotations which can sketch out a clearer picture for each activity and then cross-section that with any deterring factors and involvement in activities. It is also suggested that new theoretical models be tried such as the Psychological Continuum Model (PCM) (Funk & James, 2001), which could reveal the underlying process contributing to building up enthusiasm for an activity.

Finally, future research can study the strategies implemented for the promotion of each activity and the role of personal initiative.

COMPLIANCE WITH ETHICAL STANDARDS

Conflict of Interest

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the author.

Ethical Approval

For this type of study, formal consent is not required.

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