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The Impact of Sport on Disaster, Development and Humanitarian Aid

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Abstract

This study descriptively investigated how humanitarian aid can be provided through sports in cases such as natural disasters, migration, war and conflict, which can affect people physiologically, psychologically and economically. In addition to the literature review on the subject, an attempt was made to explain the financial and moral support provided by the sports community to the disaster that occurred because of the earthquakes that deeply affected Kahramanmaraş and its surroundings on February 6, 2023, which was described as the disaster of the century. In the modern world, sports are not considered just as sports. Sports is considered an essential tool in many areas, from health to the economy, from gender to the cosmetics industry, from the development of countries to climate change, and from humanitarian aid to the solution of social problems. As a result of this research, it was seen that sports is one of the tools preferred by countries in foreign policy and diplomatic relations. In addition, it has been determined that it is among the tools used by non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and international organizations in carrying out their educational, psychological, health, missionary and economic activities and creating their image and social perception. In the research, sports philanthropy, sports aid campaigns, and the effects of sports on humanitarian aid were stated, and how the sports world should act in case of future disasters, how aid should be provided, and the measures to be taken within this framework were tried to be stated.

Keywords: Earthquake, Natural Disaster, Humanitarian Aid, Development, Sports

Introduction

Sports have never been evaluated as purely sporting activities in general, on the contrary, they have been perceived according to historical periods and events, and have been used many times as a tool for the acceptance, awareness-raising and solution of non-sporting phenomena in society. Based on the idea stated by Albert Einstein, "We cannot solve problems by using the same way of thinking that we used when creating them" (Beutler, 2008), one of the factors here is to seek solutions to existing problems or problems that need to be solved, not only with the situation that causes the problem, but also with different tools and methods other than the process that causes it. Another factor can be stated that popular culture arises from the strategies of creating social perception and marketing the products of the industrial, cosmetics, clothing etc. sectors. According to Grupe (2000), sport is used instrumentally worldwide due to its long-standing assumption that it can bring about any change.

The understanding of sports has changed fundamentally, especially in the 21st century. In the modern world, sports have begun to be considered as a tool in efforts to raise awareness and solve problems ranging from economy to development, from environmental problems to health problems such as HIV-AIDS. Sports has been regarded as a different and new position as one of the tools of development in underdeveloped countries and as a means of providing in-kind and cash aid, social and psychological support, clinging to life and motivation to the society and athletes living in war, disaster or economically disadvantaged areas. "While traditional engines or purveyors of development have come under increasing criticism, sport is recognised by some as a tool that can reach communities with messages that are more successful and effective than those of politicians, multilateral organisations and NGOs (Levermore, 2008)." The power of sport is increasingly recognized and used to promote development and peace in the international community (Beutler, 2008). The examples mentioned clearly demonstrate that, depending on the subject and field in which sports are instrumentalized, sports increasingly undertake social and cultural duties in addition to its main business (Küchenmeister & Schneider, 2011). When we look at sports today, it is clearly seen that it has developed as an independent subsystem of contemporary society by assuming different roles (Nixon, 2008; Heinemann, 2007). Sport, like many activities, is neither good nor bad as a priori, but it has the potential to produce both positive and negative outcomes. In this context, the conditions required for sports to yield beneficial results should also be examined (Patriksson, 1995).

Individual needs and social, political and economic interests enabled sports to develop both quantitatively and qualitatively (Barkhausen, 2012). There has been a groundswell of support for being "good sports" within the sports industry, as evidenced by the increasing number of "giving" initiatives and "charitable" programs and commitment to them over the last decade (Bradish and Cronin, 2009). Over the past two decades, a major effort has been to revitalise sport as a tool for comprehensive and sustainable social development, particularly in the world's most disadvantaged communities (Kidd, 2008). In this context, the United Nations (UN) has stated that key elements of sport can be used as an effective and viable means to support the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (UN, 2003). International organizations such as the Council of Europe, the European Union, or the UN have begun to increasingly prioritize sports, which are assumed to have the ability to solve global problems. Various national and international development cooperation actors have been influenced by this opinion and have focused on carrying out projects that use sport as a tool to address non-sport development problems in developing countries (Barkhausen, 2012).

Natural disasters, conflicts, wars, or fragile political conditions have always affected people's lives (Reisle, 2005). In cases of events that negatively affect society, individuals are expected to hold on to life in a mentally and physically healthy manner as soon as possible. In this context, in recent years, humanitarian aid activities have started to be included in the interest of sports-based studies. According to UN recommendations, sport could be a groundbreaking tool in this field. With widespread interest worldwide, it can offer the opportunity to reach many people in need who cannot be reached through traditional initiatives (UN, 2006). While death, injury, and loss of the material basis of life characterize daily life, the spirits of those affected are also shaken. Traumatic experiences, misery, and need always have a paralyzing effect and cause feelings of powerlessness (Reisle, 2005). Sport is considered an innovative tool for overcoming these challenges and seeking solutions to existing problems. As an international language, sport can build bridges between people, help overcome cultural differences and, spread tolerance. New and innovative thinking includes sport as an integral part of a holistic approach to development and peace, and therefore it is becoming increasingly important on local, national, and international agendas (Beutler, 2008). This expanded use of sports is no longer limited to government institutions or sports organizations, but on the contrary, it also concerns a significant number of institutions and organizations that initially had no connection with sports, but have recently tried to achieve their own non-sports goals by using sports (Barkhausen, 2012).

Sport is often associated with positive values and appeals to a wide range of population groups (Reisle, 2005). The International Development Association is placing greater emphasis on sports programmes to contribute to the advancement of marginalised populations in both disaster and development contexts. Various stakeholders, such as governments, non-governmental organisations and aid agencies, are making great efforts to maximise the role that sports programmes play in the lives of marginalised youth and are addressing this issue within the framework of international scientific reviews and agreements (Cheung-Gaffney, 2018). Sport is considered as a tool to provide socially disadvantaged children and young people with access to pedagogically guided areas of experience where the joy and fun of movement and play, as well as human and social values, are conveyed (Reisle, 2005). In social pedagogy, sports are seen as a means of developing social skills in young people (Barkhausen, 2012).

Social movements related to sports have started since the 1960s to draw attention to important political, social, and cultural issues (e.g., women's sporting events, the American civil rights movement, the anti-apartheid movement, and efforts to eliminate Native American mascots) and to achieve social change at local, national and global levels (Davis-Delano & Crosset, 2008; Jhally, 2006). Since the mid-1980s, sport has been used as a fundraising tool by individuals, donors, charities, and corporate sponsors to raise support for a variety of social and health issues by offering mass participation events (Ruperto and Kerr, 2009; Filo et al. 2012; Lock et al. 2013; Woolf et al. 2013). Charity sports, defined as participants connecting and communicating with others through their relationships with charities, are evaluated in the context of socialization opportunities (Taylor and Shanka, 2008). For example, charity sport event participants who attend a cancer-related event see the event as an opportunity to talk to others and share stories about their cancer experiences (Filo et al., 2008). The often individual motives of those who participate in charity sporting events include their desire to cope with their own personal loss, to alleviate grief or bereavement, and to support the treatment of specific illnesses (Gregg et al., 2015; Won et al. 2010). Religious institutions try to do missionary work on the basis of sports, companies want to increase their sales by participating

in sports events as sponsors, and politicians hope that participating in sports activities will increase their reputation in the eyes of the public (Houlihan, 2011).

Material and Method

In this study, the document scanning method was used. The document scanning method, one of the qualitative research methods, refers to the entire process of the researcher accessing, examining, and interpreting existing documents related to the subject of the study (Hodder, 2002; Rapley, 2018). This method aims to examine the materials and information obtained within the scope of the subject to be researched (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2018). In this research, information on the subject was examined by scanning national and international literature.

Findings
Sports and International Aid Activities

This section includes humanitarian aid activities carried out through sports around the world, fundraising campaigns and some studies for the development of developing countries. Life skills learned through sports are thought to help strengthen individuals and increase psychosocial well-being such as resilience, self-confidence, and connections with others (Cheung-Gaffney, 2018). Therefore, sociologists and those interested in the role that sport should play in social policy and international development need to think about how we can contribute to equalising people's life chances by harnessing the transformative power of sport. (Jarvie, 2011).

Founded in 1998, the Sports Philanthropy Project (2009) aims to harness the power of professional sport for the development of healthy communities (Sports Philanthropy Project, 2009). To date, the organisation has supported more than 400 charitable organisations in the United States (US) and Canada in conjunction with sports charities, league initiatives, and team foundations (Bradish and Cronin, 2009).

Sports philanthropy is a concept known as an event that provides consumer-oriented philanthropic solutions to health or social problems, where participants utilise physical activity-based activities to raise money. These activities include fun runs, cycling, long distance swimming, epic walks, and multi-sport competitions (Palmer, 2016). Sports Philanthropy ranges from events raising money for breast cancer research, such as the Mother's Day Classic, to organizations supporting anti-bullying campaigns, such as the Buddy Run, to individual participants seeking sponsorship at major sporting events, such as the London or New York marathons. Such events "and platforms include charity-related sporting events, competitions, and sports initiatives. More and more people are coming together to compete, donate, or sponsor a variety of sports-based charity events. Sports Philanthropy refers to a socio-sport movement that promotes charitable initiatives through mass sporting events (Palmer, 2021). Inspired by the 1985 Live Aid music event at Wembley Stadium, SportAid has played a defining role in the evolution of sports philanthropy. A global fundraising event, SportAid was organised to combat famine and brought together millions of people across five continents, combining humanitarian aid and sport. It was organised as part of a globally coordinated marathon event. (Webster, 2013).

In the former Yugoslavia, UNICEF created 'Open Fun Football Schools' to teach children and young people about the dangers of landmines, whereas US-based NGO PeacePlayers International teaches basketball to promote communication between children and young people from different ethnic or religious backgrounds in Israel, Northern Ireland, and South

Africa. In the slums of Nairobi, Kenya, the Mathare Youth Sports Association promotes football as a tool for girls' and women's participation, school attendance, and environmental cleanliness (Kidd, 2008).

"Kicking AIDS Out" is an international network of organizations working together to use sport and physical activity as a means of raising awareness about HIV and AIDS and motivating positive behavior change in young people. The Kicking AIDS Out network believes that sports and physical activity are effective ways to engage youth while serving as creative tools to facilitate and share positive messages about HIV and AIDS, as well as other critical health issues affecting youth (Beyond Sport, 2023).

In the mid-1990s, a group of Olympic athletes, led by four-time speed skating champion Johann Koss, took essential and impressive steps to encourage broader participation. The Red Cross, the Lillehammer Winter Olympic Games Organizing Committee, Save the Children, the Norwegian Refugee Council, the Norwegian Council of Churches, and the Norwegian People's Council, in cooperation with the Lillehammer Winter Olympic Games Organising Committee, launched a humanitarian aid programme called "Olympic Relief" with the mission to "give something back. "Initially, they made financial contributions to provide vaccines, emergency food, and clothing for children in war-affected Sarajevo and Afghanistan. They donated their own prize money and raised other funds by auctioning memorabilia from athletes at the Olympic Games. A group of athletes led by Ann Peel, who competed in the 1994 Victorian Commonwealth Games, called on governments to establish a programme for sports leadership in disadvantaged communities around the Commonwealth. Since then, many athletes have volunteered at international level and set up their own organisations, contributing to advancing social justice.

"Right to Play" (formerly Olympic Aid) was founded in 2003 as an international humanitarian organization that uses sport to create change in more than 40 of the world's most disadvantaged communities. The organization operates with the vision of "bringing together leaders from sports, business, and media to secure every child's right to play" (Bradish and Cronin, 2009).

"When Mutola raised $1 million for the overall victory on the Golden League Athletics Grand Prix circuit in 2003, he donated part of the proceeds to a foundation he set up to provide scholarships, equipment, training, and coaching for young athletes. Farms and small businesses generally survived with the small well facilities he opened with the winnings he earned in competitions and the tractors and fertilizer aid he purchased (Jarvie, 2011).

The main conclusion of the United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace is that effectively planned sport initiatives are practical and cost-effective means to achieve development and peace goals. Sport is a powerful tool that should increasingly be considered by the UN as a complement to existing activities. Therefore, the Task Force strongly recommends the following (UN, 2003):

1. Sport should be better integrated into the development agenda.

2. Sport should be included as a useful tool in development and peace programs.

3. Where appropriate and based on locally assessed needs, UN agencies should include sports-based initiatives in country programs.

4. Programs promoting sport for development and peace need greater attention and resources from governments and the UN system.

5. Communication-based activities using sport should focus on well-targeted advocacy and social mobilization, especially at national and local levels.

6. The Working Group's final recommendation is that the most effective way to implement programs that use sport for development and peace is through partnerships.

The International Federation of Football Associations (FIFA) became one of the first sports organizations to establish an internal corporate social responsibility unit in 2005 and soon dedicated a significant percentage of its revenues to relevant corporate social responsibility programs (Bradish and Cronin, 2009). The FIFA Foundation continues its activities actively to improve the lives of people around the world through its work and social responsibility programs. FIFA works with governments, global and regional development organizations, human rights groups, international and local non-profit organizations, and former players to build a fairer, more equal society through football (https://www.fifa.com/social-impact).

Football for Hope, launched by Fifa in 2005, is an initiative that contributes to social development worldwide. Support is provided to selected programs run by NGOs that use football as a tool in their daily work (Fifa, 2017). For example, the Football for Hope initiative aims to improve education, social integration and empower young people through the game of football (development cooperation through sport/development plus sport) (Barkhausen, 2012).

The Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (Norad), together with the Sport and Recreation Commission (SRC) in Zimbabwe, financially supported the Community Sport Development Programme, which was implemented by the Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committees and the Confederation of Sport (NIF) between 2008 and 2013. The programme aimed to establish 800 community sports clubs in Zimbabwe's 10 provincial regions, train 6,500 community leaders across the country and provide opportunities for regular sports participation for more than 30,000 children and youth (Hasselgård, 2015). In this context, sports facilities were considered as a platform to contribute to the official Zimbabwean development goals, such as gender equality and the reduction of HIV and AIDS through educational programmes (Hasselgård and Straume, 2014). Furthermore, the NIF endeavoured to increase the bargaining power between the government and SRC member clubs across the country. Similarly, in 2008, the Norwegian Football Federation (NFF), in cooperation with the Iraqi Football Federation and the Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs, launched a basic level football club system for children in 18 Iraqi provinces. Under these projects, the organisations played an influential role in the government's policy-making process by supporting regulations that protect the rights of women and persons with disabilities in sport (Hasselgård, 2015).

Hamilton (2013) reports that US$1.2 billion was raised for non-profit organisations in 2012 for charitable road racing, more than double the amount raised in 2002. In 2015, the top 30 sports-based fundraisers reported US$1.57 billion in revenue (Peer-to-Peer Thirty 2016). In the UK, Macmillan Cancer Support raised £3.5 million just by organizing events. In Australia, it was reported that 1.3 billion AUD was raised in sports events affiliated with charities in 2016 (McGregor-Lowndes et al., 2017). In addition to fundraising, the objectives of these events include raising awareness to support a cause, encouraging community engagement and building sponsor profiles (Filo et al., 2012; Ruperto and Kerr 2009; Woolf et al., 2013).

UNICEF and the World Health Organization (WHO) recognize that sport can improve children's physical and mental health and are developing partnerships with NGOs, special

interest groups and community-based organizations to encourage participation in sport. Similarly, the Catholic Agency for Overseas Development (CAFOD) and Christian Aid are some of the few traditional development NGOs that use sport to support developmental initiatives. In the case of CAFOD, projects include using football to help former child soldiers reintegrate into Liberian society (Levermore, 2008).

The Lutheran World Federation (LWB), a church community, provides career guidance through summer camp to young people in the Beit Hanina neighborhood of Palestine. 27 female and 62 male young participants between the ages of 13 and 17 from different parts of East Jerusalem in LWB's summer camp had the opportunity to participate in career and vocational counseling activities, sports events and programs in the carpenter workshop, plumber workshop or ceramic workshop. LWB is primarily concerned with promoting the self-determination of young Palestinian men and women. "The summer camp with this combination of career guidance and sport was a great experience, and we plan to hold other summer camps and activities providing career guidance using the Sport for Development program," said Rev. Mark Brown, LWB's country representative in Jerusalem (LWB, 2016).

Members of the Global Assistance Network (GaiN) describe themselves as "people who love helping others, many of whom are convinced Christians, and who want to convey God's love through word and deed." GaiN collects the items listed below to deliver humanitarian aid through sports (GaiN, 2023).

• Sportswear and shoes that are new or in good condition,

• All kinds of balls,

• Ball Pump,

• Table tennis or badminton rackets,

• Backpacks and bags

Many international organizations continue to work in various ways related to sports to promote peace, development and human dignity. Some examples of these studies are given below (Giulianotti, 2014).

1. The International Commission of the Red Cross (ICRC) enlists sports stars to publicize anti-personnel mine campaign.

2. ICRC, International Olympic Committee (IOC) and other international federations lend a helping hand to genocide victims in Rwanda.

3. The International Labor Organization launched the 'Red Card for Child Labor' campaign at the 2002 African Nations Cup finals. In December 2002, the campaign was adopted by Real Madrid specifically for the club's centenary celebration and received widespread coverage in the Spanish media.

4. Red Deporte y Cooperació´n was founded in Madrid and the United States in 1999 with the aim of 'supporting the physical, mental and psychomotor skills and development of underprivileged youth through regular sports activities and educating values'. Low-income and high-risk children and youth, as well as select groups of young women, participated in eight programs conducted in South America and sub-Saharan Africa.

5. In Colombia, the "Football por la Paz" project was established through local sports associations to rehabilitate and reintegrate drug addicted youth and those caught in drug trafficking into society.

6. Partnerships were established between international federations and humanitarian NGOs; such as, the IOC and the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), the International Football Federation (FIFA) and SOS-Children's Villages.

Nike sponsors or directly contributes to a number of development programs. One example is "Together for Girls," an initiative that promotes leadership among women in refugee camps in East Africa (Levermore, 2008).

Olympic Aid began running its own programs for children in refugee camps. The non-governmental organization Right to Play has sent teams of volunteer coaches and development professionals to 23 African, Asian and Middle Eastern countries to jointly implement healthy child and community development through UN agencies such as UNICEF and the UN High Commission for Refugees (Kidd, 2008).

With the outbreak of war in Ukraine, classical youth associations began to carry out their work mainly within the scope of humanitarian aid. During the war, Ukrainian youth associations focused their activities on the role that children's and youth sports could play in the short and long term, as well as international cooperation. Children and youth sports carry out studies to fulfill many of the following functions for Ukrainian youth (Shevchuk and Starz, 2022).

1. For Ukrainian youth, sports can be a temporary distraction from war and part of "normal daily life." Many young people may need mental health support after the horrific experiences of war. Sport and exercise can support the mental health of Ukrainian youth and help them process what they have experienced and seen.

2. Sport offers an opportunity and a special advantage for children and young people who have fled from Ukraine to Germany to adapt to the new environment. For example, possible language barriers play a secondary role when playing sports. Therefore, integrating young people escaping from Ukraine into sports clubs and training groups can be an important part of arriving in a new city or region. They can make friends there while also learning elements of the new country's language and culture in an extra-curricular context.

3. The majority of refugees from Ukraine are women with children. Children's and youth sports can not only help young people adapt to a new environment, but also help mothers in this regard. While the children are in a sports club, their mothers can work at their workplace, have time for themselves, or continue their normal daily lives.

Effects of Sports

Historically, sport has often been associated with education and has been seen as a critical means of social mobility and, for many, a means of escape from poverty (Jarvie, 2011). Sport is an ideal door opener in many areas, such as establishing contact, communicating values, initiating psychosocial activities, networking or mediating between conflicting parties. Sport is a measure that can be implemented quickly and is low-cost. For the civilian population, especially children and young people, it can create an experience area for carefree, happy moments and, as a result, bring some normality to life (Reisle, 2005).

At the 2nd Magglingen Sport and Development Conference held in Switzerland in December 2005, it was stated that they were determined to use sports, paying attention to its cultural and traditional dimensions, to promote education, health, development and peace, and in doing this, the principles of human rights, especially youth and children's rights, human diversity, gender equality, social participation and environmental sustainability were respected. In this

context, it was stated that various stakeholders were invited to contribute to sports and development with the following "Magglingen Call to Action 2005" (Magglingen, 2005):

1. **Sports organizations:** integrating sustainable development principles into their policies, programs, and projects and implementing them.

2. **Athletes:** acting as role models and using their influence and experience actively to advocate for development and peace.

3. **Multilateral organizations and the UN system:** taking a leading role in policy dialogue at strategic and global levels; raising awareness of international actors and other partners; strengthening networks and improving coordination; implementing and evaluating projects and programs.

4. **Bilateral development agencies:** integrating sports into development cooperation policies and programs; implementing and evaluating projects and programs.

5. **Governments in all sectors:** promoting the ideal of sport for all; developing inclusive and consistent sports policies; involving all stakeholders in coordination and implementation processes; strengthening and investing in sport and physical education in schools and education systems; integrating sport, physical activity and play into public health and other relevant policies.

6. **Armed forces:** using sport to foster friendship and build peace and security.

7. **NGOs:** carrying out projects that reveal the development and peace potential of sports; transferring experience and knowledge; involving other members of civil society.

8. **Private sector/sports industry:** actively endeavour to address the impact of social and environmental impacts on business operations and supply chains; support and invest in sports-based development activities.

9. **Research institutions:** adopt editorial strategies that emphasise the social and political dimensions of sport; provide training for journalists and raise awareness of the opportunities sport provides for development and peace.

10. **Media:** adopt editorial strategies that emphasise the social and political dimensions of sport; provide training for journalists and raise awareness of the opportunities sport provides for development and peace.

It is aimed to reach more people and touch their lives by using the power and opportunities of education through sports. Educational sports projects have long been seen as agents of social change and their justification can be established as follows (Jarvie, 2011):

a) Increasing knowledge and skills and contributing to the broader knowledge economy,

b) Providing lifelong learning opportunities, not only in education but also in sport and physical activities,

c) Volunteering in non-formal education through sport in order to contribute to the positive support of young people,

d) Helping to encourage and develop critical debate on key public issues,

e) Supporting programs that include sports as part of the approach to combating HIV education in different parts of the world,

f) Support in strengthening relationships, building networks and establishing connections to increase social capital. These networks, created through education and sport, offer a potential in terms of human resources.

In addition to the physical benefits of sports and physical activity, its analytical, educational and healing effects on social and economic life have been tried to be expressed below (Beutler, 2008):

• Having a positive impact on public health and disease prevention,

• Developing a more harmonious and sustainable community,

• Combating anti-social behavior and fear of crime,

• Ensuring young people have the best possible start in life,

• Economic vitality and workforce development,

• An essential element for ensuring sustainable development,

• To raise educational standards as an integral part of quality education,

• Individual empowerment of women and girls in particular,

• Promoting gender equality,

• Fighting discrimination,

• Fighting disadvantage,

• Social integration and development of social capital,

• Conflict prevention/resolution and peace building,

• Rehabilitation and reintegration,

• Contributing to lasting peace,

• Communication and social mobilization,

• Protecting human rights.

Implementation of Sports Activities in a Crisis Environment

In crisis situations such as natural disasters, wars, etc., it is of great importance to implement sports activities in appropriate environments and methods in order for people to hold on to social life, to be educated and to be supported psychologically. Poorly planned activities may negatively affect both the implementers and the target audience, both materially and spiritually, in achieving the intended goals. Table 1 shows how sports practices should be carried out to ensure social peace in situations of crisis, development, natural disaster, etc. (Reisle, 2005).

Table 1. Implementation of sports activities in crisis environments

Process	Explanations And Tips
Selection of Implementation Areas	• Easily accessible land (village or district square) should be selected in consultation with the official authority and local authorities.
Identifying the Key Issues and Context	• It should be handled in the context of basic issues such as natural disasters, war, etc., • Attention! Key issues and relevant priority activities should be adapted to the regularly changing context.

Other Actors and Partners	• Local, national or international NGOs or UN organizations.
Definition of Offers	• Programs/activities should be determined in consultation or cooperation with other actors, distinguishing possible target groups (e.g. age groups, young people committing violence).
Selection of Sports Directors	• Recruitment of the main responsible sports directors, if possible, through national (sports) teacher/coach/expert training institutions and academies (e.g. unemployed sports teachers or coaches in the field of practice), • Recruitment of co-leaders: relevant local leaders, • Women should be included.
Training/Informing Sports Directors	It should prepare sporting directors to be able to fulfill their duties, especially in achieving the intended goals. Minimum education includes the following subjects: • Determining the framework for sports activities, • Characteristics, • Sport as a mass sport, inclusion of different ethnic groups, religious groups, • Joint education of girls and boys, • Special tips on target groups, rituals and important issues, • Links to other mental health services, • Pedagogical guidelines and sample lessons, • Particularly taking care of talented children and young people who are interested in sports and directing them to sports clubs and associations, • Material Management, • Cooperation with competent authorities and partners.
Material	• Sports types that require as little infrastructure as possible should be chosen, • Where possible, locally/nationally produced materials should be purchased (goals, nets, marking objects, etc.). • Adapt the use of equipment to local conditions (e.g. where 80 children in a public school have to share one ball, it is not appropriate to train 80 children outside the school with 20 balls), • Describe material management responsibility in detail.
Monitoring	• Goals should be regularly reviewed, controlled and revised when necessary.
Evaluation	Minimum evaluation during monitoring by checking criteria agreed with sports directors: • Number of activities, number of sports directors (M/F), number of participants (M/F), • Inclusion of psychosocial aspects: Rituals present or issues addressed, • Involvement of the environment, collaboration with partners, • If possible and desired, criteria and effectiveness can also be checked by an external evaluation.

Reisle (2005) lists the activities and tips on the main issues in the crisis environment in Table 2.

Table 2. Main topics and tips in a crisis environment

Main Topics	Tips
Key Elements of a Sports Offer	• Reliable, regular exercise, games, sports and dance offers should be made, • Rituals/traditional games should be integrated into sports activities, • In addition to handling and processing experiences, the feedback culture of the sport should be used.

Mourning Work, Reconciliation	• Rituals of commemoration, hope and bonding should be created or reconciliation should be achieved, • Experiences and previous experiences should be told, people should be chatted with, and those who have been exposed to the crisis should be listened to.
Violence Prevention	• Disputes should be resolved in a ritualized way, • Fighting games that require high levels of aggression should be chosen, • Slogans to raise awareness about combating violence should be found and used, • Problems/issues should be addressed openly in the daily flow of life.
Raising Awareness of Groups of Young People Perpetrating Violence	Sport plays an important role in reaching and communicating with violent groups. However, for this to happen, there must be a sports manager who has psychological skills and is known and accepted by them.
Dealing with Public Distrust and Promoting Peace	• Mixed teams (different ethnic groups, religions, etc.) should be formed, • Participation of parents, traditional and official authorities should be ensured, • Protection must be provided through visibility by an impartial external power, • Act as an external mediator.
Communicating Values and Norms and Raising Awareness	• Conduct sports as a supporting activity (HIV/AIDS, malaria, literacy, etc.) with pledges, songs and dances that convey specific information and messages, • Communities, audiences and traditional patrons/rulers should be involved, • A platform of framework programs that serve cultural exchange should be created.
Education	Sport is seen as ideal for many people as a cost-effective means of work and occupation with the opportunity to raise awareness of various issues related to daily life. In societies where school enrollment rates are low and the number of unemployed youth is high, this could make a non-negligible contribution to improving the situation of the civilian population. Introduce or encourage sports outside of school, with teachers in the relevant area providing training. Attention! It should be noted that this is in no way a substitute for efforts to support schools.

In Table 2, there are tips on how to create and implement a suitable environment for people to hold on to social life, to be educated and psychologically supported in times of crisis. The role of sport and sport organisations in crisis situations such as earthquakes and war and in the recovery process is emphasised.

Two earthquakes occurred in Turkey on Monday, 06.02.2023, at 04:17, with the epicenter in Pazarcık (Kahramanmaraş) with a magnitude of Mw 7.7, and at 13:24 in Elbistan (Kahramanmaraş) with a magnitude of Mw 7.6 (AFAD, 2023). 11 provinces (Kahramanmaraş, Gaziantep, Şanlıurfa, Diyarbakır, Adana, Adıyaman, Osmaniye, Hatay, Kilis, Malatya and Elazığ) and approximately 13.5 million people were affected by these earthquakes. Over 50,000 people lost their lives in earthquakes (BBC, 2023).

The earthquake also deeply affected the sports community. Many athletes passed away and some clubs could not continue the league in the remaining matches of the season (FotoMaç, 2023a).

Immediately after the earthquake, aid campaigns such as "Turkey One Heart" were organized to deliver aid to the region (Habertürk, 2023). The sports community both participated in these campaigns and carried out organizations at the level of ministries, federations and clubs (FotoMaç, 2023b).

Turkey is an earthquake country (TCIP), with 98 percent of its territory located on active and different earthquake zones. It is also exposed to natural disasters due to reasons such as global climate change, and migration and refugee problems due to war, civil conflict and crisis in neighboring countries. Policies should be produced and measures should be taken in order to cope with the material and moral negativities, social problems and traumas that may be experienced within the scope of these and similar phenomena in a timely and adequate manner. The 1999 Gölcük Earthquake showed that there were deficiencies and coordination problems in the field of disaster and emergency aid in Turkey, and as a result, it led to the establishment of the Disaster and Emergency Management Presidency (AFAD). The 2023 earthquakes centered in Kahramanmaras, on the other hand, showed how fast emergency aid can be, how long-lasting aid can be, how healing wounds and new housing construction can take years, and how important collective work is, as they affect a very wide geography and population. In addition to being an earthquake country, as mentioned above, Turkey is a country that must be prepared for disasters that may occur at any time due to natural and climatic reasons.

The sports community in Turkey carried out many activities after the Kahramanmaras Centered Earthquakes (KMD) that occurred in February 2023, sometimes spontaneously, sometimes by observing what other clubs were doing, and sometimes by taking a professional approach. The measures that need to be taken in order to mature these activities and be prepared for disasters that may occur in the future are tried to be expressed in table 3. Some of these are practices implemented after the 2023 earthquakes.

Table 3. Duties and responsibilities of sports institutions and organizations and individuals in case of disaster

Institution/Organization/Individual	Duty and Responsibility
T.R. Ministry of Youth and Sports	a. Producing disaster-oriented policies, b. Carrying out disaster preparedness educational activities, c. Mobilizing facilities, buildings and human resources (dormitory, stadium, gym, personnel, materials, etc.), d. Organizing fun and sporting events in sports facilities to help children and young people overcome the trauma they experience, e. Mobilizing Federations and Clubs, f. Carrying out coordination between the sports community and AFAD, g. Informing and guiding the international sports community and to coordinate aid, h. Making calls for projects to be implemented in the disaster area, i. Increasing awareness through popular athletes, j. Playing a role in reconnecting children and young people to life by allocating mobile vehicles (e.g. Mobile Youth Center).
Universities (Faculties of Sports Sciences/Schools of Physical Education and Sports)	a. Cooperating with AFAD (training of educators, training of volunteers, gaining experience of undergraduate students, etc.), b. Adding courses within the scope of Basic Disaster Awareness, Natural Disaster Search and Rescue Techniques,

	Emergency and Disaster Management to the curriculum and ensuring that they are carried out.
Federations	a. Working in coordination with the Ministry of Youth and Sports, b. Informing federations abroad, c. Organizing national and international sports events for charity purposes, d. Providing disaster education.
Sports Clubs	a. Working in coordination with the Ministry of Youth and Sports, b. Providing material and moral assistance within the means possible, c. Contributing to the collection of in-kind donations, d. Bringing together and coordinating volunteers, e. Organizing competitions for the benefit of disasters, f. Printing reminder jerseys and ensuring that athletes wear them, g. Informing and coordinating fans.
Coaches/Sports People	a. Playing an active role in collecting aid, b. Meeting with domestic and international coaches, informing them, organizing joint events, c. Informing athletes and encouraging them to help, d. Supporting the distribution of aid by being in the disaster area, e. Meeting with disaster victims, listening to them and providing motivation.
Athletes	a. Taking an active role in collecting aid, b. Meeting domestic and international athletes, informing them, organizing joint events (athletes should distribute among themselves), c. Supporting the distribution of aid by being in the disaster area d. Meeting with disaster victims, listening to them and providing motivation.
Fan	a. Working in coordination with club managers, b. Informing fans, acting together, c. Contributing to charity collection and announcing it on social platforms, d. Helping distribute in-kind aid collected by being in the disaster area.
Volunteers	a. Contributing and participating in aid efforts by contacting authorized institutions, organizations and sports clubs, b. Carrying out individual events; − Improving oneself regarding disaster, − Receiving first aid training, − Participating in volunteer activities, − Raising awareness on social platforms without causing disinformation, − Follow domestic and international sports/humanitarian aid projects and events, preparing the ground for their execution and creating collaborations, − Preparing or taking part in projects related to the subject, − Providing assistance according to the field of expertise, mobilizing colleagues, organizing joint organizations .

Discussion and Conclusion

In this study, it was tried to explain how individuals and society can be motivated, how planning can be done, what kind of aid campaigns can be carried out, and how sports can play a role as a new motor force that will help the development, economy and development, through sports in difficult situations such as natural disasters, war, migration and similar situations. In the modern age, sports, along with other healing elements, are given important roles in resolving conflicts and disputes, ensuring peace, and in social rehabilitation, reconnection to life, and increasing the motivation of people who have been traumatized under certain conditions due to natural disasters, war, migration, etc. Sport can only provide significant benefits under challenging situations when development projects are based on meaningful dialogue with recipient groups and when such programs are accompanied by more direct measures to alleviate disease, hunger, war, and forced migration (Giulianotti, 2014).

Sport is linked to a wide range of development initiatives, from generalized strategies (for example, tentative concepts of strengthening economic development or uniting countries) to specific programs (such as mitigating the socio-economic impacts of inter-communal conflicts, promoting education and health, and raising awareness, especially about HIV/AIDS) (Levermore, 2008). However, this does not mean that sports can solve all social problems.

Levermore and Beacom (2009) emphasize that while some people cannot even access clean drinking water, it is necessary to question the extent to which sports, as the so-called engine of development, has the right to be financed. The view of many traditional organizations such as the World Bank that sport is a secondary need following first-order basic needs such as water, food and education strengthens this question (Digel and Fernhoff, 1989). Bauer (2004) explains that sports can only be given priority if all basic needs are met. Promoting sport as a human right can only be legitimate when conditions allow it. Therefore, sports do not represent an independent area of development. Donors and actors unrelated to sports, such as traditional NGOs, view sports development projects as a waste of donations that distract from significant core problems such as fighting hunger (Levermore, 2008). Hippler (2011) stated that in times when resources were scarce to combat poverty, sports were not seen as the first priority in the budgets of government or non-governmental organizations and building tennis courts or buying table tennis tables does not fit the ideas of taxpayers or donors who dream of more classical forms of aid, such as building schools or wells (Barkhausen, 2012).

Many developed western countries consider sports as an important tool to achieve their goals in international relations and provide support for development projects. Similarly, sports are also used in carrying out missionary activities. In addition, countries that cause the destruction of countries and get the reaction of national and international public opinion through war, annexation or occupation are trying to relieve the pressure with sports events, development projects and educational activities. In particular, the United States (USA) and the United Kingdom governments aim to break hostile perceptions and discourses, alleviate social conflicts, and facilitate communication with different segments of society by carrying out sports diplomacy, among other initiatives. These activities can sometimes be carried out by states themselves, and sometimes by international organizations or NGOs. These activities are also methods used to legitimize illegitimate interventions and improve the bad image created.

In areas such as the economic development of countries, the welfare of society, increasing the education level of young people and combating diseases, sports also seem to be adopted by international organizations such as the United Nations (UN), International Labor Organization (ILO), United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and World Health Organization (WHO). In this context, the UN, which named 2005 as the year of development and peace through sports, clearly expresses its belief that sports can advance development initiatives, especially the Millennium Development Goals (Levermore, 2008).

The state should manage the crisis and provide coordination in such major disasters, although NGOs have important roles and support in collecting and delivering aid and healing wounds in Kahramanmaras earthquakes, where destruction, social and economic shock, and loss of life and property are high. In disasters where the wounds will take a long time to heal, the state should classify voluntary initiatives and NGOs according to the aid they will provide and create a calendar for aid activities. It was observed that there were problems in the transportation, delivery and storage of the aid collected by volunteers and NGOs in Kahramanmaras earthquakes, and that the aid was gradually cut off one month after the disaster. Considering the urgency of the problems encountered, it is the obligation of the state to meet people's basic rights and needs such as shelter, nutrition, security, cleanliness and health and to provide equal educational opportunities. Governments should also support and implement programs that ensure need-based beneficiary participation in planning and implementation, with equity and anti-harassment policies in place, in accordance with national/regional strategic development plans, and use their spending powers to ensure the employment of qualified personnel (Kidd, 2008).

During the Kahramanmaras earthquake, the Ministry of Youth and Sports, sports clubs, fans, NGOs and volunteers carried out many activities such as fundraising, establishing a container city, sports organizations and activities for children and young people. However, some of these activities focused on palliative solutions, took place in a specific location and within the scope of the sensitivity that existed in the society in the first months after the earthquake. In traumatic events such as natural disasters, which deeply shake the society economically and psychologically and result in housing, nutrition and health problems, the aid to be provided by the sports community should be provided first of all in terms of meeting people's basic needs, and then in terms of educational, psychological and, depending on the situation, sports facilities. Aid activities of NGOs and voluntary initiatives should be carried out in cooperation with state bodies and local governments. Collaborations should be established through national and international projects, social sensitivity should be maintained, and aid and activities should be carried out according to a specific activity calendar.

The society needs to be prepared for natural disasters such as earthquakes and be aware of the expected attitude, intervention, aid and donations after the disaster. In this context, universities and especially academic units that run undergraduate programs in the field of sports have important duties. Students studying in these programs graduate by gaining certain competences and qualifications. Graduates of these programs and experts working in the field of sports are among the volunteer individuals who will assist until and after professional search and rescue teams arrive in the disaster area. In order to strengthen the disaster-related

education of students, it is necessary to add and conduct courses within the framework of Basic Disaster Awareness, Natural Disaster Search and Rescue Techniques, Emergency and Disaster Management to the curriculum of sports undergraduate programs. In addition, universities should collaborate with AFAD to carry out activities for the training of instructors, the training of volunteers and the experience of undergraduate students.

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The Relationship Between Youth Perception of Social Support in Physical Activities and Leisure Time Management Attitude

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Abstract

Participation in social and physical activities contributes to the social, physical and psychological development of youth. With the increasing importance of participation in physical activity in the fight against obesity, social support to direct youth to physical and social activities and the existence of programmes covering such activities gain importance. Social support for youth to participate in physical activities is related to their leisure time management planning. The main aim of the research is to identify the relationships between youth perceptions of social support for participation in physical activity and their leisure use and attitudes towards it. The study used a relational screening model. The questionnaire form designed to measure the perception of social support in physical activities and leisure time management attitude was applied face-to-face to high school graduated youth (n=1012). In the demographic data of the research, the findings that 92.2% of the participants are overweight, 71.1% (n=720) do not exercise regularly, 70.6% do not have membership to clubs, etc. that organize music, art or sports activities, and although they know that various activities are held in the living space (n=542, 53.6%), they are not aware of the activities (n=591, 58.4%) come to the fore. According to the results of the study, it was found that there was a positive relationship between peers and parents in the perception of social support. It was also found that perceptions of social support from parents and peers positively predicted leisure time management attitudes at a weak level. It is suggested that practices and activities to support the physical activity of youth should be increased and institutional solutions should be produced within the Ministry of Youth and Sports.

Keywords: Leisure Time, Leisure Time Management, Physical Activity, Social Support, Youth.

Introduction

Social activities such as hobbies, arts, sports or music have an important place in people's social life. People acquire some skills by participating in social activities with the guidance of their family, teacher or social environment, especially from childhood. These skills can be an important factor in the identity of the individual with reinforcement. The display of these skills acquired during childhood and adolescence can also affect social, physical and psychological development (Karatekin & Ahluwalia, 2020). The sustainability of social-sportive activities is possible with the existence of structures operating in this field. In our country, social activities for young people are carried out by Youth Centers, Youth Sports Provincial Directorates and municipalities (Republic of Turkey Prime Ministry, 1986) and private culture, arts and sports centers (Döş & Kır, 2013) with the duties defined by law (art.2) (Birol et al., 2018). While some structures have an institutionalized culture, others are more local and even limited to a small audience.

The participation of post-secondary youth in the mentioned social-cultural and sportive activities is possible with the existence of organizations offered to them. These organizations should diversify their activities in order to achieve their objectives and should carry out their publicity activities meticulously. Informing young people about the activities is one of the important factors that will affect their participation. For this reason, relevant institutions, organizations and private structures should use management organization techniques effectively in accordance with their vision and mission. In this way, it will be possible for young people to spend their free time in a qualified way. In this respect, systematic management activities of organizational structures are considered important for their success.

Social Support

Socialization is the process of learning to adapt to group rules and structure (Topaçoğlu & Kılavuz, 2022) and continues throughout life (Baltacı & Uysal, 2012). Socialization positively affects the life of the individual and relieves him/her mentally (Yang et al., 2023). In this sense, socialization supports the concept of social support. We can say that social support is the gains obtained from the social life of the person (Abay-Alyüz, 2020). While explaining the concept of social support, some concepts should be considered (Cohen, et al., 2000); these can be expressed as interaction, coping, respect, belonging, competence and change. These concepts can be explained as mutual dialogue, coping with one's problems, respect in bilateral relationships, feeling that one belongs to a place, having the ability to provide social support, and the state of returning a social support. These factors should be present in the explanation of social support (Halis & Demirel, 2016). It has been stated that social support affects people in two different ways. One of them is direct effect. It can be defined as a state of well-being that directly affects another person. It is related to our more basic emotions. The other dimension is the so-called buffer effect. It is the support the individual receives from the environment against situations that occur outside the individual's sphere of control (Abay-Alyüz, 2020; Diewald & Sattler, 2010).

Physical Activity and Participation

Physical activity is body movements that result in the consumption of energy in the body (Caspersen et al., 1985; Carbone et al., 2019). People's physical activity is related to their living standards (Koruç & Bayar, 2004). For this reason, daily physical activities affect the level of physical activity in the region where people live, such as climate and geographical conditions, modes of transport, occupational positions, leisure time utilization methods (Zimmermann-Sloutskis et al., 2010). The importance of physical activity for physical, mental

and psychological health has not been sufficiently explained to people (Kong et al., 2013). Therefore, the fact that individuals do not care about physical activity and lead a sedentary life is getting worse with the developing technology and the negativities brought by this increase the incidence of diseases such as diabetes, blood pressure, heart diseases, vascular diseases, etc. (Yıldırım & Bayrak, 2019). Today, the developing internet and social media life restricts the movement of our young people, so inactivity occurs with weight gain (Ayhan et al., 2012). Psychological disorders seen in individuals between the ages of 15-17, negativities in their development, unbalanced nutrition cause them to gain unnecessary weight and experience health problems (Alper et al., 2017). In this direction, increasing the interest of young people in physical activity will facilitate their lives in terms of health (Özakar-Akça & Selen, 2015).

Concept of Leisure Time

Leisure time is the free time that individuals choose for themselves, the period of time when they do not work, do not think about life troubles and realize their own wishes and desires (Okumuş, 2005; Kılbaş, 2010). Tabuk and Özkatar-Kaya (2024) found in their bibliometric analysis that the concepts used in leisure and recreation studies focus on physical activity, that the majority of the tourism sector is oriented towards the long-term field, that it focuses on theses and government policies to increase participation in physical activity, and that it contains arguments for the development of social theories and practical applications. Leisure time is an extremely important element for individuals today to maintain motivation in their lives, to socialize (Demir & Alpullu, 2020), to raise healthy generations, to become happy and successful in their future lives by evaluating their time efficiently (Aydoğan & Gündoğdu, 2006), and it is also possible for people who have the ability to create leisure time to use this time in the most efficient way. Therefore, the use of time can be expressed as an important skill that distinguishes individuals from others. The aim of the research determined in line with the conceptual relationships expressed in the literature is to reveal the relationship between high school graduates' perception of social support and attitude towards leisure time management.

Material and Method

Research Model

The research was designed with the relational survey model. The relational survey model is defined as "a research model that aims to determine the degree of change or the presence of co-variation between two or more variables" (Kaner et al., 2013; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006; Karasar, 2016). The measurement tool prepared for the collection of data within the scope of the research was applied face-to-face to the participants using the questionnaire technique.

Study Group

The population of the research is high school graduates residing in Çorum province. There are approximately 55,000 (+/-3,000) young people between the ages of 18-24 in Çorum (TÜİK, 2021). According to the population density of the settlement center, the ratio of the provincial center population to the general population is approximately 60%. Therefore, the number of young people between the ages of 18-24 living in the city center is estimated to be approximately 33,000 (+/-3,000). According to Yazıcıoğlu and Erdoğan (2004), the sampling error of +-0.05 was determined as 381 at a significance level of p=0.05 (population n=33,000, +/- 3000). The questionnaire form designed to measure the perception of social support in

physical activities and leisure time management attitudes was applied face-to-face to a total of 1012 high school graduates, 570 women and 442 men. In the study, Cronbach Alpha coefficient (α), percentage and frequency distributions, t-test, anova test, correlation and regression analyses will be performed for the sub-dimensions and total reliability of the scales and the relationships between the variables will be tried to be determined.

Data Collection Tools

Social Support in Physical Activities Scale

The scale developed by Farias Junior et al. (2014) and adapted by Küçükibiş and Eskiler (2019) was used in the study. The internal consistency coefficient of the scale, which consists of 10 items in two sub-dimensions including the encouragement of parents and peer groups to physical activity, joint participation, transport support and motivation, was determined as 0.70. As a result of the analysis of the research data, Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient was determined as 0,793.

Leisure Time Management Scale

In the study, the "Leisure Time Management Scale" developed by Wang et al. (2011) and adapted into Turkish by Akgül and Karaküçük (2015) was used. The scale structurally has a total of 15 items with 4 factors that have achieved reliability values (α = ,83). The scale has a 5-point Likert-type rating. As a result of the analysis of the research data, Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient is 0,807.

Body Mass Index

Body mass index is a value obtained by dividing a person's body weight (kg) by the square of their height (in m) ($BMI = kg/m^2$). The values shown in Table 2 were calculated from the participants' answers.

Findings

In this part of the study, the findings on the demographic characteristics of the participants, the data obtained as a result of the reliability and frequency analysis of the scales are presented.

Table 1. Distribution of the participants in terms of demographic characteristics

Variables		f	%
Gender	Female	570	56,3
	Male	442	43,7
Total income level of the family	Minimum wage	398	39,3
	Minimum wage*2	378	37,4
	Minimum wage*3	236	23,3
I exercise regularly	Yes	292	28,9
	No	720	71,1
Body mass index	Normal	79	7,8
	Fat	779	77,0
	Obese	154	15,2
A music art sports etc. club membership	Yes	298	29,4
	No	714	70,6
Availability of leisure time alternatives	Yes	825	81,5
	No	187	18,5

Having daily free time	0-3 hours	307	30,3
	3-6 hours	600	59,3
	More than 6 hours	105	10,4
Existence of organizations offering social activities	Yes	470	46,4
	No	542	53,6
Being informed about social events	Yes	421	41,6
	No	591	58,4
	To study lessons	16	1,6
	Others	120	11,9
	Ps game	54	5,3
Leisure use preference	Trip	41	4,1
	Social media	326	32,2
	Sports/music/art	284	28,1
	TV/movie	171	16,9
Total		1012	100

When Table 1 is analyzed, it is seen that 570 of the participants are women (56.3%) and 442 of them are men (43.7%). When the total family income of the participants was analyzed, it was determined that those with a minimum wage (39.3%) and two minimum wages (37.4%) were higher than those with three minimum wages (23.3%). When the regular exercise status and body mass indexes of the participants were analyzed, it was found that 71.1% (n=720) did not exercise regularly, and when classified according to body mass indexes, the majority (77.0%) were in the overweight category (n=779). While 70.6% (n=714) of the participants were not members of social organizations such as music, art, sports, etc., 18.5% (n=187) stated that they had no alternatives to evaluate their leisure time. When the daily leisure time durations of the participants were analyzed, it was determined that the majority (59.3%) of the participants had leisure time between 3-6 hours. While 46.4% of the participants (n=470) stated that there are clubs, associations, foundations, etc. offering alternative activities in the region where the research was conducted, 53.6% (n=542) stated that there are no such organizations. The majority of the participants (58.4%) stated that they were not aware of social activities. When the leisure time preferences of the participants are analyzed; 32,2% (n=326) answered social media, 28,1% (n=284) answered sports/music/art, 16,6% (n=171) answered TV/film, 22,9% (n=231) answered PS game, other, travelling and studying.

	Mean	SD.	Kurtosis	Skewness
Body mass index	2,07	0,15	,223	1,284
How many hours of free time do you have per day?	1,80	0,19	,127	-,474
Your parents support (Mean=1,37, SD=0,53)	**Mean**	**SD.**	**Kurtosis**	**Skewness**
Your parents encourage you to engage in physical activity?	1,99	0,73	-0,405	-0,03
Your parents do physical activities with you?	1,51	0,82	0,012	-0,55
Your parents drop you off at your physical activity location or get you there?	1,31	0,82	0,231	-0,451
Your parents watch you do physical activity?	0,81	0,74	0,73	0,376
Your parents say that you are doing your physical activities well?	1,24	0,81	0,2	-0,492
Peer support (Mean=1,19, SD=0,57)	**Mean**	**SD.**	**Kurtosis**	**Skewness**
Your peers encourage you to engage in physical activity?	1,17	0,80	0,303	-0,348
Your peers do physical activities with you?	1,09	0,75	0,407	-0,021
Your peers drop you off at your physical activity location or get you there?	1,12	0,77	0,401	-0,114
Your peers watch you do physical activity?	1,3	0,77	0,238	-0,276
Your peers say that you are doing your physical activities well?	1,28	0,80	0,297	-0,324
Leisure Time Management (Mean =3,58, SD=0,43)	**Mean**	**SD.**	**Kurtosis**	**Skewness**
Setting goals for my free time.	3,73	0,80	-0,613	0,953
I'm making a list of things I can do in my free time.	3,17	0,91	-0,167	-0,094
I set priorities for my free time.	3,61	0,82	-0,591	0,657
I organize my free time on a daily or weekly basis.	3,1	0,96	-0,087	-0,305
I collect information about leisure activities.	3,31	0,92	-0,378	0,052
I organize activities that I can do in my free time.	3,45	0,83	-0,513	0,419
I use my waiting times.	3,6	0,76	-0,265	-0,118
I evaluate my use of free time.	3,79	0,69	-0,465	0,492
I reserve some of my time for leisure activities.	3,69	0,77	-0,217	-0,226
Free time is meaningful.	3,86	0,78	-0,369	-0,172
Leisure time is happy.	4	0,78	-0,528	-0,043
Use of free time is important.	4,2	0,72	-0,819	1,117
I think making programs for free time is a waste of time.	3,29	0,95	0,212	-0,685
I believe free time is unpredictable.	3,57	0,83	-0,122	-0,34
I don't know what to do with my free time.	3,46	0,93	0,013	-0,762

Table 2. Quantitative data of the scales.

When the skewness and kurtosis values of the scale items used in the research in Table 2 were examined, it was determined that the skewness and kurtosis values of all items were between +2 and -2 (Tabachnick et al., 2013). When the mean values of the answers given to the scale items were analyzed, it was found that although parents frequently encouraged young people to engage in physical activity ($\bar{X}$=1,99; 1,26≤$\bar{x}$≤2,72), participation in physical activity with young people ($\bar{X}$=1,51; 0,69≤$\bar{x}$≤2,33), monitoring their physical activities ($\bar{x}$=0,81; 0,07≤$\bar{x}$≤1,55), providing access to physical activity ($\bar{x}$=1,31; 0,49≤$\bar{x}$≤2,13) and stating that they do physical activity well ($\bar{x}$=1,24; 0,43≤$\bar{x}$≤2,05). In addition, it is seen that young people perceive parental support ($\bar{x}$=1,37; 0,84≤$\bar{x}$≤1,90) more than peer support ($\bar{x}$=1,19; 0,62 ≤$\bar{x}$≤1,76) in physical activity participation. When the averages of the leisure time management scale were examined, it was determined that although the young people stated that leisure time was pleasing ($\bar{x}$=4,00; 3,22≤ $\bar{x}$≤4,78) and its use was important ($\bar{x}$=4,2; 3,48≤$\bar{x}$≤4,92), they were undecided about organizing their leisure time daily and weekly ($\bar{x}$=3,1; 2,14≤ $\bar{x}$≤4,06). In addition, it was determined that young people had high mean scores in leisure time management ($\bar{x}$=3,58; 3,15≤$\bar{x}$≤4,01).

Table 3. Reliability analysis results of the scales

	Number of Items	Crohnbach's Alpha
Social Support	10	0,793
Parent Support	5	0,698
Peer Support	5	0,787
Leisure Time Management	15	0,807

According to the reliability analysis results indicated in the table, the Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient of the parental support sub-dimension is 0.698, the Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient of the peer support sub-dimension is 0.787, and the total Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient of the social support scale is 0.793. The reliability coefficient of leisure time management is 0.807.

Table 4. The relation between body mass indek and gender

	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t	F	p
BMI	Female	442	2,17	,47	5,873	34,702	,000
	Male	570	2,00	,46	5,853		

According to the results of the t-test conducted to compare the body mass indexes of female and male youth, a significant difference was determined between gender and body mass index. The body mass index of young women ($\bar{x}$=2.17) was higher than the body mass index of young men ($\bar{x}$=2.00).

Table 5. Correlation between social support and its sub-dimensions and leisure time management

	Parental Support	Peer Support	Social Support	Leisure Management Attitude
Parental Support	1	,412[**]	,826[**]	**,139[**]**
Peer Support		1	,853[**]	**,180[**]**
Social support			1	**,191[**]**
Leisure Management Attitude				1

According to the correlation analysis given in Table 5, it is seen that there is a positive, weak and moderately significant relationship between the sub-dimensions of the social support scale and leisure time management. It is seen that there is a positive, medium level (r=,412; p<,000) significant relationship between parental support and peer support scores; a positive, medium level (r=,826; p<,000) significant relationship between parental support and social support dimension scores; and a positive, weak level (r=,139; p<,000) significant relationship between parental support and leisure time management attitude dimension scores.

Table 6. Regression analysis on the prediction of peers support on leisure time management attitude

		B	Std. Err.	Beta	t	P	R	R^2	F	*p*
Peer Support	**Leisure Management Attitude**	,340	,148	,180	5,809	,000	,180	,032	33,741	,000

According to the regression analysis results for the prediction of the relationship between peer support and leisure time management attitude stated in Table 6, it is seen that peer support has a weakly significant positive effect on leisure time management attitude. In the model (R=0,180; R2 = 0,032; P<0,05), it is seen that 3,2% of the variance of leisure time management attitude is explained by the independent variable of peer support. Beta coefficient of the independent variable included in the model is =0,180. Since the dimension of peer support is p<0.05, it has a statistically significant effect on leisure time management attitude.

Table 7. Regression analysis for the prediction of parental support on leisure time management attitude

		B	Std. Err.	Beta	t	P	R	R^2	F	*p*
Parental Support	**Leisure Management Attitude**	,170	,038	,139	4,462	,000	,139	,019	19,912	,000

According to the regression analysis results for the prediction of the relationship between parental support and leisure time management attitude stated in Table 7, it is seen that parental support has a weak positive effect on leisure time management attitude. According to the model (R=0,139; R2=0,019; P<0,05), 1,9% of the variance of leisure time management attitude was explained by parental support. Beta coefficient of parental support, which is the independent variable in the model, is=0,139. As a result, parental support (p<0.05) dimension has a statistically significant effect on leisure time management attitude.

Table 8. Regression analysis for the prediction of social support on leisure time management attitude

		B	Std. Err.	Beta	t	P	R	R^2	F	*p*
Social support	**Leisure Management Attitude**	,204	,033	,191	6,172	,000	,191	,036	38,090	,000

According to the results of the regression analysis conducted for the prediction of the relationship between social support and leisure time management attitude stated in Table 8, it is seen that social support has a weakly significant positive effect on leisure time management. In the model (R=0,191; R2= 0,036; p<0,05), 3,6% of the variance of leisure time management attitude was explained by social support. Since the Beta coefficient of the

independent variable social support= 0,191 (p<0,05), it has a statistically significant effect on leisure time management.

Discussion and Conclusion

In this study, the relationship between the perception of social support in physical activities and leisure time management attitude of young people was tried to be determined. It is seen that only 7.8% (n=79) of the young people participating in the study were of normal weight, 92.2% were overweight (n=779, 77%) and obese (n=154, 15.2%) (Table 1). It is seen that 71.1% of such a mass (overweight and obese n=933), which is far from physical activity, do not exercise regularly (n=720, Table 1). In addition to these two findings, the low number of those who participate in activities such as sports/art/music in their free time (n=284, 28,1%) supports that the research group is far from physical activity. When the literature on the physical activity levels and body mass indexes of young people is examined, Yıldız et al. (2015) found that the physical activity levels of young people were low in their study and stated that young people should be encouraged more to physical activity in order to prevent health problems that may occur due to inactivity. Özakar-Akça and Selen (2015) concluded in a study that one out of every three participants was obese and the majority of the participants did not have the habit of doing sports. These results coincide with the results of our study.

While most of the participants responded "often" to the statement "your parents encourage you to engage in physical activity", which is item 1 of the parent sub-dimension of the social support scale, most of the participants responded "rarely" to the statements "they do physical activities with you", "they tell you that you do your physical activities in a good way", "they watch you doing physical activity", "they drop you off at the place where you do physical activity or make you reach there". Based on these results, we can say that parents mostly encourage young people verbally, but are insufficient in terms of actual encouragement. Azevedo et al. (2006) stated that individuals' attitudes and behaviors towards physical activity begin to form in adolescence and that physical activity habits can be acquired at a young age.

Most of the participants responded "agree" to the statement "leisure time use is important", which is the 12th item of the leisure time management scale. On the other hand, most of the participants responded "undecided" to the statements "I organize my free time daily or weekly", "I make a list of what I can do in my free time", "I organize the activities I can do in my free time". Based on the answers given, we can say that young people find the use of leisure time important, but they are undecided in evaluating their leisure time within a plan and program.

It is seen that approximately 70% of the young people (n=705, Table 1) have more than three hours of free time. However, it can be stated that 70.6% of young people do not have a membership to a club, etc. that performs music, art or sports activities, and this may have an effect on leisure time management attitude. In a study conducted by Arat and Çalımlı (2017), it was stated that the highest mean score in the answers of the participants to the reasons for not participating in leisure time activities was in the statement "there are not enough facilities, tools and materials for such activities in my environment". Similarly, Akyol and Akkaşoğlu (2020) found in a study that the highest mean score in the reasons why young people do not participate in leisure time activities is in the expression "insufficient facility equipment". Özşaker (2012), in a study on the reasons why young people do not participate in leisure time activities, concluded that facilities and organizations are inadequate in universities where young people study.

Although 53,6% of the young people (n=542, Table 1) stated that they know that there are social activity organizations in their environment, it is seen that they are not aware of such activities (n=421, 41,6%). It is possible that the main reason for this finding may be due to the influence of the organizations that organize the activities on the practices of visual or written media activities. On the other hand, it was determined that young people's interest, perception and attitudes towards news sources prefer computer games (n=54), social media (n=326) and watching TV/film (n=171) more than physical activities (total n=551, 54,4%). Çömlekçi and Başol (2019) found a positive relationship between young people's use of social media for leisure time and social media addiction in a study they conducted. In a study conducted by Alemdağ (2022), it was determined that individuals who actively use social media participate in physical activities less than individuals who use social media passively. Schrag and Strattman (2009) stated that young people in urban and rural areas have high rates of participating in sports groups and listening to music, while young people living in the city center spend more time shopping and playing computer games (Özşaker, 2012).

According to the research findings, in the participants' perception of social support for physical activities, it was determined that parents ($\bar{x}$=1,99) encouraged participants to engage in physical activities more than peers ($\bar{x}$=1,17), parents (1,51) did more physical activities with participants than peers (peers, $\bar{x}$=1,09), and peers of the participants ($\bar{x}$=1,3) watched the participants while doing physical activities compared to parents (0,81). It was determined that both groups gave feedback to motivate the participants (parent $\bar{x}$=1,24; peer $\bar{x}$=1,28).

Based on the results of the regression analysis conducted within the scope of the research, it was determined that the perception of social support (parents, peers) of young people predicted leisure time management attitudes in a positive and weakly significant way. No similar study has been found in the literature. Tomás et al. (2019), in his research on the social support levels of family and peership relations of young people, concluded that the perception of social support of young people was high in general. This situation supports the results of our study.

The results showed a positive relationship between perceived peer social support and perceived family social support. Drogomyretska et al. (2020) found a significant relationship between social support perceived from family and social support perceived from peers. Kahriman and Yeşilçiçek (2007) reported that there was a positive relationship between social support perceived from family and social support perceived from peers and that social support perceived from family was higher. Similarly, Traş and Arslan (2013) found that social support perceived from family was higher than social support perceived from peers.

Conflict of interest

No conflict of interest is declared by the authors. In addition, no financial support was received.

Ethics Committee

This study is approved by the Hitit University Non-Interventional Ethics Committee (Protocol number: 2023/10).

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Sportmanship As One Of The Character Buildings For Football Athletes

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Abstract

Sportsmanship is an individual's attitude and behavior in sports in respecting rules, officials, social conventions, and respect for opponents carried out with a high commitment to sports. The aim of this research is to determine the attitude of sportsmanship as a form of character for football athletes. This research design uses literary research methods. The steps taken to review the literature are by exploring previous research related to sportsmanship to continue or criticize. The initial stage in the form of ideas or theories related to professionalism will be collected and grouped based on predetermined subthemes, after that separating data that supports the subtheme and separating information that is not directly related to the subtheme. Then the data analysis continues and it is narrated in detail according to the needs of this research. The data sources in this research are based on documentation and indexed WEB journals in the form of scientific research journals, dissertations, theses, research reports, textbooks, papers, seminars, official writings that discuss sportsmanship in character building in football athletes. The results of this research prove that one of the elements that supports sportsmanship in forming the character of football athletes is a sports environment that is created and aimed at developing the athlete's character, which is supported by coaches, parents, spectators, administrators, and the athletes themselves. The fundamental element of sportsmanship comes from the internalization of sportsmanship that has been instilled from an early age until the athlete is an adult.

Keywords: Sportsmanship, Character, Football, Environment

Introductıon

Education plays a pivotal role in an individual's life as it facilitates the enhancement of intelligence, acquisition of skills, cultivation of personal potential, and the development of responsible, intelligent, and creative individuals (Fraser-Pearce, 2022; Guo et al., 2019). The utilization of specialized terminology within the field of education represents a strategic allocation of resources towards prospects, rather than a mere construct of the imagination. This is because education plays a pivotal role in the cultivation of cognitive abilities and the formation of moral character (Mei et al., 2020; Tonegawa, 2022). The phrase "Men Sana in Corpora Sanno" is commonly used in the realm of athletics, and it conveys the idea that a healthy soul resides within a strong body (Stoll, 2015). According to Edgar (2015), this philosophical perspective highlights the essentiality of attaining good health to enhance both mental and physical well-being, hence improving overall quality of life. In the given context, sport serves as an educational tool that needs to be regarded as a fundamental element promoting equilibrium and well-being in an individual's life (Twietmeyer, 2015). Sport is not solely focused on physical aspects; it also has the capacity to cultivate an individual's mindset and disposition (Škerbić, 2019). Sport holds significant importance as it serves as a foundational element for fostering values such as fair play, sportsmanship, collaboration, and nationalism (Elcombe, 2018).

Sport is a significant contributor to the development of national character. Through participation in sports, individuals can cultivate qualities such as sportsmanship and foster a sense of national unity. This is achieved through engaging in various competitive events within the realm of sports (Fella Suffa et al., 2019; Kavussanu & Stanger, 2017). In accordance with the ideas and essence outlined by dos Santos Amaral et al. (2021) and Kobiela (2016), it is imperative that all constituents of the nation demonstrate knowledge and actively contribute to the advancement of national sports, aligning with their individual talents and interests in their different sporting disciplines. Character education plays a crucial role in the moral development of children, particularly athletes in the realm of football. It is anticipated that character education will serve as a fundamental pillar in the cultivation of future human resources, with the aim of enhancing their overall quality (de Melo & Gomes, 2016; Li, 2022). Sport has the potential to serve as a platform for the development of an individual's true character (Galily et al., 2022; Ring et al., 2023).

Football, a widely recognized sporting event, encompasses numerous participants and viewers (Faure & Pemberton, 2011). Football is embraced by diverse communities, and participation in football necessitates the acquisition of specific abilities that are readily attainable (Newson, 2019). According to Longas Luque and van Sterkenburg (2022), proficiency in football is not solely reliant on technical abilities, but also heavily influenced by the demeanor and personal qualities exhibited by the players. In a soccer match characterized by numerous participants, the occurrence of friction between players and opponents is highly probable. The coach of the Indonesian U-23 Team expressed strong dissatisfaction with the players' alleged lack of sportsmanship following their defeat to Thailand in the semifinals of the 2021 SEA GAMES, which continues to be a subject of intense debate. The progression of the Indonesian national team in the semifinals was halted due to their defeat to Thailand. The defeat of Thailand was

further characterized by the issuance of three red cards to players from the Timas U-23 team. Firza Andika, Rachmat Irianto, and Ricky Kambuaya were issued red cards by the referee in the latter stages of the second half of extra time. Firza was issued a red card after committing a forceful foul against a Thai player, but Rachmat and Ricky were both expelled from the match following the receipt of a second yellow card. Following a violation committed by Firza, a dispute ensued between Indonesian and Thai players, resulting in both parties receiving red cards. In addition to this, players engage in other forms of misconduct, commonly referred to as bad football play or cheating. One such example is Elephant Football, which is a match between two teams where one intentionally allows the opposite team to emerge victorious. The rationale for this decision is to circumvent encounters with other victors from different groups. In the context of the Premier Division, a match involving PSS Sleman and PSIS Semarang took place on October 26, 2014. This match marked the culmination of the final eight stage, whereby elephant football was played. Both PSS and PSIS successfully secured their places in the semifinals. However, they expressed a reluctance to intentionally score an own goal in the last match to secure victory.

In the context of high-level international football competitions, the incident involving Zinedine Zidane's header against Italian player Marco Materazzi during the final match of the FIFA World Cup is noteworthy. Materazi directed derogatory remarks at Zidane's parents and sister, individuals who hold significant roles as prominent players within the French national team. During that instance, Zinedine Zidane was issued a red card and then expelled from the pitch, resulting in France's ultimate defeat over Italy. The behavior exhibited by the two players demonstrates an unsportsmanlike attitude. The PSSI, or the Football Federation, together with its affiliated entities including clubs, academic institutions, and football schools, as well as all stakeholders engaged in the advancement of football and its participants, should possess an understanding of this circumstance. The responsibility of administrators, coaches, and athletes encompasses the coaching and enhancement of the playing abilities and character traits of aspiring football athletes.

In contemporary times, the progress of social development within the realm of sports has become increasingly sophisticated. Numerous phenomena have emerged that exert effect on the dynamics of social interactions within society. In accordance with this perspective, the evolution of sports will persistently align with societal advancements. Sports for the younger generation serves the purpose of preserving and enhancing physical well-being and fitness, fostering personal accomplishment, promoting excellence, inculcating ethical principles and virtuous character, cultivating sportsmanship, instilling discipline, bolstering, and nurturing national solidarity and cohesion, fortifying national resilience, and elevating the prestige and integrity of the nation. Sport, encompassing all facets and dimensions of its activities that incorporate elements of competition, necessitates the presence of attitudes and behaviors rooted in moral consciousness. An inclination that manifests a state of preparedness to engage in actions and conduct oneself in alignment with established rules and guidelines. Sports readiness encompasses more than just adhering to implied rules; it also involves the capacity to interpret and make conscientious judgements regarding the appropriateness of internally generated activities.

One prominent issue in contemporary society pertains to the cultivation of fair play or sportsmanship as a fundamental principle within the realm of sports. This entails creating an environment where individuals engaging in physical activities are confronted with a socially acceptable and equitable framework. Consequently, the rules governing these activities are perceived as more just than those governing everyday life. To exemplify courteous conduct, the younger cohort must not just adhere to established regulations, but also possess the capacity to align their actions with the dictates of their conscience. It is imperative for the younger generation to possess a character that can uphold the principles of sportsmanship. Sportsmanship is a concept that is intricately linked to one's conduct and principles, encompassing a steadfast disposition to navigate circumstances with attributes such as benevolence, integrity, accountability, and deference towards others.

The establishment of the National Sportsmanship Brotherhood in the United States in 1926 aimed to disseminate the principles of sportsmanship across several domains, ranging from youth-oriented activities to global sporting events. The teachings encompass a set of eight principles, which are as follows: 1) Adhere to established regulations, 2) place reliance upon trustworthy companions, 3) uphold physical well-being and overall health, 4) exercise restraint over expressions of wrath, 5) ensure the absence of excessive violence within the game, 6) exercise humility in times of victory, 7) exhibit courage in the face of defeat, and 8) cultivate a sound mind and body for the preservation of a healthy spirit.

Contemporary society places an expectation on the younger generation to possess a comprehensive understanding of ethical standards, social wisdom, a sportsmanlike attitude, discipline, and adherence to principles in interpersonal interactions. Engaging in shared sporting activities can impart valuable lessons, as games governed by specific rules promote mutual benefits and mitigate potential conflicts arising from divergent perspectives. Sport provides an avenue for individuals to develop socialization skills, which often goes unnoticed by public agencies and similar entities.

Method

The present study employs literary research methods as outlined by Mardalis (1999). Academic researchers acquire knowledge and data through utilizing a range of resources available in libraries, including documents, notebooks, publications, and historical narratives, among others. Library study, as defined by Jia (2021), refers to the systematic process of gathering data through the utilization of Google Scholar and scholarly literature with the objective of advancing theoretical frameworks. According to Sugiyono (2012), library studies encompass theoretical investigations, references, and other literary analyses that pertain to the cultural, value-based, and normative developments within the realm of social research. Consequently, researchers mostly rely on the exploration of literature, records, and references to get data pertaining to the role of sportsmanship in fostering character development among football athletes.

The process of conducting a literature review involves examining prior scholarly investigations pertaining to the concept of sportsmanship, with the aim of either extending or scrutinizing existing studies. During the preliminary phase of this study, a comprehensive

compilation of various concepts and theories pertaining to professionalism will be gathered and organized according to pre-established subcategories. The subsequent phase involves the segregation of material that substantiates the sub-theme, as well as the segregation of information that lacks direct relevance to the sub-theme. Subsequently, the data will be subjected to analysis and subsequently presented in a narrative format. To enhance the persuasiveness of the argument, supporting evidence in the form of established ideas, authoritative reports, and pertinent scholarly papers will be employed. The utilized data sources consist of reputable libraries comprising scientific research journals, dissertations, theses, research reports, textbooks, papers, seminar reports/conclusions, official publications by governmental and other institutions that address the role of sportsmanship in the development of character among football athletes.

Result and Discussion

Sports exhibit diverse growth and development patterns, which are influenced by the specific organizational frameworks they choose in accordance with their unique objectives. There are four primary objectives associated with the execution of sports activities, namely: (1) Recreational sports, which prioritize the enhancement of both physical and mental well-being; (2) Player performance, which emphasizes competitive endeavors and accomplishments. Sports education places a strong emphasis on the educational component, using sport as a subject of study. To attain the educational objectives established by the government, it is imperative to incorporate sports and physical training that prioritizes physical enhancement. This will result in improved fitness levels, enabling individuals to effectively engage in their everyday routines (Putra, 2020).

According to Aldegheiry (2021), sports encompass various activities that involve elements of competition or skill, and it is imperative that these activities are accompanied by attitudes and behaviors rooted in moral consciousness. This perspective conveys a willingness to conform and adhere to the established rules and norms inside a specific country or tribe, wherein each tribe possesses its own set of regulations. In contemporary society, it is observed that no indigenous community imparts teachings that promote the adoption of negative traits among its succeeding generations. This phenomenon is particularly evident in nations that prioritize the cultivation and embodiment of virtuous and ethical human conduct (Quartiroli et al., 2022). Indeed, preparedness encompasses more than just adherence to implicit regulations; it also entails the capacity to comprehend and deliberate upon matters in accordance with one's personal values. Moreover, any decisions ratified by the conventional assembly or relevant stakeholders are deemed final and inviolable, thereby necessitating universal compliance within society (Sandford et al., 2022).

To ensure the smooth operation of sports and social interactions within the confines of relevant legislation, it is important to cultivate the moral and ethical qualities of athletes (Camiré & Trudel, 2010). The cultivation of character, particularly among football athletes, can be achieved by fostering an appreciation for the principles of sportsmanship (Kilic & Ince, 2021). The development of sportsmanlike behavior by fostering character necessitates a protracted and ongoing endeavor. Hence, it is imperative to carefully strategize and execute

character development programs for sports athletes starting from their early years in elementary school. Character formation encompasses three essential components that are of utmost significance in the development of a virtuous character. The constituents of a strong character encompass moral cognition, which refers to the understanding and awareness of moral principles, moral affect, which pertains to the emotional responses and sentiments associated with moral matters, and moral behavior, which involves the enactment of moral activities (Yildiz et al., 2021). It is imperative to ensure that athletes possess the capacity to comprehend, experience, and apply positive ideals.

One of the prevailing challenges in contemporary society is to the implementation of fair play or sportsmanship as a fundamental principle within the realm of sports. This phenomenon manifests itself in diverse manifestations of conduct exhibited by athletes, coaches, and even individuals within the realm of journalism. The primary focus lies on the endeavor to attain triumph without depending on technical and tactical supremacy. This is indicative of the presence of aggression in sports and a proclivity to assert dominance, as exemplified by impolite conduct among players or towards referees (Malone & Lorimer, 2020).

According to Agus, Fahrizqi, Ameraldo, Nugroho, and Mahfud (2022), fair play or sportsmanship is a cognitive disposition that exemplifies the honorable conduct associated with chivalry within the realm of athletics. The creation of attitudes is underpinned by the principles of sportsmanship, which afterwards serve as the foundation for behavior. Therefore, it may be inferred that sportsmanship affords an equal opportunity for victory to both participating teams. This phenomenon can occur when athletes adhere to a structured training regimen, demonstrate discipline, exhibit enthusiasm, adhere to rules, and possess a sense of tolerance and respect towards their peers and opponents. Consequently, this will foster a heightened level of sportsmanship, thereby directly impacting the development of the athletes' character.

According to Sitepu's research conducted in 2017, it was found that the involvement of athletes does not inherently result in a favorable impact on the development of their character. The development of an individual's character can be influenced by their participation in sports, provided that the sports environment is intentionally designed to foster character development in athletes. The formation of positive character through sport is contingent upon the presence of certain variables that facilitate a positive trajectory, such as effective leadership and exemplary coach behavior. The attainment of a fair play or sportsmanship mindset necessitates substantial support from coaches, parents, spectators, administrators, and the athletes themselves.

According to the research conducted by Syamsul Arifin in 2017, formal education levels play a significant role in cultivating sportsmanship values. Hence, the appropriate assimilation of sportsmanship principles across educational tiers establishes a robust basis for the ethical dispositions of athletes starting from a young age. Conversely, the presence of methodological flaws throughout the process of internalizing sportsmanship norms might detrimentally affect the moral development of athletes in subsequent stages of their lives.

Triatmo Joko Purnomo and Roesdiyanto (202) said in their study that within the domain of physical education and sports, various values are present, such as self-confidence and belief in one's own capabilities. It is imperative to maintain honesty while engaging in gameplay. The collaborative efforts among individuals who share a friendship during competitive events. It is imperative to adhere to the regulations established by the collective of participants. The qualities of discipline, obedience, and adherence to educators and established standards are highly valued in academic settings. Tolerance towards friends with various understandings. The topic at hand pertains to academic culture and its relationship with sports activities within educational institutions, as well as the broader endeavor to promote the dissemination of sports values across society. Purwanto and Susanto (2019) assert that character education in physical education encompasses several key aspects. Firstly, it emphasizes the cultivation of respect, irrespective of factors such as race, gender, and social status. Secondly, it promotes the practice of mutual correction of behavior, particularly in relation to conduct. Thirdly, it encourages individuals to demonstrate concern for others. Lastly, it underscores the importance of sportsmanship in competitive sports, including displaying fair play towards opposing teams. In the work by Toeri from Dakir (2019), the concept of character education is elucidated as the systematic endeavor to imbue individuals within educational institutions with moral principles. This endeavor encompasses various elements, such as knowledge acquisition, conscious volition, and practical implementation of values, all directed towards fostering a holistic human development. The values in question pertain to one's relationship with the Divine, self, the environment, and one's nation. The development of character can be facilitated by the consistent and early engagement in activities, with the crucial involvement of educators (Annisa, 2020).

In addition to this, Sumaryanto (2012) asserts that sports can serve as a means for character development. Sport plays a key role in fostering the development of national character, promoting sportsmanship, and reinforcing national solidarity. Based on this premise, it is imperative for all elements of the nation to actively contribute towards the advancement of national sports. According to Prayitno (2008), there is a widely recognized normative belief that the development of national character holds significant importance for the younger generation and has a direct impact on the destiny of the nation.

There are several human characters categorized based on their motivation:

1. Achievement Motivation
Human beings who have characters with motivation like this always try to get the best achievements
2. Popularity Motivation
People with this kind of character always prioritize social relationships, willing to leave their personal interests behind for friendship matters. The characteristics are that they generally spend hours cultivating good social relationships
3. Power Motivation
People with this kind of character tend to be leaders, always wanting to be smarter. Strong and powerful.
However, these three characters are also influenced by genetic and environmental factors

Conclusion

The issue of football athletes' behavior has emerged as a significant concern not just for Indonesia but also for the global football community. World football federations, including FIFA, have undertaken numerous initiatives aimed at promoting fair play through movements and campaigns. However, the outcomes of these endeavors have not yielded the desired level of effectiveness. Football federations worldwide organize numerous football competitions with the aim of promoting fair play. However, despite these efforts, instances of bad occurrences and behaviors persist inside these competitions. Hence, an alternative approach that can be pursued involves athletes adhering to structured training regimens, displaying discipline, fostering a training-oriented mindset, and adhering to established rules. Additionally, cultivating an attitude of tolerance and respect towards both teammates and adversaries can contribute to the development of a strong sportsmanship disposition.

In addition to this, an essential factor contributing to sportsmanship is the establishment of a sporting environment designed to foster the development of an athlete's character. The development of desirable character traits through participation in sports can be facilitated by various factors, such as the presence of conducive settings that promote a positive trajectory, including effective leadership and exemplary coach conduct. The provision of assistance and encouragement from various stakeholders, including coaches, parents, spectators, administrators, and the players themselves. Another crucial aspect of sportsmanship involves the internalization of sportsmanship attitudes that have been cultivated from an early stage of development until the individual reaches adulthood. If all these criteria are met, the attributes of a proficient football athlete will naturally manifest. The achievement of this outcome is contingent upon the establishment of synergistic collaboration among athletes, coaches, government entities, and society. It is anticipated that there will be a cessation of any more occurrences that may impair the reputation of the football industry.

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Evaluation of Sustainable University Campuses and Sports Facilities from the Perspective of Administrators and Students: A Multiple Case Study

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Abstract

Sustainable higher education institutions contribute to the building of a sustainable society at regional and global levels by raising individuals with environmental awareness. Universities can also offer their stakeholders the opportunity to lead a healthy life with the sports fields on their campuses In this context, the "campuses" and "sports fields" of 6 Turkish universities which are in the top ten of the UI GreenMetric list (ranked by country), were analyzed in a holistic structure with a qualitative paradigm in terms of sustainability officers, sports facilities managers and students. The research was designed in a case study pattern and supported by in-depth interviews and document analysis. In this direction, it was analyzed within the scope of themes and sub-themes with the descriptive analysis method. As a result of the findings, it has been found that the sustainability studies in the examined universities are mainly carried out on environmental sustainability such as energy, water and waste management. It has been revealed that the reason for this for legal obligations. In addition, it has been determined that the sustainability initiatives of private universities are carried out both with various sustainability rating systems (STARS, THE, etc.) and within the framework of an integrated program with students. The inclusion of the opinions of the participants of different statuses in the study enabled us to reach multi-dimensional findings and results in the research fields.

Introduction

One of the most pressing issues of our time; damage to universal ecological capital, such as climate crises, reduced clean water resources, habitat destruction, and desertification of agricultural lands, is a shared concern for leaving a livable world to future generations (UNEP, 1972). Since environmental problems are the common problem of all humanity (Ana-Maria, 2013), it has become an absolute necessity for international organizations and states to shape their future policies with a sustainable and environmentalist understanding in order to ensure the living opportunities of future generations and to sustain human civilization.

UNESCO's 1998 definition of a framework for universities (UNESCO, 1998) increased universities' societal responsibilities (Leal Filho, 2011). Following this development, universities (Alshuwaikhat and Abubakar, 2008), which house large communities and are considered micro-cities, have emerged as one of the players expected to keep up with the transformation by being inspired by sustainable urban models (Finlay and Massey, 2012; Hamon et al., 2017; Zutshi, Credo and Connelly, 2019). On the other hand, among the duties and responsibilities of universities, besides educational activities; there are also some functions such as accommodation, transportation, rest and recreation on campus for students, administrative and academic staff (Erkman, 1990 as cited in Pouya et al., 2019). Sports and recreation areas are the most important element that campus residents can use as a means of socialization. Besides, in the reports of the United Nations, sports are positioned as a tool for sustainable development (United Nations, 2015a; United Nations, 2017). In this direction, entertainment, recreation, and sports activities should be planned with a holistic sustainability model in environmental, economic, and social dimensions in the sustainable campus system (Gibson et al., 2008; Casper and Pfahl, 2015; McCullough and Kellison, 2018).

In the literature, there are many studies in which the environmental effects of sports activities and the sustainability of sports facilities are evaluated (Gibson et al., 2008; Koçak and Balcı, 2010; Mallen et al., 2010; 2014; Mallen and Chard, 2012; Trendafilova, Kellison and Spearman, 2014; McCullough, Pfahl and Nguyen, 2016; Yüce, Katırcı and Yüce, 2020). However, the number of studies specific to sports facilities of universities is very limited. Stinnet and Gibson (2016a and 2016b) in their study, through sustainable initiatives of a recreational sports facility in the education campus; proved to provide several benefits. Pelcher and McCullough (2019) investigated sustainability in sports through a case study of a university's sports facilities in the United States. Schumacher (2016), on the other hand, stated in his study in which he examined the environmental sustainability efforts of sports facilities in small residential areas (university) that a lack of funding is a significant barrier; additionally, it revealed a fundamental lack of understanding of environmental sustainability.

The purpose of this study is to assess the sustainability studies of some Turkish universities in the UI GreenMetric 2021 ranking in terms of environmental, economic, and social factors. Furthermore, it has been investigated whether the sports facilities and recreation areas on these universities' campuses adhere to the sustainability principles.

Sustainability and Sustainable Development

The concept of sustainability can be traced back to the middle ages (Campbell, 1996) and even to Greek mythology (O'Riordan, 1998). However, it can be stated that it first appeared concretely in literature in the 18th century. The first attempts were laws enacted in the Baden region of Germany to prevent the destruction of Black Forests (Schwarzwald) (Wiersum, 1995; Warde, 2011; Grober, 2012). Arthur Young's book "General View of Agriculture of Hertfordshire", published in 1804, mentions the increased productivity as a result of the

change in the cultivation system of agricultural lands, which he observed during his travels in the British Isles (Juchau, 2002). Arthur Cecil Pigou, in his works titled "*Wealth and Welfare*" in 1912 and "*The Economics of Welfare*" published in 1920, started to give the first signs on the idea of sustainability in the modern age (Pigou, 1912, 1920). Ricker (1958) brought the idea of sustainability to the agenda in the field of fisheries with the concept of "maximum sustainable product". The study named "Silent Spring" published by Rachel Louise Carson in 1962 led to the focus on the damage caused by the industrialization processes to the environment and environmental concerns to come to the fore again (Carson, 1962). The most striking of these developments is the controversial book "*The Limits to Growth*", published by a non-governmental organization called Club of Rome in March 1972. This book contains a report that underlines the fact that the world's natural resources are limited and non-renewable (Meadows et al., 1972). Eventually, with the publication of the Stockholm Declaration in 1972, the World Conservation Strategy (WCS) report in 1980, and the report "*Our Common Future*" in 1987, the concepts of sustainability and sustainable development/development gained official usage (WCED, 1987). Sustainable development, according to the report *Our Common Future*, is defined as "meeting the needs of the present generation without jeopardizing future generations' ability to meet their own needs" (WCED, 1987:73). This definition established a framework for understanding the concept of sustainability and sustainable development that is still in use today.

The sustainability model accepted today is based on three pillars: environmental, economic and social. According to Levett (1998), with the name "Russian Dolls"; there are three rings nested with each other (Nested Model), and it is stated that the environmental dimension plays an inclusive and encompassing role in the outermost ring of the model. The social dimension is in the middle ring, and the economic dimension is in the innermost ring. This model is expressed as "strong sustainability" by Giddings et al. (2002).

Sustainable University and Sports Fields in Campuses

A maintainable university is a higher education institution that works to reduce the negative environmental, economic, and social effects of its activities while also guiding society toward a more sustainable way of life (Velaquez et al., 2006:812). The "Belgrade Charter," which was presented at the end of the "International Environmental Education Workshop" held in Belgrade in 1975 under the auspices of UNESCO, is regarded as a watershed moment in the development of the concept of a sustainable university. However, the declaration prepared by the Association of University Leaders for a Sustainable Future (ULSF) in 1990 and known as the "*Talloires Declaration*" was recorded as the first report showing that universities can be involved in sustainable development beyond environmental education (ULSF, 1990; Sharp, 2009). Sustainability developments in higher education institutions have been strengthened with the U.N. declaring 2005-2014 the decade of education for sustainable development.

As universities' understanding of how to be in harmony with sustainable development has grown some rating systems have emerged in which universities are classified based on their sustainability levels. The first is UI GreenMetric was established in 2010 by the University of Indonesia. The ranking aims to highlight universities' sustainability programs and policies around the world, as well as to encourage university sustainability research (Suwartha and Sari, 2013). The rating system has 6 main criteria. These are the collection of basic information about the size of the university and its residential location (urban, suburban, and rural), electricity consumption due to its link to the carbon footprint, waste management, water use, transportation and education-research (UI GreenMetric, 2022).

According to Erkman, the functions of campuses include work, lodging, recreation, and transportation (Erkman, 1990 as cited in Pouya et al., 2019). As you can see, when the campus is mentioned, rest and recreation functions are included among the basic functions. Similarly, in Cole's study, the sustainable campus system was evaluated under two themes as human and ecosystem. The sub-theme of health and good life is included in the human theme and includes recreation (Cole, 2003:41).

In the light of the whole information, the research questions that arise are as follows:

RSQ-1. *How is sustainability initiatives carried out on sustainable university campuses in Turkey?*

RSQ-2. *What is the status of sports facilities and recreation areas on sustainable university campuses in terms of environmental, economic and social sustainability?*

Material and Method

Research design and details of participants

This study was conducted with the case study design, which is one of the qualitative research methods, to explain the cases in a multi-dimensional and in-depth manner (Creswell, 2002). Since there is more than one university campus and there is more than one analysis unit specific to each campus, the research is in an embedded multiple-case design (Yin, 2003). For determining the research areas, the criterion sampling method, which is among the purposive sampling models, was used (Patton, 2002).

Table 1. 2021 UI Greenmetric Scores of Selected Universities

Turkey Ranking	International Ranking	Universities — University	Indicators — Total Points (10.000)	Structure and Substructures (1.500)	Energy and Climate (2.100)	Wastes (1.800)	Water (1.000)	Transportation (1.800)	Education and Research (1.800)
1	57	Istanbul Technical University (S)	8150	1225	1400	1575	900	1400	1650
2	91	Özyeğin University (P)	7850	975	1525	1425	800	1450	1675
5	108	Ege University (S)	7725	1125	1300	1575	800	1425	1500
7	115	Yeditepe University (P)	7700	1025	1225	1575	800	1500	1575
9	127	Middle East Technical University (S)	7650	1325	1075	1200	850	1400	1800
18	309	Zonguldak Bulent Ecevit University. (S)	6625	1050	1200	1275	700	1450	950

[*]S: State University; P: Private University

Universities in the UI GreenMetric rating system and the top 10 of Turkey's rankings were selected as research fields. Zonguldak Bülent Ecevit University, on the other hand, has been optionally added to the research fields as it is a valuable data source for the Turkish secretariat of UI GreenMetric. Selected research fields are presented in Table 1 below.

After the interviews with the relevant units of the universities and the research permits obtained; In-depth interviews were conducted with a total of sixteen (16) people, including consultants of the sustainability commission, sports facilities and recreation area officials, and students. The aim here is to reveal the ideas and opinions of different internal stakeholders of universities on the same concept. Interviews were held online via video call application (ZOOM) on predetermined days and times, taking into consideration the pandemic conditions.

Table 2. Details of Analysis Units, Participants and Interview Times

Code	Unit of Analysis	Type of Participant	Interview time
K1	Sustainability Consultant	Academic Staff	35:35
K2	Sports Facilities Manager	Academic Staff	21:53
K3	Personal Experience for Campus and Facilities	Student (Sports Sciences - Graduate)	27:12
K4	Sustainability Consultant	Academic Staff	1:13:12
K5	Sports Facilities Manager	Academic Staff	28:36
K6	Sustainability Consultant	Academic Staff	31:58
K7	Personal Experience for Campus and Facilities	Student (International Rel. 4th grade)	39:09
K8	Personal Experience for Campus and Facilities	Student (Industrial design 4th grade)	30:04
K9	Personal Experience for Campus and Facilities	Student (Sports Sci. - Master's Degree)	25:57
K10	Personal Experience for Campus and Facilities	Student (Civil Engineering - 4th grade)	52:23
K11	Sustainability Consultant	Academic Staff	45:45
K12	Personal Experience for Campus and Facilities	Student (Industrial Design - 4th grade)	36:24
K13	Personal Experience for Campus and Facilities	Student (Bio-technology - PhD)	22:10
K14	Sustainability Consultant	Administrative Officer	1:04:23
K15	Sustainability Consultant	Academic Staff	1:04:23
K16	Sports Facilities Manager	Sports Specialist	1:04:23
Total Interview time	8 hrs 03 min 27 sec		
Average Interview time:	30 min 21 sec		

In Table 2, the dates of the interviews and the details of the participants during the data collection period are given. Participants were coded as "K1, K2…" in order to ensure the confidentiality of their Personnel data. The numbers in the codes were assigned sequentially during the negotiations; continued to be determined by assigning the next number to the next participant. The interviews were realized out within the framework of the research plan, during the periods covering the dates of April 1, 2021 - October 30, 2021.

It was monitored that the feedback received during the interviews concentrated on similar points and the existence of a repetitive structure. The data collection phase was terminated with the completion of the scheduled interviews.

Data collection and analysis

Data diversification was applied to increase the reliability of the research and to provide verification by obtaining data based on individual experiences from different sources (Shenton, 2004). Two different types of variation were used to collect data, namely methodological variation and data source (participant) variation. Methodical diversification with one-on-one interviews, observations and document analysis; Data source (participant) diversity was also obtained by obtaining data from different participants (sustainability consultants, sports facilities and recreation areas authority and students). A semi-structured interview form was used in the interviews. The questions in the interview form were determined by considering the theoretical framework in the literature. It was soon changed into its final form, inspired by related research (Stinnett and Gibson, 2016a, 2016b; Xu, 2018). Following the participant's consent, the interviews were conducted using only audio recordings, with the participant's knowledge. After the interviews were completed, the researcher transcribed the audio recordings of all interviews.

Since the interview forms used in the data collection process of this research contain statements that are appropriate to the theoretical background of the research; the responses (data) received from the participants were automatically shaped under the already determined themes (a priori approach). In addition, all the data were read in detail under the thematic

analysis method of Braun and Clarke (2006), and attention was paid to the classification of the data.

Findings

The themes and sub-themes that emerged as a result of the interviews are shown in Figure 1. This structure, which was obtained as a result of the analyses, is the framework structure that includes the main titles and sub-titles that should be included in the sustainability assessments on campuses.

SUSTAINABILITY

Environmental Sustainability	Economic Sustainability	Social Sustainability
Campus Settlement and Buildings	*Budget and Prodcutivity*	*Manegerial Determination*
Campus Protection and Improvement	*Purchasing Processes*	*Group Interaction, Social Values and Equality*
Biodiversity		*Sports Facilities and Recreation Areas*
		Transportation and Pedestrian Policies
		Awareness Activities

Figure 1. Themes and Sub-themes

In this section, instead of giving examples of views on all sub-themes, short and selected quotations are included to reveal the general impression.

Theme 1: Environmental Sustainability

Opinions about the good physical conditions of the campuses and the abundance of green areas are in the majority. Most of the students describe the campus environment as quality and regular:

> *"It is a campus with a lot of green spaces. They care a lot about the environment. Not throwing garbage on the ground, cleanliness, friendly communication with animals makes you feel like you are in a quality environment." (K13-S)*

> *"There are photocell faucets in toilets, for example. You can't spend too much even if you want to. Lighting sensors. The university took action. It restricts excessive consumption; the student does not need to make an extra effort." (K8-S)*

> *"Our academic buildings are LEED certified. As a university that produces its own electricity, we have a distinctive feature from the others. We also have some structures where we apply a gray water system. The water in the sinks is filtered and transferred to the siphons." (K14-ST)*

> *"It is a campus with a lot of green spaces. It's like you're in another country." (K12-S)*

Participant opinions regarding the reuse of waste at a university are as follows.

"No waste produced on our campus goes to waste. Each piece is transmitted to the contracted institutions and inspected through the sustainability department. We have ISO 14001 certificate. Therefore, both our campus and our processes are compatible with sustainability." (K14-ST)

Biodiversity in sustainability is addressed from the perspective of wildlife conservation. However, in the question posed to the participants in this study, it was asked to reveal the diversity of living things in the campus and the interactions with them.

"Our campus is a cat lover, dog lover, squirrel lover, hedgehog lover. We have turtles. The local people have an understanding of nature and animal love brought by this geography." (K4-ST)

"There is a student community. In matters such as taking care of animals, feeding. Even the teachers knew them all. I didn't see anything negative about the animals." (K13-S)

"We have an animal shelter. We bring in veterinarians from outside and have regular health checks. The student club raises money and provides support for the food. We also have teachers from the administrative staff who are interested in volunteering." (K16-SPR)

Theme 2: Economic Sustainability

In the interviews, it was seen that majority of universities had difficulties in terms of budget and had difficulty in regularly supporting their sustainability initiatives.

"We are trying to fix one side of the work with the projects piece by piece, as we find a grant as we find a budget, that's the gist of it!" (K4-ST)

"Every year, we go out to two tenders for sports equipment and transportation. For balls, equipment, etc. to take teams to competitions. We ensure that these purchasing processes are as cost-effective as possible. Our budget is getting smaller and smaller." (K5-SPR)

In some universities, it is stated that even if the budget to be used in sustainability studies is sufficient, their spending powers are limited in accordance with the legal regulation:

"For example, in UI GreenMetric, the budget allocated to environmental issues is asked. But for example, the possibilities of each country are different and the legislation is also different. For example, in our country, 'The Council Of Higher Education' or 'Presidential Strategy Department' imposes restrictions on such things. For this reason, some countries or universities cannot allocate a budget for these issues. For example, we have steps to take, but we are stuck with the legislation, our hands are tied." (K6-ST)

On the other hand, in terms of efficiency, a consultant cost-benefit analysis was carried out, while in another university various needs were met by using its own internal services:

"The cost-benefit analysis is being done. All our units have sustainability boards. This has already been mandated by the quality assurance system." (K6-ST)

"I do not have a direct role in these matters, but I know that cost-benefit analysis is done in all economic processes. An efficiency-oriented spending procedure is followed in every expenditure, including sports facilities. The university has a large budget, but a frugal economic policy is followed as if it were not. This is a process that must be followed for economic sustainability." (K11-ST)

Theme 3: Social Sustainability

Some consultants state that sustainability studies in universities are required to comply with legal procedures and the decisions taken by the Council of Higher Education.

"GreenMetric is a free and easy system. Later, the Council of Higher Education took it into the 'Monitoring and Evaluation Criteria'. In fact, it has legal obligations on its basis, but it has contributed to raising awareness about the environment and sustainability." (K6-ST)

On the other hand, in a university, sustainability was planned with the feasibility studies carried out during the establishment of the university.

"While the occupational health and safety conditions were created during the establishment phase, various feasibility studies were also carried out in order to have a sustainable campus. Our founding rector and subsequent administrators worked in line with this vision and enabled us to get to where we are today." (K15-ST)

Statements on the interaction of student groups on campus, meeting social needs, policies on the use of areas such as sports facilities, thoughts on animal protection, and social benefits.

"Communities are very active at this university… It's a very lively campus, there's a lot of community, there's constant activity. There are so many cultural events such as concerts and theater that they all come to you on campus." (K7-S)

"We have a big green space. Concerts and spring festivals are held. This is a common space that everyone uses and where students interact." (K10-S)

"I think college students are intellectuals. They follow the agenda. Issues such as gender equality are not an issue here." (K12-S)

"It is amazing that students can think and talk freely." (K13-S)

"We are trying to facilitate our students with disabilities and students from different cultures in terms of equal opportunities. Apart from this, our university has a gender equality unit. We organize events in which all our stakeholders participate and ensure that everyone participates. This is in the missions of the university."(K16-SPR)

There are mostly positive opinions about sports facilities such as the adequacy of the sports facilities on the campuses, their physical conditions, and the provision of services outside the campus.

"I think the number of gyms is very sufficient. For example, there are about ten tennis courts. There is a basketball court everywhere. Since the campus is very large, there are also many trails for walking and jogging. Apart from that, there are posters that encourage doing sports outside." (K7-S)

"One of the strengths of the campus is the sports facilities. Tennis courts, volleyball court, swimming pool, walking areas, etc. There are rich opportunities to do sports on campus. The schools own stadium is very good. A wide variety of activities are organized. The pool is good quality to hold international competitions." (K10-S)

"Before the pandemic, our sports facilities were also serving users outside the campus without exception. About 5 years ago, the hours of use of students and academic staff were separate. But at the moment, we don't think that there is a distinction between students and academics." (K5-SPR)

"There are indoor sports fields, swimming pool, tennis courts, and many sports opportunities within the campus. All of our sports facilities are open to both campus users and the public. There are no restrictions." (K11-ST)

"The areas reserved for recreation are quite adequate, well-maintained and clean. There are enough sports fields. Since it is a forested area, there are many people who do sports outdoors." (K12-S)

The transportation facilities of the universities in the research areas vary. For example, while some campuses have deficiencies in public transportation; it is seen that the shortcomings are tried to be eliminated with the possibilities of using bicycles. In some campuses, due to the geographical conditions of the campus, the difficulties experienced in bicycle and pedestrian transportation are tried to be solved by public transportation and ring service:

"There are no bike paths. Our roads are wide, but the campus has a very sloping structure. I've never seen anyone ride a bike at school until now. Ring services are made very often." (K12-S)

"We have a lot of bike parking spaces. Cycling is also very common on campus. There is also a bike path. There are also bicycle parking areas in front of the dormitories and gyms. It is being tried to encourage its use." (K5-SPR)

"The number of areas where we can park bicycles has been increased. There are also bike paths. Access to the campus is also easy, there are stops nearby that you can reach the community by transport." (K10-S)

Some participants linked the development of sustainability awareness with the vision and mission of the university.

> *"This campus has a system based on creating a culture of sustainability. So the student comes to campus; clean energy, sustainable building, good waste management, he sees and experiences these." (K14-ST)*

> *"Recruiters receive training on sustainability. Students also take courses in which sustainability is integrated from the preparatory stage. We are trying to develop that further." (K15-ST)*

Some consultants and sports facilities managers observe the changes in themselves and students' awareness.

> *"There was a study we did a long time ago. We asked the students, "What is a green university?" The answers are birds, trees, parks, waters. There is always a description of nature, they never knew its depth in terms of operation. However, today, awareness has been raised on many issues such as the correct direction of waste, keeping electricity and water consumption under control." (K4-ST)*

> *"I have been working here for about 10 years. Back then, if you had asked, -What is sustainability?- I would have said something like ongoing stuff, and I wouldn't have been able to answer almost any of the questions in this interview. There is an information and training study conducted by the sustainability coordinator at the start of the job. And there is such a spirit of sustainability in this campus that I see it at a level that will direct both myself and all students to volunteer work in terms of sustainability" (K16-SPR)*

Discussion and Conclusion

The green areas on the campuses are large, and the campuses are nested with nature, which is the common denominator that the participants of all status met in the interviews. This outcome could be attributed to the environmental sustainability center's advancement of sustainable campus initiatives and the priority given to environmental regulations. Although this may seem like a one-way benefit, Li, Ni, and Dewancker (2019) state that increasing green spaces on campuses will largely result in sustainable development and a long-term gain. Opinions were also given about how their campus made them feel good and happy. Kasser and Sheldon, (2002) stated that happy individuals are also inclined to environmentally friendly behaviors such as cycling and adapting to recycling practices. In addition, it has been observed that students on campus use open areas for group interaction and interact together on issues such as summer festivals, concerts and festivals. Alshuwaikhat and Abubakar (2008) determined that universities should emphasize the importance of issues such as; human dignity, equality, peace, justice, civil rights, security and health within the scope of social sustainability.

According to research, students on sustainable campuses have higher levels of life satisfaction and quality of life than those on non-university campuses (Tiyarattanachai and Hollman, 2016). In this regard, the campuses' strong environmental sustainability aspect in research areas allows students to have positive thoughts and express satisfactory discourses about their quality of life. Besides, there are researches where the biodiversity on campuses can make students find urban areas more attractive (Lindemann-Matthies and Brieger 2016) and the biodiversity on campus gives people a unique chance to connect with nature (Liu et al., 2021). In this direction, it is important to protect and develop the living creature-centered structure.

The respect for this living life on campuses can also be evaluated in terms of environmental ethics. From this point of view, it can be concluded that instead of a human-centred anthropocentric perspective, there is a living-centred ethical texture at a level close to holistic ethics. There are also studies in the literature that this biodiversity in university campuses enables students to find urban areas more attractive (Lindemann-Matthies and Brieger, 2016).

From this perspective, it can be stated that the animal-friendly environment in the research areas of our study and the satisfaction of the students support the literature.

In the interviews, it was found that university administrations have various difficulties in terms of budget and have difficulties in supporting their sustainability initiatives with a regular budget. Aleixo et al., (2018) examined the perspectives of a group of 20 participants selected from 4 different public universities in Portugal. As a result of the study; it has been determined that the biggest obstacle to sustainability in public universities in Portugal is the lack of financial resources. Therefore, higher education institutions have to ensure financial sustainability that will enable the university to achieve its goals by guaranteeing sufficient income to invest in future academic and research activities (Sazonov et al., 2015). The findings in this study also show parallelism with the results in the literature.

In terms of transportation; it can be said that the most common problem complained about in research fields is the inadequacy of the ring shuttle services in the campus. There are also participant opinions that the geographical conditions of the campuses create an obstacle for the use of bicycles. Dehghanmongabadi and Hoşkara (2018) state that there are several barriers in promoting sustainable transportation choices in universities. In the Green University report of the United Nations, it is stated that one of the features that should be in sustainable campuses is the establishment of a pedestrian-friendly structure where motor vehicles are reduced. In Allen and Farber's (2018) studies, an inverse relationship was found between the duration of students' access to school and their willingness to participate in activities on campus. In addition to all the aforementioned information, considering the fact that transportation to the campus is directly related to the time that the student will spend on campus, it is more clearly understood that university administrations should focus on transportation and pedestrian policy.

It has been observed that students are mostly aware of sustainability activities such as reducing electricity and water consumption, and collecting waste, and changes in their behaviors have occurred. It is stated that there are awareness-raising activities and lessons added to the curriculum in providing this awareness and behavior change. These results show that sustainability studies in the literature overlap with studies on raising awareness and changing positive behaviors (Zain et al., 2012; Cho, 2019). According to Dagiliūtė and Liobikienė (2015), curriculum design can provide students with basic information about the environment and sustainability, which may raise awareness. Based on this information, we can conclude that the findings of our study, which show a high level of sustainable awareness on campuses, overlap with the findings of previous studies.

Sustainability is an important issue in the operation of facilities, as sports and recreational facilities generally consume more water and energy than normal (Balcı and Koçak, 2014; Ünlü and Şahin, 2021), produce large amounts of waste and adversely affect the environment (Apanaviciene et al., 2015). There are studies in the literature that specify various criteria that sustainable sports facilities should have (Çetin and Karaçam, 2020; Yüce, Katırcı and Yüce, 2020; Atalay, 2021). As seen in the study's research areas, income-generating activities in sports facilities are insufficient, only energy-efficient devices are used in subjects such as electricity and water consumption, and it places a significant burden on university budgets in terms of economic sustainability. In the context of social sustainability, the place and importance of sports in sustainable development has been adopted by international institutions and organizations such as the International Olympic Committee (IOC, 2006) and the U.N. (United Nations, 2015a; United Nations, 2017). In this respect, this function of sports should be handled and used carefully by university administrations. Especially, McKenzie's (2004)

emphasis on "recreation" under the heading of access to basic services once again reveals the role and importance of sports in the sustainability of campuses.

This research is the first to be conducted in a multiple case study design, focusing on sustainable university campuses in Turkey. It is thought that the results of this study can provide new perspectives for other studies in the literature.

Implications

1. Regarding the sustainability activities of universities:

It has been specified that the sustainability studies in the universities examined in this research are conducted in the context of the first periods of sustainable transformation and are primarily focused on the physical structure of the campuses as well as subjects such as energy, water, and waste in the context of ensuring ecological peace. Foundation universities, it has been observed, have a more comprehensive understanding of sustainability than state universities. However, the driving force of this transformation seems to be compliance with legal obligations on zero waste. However, when international successful examples are examined, it is stated that a holistic approach should be adopted, encompassing all campus stakeholders, regardless of environmental, economic, or social aspects. Instead of providing a sustainable transformation focused on university rating systems, it can be stated that it is necessary to plan and implement a transformation process suitable for its own conditions, while keeping the basic principles of sustainability in thought.

2. For sports facilities and recreation areas:

Some functions of sports facilities in universities, such as lighting and water systems, have been updated. While trying to achieve efficiency in terms of consumption with these changes, the ageing structures of the buildings create a handicap in terms of heating. However, due to the increasing number of student quotas, it is understood that the sports facilities, which were at a sufficient level in the past, have been insufficient in providing services in recent years. It is understood that the open spaces and recreation areas on the campuses are used effectively by the students. In light of this information, recreational areas used by the campus residents as a means of socialization should be enriching. Also, it can be stated that buildings should be designed and operated in a way that will provide environmental, economic and social benefits under the modern sustainability model. Once international examples are examined, the policy of providing a healthy and quality life in terms of social sustainability is given importance in university campuses, which are at the top of various rating systems, and encouraging policies in the use of sports facilities and recreation areas.

Recommendations

The scope of this study's participant group was determined within the scope of universities within the UI GreenMetric system, and some of the findings were discussed within the context of the UI GreenMetric system. In future studies, taking into account university rating indexes (STARS, THE Impact Ranking, etc.) that deal with sustainability in a holistic dimension may provide a broader perspective on sustainable university models.

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Investigation of Sports Habits of Pilot Candidates

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to examine the sports habits of pilot candidates. The survey prepared by the researcher as a quantitative research method was applied to 60 pilot candidates studying at a flight school providing pilot training in the Aegean Region. During the data collection process, percentage and frequency methods were used to determine the socio-demographic characteristics of the participants and cross-tables were created. The data were analyzed in the SPSS 25 package program. According to the results of this research, which focuses on the sports habits of pilot candidates, which is an important factor in protecting both their physical and mental health and preparing for their aviation careers, 78.7% of the participants do sports regularly, while 21.3% do not do sports. Accordingly, it is seen that the majority of pilot candidates have regular sports habits, most of the pilot candidates who do sports have been doing sports 2-3 days a week for 4 years or more, and a significant portion of them have been doing sports from past to present. It has been understood that the most preferred sport among the sports types is fitness. It has been concluded that the most prominent reason for pilot candidates to do sports is to be healthy and fit. Those who do not do sports stated that they could not find the time, which was put forward as the reason for not doing sports.

Keywords: Pilot candidate, Sport habits, Sport.

Introduction

One of the main purposes of life is to have a healthy body and to live a quality life. Quality life is a way of life that makes you feel healthy, good and happy physically and spiritually. In order to achieve this, it is necessary to have habits that are generally good and beneficial for our body and soul. Having a habit of doing sports is one of them.

Sports is a vital, educational and social issue that is beneficial to people both physically and psychologically and develops them socially (Yetim, 2015). Exercising has important effects on both physical and psychological health. For this reason, it is necessary to make exercising a habit and include it in our daily routine. Becoming a habit of doing sports at an early age greatly contributes to people's determination of sports as a lifestyle throughout their lives.

Although exercising is an important concept for all people, it is becoming more essential for some professional groups. One of these professions is pilots working in the aviation industry. Air transportation is becoming more common day by day. Therefore, the number of people choosing this profession is also increasing. With the development of the aviation industry, the number of schools that train pilots has also increased in order to provide the needed employment.

Pilot training is provided by flight schools authorized by the General Directorate of Civil Aviation or universities that provide academic education in the field of piloting.

Pilot training is a high cost training. In order to prevent school dropouts and failures in education, good selection criteria must be applied before starting education. Three important factors were identified in the pilot selection criteria: intelligence, psychomotor and personality (Yazgan & Erol, 2016). The piloting profession requires being knowledgeable, being able to make the right decisions, having a balanced psychology, being talented and skillful (Çetingüç, 2019). In their study, Kantor and Caretta (1988) stated that a good pilot should have very good psychomotor abilities (hand-eye coordination). emphasized (Kantor & Caretta, 1988).

Motor skills can be achieved with a sufficiently developed nervous and muscular system, and they develop well with sports and exercise. A wide variety of physical movements are more effective in the development of motor skills. The indicator of a healthy, well-developed motor skill is good coordination, fast reaction and balance (Orhan & Ayan, 2018). This shows that doing sports has an important place in the development of psychomotor skills.

It has long been predicted that flight performance is related to psychomotor ability. Research conducted in this direction has shown that candidates who have better hand-eye coordination and make faster decisions are more likely to become pilots (Şimşek, 2010).

In addition to all these, determination, quick thinking and the ability to remain calm under stress are among the characteristics that pilots must have. It is very important for pilots to have a healthy body and psychology in terms of flight safety. As stated by Imboden et al. (2022) in their study, individuals who regularly engage in physical activity have lower stress levels (Imboden, Claussen, Seifritz, & Gerber, 2022). In addition, piloting is a tiring profession due to the variability in flight hours. Exercising is also an effective tool for increasing endurance, delaying fatigue and shortening rest time (Demir & Filiz, 2004).

It is an undeniable fact that pilot candidates who choose the pilot profession, where being physically and psychologically healthy is so important, have a habit of doing sports, which will be beneficial both for the individual and for flight safety.

Material and Method

Research Group

The research group is pilot candidates studying at flight schools that provide pilot training in the Aegean Region. 61 pilot candidates participated in the research voluntarily.

Data Collection Tool

A survey prepared by the researcher was used as a data collection tool in the study. In the survey, participants were asked about their gender, age, whether they do sports regularly, for how many years they have been doing sports regularly, which type of sports they do, how many days a week they do sports, whether they do sports as a competitor or not, if so, which type of sports they do as a competitor, why they do sports, and if not, why they do not do sports. It was aimed to determine the participants' relationship with sports by asking questions about them.

Analysis of Data

During the data collection process, percentage and frequency methods were used to determine the socio-demographic characteristics of the participants and cross-tables were created. The data were analyzed in the SPSS 25 package program.

Findings

Frequency Analysis of Participants According to Demographic Characteristics

Table 1. Distribution by Gender

Gender	Number of People (n)	Rate (%)
Female	10	16,4
Male	51	83,6
Total	61	100,0

According to the frequency analysis results in Table 1; 16.4% of the participants are "Female" and 83.6% are "Male".

Table 2. Distribution by Age

Age	Number of People (n)	Rate (%)
20-25	5	8,2
26-30	33	54,1
31-35	14	23,0
36-40	9	14,8
Total	61	100,0

According to the frequency analysis results in Table 2; 8.2% of the participants said "20-25 years old", 54.1% said "26-30 years old", 32.0% said "31-35 years old", 14.8% said "36-40 years old" It falls within the age range.

Frequency Analysis of Participants' Responses to Scale Sub-Dimensions

Table 3. Frequency Analysis of Regular Exercising Sub-Dimension

Scale Subsize	Variable	N	%
Doing Exercise Regularly	I do exercise regularly	95	78,7
	I don't do sports	105	21,3
Total		**61**	**100,0**

78.7% of the participants "do sports regularly" and 21.3% "do not do sports".

Table 4. Frequency Analysis of the Duration of Exercising Sub-Dimension

Scale Subsize	Variable	N	%
Exercise Times	1 year	13	21,3
	2 years	5	8,2
	3 years	4	6,6
	4 years and more	26	42,6
	I don't do sports	13	21,3
Total		**61**	**100,0**

21.3% of the participants have been doing sports for "1 year", 8.2% for "2 years", 6.6% for "3 years", 42.6% for "4 or more" years. 21.3% do not do sports.

Table 5. Frequency Analysis of Sport Type Sub-Dimension

Scale Subsize	Variable	N	%
Sport Type	Fitness	27	44,3
	Running/walking	9	14,8
	Bicycle	1	1,6
	Swimming	2	3,3
	Other and miscellaneous	9	14,8
	I don't do sports	13	21,3
Total		**61**	**100,0**

While 44.3% of the participants are interested in "fitness", 14.8% "running/walking", 1.6% "cycling", 3.3% "swimming", 14.8% "other/miscellaneous". 21.3% of them "do not do sports".

Table 6. Frequency Analysis of the Frequency of Exercising Sub-Dimension

Scale Subsize	Variable	N	%
Frequency of exercise	I don't do it at all	13	21,3
	1 day/2 hours	3	4,9
	2 days/4 hours	17	27,9
	3 days / 6 hours	18	29,5
	More	10	16,4
Total		**61**	**100,0**

21.3% of the participants "do not do sports", 4.9% "1 day/2 hours", 27.9% "2 days/4 hours", 29.5% "3 days/4 hours". 6 hours" and 16.4% exercise "more".

Table 7. Frequency Analysis of the Sub-Dimension of Doing Sports with a Past/Current License

Scale Subsize	Variable	N	%
Past/current Licensed Sports	Yes	30	49,2
	No	31	50,8
Total		**61**	**100,0**

While 49.2% of the participants have been or are currently doing licensed sports, 50.8% do not.

Table 8. Frequency Analysis of Licensed Sports Type Sub-Dimension

Scale Subsize	Variable	N	%
Licensed Sports Type	Individual sports (Tennis, swimming, table tennis, etc.)	10 5	16,4 8,2
	Combat sports (Taekwondo, Judo, Karate etc.)	13 2	21,3 3,3
	Team sports (Volleyball, basketball, football etc.)	31	50,8

		61	100,0
Total			

16.4% of the participants have done/are doing "individual sports", 8.2% "combat sports", 21.3% "team sports", 3.3% "other/various" sports. while 50.8% "do not/have not done sports as an undergraduate".

Table 9. Frequency Analysis of the Reason for Doing Sports Sub-Dimension

Scale Subsize	Variable	N	%
Reason for doing sports	Lose weight	3	4,9
	Relieve stress	6	9,8
	To enjoy	3	4,9
	Bodybuilding-aesthetics	12	19,7
	For health	24	39,3
	I don't do sports	13	21,3
Total		61	100,0

4.9% of the participants said "losing weight", 9.8% said "relieving stress", 4.9% said "have fun", 19.7% said "bodybuilding-aesthetic appearance", 39% said "esthetic appearance". While 3 of them do sports for "health", 21.3% do not "do sports".

Table 10. Frequency Analysis of the Reason for Not Doing Sports Sub-Dimension

Scale Subsize	Variable	N	%
Reason for not exercising	I can't find time	12	16,7
	I can't find a place to exercise	1	1,3
	I don't like doing sports	4	3,3
	I am doing sports	44	78,7
Total		61	100,0

While 16.7% of the participants do not do sports because they "cannot find time", 1.3% "cannot find a place to do sports", 3.3% do not like "doing sports", 72.1% do sports.

Table 11. Cross Table of Regular Exercising by Gender and Age

		Doing sports regularly		
		I exercise regularly	I don't do sports	Total
Gender	Female	7	3	10
	Male	41	10	51

Age	20-25	3	2	5
	26-30	27	6	33
	31-35	11	3	14
	36-40	7	2	9
Total		**48**	**13**	**61**

According to the cross-table results in Table 11; While 7 of the 10 female participants do sports regularly, 3 of them do not. While 41 of the 51 male participants do sports regularly, 10 of them do not. While 3 of the 5 participants between the ages of 20-25 do sports regularly, 2 of them do not do sports. While 27 of the 33 participants between the ages of 26-30 do sports regularly, 6 do not. While 11 of the 14 participants between the ages of 31-35 do sports regularly, 3 of them do not do sports. While 7 of the 9 participants between the ages of 36-40 do sports regularly, 2 do not. It is thought that the reason why pilot candidates who do sports regularly are mostly in the 26-30 age group is because the participants in the sample group are mostly in this age group. In his research, Akkaya (2021) states that in the differences in sports practices based on gender, men generally have the potential to gravitate towards sports more than women, and the expectation of men to do sports is higher. The study supports the results of this research.

Table 12. Cross Table of Reasons for Doing Sports by Gender and Age

		Reason for doing sports						
		Lose weight	Relieve Stress	To enjoy	Body building	Health	I don't do sports	Total
Gender	Female	0	1	0	2	4	3	10
	Male	3	5	3	10	20	10	51
Age	20-25	0	0	0	0	3	2	5
	26-30	1	3	2	8	13	6	33
	31-35	1	2	1	3	4	3	14
	36-40	1	1	0	1	4	2	9
Total		**3**	**6**	**3**	**12**	**24**	**13**	**61**

According to the cross-table results in Table 12; While 1 in 10 female participants do sports to relieve stress, 2 do sports for bodybuilding, 4 do sports for health, 3 do not do sports. Among the 51 male participants, 3 do sports to lose weight, 5 do sports to relieve stress, 3 do sports for fun, 10 do sports for bodybuilding, 20 do sports for health, while 10 do not do sports. While 3 out of 5 participants between the ages of 20-25 do sports for health, 2 do not do sports. Among the 33 participants between the ages of 26-30, 1 does sports to lose weight, 3 do sports to relieve stress, 2 do sports for fun, 8 do bodybuilding, 13 do sports for health, while 6 do not do sports. While 1 of the 14 participants between the ages of 31-35 does sports to lose weight, 2 do sports to relieve stress, 1 for fun, 3 for bodybuilding, 4 for health, 3 do

not do sports. While 1 of the 9 participants between the ages of 36-40 does sports to lose weight, 1 does it to relieve stress, 1 does it for bodybuilding, 4 does it for health, 2 do not do sports.

Discussion and Conclusion

The aviation industry is a sector where physical and mental health is at the forefront. Pilot candidates need regular physical activities to both cope with challenging situations in the cabin and maintain their general health. The findings obtained from this study, in which we focused on the sports habits of pilot candidates, reveal that the effects of these habits on their aviation careers are important.

Pilots need physical endurance as well as coping with stress during long flight hours. Sport is an effective tool in reducing stress levels. Physical activity releases endorphins, which improves mood. Başar (2018), in his research on two groups of 120 people who do sports regularly at least 3 times a week for at least 3 months and 119 people who do not exercise regularly, found that the group that exercises regularly has higher happiness and psychological well-being scores than the group that does not exercise regularly. It was determined that (Başar, 2018). In another study, Demir and Duman (2019) conducted a survey to examine the relationship between individuals' sports activities and their self-esteem and happiness levels. A survey was conducted on 520 people, 238 of whom do sports and 282 of whom do not do sports. Research results revealed that participants who do sports have higher self-esteem and happiness levels than participants who do not do sports (Demir & Duman, 2019). In this research, 78.7% of the participants "do sports regularly" and 21.3% "do not do sports". It can be said that the positive effects of the research results in the literature on individuals who do sports regularly can be considered as general acceptance for pilot candidates who do sports regularly.

It is obvious how important regular exercise is for pilot candidates in a profession such as piloting, which requires skills to cope with stress and where psychological well-being, self-esteem and physical fitness are important. Zhang and Lin (2013) determined, through the fitness test, literature review and mathematical statistics method they conducted to determine the physical fitness index of civil aviation trainees, that the physical fitness index of civil aviation flight trainees was higher than adults aged 20-24 across the country in 2010. They found that there was no significant difference in physical test index values when compared with undergraduate students in other departments of the same university. According to the results obtained from the frequency analysis of the regular sports sub-dimension of this research, it is thought that the fact that 78.7% of the pilot candidates participating in the research do regular sports will contribute to fulfilling their duties as pilots more. effectively in the future and will ensure physical fitness.

According to a study conducted by Doğan and İmamoğlu (2023), it was determined that the exam anxiety of sports sciences faculty students varies according to the year of doing sports. According to the results of the research, test anxiety decreases as the number of years of doing sports increases. In order to reduce exam anxiety, it is recommended that students who

do not do sports should do sports and those who do sports should be directed to sports at an earlier age. Reducing exam anxiety through sports is extremely important for pilot candidates who will serve as pilots in the future and are receiving pilot training. 21.3% of the participants of this study have been doing sports for "1 year", 8.2% for "2 years", 6.6% for "3 years", and 42.6% for "4 or more" years. It appears that he did. Pilot candidates being encouraged to do sports at an early age and having the habit of doing sports will make a significant contribution to pilot training. Factors such as long flights and varying working hours require pilots to maintain their physical and mental endurance. Therefore, pilots who have a habit of exercising can perform their aviation duties more effectively. Additionally, regular exercise can help pilots better cope with effects such as fatigue and jet lag that can occur during long flights. Pilots who have been in the sport for more than 4 years perform their duties in a healthy, ready and professional manner.

It is known that regular fitness exercises have a positive effect on anthropometric and skin-to-body fat ratios (Geri & et al., 2015). It is seen that individuals have more recreational flow experience as their age and time devoted to fitness activity increases (Yazıcı & et al., 2023). 44.3% of the participants said "fitness", 14.8% said "running/walking", 1.6% said "cycling", 3.3% said "swimming", 14.8% said " "other/miscellaneous" are interested in the branch, while 21.3% are "not doing sports". In this research, it can be said that a significant portion of pilot candidates attach importance to ensuring physical fitness by doing fitness. Fitness increases body coordination and improves reflexes. This can make it easier for pilots to deal with unexpected situations and make quick decisions. Regular aerobic exercise improves cardiovascular health and increases blood circulation. This helps pilots get oxygen more effectively at high altitudes.

Sarıkan (2021), it is important to carry out some studies that direct people to do regular sports in order to have individuals in society who are healthier both physically and mentally, have higher life satisfaction, and are more positive in terms of mood (Sarıkan, 2021). In this research, 21.3% of the participants "do not do sports", 4.9% say "1 day/2 hours", 27.9% say "2 days/4 hours", 29.5% say "3 days". day/6 hours" and 16.4% do "more" sports. The fact that a significant portion of pilot candidates do sports regularly may indicate that their physical and mental professional readiness levels have improved. Exercising 3 or more days a week helps pilot candidates maintain their physical and mental health and continue their aviation careers more effectively. Therefore, it is important that sport is an integral part of the lifestyle of pilot candidates. Studies can be carried out to direct the 21.3% of people who do not do sports to do sports.

According to the findings of this research, 49.2% of the participants have been or are currently doing licensed sports, while 50.8% do not. The fact that pilots have done sports in the past provides an advantage in terms of physical, mental and emotional health today. Therefore, it is important for individuals who are starting or preparing to start an aviation career to adopt sports as a part of their lives and exercise regularly. Although there is no study in the literature on pilot candidates who have a sports background and still continue to do so, a study examining the duration of sports activities of university students from past to present revealed that as the duration of sports increases, there may be an increase in political

leadership and leadership orientation towards the structure (Güler et al., 2020).). In this case, it can be expected that pilot candidates who have been doing sports for a long time and have been licensed sports in the past will have more political leadership and leadership orientation towards the structure.

In the research conducted by Asan and Cingöz (2021) with 316 athletes, the cognitive behavioral physical activity levels of individuals doing team and individual sports were compared and it was determined that athletes interested in team sports had a higher perception of cognitive physical activity than athletes interested in individual sports. In another study conducted by Şahinler and Beşler (2021) with a total of 337 athletes, 229 of whom were women and 108 of whom were men, who had done sports in different branches for at least 1-3 years, the mental endurance levels of those involved in team and combat sports and the years of doing sports, Differences were detected in the variables of the number of weekly training sessions. In this research, 16.4% of the participants said "individual sports", 8.2% said "combat sports", 21.3% said "team sports", 3.3% said "other/miscellaneous" sports. While 50.8% of them "do not/have not done sports under license". In order to cope with stressful situations that arise during competition, pilots undergo rigorous training, which makes it easier for them to cope with stress in aviation missions. Some competitive sports encourage teamwork and communication. This improves pilots' collaborative skills and enables them to better interact with aviation teams. Elite sports increase pilots' self-confidence. Succeeding in a challenging competition allows pilots to approach aviation missions with more confidence.

Yıldırım et al. (2006), in their study on university students' perspectives on sports and their participation in sports, found that the main determining factor for students' participation in sports activities is their circle of friends. They concluded that their students tend to do team sports because they enjoy sports activities and love sports. In another study conducted by Var (2018) with 1981 women, the main reasons for women doing sports were 'losing weight and health'. In this research, 4.9% of the pilot candidate participants said "losing weight", 9.8% said "relieving stress", 4.9% said "having fun", 19.7% said "bodybuilding-aesthetic appearance". ", 39.3% do sports for "health". The research results are similar to the studies in the literature.

In the study conducted by Var (2018) with 1981 women, it was seen that the main reasons for women not doing sports were 'lack of time and health problems'. Abakay et al. (2023), in their study examining the relationship between the reasons for doing or not doing sports and sports awareness among university students, concluded that students do not do sports mostly due to physical reasons and lack of time. In this research, 16.7% of pilot candidate participants do not do sports because they "cannot find time", 1.3% do not do sports because "they cannot find a place to do sports", 3.3% do not do sports because they "do not like doing sports", while 78.7% do not do sports. It was determined that most of them were doing sports. In this respect, the research is parallel to the research results in the literature.

According to the cross table of reasons for doing sports by gender and age, 8 out of 33 participants between the ages of 26-30 do sports for bodybuilding and 13 for health. Among the 14 participants between the ages of 31-35, 1 said it was about losing weight, 2 of them

wanted to relieve stress, 1 of the 10 female participants, 2 of them were doing bodybuilding, 4 of them were doing sports for health, while 10 of the 51 male participants were doing bodybuilding. 20 of them do sports for health. In his research, Akkaya (2021) determined the purpose of doing sports as 'building muscle' for men and 'losing weight' for women, and stated that the understanding of sports for consumption purposes can be considered as a reflection of gender roles. In both genders, the 'ideal body' is indirectly emphasized. This is demonstrated by the importance men attach to appearing muscularly strong, and women to not being overweight and thin. The belief that an overweight woman may be more strange than a man, that women should be 'weak' and 'delicate' individuals, and that men should always look strong, reveals this result (Akkaya, 2021). The results of this research revealed that among the participants, male pilot candidates do sports to "improve their body" more than female pilot candidates. In this respect, the research is parallel to the research results in the literature. In addition, it is seen that most of the pilot candidates who do sports for bodybuilding are in the 26-30 age group. According to the results obtained from the research findings, it was determined that the participants mostly did sports for health purposes. It can be said that pilot candidates do sports with this awareness in a professional group where health is at the forefront. It is seen that pilot candidates who do sports for health purposes are in the 26-30 age group.

As a result, according to the results of this research, which focuses on the sports habits of pilot candidates, which is an important factor in protecting both their physical and mental health and preparing for their aviation careers, 78.7% of the participants do sports regularly, while 21.3% do not do sports. . Accordingly, it is seen that the majority of pilot candidates have regular sports habits, most of the pilot candidates who do sports have been doing sports 2-3 days a week for 4 years or more, and a significant portion of them have been doing sports from past to present. It has been understood that the most preferred sport among the sports types is fitness. It has been concluded that the most prominent reason for pilot candidates to do sports is to be healthy and fit. Those who do not do sports stated that they could not find the time, which was put forward as the reason for not doing sports.

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Child Abuse in Schools from the Perspective of Physical Education and Sports Teachers

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to reveal child abuse in schools from the perspectives of physical education and sports teachers and to provide suggestions for preventing abuse. Case study approach, one of the qualitative research methods, was used in the study. The participants of the study consisted of 7 physical education and sports teachers. In this study, semi-structured interview was used as a data collection tool and the data obtained were analysed by content analysis method. As a result of the research, the opinions of physical education and sport teachers were grouped under four categories: types of abuse, signs of abuse, areas open to abuse and suggestions for preventing abuse. Types of abuse were divided into 4 subcategories as physical abuse, emotional abuse, sexual abuse and neglect. The types of abuse were determined as hitting by the teacher, performance pressure, nicknaming the student, secretly watching, making fun of each other's bodies, ignoring the students' desire to participate in competitions, and neglecting their nutritional needs in tournaments. Symptoms of abuse include quitting the branch, temper tantrums, unkempt appearance, need for love and attention, withdrawal and desire to be alone. Areas open to abuse were identified as changing rooms, out-of-school activities, toilets, areas not seen by the camera, basements and empty classrooms. Suggestions for preventing abuse include educational programmes, physical environment safety and ensuring safety in sports activities. Teachers emphasised that university level courses should be added to increase child protection awareness in the field of sport and in-service trainings should be organised for existing educators.

Keywords: Sport, Child abuse, Physical education and sports teacher.

Introduction

Within the framework of Turkey's Twelfth Development Plan (2024) while the number of students participating in sports education in primary schools was 326 thousand in 2023, this number is aimed to reach 800 thousand students by 2028. At the same time while the number of students participating in school sports was 2.3 million in 2023, it is aimed to increase this number to 2.9 million students by 2028.

Schools are places where children spend most of their time and participate in sports activities. Therefore, it is of great importance that schools provide a safe and supportive environment and that children are safe while playing sports. These healthy and safe environments should support both the physical and social development of children and act as a protective shield against risks such as child abuse. According to the World Health Organisation's (1999) definition, child abuse is when an adult threatens or harms a child's health, survival, development or dignity by using a position of responsibility, trust or power to physically and/or emotionally harm the child's health, survival, development or dignity through maltreatment, sexual abuse, neglect or economic or other forms of exploitation. Alexander, Stafford and Lewis (2011) found that 75% of young athletes in England were exposed to emotional abuse and Gündüz et al. (2007) found that 56.2% of elite female athletes were exposed to sexual abuse in a study conducted in Turkey. Child Abuse in Sport: European Statistics (CASES) project aimed to provide evidence on the prevalence of interpersonal violence experienced by children (under 18) participating in sport in different national contexts (Austria, Germany, Belgium, Romania, Spain, England). It was concluded that the most common experience of interpersonal violence against children in sport was psychological violence (65%), followed by physical violence (44%), neglect (37%) and non-contact sexual violence (35%); the least common experience was contact sexual violence (20%) (Hartill et al., 2021). These studies reveal the prevalence of abuse in sports. However, there are few studies examining the prevalence of abuse in primary and secondary school sports (Teasley & Gill, 2015). When the studies conducted in the school context are examined, it is seen that studies focusing on sexual abuse are generally conducted (Naterman, 2014; Teasley & Gill, 2015; Basile, Espelage, Ingram, Simon & Berrier, 2022). Unfortunately, abuse is a very broad concept and is seen in different forms including sexual, emotional, physical abuse and neglect (CPSU, 2024; Fortier, Parent & Lessard, 2019). Physical education and sports teachers working in schools and out-of-school sports activities have an important role in detecting and preventing these forms of abuse. In addition, prevention of abuse is possible by providing trainings on this issue and raising awareness (Mc Mahon, Lang, Zehntner & Mc Gannon, 2023; Güler, 2024). In this context, revealing the existence of abuse in the school environment will both raise awareness and enable the development of policies and strategies for its prevention. The aim of this study is to reveal child abuse in schools from the perspectives of physical education and sport teachers and to provide suggestions for preventing abuse.

Methodology

Research Design

This research, which aims to reveal child abuse in schools from the perspectives of physical education and sports teachers and to provide suggestions for preventing abuse, is a qualitative research and is designed as a case study. Case study is the process of describing and analysing a limited system in detail (Merriam, 2013). According to Yin (2008), a case study is an empirical research that examines a current event in the context of real life. As stated by Merriam (2013), researchers prefer qualitative case studies when they want to understand, explore and interpret an event in depth. In this study, the case study method was preferred in order to understand a complex and sensitive issue such as child abuse in schools in detail in the context of real life.

Participants

The participants of the study were determined by criterion sampling method, which is one of the purposeful sampling methods. The study group of this qualitative research was determined by using purposive sampling method. Qualitative research usually focuses on small or individual sample groups that are purposively selected to examine in detail situations that may be rich in information. The main strength and logic of the purposive sampling method is based on specifically selecting situations with information potential for in-depth analysis (Patton, 2018). The criterion sampling method aims to examine all situations that meet the criteria determined by the researcher using predetermined or existing criteria lists. The criteria determined by the researchers in this study are that the participant teachers have at least five years of teaching experience, have encountered abuse situations in school environments, and work as physical education and sports teachers. Seven physical education and sports teachers who met these criteria constituted the participants of the study. Information about the participants is presented in Table 1. There are no strict rules regarding sample size in qualitative research. In-depth information obtained from a small number of participants can be extremely valuable for rich situations. On the other hand, obtaining shallower information from more participants can be useful for investigating a phenomenon, documenting diversity or understanding variations. Therefore, the sample size should be shaped by what you want to learn, how you plan to use the findings, and the resources allocated to the study (Patton, 2018).

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the participants

Code name	Gender	Experience
Yeşim	Female	20 years
Kübra	Female	13 years
Hasret	Female	18 years
Ekin	Female	17 years
Ayhan	Male	17 years
Mehmet	Male	10 years
Hasan	Male	15 years

Data Collection

The data were collected through semi-structured interviews. Semi-structured interviews allow participants to express the world they perceive through their own thoughts. In order to reach this understanding, it is emphasised that the questions should generally be open-ended (Merriam, 2013). Therefore open-ended questions were used in the interviews. The interview questions of this study were developed after a comprehensive literature review, expert opinions were taken and a pre-application was carried out. The interviews were conducted online with the teachers at specified times and recorded with the consent of the participants. Interview durations varied between 15 minutes and 40 minutes.

Data Analysis

Content analysis method was used to analyse the data obtained from the interviews. Content analysis requires a detailed examination of the collected data and allows the discovery of previously undetermined themes and dimensions (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2021). The data were analysed by classifying them into codes and categories using the content analysis method. Coding is the process of adding symbolic labels to the data in order to extract important parts for the study from the data set. These codes, which are assigned to the data sections, form categories, which are conceptual elements that contain predefined pieces of data and are related to each other (Merriam, 2013). As a result of the data analysis, four categories emerged: types of abuse, symptoms of abuse, areas open to abuse and suggestions for preventing abuse. Types of abuse were divided into 4 subcategories: physical abuse, emotional abuse, sexual abuse and neglect. During the research process, consistency analysis was carried out by the researchers working on the categories and codes created; they were reviewed on different days to increase the reliability of the data. In addition, the reliability of the defined categories and coding was checked and approved by an expert in measurement and evaluation.

Validity and Reliability

Participant validation, expert review, rich and dense description strategies were used to ensure the validity and reliability of the study. Participant validation is the process of sending data and ambiguous comments back to some of the participants and getting their views on whether they are reasonable (Merriam, 2013). For this validity strategy, the researchers sent the raw transcribed data to the participants and asked them to confirm the validity. Expert review is a process that evaluates whether the findings, interpretations and recommendations obtained in the research process are verified by returning to the raw data. This evaluation is made by an external expert on the subject (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2021). For expert review, interviews and discussions were held with colleagues working in this field. Intensive description is the details that the researcher presents when describing a situation or theme and enables the reader to understand the subject in depth (Creswell, 2021). For intensive description, child abuse, which is the subject of the study, and teachers' perceptions on this issue were conveyed to the readers in detail. While describing teachers' statements and situations related to child abuse, the researcher aimed for the reader to have a broad perspective on the subject and to grasp the themes examined in a concrete way.

Findings

In this study, which aims to examine child abuse from the perspective of physical education and sports teachers and to develop solutions for this problem, 4 categories emerged as types of abuse, signs of abuse, areas open to abuse and suggestions for preventing abuse as a result of the analysis of the interviews with teachers. Types of abuse were divided into 4 subcategories: physical abuse, emotional abuse, sexual abuse and neglect.

Figure 1. General Framework of Child Abuse from the Perspective of Physical Education and Sports Teachers

Types of Abuse

In this category, teachers stated that they encountered different types of abuse such as physical, emotional, sexual abuse and neglect in school environments.

Physical Abuse

The physical abuse subcategory reveals various forms of physical abuse among students and by teachers. Teachers expressed physical abuse at school as beating by peers and hitting by teachers. Teacher Ayhan stated that physical abuse is not only directed towards problematic children, successful and well-behaved children are also exposed to such behaviours:

Children are now cheeky enough to beat their peers, hit them, spit on them, pull their hair, take the ball from their hands and run away. I have a student named Ersin. A very talented child beat his peer Ersin for no reason. The beaten child is not a problematic child, he is a very decent child, a successful child, the best sprinter of our school. He came crying to me. He said, My teacher hit me, beat me. The boy is crying, how he is crying.(Ayhan)

Teacher Kübra, on the other hand, stated that teachers used harsh physical contact with students through behaviours such as shoving and pushing, and that such behaviours were suppressed by social pressure, but still occurred frequently:

Some teachers would unfortunately beat the child there if they were not ashamed of the pressure of society. In other words, this kind of physical contact sometimes happens in an obvious way. Unfortunately, there may be those who exhibit behaviour in the form of squeezing their arm, touching them hard, pushing them. We can see these frequently (Kübra).

Emotional Abuse

Emotional abuse sub-categories were identified as performance pressure, nicknaming the student, scolding by the teacher, excessive shouting by the teacher, humiliating comments by the teacher, and insulting by the teacher. Teachers defined emotional abuse in various ways and described the negative effects of such abuse on students. Teachers stated that they applied pressure in competitive environments in order to improve the performance of children. For example, one teacher expressed her anger at her student's poor performance in a competition and observed that this situation caused the student to become more withdrawn:

You go to the school tournament, you have worked hard, you have worked hard, and the child can get excited at that moment. When he gets excited, he suddenly freezes in a competition in the province. This time we get a little angry with the child. What happened to you, when you are at school another time, you do this and that. Why were you embarrassed here? Why couldn't I play, the child can also withdraw into himself/herself (Hasan).

The derogatory nicknames and comments used towards students damage their self-confidence and negatively affect their social relations in the classroom. Teacher Hasan stated that comments made on characteristics such as weight and height triggered emotional reactions of children, and this situation was sometimes not repeated:

When you say "come on, my lion" to the student, he likes it, but otherwise, when you say something about his weight or height, this is the reaction of the child at first, when you say "come on, son, you are already like a camel, you can do this, you can do this, horse basketball", the child laughs. If there is a warm environment there, this can continue, but as soon as the child makes a face at that moment or we feel that we have upset the child, it cannot be repeated again. This is what happens during that lesson (Hasan).

During sports competitions, teachers' excessive shouting and sometimes using insulting expressions decreases children's motivation to do sports. Teachers stated that such behaviours have psychologically demoralising effects on children:

A physical education teacher scolding a child in a competition among a lot of people among a lot of friends. For example, we witnessed these. The child is demoralised there psychologically (Ekin).

I participate in competitions in the volleyball branch, in inter-school competitions, in the same way in the club. The words he uses more, shouting, calling, I don't know, do you mind if I say it? You're stupid, you can't do it, you're retarded, do this, do that, unfortunately (Ayhan).

It is a very unconscious behaviour, but we have too much shouting. The biggest mistake that coaches make in inter-school sports is that they miss the students while they are doing sports and shout excessively, as if they are trying to win a medal (Mehmet).

Humiliating and disrespectful attitudes towards students in order to ensure discipline have a negative impact on children's psychological well-being. Teacher Ekin stated that she tried to discipline adolescents by humiliating them in front of their friends, but later realised that this approach was wrong:

Disrespect is at a very high level, indeed, such a generation is coming. In this case, what I experience is to humiliate the child a little bit. Obviously, I experienced this in the children of adolescence and high school age. You know, if you humiliate him at least there among your

friends, he gets a little quiet, he sits down. For example, I did this when I was very angry. Well, but now I think it is very wrong (Ekin).

Sexual Abuse

Sexual abuse subcategory was determined as non-contact sexual abuse and contact sexual abuse. Non-contact sexual abuse was found as secretly watching, making inappropriate analogies that would embarrass the peer, making fun of each other's bodies. Contact sexual abuse was expressed as the student rubbing against the peer, the teacher hitting the child's buttocks, and the peer disturbing the peer by masturbating. Teachers stated that there are some risks when boys and girls' locker rooms are next to each other:

Boys' and girls' changing rooms are next to each other. This is a very dangerous situation because a male student can look through the hole. He can disturb the girl through the door. While the girl opens the door to see who it is, the other one can undress and dress there (Yeşim).

In addition, it was stated that making fun of students' bodies and making inappropriate analogies were among the problems encountered:

For example, there was a girl a few years ago. She was hugging the volleyball pole like that, I mean, she was hugging it quite a lot, so after that, I said, "Girl, what are you doing?" I said, "That's the pole." I said, "Why did you hug the pole like that? A male student turned round and said, "My teacher is doing a pipe dance. He was embarrassed. I was embarrassed too. What he was going to say was something I never expected (Yeşim).

I mean, I noticed that the men were making fun of each other when they saw each other getting dressed. I guess they must have experienced something, especially in the men's locker room, we opened those bathroom parts so that the individual can change the bathroom parts inside when they have to change their underwear. In other words, we found such a solution so that there would not be too many things other than dressing and undressing in a collective environment, a problem among men (Hasret).

Teacher Yeşim stated that male students rubbing against female students and passing off these behaviours with the excuse of accidentally touching them is a common situation at high school level. Teacher Ekin on the other hand, stated that she observed behaviours such as teachers sometimes applying violence and spanking the student's buttocks:

Especially when running or doing gymnastics in physical education classes, male students rub against female students and touch them by saying that they accidentally touched them. Conversations are much more common in high school (Yeşim).

Teachers shout and sometimes use violence, for example, slapping a student's bum. We have also seen these (Ekin).

Teacher Hasret stated that sexual abuse cases such as male students' inappropriate behaviours with sexual content were witnessed because female students wore tights during sports lessons:

You know, girls wear tights in volleyball. While the boys were watching, I saw one of my students masturbating while watching them, for example. I mean, I witnessed it. I warned the boy, plus I filed a report. I referred him to the disciplinary board because the girl was very disturbed (Hasret).

Neglect

The subcategory of neglect was determined as; ignoring the students' desire to participate in competitions, ignoring the family's desire for the child to participate in sports, teachers leaving the students free in lessons, coming to school hungry, neglecting nutritional needs in tournaments. Teachers stated that children who want to do sports are left alone and this situation is negligence. It was observed that students could not participate in competitions due to disagreements between teachers:

I think that a child who wants to do sports is very lonely and cannot do it. This is the child's most natural right, the right to do sports. That child has the right to participate in that competition. For example, we see this in schools, because of the conflict of 2 teachers, the child cannot participate in the competition in school sports. Why because of the ego of 2 huge people. Sometimes I can't voice it, these are among the problems I experience, and they are sad things (Ekin).

Teachers stated that neglect also occurs when families do not support children's desire to do sports. Teachers' letting the students free in the lessons, especially in physical education lessons, was evaluated as an element of neglect. Teacher Ayhan stated that this letting go actually meant avoiding responding to the needs of the students:

There is a lot of negligence on the part of the teachers in letting the students loose in lessons. In physical education classes, many teachers, sometimes even me, neglect the children. Because we prefer to leave them free. This is actually a negligence. In other words, it is a reason that negatively affects the physical education lesson, that is, it does not fulfil its purpose. You know, letting them go is actually a way. I mean, it may be right to do this sometimes, but I think this is a very big neglect (Ayhan).

Teachers stated that students attended classes with hunger and this situation negatively affected students' performance. In addition, it was also emphasised that during tournaments and competitions, teachers used low-cost food to meet the nutritional needs of students, which put students' health and performance at risk:

Children come to school hungry, you make them do physical education sports in the first hour, you have a certain thing. The child gets tired after 20 minutes, what happened? I did not have breakfast (Mehmet).

Let me tell you especially for school sports. There may be negligence here, it may be like this. Since the money received by our teacher friends is not enough, there may be problems in terms of attention to athlete nutrition. What can happen? Here, the child needs to eat a little more vegetables, in order to increase his/her performance to a higher level, you see that he/she makes do with a wrap or a pastry and a bagel. With such things, they can get by with simple things and cheap things and they can participate in the competition in that way. Just because we participated and the children came and went, but there is abuse here (Ayhan).

Signs of Abuse

In the category of abuse symptoms, indicators such as dropping out of the branch, temper tantrums, neglected appearance, need for love and attention, loss of self-confidence, withdrawal and desire to be alone were determined. Teachers' statements show the multidimensional reflections of the abuse faced by children. Teacher Hasan stated that lack of organisation in sports competitions caused children to quit sports:

When we go there, the referees who manage the competitions, the disciplinary committees that come there, the representative of that branch, the ambulance, when the organisation there is bad, the child thinks that it is an organisation of the school. He/she does not participate in them again and these are an abuse and the child gets disenchanted with sports. Believe me, he doesn't want to do sports in that branch or he wants to quit (Hasan).

Teachers stated that the anger crises experienced by children were usually caused by abuse incidents. Teacher Mehmet explained this situation as follows:

The child suddenly has a tantrum and fights with his/her friend. When we go to the root of this, family violence emerges. I wouldn't say in every child, but when you get to the bottom of it, 70% of the children either have family violence or violence with a friend (Mehmet).

Teachers stated that they could generally recognise neglected children by their clothes and behaviour. They observed that children who do not receive enough love and attention from their parents experience similar emotional deficiencies in school life. Teacher Hasret and teacher Yeşim explained this situation as follows:

More precisely, we can more or less identify children who are neglected by their families, not sexually abused. In other words, we can understand from their expressions to you, from their clothes to their behaviour (Hasret).

We always come across children who do not grow up in such love from their parents, that is, children who are hungry for attention and love, especially since I have been at this school for 6 years (Yeşim).

It was also observed that children were sometimes neglected by their coaches or other adults in the field of sports and this situation caused great losses in children's self-confidence. Teachers also stated that abused children want to be alone. Teacher Ayhan and teacher Hasan explained this situation as follows:

For the child, for example, I have an athlete who is also involved in cycling. He is the same way. For example, the other day they went abroad for races. He can share the same complaint with me. He is involved in cycling at a club. He says that his coach treats other students differently, that he is not interested in him or that his interest is very low. When you look at it, this has caused a great lack of self-confidence in the child. Unfortunately, there are also such examples (Ayhan).

If a child is abused in a team or in class, he/she does not listen to the lesson well, he/she becomes distracted. It doesn't make any difference whether it's a girl or a boy. If the child is alone in the garden or at recess and has no friends, I start to follow him/her more closely. There are cameras everywhere. I follow this child with cameras and observe whether he/she is sitting alone or has a friend (Hasan).

Areas Open to Exploitation

In the category of areas open to abuse; changing rooms, out-of-school activities and competitions, toilets, areas not seen by the camera, basements and empty classrooms were identified. Teachers' statements are critical in evaluating these areas in terms of risk factors. Teachers stated that changing rooms are particularly risky in terms of peer bullying and girl-boy relationships. It was emphasised that these rooms provide a suitable environment for

abuse incidents due to their physical structure and lack of supervision. Teacher Ekin explained this situation as follows:

Changing rooms are very risky for abuse. It is a place where there are girl-boy relationships, peer bullying and fights. The changing rooms are a very big risk for us.", Abuse incidents are more common in competitions. These are the things we experience more outside the school rather than in the school environment (Ekin).

Competitions and out-of-school events were cited as other areas where abuse incidents were most common. Teachers stated that these activities usually take place outside of school, which leads to less protection of students. Toilets and places away from camera angles were mentioned as other critical points where abuse can occur. Especially the frequent use of toilets by students and lack of supervision make these areas risky. Teacher Kübra explained this situation as follows:

Trying to be in places far away from the camera angle. These are things that will bring to mind abuse (Kübra).

Basements and empty classrooms were similarly identified as areas where there is insufficient supervision and where the risk of abuse increases when students are alone. Teachers stated that students' requests to be alone in such places should be carefully monitored and that these situations can often pave the way for abuse. Teacher Yeşim explained this situation as follows:

I want to be alone in the classroom means I don't want to come to class. Why do they say that they are going to study at work and take a peer and a friend with them and want to stay in the classroom, for example, or they have disappeared in any activity. I mean, I follow him/her. Because at the same time, there are 4 classes in the school garden. Because it can be really difficult to control. Because we are a crowded school (Yeşim).

Suggestions for Preventing Abuse

Suggestions for preventing abuse include educational programmes, physical environment safety, safety in sports activities, student observations, and providing education to all segments of the society. Teachers emphasised that in order to increase child protection awareness in the field of sports, both university-level courses should be offered and in-service trainings should be organised for existing educators. Teacher Yeşim and Teacher Ekin explained this situation as follows:

I have never come across child protection in in-service trainings. I attend such occasional trainings of the Ministry of National Education. They explain it very well. You know, it can be included in trainings on child protection. This training is especially important for teachers (Ekin).

Child protection training in sport should be given at university. It should be included in the curriculum at universities (Ekin).

It was stated that private areas such as changing rooms, basements and toilets should be kept under constant surveillance and school administrations should increase security measures in these areas. In addition, it was emphasised that students coming in sportswear during physical education classes could reduce potential abuse incidents in changing rooms. Teacher Yeşim

and teacher Ekin explained this situation as follows: Teachers explained this situation as follows:

Changing rooms must be under control. The teacher and the student on duty should be able to control them. The changing rooms are always placed in nooks and corners, which is actually very inconvenient and causes them to be used like this. Well, when they are in secluded corners, they are deserted. All kinds of abuse can occur there (Ekin).

Especially during class time, no student should be allowed to go to the toilet. I mean, because one boy and one girl can agree in class and ask for permission at that time and even get involved in the toilet in different classes. For example, children meet in the toilet in a way that we would never think of. I mean, you are in class time (Hasret).

I mean, all kinds of security at school, for example, I am in favour of controlling all the areas in the school, you know, from the basement floor, for example, our watch team has a watch in the basement floor. There are also fire escapes. I mean, we are in favour of constant control of both children and toilets (Kübra).

Teachers mentioned the importance of keeping students' behaviours under constant observation and taking detailed notes in order to detect possible signs of abuse early. Mehmet explained this situation as follows:

In such a meeting about individual students, I was in a class, even the best class. I learnt that twenty out of about 30 students had been subjected to domestic violence. For example, I must have missed it, they were very good in my class, they were having fun, but 20 of them were in this situation. Almost the numbers were more or less like this. Teachers should be more careful in such cases. For example, like us, they should follow the signs of such abuse. I have a small notebook. I take note of such things. I pay attention and observe as much as I can from the beginning to the end of the year (Mehmet).

It was emphasised that in accommodation arrangements during sports competitions or events, children of similar age groups should share the same room and accommodation rules should be clearly explained to the students. It was emphasised that these rules would be effective in preventing the abuse that children may apply against each other. Teachers explained this situation as follows:

I share the accommodation rules with the students before going to the competition. I always warn the children about such issues before I go. I always warn them that no one should enter or leave the rooms, from bedtime to wake-up time (Hasret).

There may be abuses perpetrated by the child against the child. Unfortunately. In that sense, when we travel to a sportive place, we should definitely pay attention to these. Let's definitely pay attention to the accommodation of individuals of the same age group together." (Ayhan).

It was stated that in addition to informing educators, parents and children about child abuse, awareness should be raised throughout the society. It was stated that these trainings will enable children to understand whether the events they experience are abuse or not and to learn how to ask for help when necessary.

Both children and adults should be educated. Unfortunately, children do not realise whether what they have been subjected to is sexual abuse or physical abuse, and they consider it normal for the teacher to shout at them. Yes, he insults, but he says that he insults me to make me better. In fact, the child will know that this is wrong, no one has the right to insult anyone,

or yes, my teacher did not do this to me, he showed me this way, there should be no question of the teacher touching you. The child should know this (Kübra).

Discussion and Conclusion

The findings of this study reveal various aspects of child abuse occurring in schools from the perspective of physical education and sport teachers. In the study, teachers stated that they encountered different forms of abuse such as physical, emotional, sexual abuse and neglect in school environments. In a study conducted by Theoklitou, Kabitsis and Kabitsi (2012), more than half of the students (52.9%) reported experiencing neglect, about one-third (33.1%) emotional abuse, and almost one-tenth (9.6%) physical abuse. These results show that the frequency of occurrence varies between types of abuse; neglect was the most common type (52.9%), followed by emotional abuse (33.1%) and physical abuse (9.6%) was the least common. The reason why physical abuse is less common than other types may be that such cases are not usually ignored and the reactions of parents and students create serious difficulties for teachers. Rossouw (2009) states that unfortunately, sports coaching at school level includes both sexual and non-sexual abuse and harassment cases. Abuse in the field of sports coaching comes in various forms such as overtraining, abusive coaching methods, non-accidental physical injuries, neglect and overuse injuries. Rossouw emphasises that such abuse seriously violates the fundamental rights of children, in particular the principle that their best interests should be protected. In the study conducted by Kızıltepe, Irmak, Eslek and Hecker (2020), 54.9% (n=161) of the students reported that they had been subjected to violence by their teachers at least once in the last month. The prevalence of emotional violence by teachers was 53.6% (n=157), while the rate of physical violence was 25.2% (n=74). Almost all of the children who experienced physical violence (93.2%, n=69) also experienced emotional violence by their teachers. The most common methods of emotional violence used by teachers were shouting or screaming loudly (43%, n=126) and telling students that they would be expelled from the class (19%, n=56). The most common types of physical violence were shaking the students (15%, n=44) and slapping their hands, arms or legs (8.7%, n=26). All these studies show that the abuse applied to students is usually realised by their teachers. In addition to this situation, our study reveals that abuse in the school context also occurs by peers. Supporting this finding, Aras, Özan, Timbil, Semin and Kasapçi (2016) reported that 61.8% of the students were exposed to emotional violence and 24.9% were exposed to physical violence by their peers. An important finding of this research is that children not only suffer direct physical harm but also carry emotional and psychological burdens. Emotional forms of abuse, such as pressure to perform and derogatory epithets, constitute serious psychological pressures that negatively affect students' overall well-being and academic achievement. In addition, contact and non-contact forms of sexual abuse have been shown to pose serious threats to students' safety and mental health.

Symptoms of abuse were determined as indicators such as dropping out of the branch, anger crises, neglected appearance, need for love and attention, loss of self-confidence, withdrawal and desire to be alone. In studies such as this study, it has been reported that violence against students is associated with emotional and behavioural problems and poor academic performance (Şimşek & Cenkseven-Önder, 2011; Kızıltepe, Irmak, Eslek, & Hecker, 2020). The study conducted by Vertommen et al. (2018) shows that abuse in athletes can cause various psychosomatic disorders such as depression, anxiety, post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), eating disorders, substance use, self-harming behaviors and suicidal thoughts. Davis, Brown, Arnold and Gustafsson's (2021) study shows that psychological and neural

development is negatively affected in young athletes who are exposed to abuse, and this prevents the development of attachment abilities and social skills.

The study also revealed areas where abuse is commonly experienced in the school environment. These were identified as locker rooms, out-of-school activities and competitions, toilets, off-camera areas, basements and empty classrooms. These findings indicate that surveillance and security measures should be increased in these specific places. Çetin (2019) stated in her thesis that sports camps, places travelled for tournaments or competitions (such as hotels, rental houses, guesthouses) stand out as places where sexual abuse can occur. Such places offer situations where controls and supervision are less. Urazel et al. (2017) stated that sexual abuse can occur anywhere, but especially closed spaces (homes, schools, workplaces, lifts, etc.) carry a higher risk. Although these studies show that sexual abuse can potentially occur anywhere, especially closed spaces and places without adequate supervision carry a higher risk. Specific locations in school settings, such as locker rooms, toilets and empty classrooms; outdoor locations, such as sports camps and places travelled to for competitions; all these spaces contain elements that may increase the risk of abuse. Therefore, identifying such risky places and increasing surveillance and security measures in these areas is vital for the protection of children and young people.

The last finding obtained from the interviews with teachers is the suggestions for preventing abuse. These suggestions include training programmes, physical environment safety, increasing surveillance and security measures in high-risk areas, careful monitoring of students' behaviours during sports activities, student observations, and providing education to all segments of society. Teachers emphasised that in order to increase child protection awareness in the field of sport, both university-level courses should be offered and in-service trainings should be organised for existing educators.

This research provides important contributions to ensuring the safety of children in school environments by revealing the types of child abuse experienced in schools from the perspective of physical education and sports teachers and the measures to be taken to prevent this abuse.

Recommendation

In this section, various suggestions for reducing child abuse are presented:

- Specific child protection trainings for teachers, parents, school staff and students should be designed and implemented at regular intervals.
- Teacher trainings should provide comprehensive knowledge and skills on children's rights, types and signs of abuse, effective intervention methods and child protection policies.
- Students should be informed about their rights and ways to stay safe. They should be trained on how to recognise abuse against themselves or their friends and to whom to report it.
- It is important that parents understand the physical and emotional needs of their children and know how to support them. Training for parents can help them to be more sensitive and supportive towards their children.
- School staff should receive regular training on recognising signs of abuse and appropriate intervention methods. In addition, ethical behaviour and professional responsibility issues should be continuously updated.

- Child protection courses should be introduced at university level and continuous in-service training should be organised for existing educators.
- Surveillance and security measures should be increased in high-risk areas and student behaviour should be carefully monitored during sports and other school activities.
- Schools should conduct regular environmental audits and risk assessments to ensure the safety of children. These inspections should cover the adequacy of physical security measures.
- Special rules should be set for changing rooms used for physical education and sports lessons in schools and compliance with these rules should be monitored.
- Child protection guidebooks should be prepared for teachers and these guidebooks should be actively used in schools.
- School management should determine codes of behaviour for teachers to protect children from all kinds of abuse and supervise their implementation.
- Safe travel and accommodation procedures should be established for out-of-school trips (sports tournaments, historical trips, etc.) and care should be taken to implement these procedures.
- School management should provide information about complaint and reporting mechanisms to manage child abuse cases.
- It is recommended that teachers should create a positive classroom climate and adopt disciplinary methods instead of punishment.

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An Analysis of the Potential of Philippine Sports as a Tool for Public Diplomacy

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Abstract

With the growing lapses of sports-based strategies in the Philippine setting, the gap between its theoretical foundation and its praxis has ballooned, predominantly attributed to the need for more academic work in this area. Correspondingly, this study provides implications for sports-related strategies for predicting a positive public image of the Philippines and harboring peaceful state cooperation through the merits of soft power. To achieve this, this paper has contrived the objectives, including (1) identifying the implications of hosting the SEA Games 2019 for the country by examining the management of the Philippine government, (2) determining the implications of the elite sporting success of Filipino athletes in sports tournaments, and, lastly, (3) identifying the potential of sports through the implementation of sports-related strategy by the Philippines. Moreover, this paper implements qualitative methods, including document review and key informant interviews, to gather pertinent testimonials from various sub-sectors in sports, including national elite athletes, professional coaches, and sports experts, to assess the state of Philippine sports and significantly determine its potential as a serious form of public diplomacy, particularly in achieving its intended outcomes. This study infers that Philippine sports have the capability to influence the country's stature with consideration of the global media as well as advance its foreign policy of international cooperation.

Keywords: Filipino athletes, Philippine soft power, Philippine sports, SEA Games 2019, sports diplomacy

Introduction

A compelling reference point when injecting a colloquy of Filipino culture is its unfailing pride and exponential enthusiasm for local and international sports. Sports have unequivocally always been an integral part of Filipino culture. Since the framing of the 1987 Philippine Constitution, the functionality of sports is not solely grounded in its colonialist significance, as it has established a more specific legal mandate and gained statutory relevance embedded in the Constitution. With regard to the mandates of employing sports in the Philippines, its convenience has gone beyond the constitutional directives. Philippine diplomacy has constantly centered on "trade, investment, credit, and military" (Wurfel, 1990). Despite changes from different administrations, economic diplomacy remains a staple block of its foreign policy (Del Rosario & Amador, 2016). In 2016, the Department of Foreign Affairs launched the practice of cultural diplomacy, which aims "to help build inter-state relations and develop socio-cultural understanding among people all over the world" and "enhance the promotion of its national interests abroad" through soft power (Wong, 2016).

Indeed, the Philippines has a great pool of soft power resources, including its sports. Most scholars argue that sports possess cultural entitlement. Gems (2020) stipulated that integrating sports into the Filipino culture was successful, as many Filipino athletes qualified for global championships. Although initially conceived as an American colonialist practice, the Filipinos eventually adopted sport to their cultural advantage—to affirm their unique identity and foster national pride.

On top of its statutory relevance under the 1987 Philippine Constitution, its convenience to the government has exceeded the constitutional directives. The government has drawn on sports to actualize its plans, banking on the possible outcomes heralding public diplomacy. Even with its praxes, the space of literature leading to its explication is evidently capacious, which is attributable to the lack of certain cognizance of the theoretical foundations vis-à-vis its potential as an instrument for public diplomacy. Consequently, this also insinuates insufficient empirical evidence about the situation of Philippine sports, which determines the pledge of this study as both a beacon for Filipino elite athletes and a divulgence for the government to foster the capacities of its sports per se and as an instrument. With this, its potential remains a matter in question.

Embedded with its global popularity, governments deliberately perform soft power-generating activities such as hosting sports events and investing in their sports. While most cases of the implementation of sports diplomacy come from developed countries, the exhibition of such practices is scarce in progressing economies like the Philippines. The Philippines is an emerging economy (Wong, 2016).

Thus, the pronouncements of this paper are imperative to solidify the grounds on the efficiency of its implementation and, more so, diversify the discussion—both as an IR theory and its praxis. To realize this, it seeks to explicate what Abdi et al. (2019) identified as major soft power resources in sports diplomacy, including sports victories and staging sports leagues. Essentially, this study centers explicitly on (1) identifying the implications of hosting the SEA Games 2019 for the country by examining the management of the Philippine government, (2) determining the implications of the elite sporting success of Filipino athletes in sports tournaments and, lastly, (3) identifying the potential of sports through the implementation of sports-related strategy by the Philippines. Ultimately, this paper aims to introduce the Philippines' approach to sports diplomacy by providing an in-depth analysis—particularly of its potential diplomatic outcomes—while hypothesizing the enhancement of the country's profile and building interstate relations.

New Public Diplomacy

According to Trunkos and Heere (2017), interstate relationships have long been understood through the prism of realism and neorealism, particularly in "states seeking power and wanting to dominate other states." Traditionally speaking, the leverage for power merely comes from the capabilities of a state to possess and exploit land, military forces, economic might, and other wealth assets at their disposal. Nye (1990) contended that the culmination of the Cold War had been the impetus for the gradual transformation of international relations, stating that while the risks of utilizing hard power resources such as military power have increased, the relevance of the role of other intangible assets of a state such as culture, ideology, and institutions has intensified. For most countries, using force threatens their economic objectives and ability to maintain international competitiveness (Grix et al., 2015). As a result, coercive force has become less tolerated in contemporary world politics, leading to the increased significance of soft power.

Although diplomacy has long been established as both a means of representation and a communication channel (Trunkos & Heere, 2017), it has significantly changed in the past decades. In a traditionalist sense, diplomacy merely involved and is exclusive to state-to-state interaction—the conduct of affairs to advance foreign policy objectives is typically held in private between official representatives of a government—whether headed by the state leaders themselves or professional diplomats representing their sovereign states (Lee & Ayhan, 2015).

The dynamics of mainstream diplomacy do not dwell on this concept—due to the emergence of other key players in the international system, particularly non-state actors who have begun to influence the political agenda of states and have been part of world governance (Shaltaev, 2019; Martino, 2020). Lee and Ayhan (2015) laid the foundation for two kinds of public diplomacy—traditional and modern. The new public diplomacy is construed as the "associations of states and some sub-state and non-state actors to understand cultures, attitudes, and behaviors; to build and manage relationships; and to influence thoughts and to influence thoughts and mobilize actions to advance their interests and values" (Lee & Ayhan, 2015). Moreover, the increasing growth of global actors has paved the way for diversifying diplomatic networks. As Szondi (2008) has argued, states are not solely the "official face" of modern-day diplomacy, as there is an increasing role for other actors in the multifaceted nature of public diplomacy. In this state-of-the-art diplomacy—though not state-centric—governments may still be involved in sponsorship, initiator, or source of communication (Szondi, 2008).

Contrary to the state-centric features of traditional public diplomacy, the new public diplomacy also acknowledges the increasing influence of public opinion. According to Lee and Ayhan (2015), in the modern world, "public attitudes and public opinion matter"; thus, "states could no more overlook the importance of the public in order to directly or indirectly influence foreign policy decisions of other countries." Its neoteric interpretations and state-of-the-art approaches are not circumscribed by merely focusing on the governments of other countries as targets of influence nor relying on state-based interactions. In fact, it broadens the scope of interaction by further including the perception of the public—building a more fluid global environment to achieve foreign policy goals and promote national interests (Szondi, 2008). Governments mobilize their cultural resources, values, and policies "to communicate with and attract the public of other countries" rather than solely state-driven (Szondi, 2008; Lekakis, 2019). Also, governments mobilize their soft power resources, as Nye (2004) identified, specifically culture, political values, and policies, mainly aimed at attracting

foreign publics and their governments (Lekakis, 2019). In this regard, as several scholars argue, sports can be classified as having a cultural prerogative. This implies that sports are an essential part of a nation's culture and can be utilized as a soft power asset of a state to generate influence. States and non-state actors have vital roles in a fluid international environment posed with issues and contexts situated in the domain of contemporary world politics (Mortazavi et al., 2018; Shaltaev, 2019; Martino, 2020).

Sports for Image Building

Abdi et al. (2019) and Özsarı (2018) suggested that there are different resources for sports diplomacy, including hosting major sports tournaments and designating professional elite athletes as ambassadors. This study has hypothesized that hosting sports events and achieving elite sporting success can enhance the country's profile, depending on the strategy and its success. Grix and Houlihan (2014) argued that "some tangible data" can suffice for this lack of standardized measurement, mainly to gauge its success. Sports events are embedded with "universal popularity" and serve as a common ground for interaction, particularly in cultural exchanges (Trunkos & Heere, 2017). It is also a form of mass entertainment that captures the interests of global audiences (Brannagan & Giulianotti, 2014; Shaltaev, 2019). Nye (2004) stipulated that "popular sports" can represent a nation's values given its global popularity and its emphasis on culture and peaceful values. It blurs "political differences," which opens up more channels of communication and "counterbalances" the unfavorable public opinion of countries (Wong, 2016).

Germany invested in sports soft power, especially to rebrand its images deeply associated with World War II. According to Grix and Lacroix (2006, in Grix & Houlihan, 2014), the legacy and brutality of the Third Reich left permanent marks on the German psyche and that of their international neighbors. Thus, hosting the World Cup 2006 was taken as an advantage to strengthen the efforts toward remarketing the nation as a friendly, accommodating, and investment-rich country. The government has initiated several national and global campaigns to achieve this as part of its broader "World Cup Hosting Strategy." This facilitated the promotion of Germany's foreign public opinion—bringing together key players from various sectors. According to Grix and Houlihan (2014), banking on Germany's rich and varied historical and cultural heritage "probably" contributed to the high number of attendees throughout the event period. The German Tourist Board (2007, in Grix & Houlihan, 2014) stated that over 2 million international visitors came to the country to witness the football tournament in 2006—many stayed and visited tourist attractions. It recorded the most significant increase in visitors from Britain, where the negative public perception of Germany is deeply influenced. It grew by 5% from 2005 to 2007, reaching 4.4 million overnight stays. Correspondingly, Germany swiftly went from the 17th spot in 2004 to the top in 2007, remaining in second place four years later (Anholt-GfK Roper, 2011, in Grix & Houlihan, 2014).

The UK, an advanced capitalist state, has already built up a reputation. However, the Foreign Commonwealth Office (FCO) saw public perception of the country's international profile as "arrogant, stuffy, old-fashioned, and cold." The FCO sought to project a more welcoming, diverse, and tolerant image of Britain. Thus, the London Olympic Games were adopted as a critical opportunity to promote the refinement of its image.

According to Grix et al. (2015), the turning point of the UK's exploitation of soft power strategies commenced with assessing the country's global image as ordered by the FCO in 2005. However, the results generated a "mixed picture." The first two blueprints aim to enhance the UK's image and reposition the country's profile as a "vibrant, open, and modern

society, a global hub in a networked world." The FCO instigated ways to promote the UK's culture nationwide and overseas through the 2012 Olympics. It turned out to be potent as the country obtained a "positive international image" as per the Anholt-Gfk Roper Index, which the UK ranked fourth in both 2009 and 2010, respectively. Moreover, the international media have published "almost uniformly" affirmative opinions of the London Olympics 2012 (Grix et al., 2015). Grix et al. (2015) have further stipulated that the UK was seen as "a good place to do business"—invoking the component of the Anholt-Gfk Roper Index, which appraises explicitly the investment appeal of which the country secured the third spot in both 2012 and 2013 after Germany, Canada, and the USA.

The UK's case is distinct in its purpose to improve its domestic and global security through investing in Olympic legacy projects, particularly in several Middle Eastern states. On top of these is recruiting "Olympic ambassadors" from renowned Olympians and Paralympians, including Sir Steve Redgrave, Lady Tanni Grey Thompson, and Chris Holmes. These ambassadors have visited selected countries, including Israel, Jordan, and Palestine, to solidify these legacy initiatives granted by their global popularity (Grix et al., 2015). Correspondingly, sports diplomacy is carried out by the new world diplomats who have the capability to represent the country on behalf of and with the consent of the state (Abdi et al., 2019). This type of diplomacy uses the capabilities of athletes, sports officials, and sports competitions to create an attractive image of their country to the foreign public (Shaltaev, 2019; Abdi et al., 2019; Bokserov, 2023).

In a sports-based setting, a traditional diplomatic approach would mean using the government, diplomats, sports officials, and other official state representatives to exercise state-to-state relationship building. Meanwhile, in the modern era, the development and advancement of policies extend to non-state actors, subnational organizations, non-governmental organizations, and even private entities (Shaltaev, 2019). In this regard, athletes can serve as non-traditional diplomats—players of team and individual sports, especially celebrity players—and become ambassadors for their respective countries. However, if sportspeople want the world to recognize them as professionals, they cannot be amateurs in world affairs (DeLay, 1999). The efforts of Muhammad Ali during the First Gulf War stand as an epitome. Ali, in his retirement, dedicated himself to charitable causes and peacebuilding. In 1990, he was sent on a diplomatic mission by the US government to negotiate the release of 15 American hostages by Saddam Hussein (Wenn, 1999). After exactly ten days of negotiations with Iraqi officials, the hostages were released and sent home. However, Grix et al. (2015) contend that the difficulty of assessing the diplomatic value of sport as a soft power resource remains.

Sports for Interstate Cooperation

Sports diplomacy is remarkably recognized by Murray (2020) as "a panacea, a neglected yet powerful diplomatic tool that can reduce estrangement, conflict, and poverty and promote greater development and dialogue," which, in modern political realities, is commended by governments.

A quintessence of this principle is South Korea staging the PyeongChang Olympics 2018. Its cardinal rationale is to open the diplomatic channel for communication with North Korea by bringing the latter "back to the negotiating table" with the US in ways that sports can afford (Grix et al., 2021). In this regard, North Korea had snubbed its neighboring country several times through political boycotts of SMEs. Interestingly, what transpired during the 2018 Olympics was an unprecedented occurrence when both Koreas concurred to represent themselves under solitary flag, specifically during the opening rites, and have an integrated

team for women's ice hockey games. In fact, prior to the 2018 Olympics, Kim Jong-un expressed that he was prepared to start talks with South Korea and send a team to the Winter Olympics, which former South Korean President Moon Jae-in received positively—stimulated the First Korean talks in two years (Grix et al., 2021). According to the Director of Budget and Marketing of the Korean Sport and Olympic Committee, "The diplomatic channel of communication between both Koreas, which started through the participation of North Korea in the PyeongChang Games, was restored again and that became the starting point of the inter-Korean summit." It tackled "a declaration of the end of civil war and a solution to the denuclearization of the Korean peninsula." Moreover, he contended that the hosting of the 2018 Winter Olympics was "a pivotal opportunity to improve inter-Korean relations and the IOC's role was important from the central government's perspective." Correspondingly, South Korean state officials argued that through the league "the inter-Korean summit was held three times, and the US-North Korea summit was a success." And that it "served as an opportunity to show the international community the easing of tensions originally caused by the security issues on the Korean peninsula." Albeit this relationship may have gradually changed in the years that have passed, it evidently illustrates the positive outcomes of sports diplomacy with merits to the event—setting in motion peaceful relations. Some scholars argue that the interstate cooperation between North Korea and the US would not have happened otherwise if the Olympics had not occurred.

Scholars can trace the early practice of sports diplomacy to the Cold War in the 1970s. One of its far-famed cases was "Ping-Pong diplomacy." Kobierecki (2016) asserted that it was believed to have thawed the tensions between Sino-American relations. However, in the post-war era, with fewer countries at war or hostile to each other, sports-based interstate relations can still be fostered, as in the case of Cuba. It actively sought collaboration and diplomacy to pursue progressive international development. Cuban sports-based internationalism prioritizes the facilitation of Global South cooperation through elite sports training in other Global South countries, establishing community-level sports for development by investing in capacity-building projects, and engagement in sports exchange on a for-profit basis.

Firstly, Cuba centered on South-South cooperation, wherein interstate relationships "contribute towards a shared goal" of sports victory (Huish et al., 2013). For instance, Cuba's Ministry of Sport exported professional sports coaches to Guatemala to train its athletes—for between two and six years. In this case, Cuba provides the expertise, while Guatemala dispenses the facilities, equipment, and a "modest" remuneration to the Cuban coaches. This resulted in a practical outcome—five out of the seven Guatemalan gold medalists from the 2011 Pan American Games were trained by Cuban professional sports coaches. The 15 medals, including the seven gold medals, have kept pace with the number won since 1951.

For this reason, Guatemala largely owes to its athletes' enhanced performances. Subsequently, the presence of Cuban coaches has been "highly praised" by the Guatemalan national authorities (Prensa Latina, 2011, in Huish et al., 2013). Meanwhile, this collaboration for elite sporting success implies that Cuban sport challenges the domineering disposition of sports in global affairs—wherein success in elite sporting success continues to indicate a benchmark for the "global identity, competence, and competitiveness" of a nation (Houlihan, 2011, in Huish et al., 2013).

Amidst the ongoing economic crisis after the collapse of European state socialism in the early 1990s, Cuba increased its commitment to sports both at home and abroad. Cuba's ability to foster cooperation through sports continued. In Venezuela, a program was devised to "address issues of underdevelopment, including access to community-based sport," due to the "lack of

capacity" of the Venezuelan government to address concerns about their social development through sport (Huish et al., 2013). Thus, former President Hugo Chavez called upon Cuban technical experts—including 16 sports professionals—to enforce the program. By 2004, over 7 million Venezuelans had taken part in these activities, according to Cuba's Ministry of Sport officials. The President commended the sports professionals for the improved health outcomes in the country (Huish et al., 2013).

Part of Cuba's sports-based internationalism was turning sports into a lucrative enterprise within the global market. Aside from commodifying Cuban sports, it cultivated and developed economic relationships with other states, especially sporting bodies, to acquire economic benefits. It exported its highly educated, trained, and skilled sports professionals for contractual employment from countries like Japan (baseball), Australia (athletics), India (boxing), South Africa (track), and Italy (baseball) while abandoning sporting goods exportation and taking part in several agreements with far-famed sporting goods firms—the Japanese-owned companies Mizuno and Yaohan, the Spanish company Lazio, and the German manufacturer Adidas—to cover the cost of their national teams participating in global sporting events (Huish et al., 2013). These sports programs operate self-sufficiently through hard currency earnings from labor exports and joint venture sponsorships (Huish et al., 2013).

Cuba presents a profound significance on the precedence for sports-based cooperation and development, which offer essential opportunities for achieving political and economic aspirations and defining the country's policy priorities. Cuban sport is an iota of a much broader approach to reframing development in partner countries by adopting sports-based strategies, which would further its global efforts to cooperate (Huish et al., 2013).

As the world becomes more globalized and thus interdependent, several states have initiated and implemented distinct approaches to further and strengthen their influence and relationships with the other actors in the international system through the merits of soft power. Accordingly, this paves the way for new forms of diplomacy to acquire their foreign policy objectives through state-of-the-art approaches, such as by implementing sports-based strategies to achieve diplomatic outcomes. Unequivocally, a wide range of states from developed and emerging economies have shown their affirmative view of sporting prowess. While the preceding studies, as discussed above, showcase the successful implementation side of sports diplomacy, they also have shortcomings. Nevertheless, the illustrative cases have demonstrated and established the potential of sports in other countries, particularly in establishing linkages with other nations, building a state's national image, and obtaining recognition and prestige from the international community—governments and foreign publics alike—with both commitment and strategic rule at hand.

Material and Method

The exploratory research design is implemented in the study. Given that the practice of sports diplomacy is a new-fangled approach to Philippine diplomacy in particular—incorporates the dynamic roles of both traditional and non-traditional diplomats—it has limited paradigms in the country. Therefore, this study investigates the potential of sports as a tool for public diplomacy in the Philippines—through the perspectives of sportspeople, sports events, and national sports organizations. Additionally, the literature on sports diplomacy in the Philippine setting is obscure, if not ambiguous—it is, therefore, fitting for this paper to pursue an exploratory design to provide a clearly defined analysis of this area in a distinct context.

Instruments

This study conducts two qualitative-based instruments to gather the pertinent data—mainly a document review for secondary sources of data and a key informant interview as the primary source—to gain an in-depth understanding of and obtain auxiliary explanations on the phenomenon of the political instrumentation of sports for diplomacy to achieve the objectives of the study. Subsequently, to establish the confirmability of the study's findings and avoid biased results, it applies the triangulation of data sources. In this regard, the data gathered from the KII and the document review were correlated with the literature review as well as the theoretical framework of the study.

A research ethics committee diligently probed both instruments to certify the aptness of their imposition and their undertaking from data collection for the study to their management—in conformity with all the set guidelines.

Respondent Selection

This paper imposes its eligibility conditions—each respondent must qualify in order to be included in their participation. Due to unresponsiveness and time constraints, this study has scouted three of the maximum six participants. All of the participants in this study were mandated to take a pre-assessment test consisting of background quizzing and fundamental questions on the objectives to ensure that the respondents possess sufficient cognizance of the interview questions and, overall, are qualified to participate in this research. There are at least three classifications of participants for the KII, namely sports athletes, sports officials, and experts. Various data sources make this study more objective by looking at distinct paradigms of experiences and insights of sports athletes, sports officials, and experts on sports as a soft power in the Philippines.

Therefore, utilizing the KII as one of the data collection tools—with a multifaceted dimension to the topic of the instrumentation of sports for diplomacy—is opportune for this project since it enables this paper to ground its analysis on the different views of various stakeholders.

Findings

Hosting Sports Events as an Instrument for Image Building

I.   Showcasing Infrastructural Developments in the SEA Games 2019

One of the objectives of this study is to probe the management of the SEA Games 2019 to uncover the potential of sports as a tool for public diplomacy in the Philippine setting. Notably, at the time of this paper, the 30th Games was the most recent one hosted in the country. Additionally, it transpired under the former administration; thus, the trajectory of this part was centralized during the time for purposes of data accuracy and relevance.

As part of the policy priorities throughout the Duterte presidency, the "Build, Build, Build" program was strongly enacted—undeniably stimulating aggressive infrastructure developments nationwide. Considering the growing progress in the implementation of a nationwide boost in infrastructure investment during his term—the government saw an occasion of hosting the upcoming 30th Games—the Presidential Communications Office (2017) of the administration asserted in an officially published article that the event was "an opportunity to show to the rest of the world the advancements made during the 'Golden Age of Infrastructure' under the Duterte administration." It added that the country is "bound to gain more in terms of tourism" and "prove to the world that the Philippines is a safe place to visit and a secure country to hold international events."

The statement from the PCO suggested that, even with the progressing infrastructure program of the government, sports—as explicitly stated—managed to obtain a unique sort of

significance, particularly in conveying a captivating development narrative of the Philippines. This is categorically defined by showcasing the infrastructural developments in the country. The feasibility of which Philippine soft power can be actualized in its capacity to grant the external exposure induced by hosting the sports league—as an advantage of the host state—as well as its contribution to positive impacts on the profile of the Philippines vis-à-vis its established standing. At this point, the government is cognizant of the publicity it can amass concomitant with the Games.

Improved tourism is one of the indicators propounded by scholars to gauge the success of exploiting sports soft power through sports leagues, predominantly attributed to the favorable image ascribed to the triumphant implementation of sports-based strategies. However, the compartmentalization of tourists—their country of departure and the public opinion of those in that country—and the burden of attributing the increase in tourism to hosting the event remains an intricate aspect in this area.

Moreover, boosted infrastructure developments are expected to host states provided with a vast number of participants and spectators for the tournament (Huish et al., 2013; Brannagan & Giulianotti, 2014; Grix & Houlihan, 2014; Grix et al., 2015; Grix et al., 2021). Given this, one Respondent—a former elite athlete and currently a professor of Sport Management concurred with this view, stipulating that "there was infrastructure development," including— "the national training center, the athletics track, and the beautiful swimming venue that was designed by very famous Filipino designers." Additionally, within Clark City, some were developed "for probably business and residential and other venues."

Verily, the Games was well recognized as an occasion to enhance the image of the Philippines by government officials, mainly through the extravagant investment in different facilities that cater to the participants and spectators of the event—even spurring profitable strategic business agendas within the locale. In this regard, it is worth reiterating Nye's (2004) conceptualization of soft power, specifically its element of "attraction" directed toward the "foreign public." Meanwhile, an alteration of "public opinion" is crucial in the practice of public diplomacy (Szondi, 2008). For the Philippines specifically, this could mean enticing the foreign public—participants, spectators, and perhaps even the international media—by providing and flaunting "world-class facilities" through the exposure of the Games, which carries the evident maximum potential of increasing tourism as well. In fact, according to Joey Roi Bondoc, Colliers International Philippines research manager, the Games does not only "gauge our preparedness for future events and determine if we have sufficient and world-class facilities," but this will eventually "help us improve our profile as a global MICE destinations and attract more tourists." He added that hosting the tournament will "help raise hotel occupancy and foreign tourist spending in major MICE destinations such as Metro Manila, Clark, Cebu and Iloilo." Under the nation's national tourism development strategy, MICE—meetings, incentives, conventions, and exhibitions concentrating on attracting more tourists— is one of the ten tourism products. Former Department of Tourism Secretary Bernadette Romulo-Puyat underlined that a location may become increasingly competitive through the tourism industry while simultaneously being more sustainable and inclusive (The Philippine Star, 2019). Although divulging this data further is beyond this study's goals, cases from other countries would prove otherwise.

Additionally, the PHISGOC chairman, former Senator Alan Cayetano—who was appointed by the President to oversee the overall management of the Games—also explicitly assented and gave an official acknowledgment of the aptitude of the Games to the government's strategy and process of "rebranding or a reintroduction of the Philippines" image. He added

that this implementation is geared explicitly towards altering the negative typecasts associated with the country by the international community, such as "poverty, gridlock, and corruption" (ASEAN Post, 2019). These statements insinuate that one of the Philippines' agendas in hosting the Games is to exude its soft power with its capabilities and, simultaneously, obtain cognizance of these capabilities to generate soft power—influencing public opinion, especially on the global stage.

On the other hand, the rejoinders of the other two Respondents deviated from the above-discussed potential of staging the Games by underscoring and tapping on the gains of "exposure" of Filipino athletes during the event. However, this slant of sports diplomacy is further discussed in the last section.

II.   Media Perceptions Offer a Different Perspective on the Games

The vast media coverage of the Games, including—local and international news sources alike—somehow offered an opposite trajectory of the image of the Philippines, contrary to the overall goal of exhibiting a favorable profile internationally. Hosting the SEA Games 2019 undeniably accumulated lousy publicity in the media due to various predicaments. On most news article reports, the circulating issues superseded any favorable experiences of athletes and spectators or buoyant aspects of the event. Firstly, the accommodation of the national and foreign participants of the Games. According to a report from The Guardian (2019)—a US-based news source—the chef de mission for Singapore lamented the lack of halal meals for his team's athletes and poor transportation. Respondent 1 indirectly insinuated these occurrences by declaring a "risk involved there [in hosting]." Furthermore, he added a more direct statement by pointing at the inconveniences that may be experienced by "foreign participants," such as "the facilities, the setup or even the food in the hotel."

Notably, in terms of the relevance of soft power in this regard, Nye (2004) and Lekakis (2019) suggested that it must also be maneuvered to the liking of the "foreign public," which supplants the state-centric approach to public diplomacy. On the other hand, the nuisances above-discussed were encountered by participants from other countries, which contradicts the goal and perhaps debases the purpose and effectiveness of the strategy of "rebranding" the Philippines—though this area demands further research. Respondent 2 also concurred with these episodes by stating that, in some instances, "I can categorically say it was a lost opportunity and we did not know. We actually don't understand what the games actually were, except for the nice venues and nice athletes' hostels." This rejoinder further implies that there is a need to plan and implement these sports-based strategies diligently. The case of Germany wherein it produced a "World Cup Hosting Strategy" to organize and coordinate efforts with the different sectors mobilizing their roles in the successful image building of the country (Grix & Houlihan, 2014). Additionally, Respondent 3, an elite athlete, shared his personal experience on this matter, highlighting the "mismanagement" as the prime issue.

Secondly, the rushed completion of some venues which led to a few disadvantages for sports athletes—both foreign and local. For instance, according to a report from The Guardian (2019), "Days before the games formally opened, construction workers were still rushing to finish the venues. The first football match between Myanmar and Malaysia – the football competition starts early–at the renovated Rizal Memorial Stadium proceeded without a scoreboard." Additionally, there were reportedly six venues that needed to be finished in time for the Games (ABS-CBN News, 2019). Respondent 3 had a personal encounter with the consequences of these delays "...everything was so rushed. Even the tennis courts. They finished the courts like two days before the tournament. So, we couldn't even benefit [from it].

[Like] Practicing at the courts, like weeks or months before because they haven't done it. It was supposed to be a home court advantage."

Interestingly, Respondent 1 has contended that this was "a very ambitious plan" pertaining to the total of 56 sports of which it was the highest edition "a record for the Southeast Asian Games." Meanwhile, Respondent 2 offered a different perspective concerning the infrastructure boost within New Clark City, where the athletics stadium with 20,000 seating capacity accentuated the "controversy behind the development," wherein she further stated that "they might have had displaced Aeta communities." According to a news article from Al Jazeera (2019), the first phase of this project including "aquatics center, stadium and an athletes' village" had reportedly displaced the Aetas Indigenous communities.

The prevalence of negative publicity during the Games caught the attention of some government officials, including the PHISGOC chairman. He expressed his concern in a media interview by stipulating, "The problem is, even in the media, fake news is being reported. Especially online, you have to report immediately, but [still] that does not take out the responsibility to check if what is being reported is factual or not." He further pointed out in the interview that inconveniences should have been reported directly to the PHISGOC rather than expressed via social media (ABS-CBN News, 2019). Meanwhile, this propounds implications that are relevant in the discussion of media perceptions of sporting events overall and its prospect of influencing state image. Also, the intensity of the media perception, particularly on the fiascos, is high.

Philippine Representation in International Sporting Events

I.   Elite Sporting Success of Filipino Athletes as a Soft Power Resource

The representation of athletes on the world stage is an equally important factor in sports soft power. In a press briefing on hosting the SEA Games 2019, former Senator Alan Cayetano stated, "It's our athletes that bring out the best in the Filipino eh. But whether they win or lose, people fall in love with Philippine athletes. What we want to showcase in 2019, is the Filipino, through our athletes." He reiterates that the representation of athletes of their country of origin is at the heart of sports. However, Abdi et al. (2019) argued that these athletes need to prove further that they can perform well abroad to effectively convey the values of their country and eventually improve its image. In this regard, the Respondents have concurred in concert with the implications of Philippine representation—that good performance abroad generates a favorable image of the country. Respondent 1 stipulated, "I think it helps a lot that we have competitive athletes and competitive teams going abroad because it enhances, it improves our image."

Meanwhile, Respondent 2 claimed something similar about Filipino sporting victories, underscoring its domestic impact, referring to it as "psychic income," which means to "feel good." She added an emphasis on this "feel-good factor" whenever "they are good" or, in other words, medalists. Respondent 3, on the other hand, pitched in the element of the exposure of athletes through "media coverage" on the realization of these sporting victories.

Victory is not everything in sports however. Another valuable resource in the conduct of image building in the new public diplomacy are the athletes themselves. Abdi et. al (2019), stated that athletes are the most essential resource of sports diplomacy for states—even more important than hosting or participating in sporting events. Athletes are essential pillars in the conduct of sports diplomacy. Their status as non-traditional diplomats is further solidified by way of their successes—representing their country of origin on the global stage. Additionally, athletes have varying degrees of influence—of which an exemplar of this is Manny Pacquiao.

In a press conference on the hosting of the SEA Games 2019, former Senator Cayetano concurred on this view that when Pacquiao had tournaments, "everyone stops, that's why we have zero crime rate." Although this may carry an exaggerated connotation of his boxing fights, the former Senator added a global paradigm for his influence by affirming "From the start, the Mexicans didn't like Pacquiao cause he was always beating them but now the Mexicans love him." In this regard, the potential to yield influence—especially one that is external—through the channel of sporting victories that is constant and thus legitimized.

The respondents, in this case, had various interpretations with regard to the influence of Filipino elite athletes. For instance, Respondent 1 expressed that the modern Filipino elite athletes "give us a very positive image." However, he added "it's a work in progress" while implying skepticality on the lack of capacity for these sorts of athletes to be non-traditional diplomats mainly due to their neophyte status despite being "caliber in sports." Respondent 2 also shared the same perception: "I am not sure how athletes can create that impact unless you're big like Manny Pacquiao." Meanwhile, Respondent 3 cited the people-to-people channel of public diplomacy grounded on his personal experiences as a tennis player and with the community of Filipino tennis players, in particular. "For me, everywhere I go, if there are Filipino tennis players, they would know me. And they would take me out to dinner, lunch. We get to represent and be ambassadors everywhere around the world." In this case, there are no insinuations on obtaining influence from sporting victories, in which the case remains circumscribed.

On the other hand, Respondents are uncertain on the capability of neophyte athletes particularly to create a profound cultural or political impact—unless they acquire as much popularity as Manny Pacquiao. More so, the profile of Pacquiao also remains his strongest appeal or, collectively referred to as—the "Pacquiao Effect."

It underlines the importance of having enough influence in order to become attractive towards the foreign public and or governments. It requires the performative aspect to be recognized by the target audience—otherwise, it will not be taken seriously (Lekakis, 2019). Although the country has several successful elite athletes—Hidilyn Diaz, EJ Obiena, Margielyn Didal, etc—the data above propounds that modern-day athletes lack the influence required to attract foreign publics, and their abilities as non-traditional sports diplomats are underappreciated—compared to Pacquiao. Consequently, Philippine sports necessitates further development—including investment in elite sporting success—as a prerequisite to transforming this into an effective public diplomacy strategy.

Philippine Sports As a Tool for Inter-state Cooperation

An illustrative case of sports-based diplomacy aimed at advancing collaborative endeavors through external alliances to ensure peace and security was brought into play in the Philippines. The term "fellowship golf" in 2019 referred to a gathering of the officials from the Department of National Defense (DND) and Armed Forces of the Philippines (AFP), ambassadors, charge d'affaires, and members of the Foreign Armed Forces Attaché (FAFA)—from Australia, Brunei, Canada, Germany, Indonesia, Japan, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, Singapore, South Korea, Thailand, the United States, and Vietnam. The encounter was directed towards efforts for peace and security through strengthening interstate cooperation among stakeholders. The Philippines had made a solicitation to the international diplomatic community for sustenance in "addressing the foreign activities of communist terrorist groups (CTGs) through International Solidarity Works (ISW)" (Philippine News Agency, 2019). In view of this, former Defense Secretary Delfin Lorenzana has affirmed the importance of "playing sports" as it enables the state officials "to know people with similar interests, making

friends and expanding our networks outside the confines of our respective workplaces [which is a] wonderful way of spreading goodwill, promoting trust and building confidence, which is imperative in order to carry out our duty of ensuring the peace, security, and stability." Unequivocally, this occurrence has demonstrated that sports can be employed as a means to obtain and even bolster linkages with states that advance common interests.

Seemingly, the Philippine Consulate General in New York City has orchestrated sports as an instrument of its efforts to engage with the Filipino-American community in the US Northeast Region through a basketball tournament. "Both teams played their hearts out during the course of the competition and managed to win one game apiece and, more importantly, gained the respect and friendship of the teams they played against" (Department of Foreign Affairs, 2018). This occurrence signifies that sports can serve as a platform, particularly for cultural education—through social exchanges of individuals from different cultural backgrounds. Remarkably, Murray (2020) argued that sport is "a powerful diplomatic tool" that can be instrumentalized to "reduce estrangement, conflict, and poverty and promote greater development and dialogue"—which, in the modern political realities, is commended by governments.

Meanwhile, despite the fact that there are already praxes of sports being utilized as an instrument to forge security agreements and advance cultural exchanges in particular, Respondent 1 saw the state-to-state channel to be ambiguous, saying that "it is not apparent today." He added that "there are opportunities there" while insinuating the prospect of inter-agency coordination, "something that, I believe, Philippines Sports Commission and DFA might meet and see. How they can help each other in that regard."

Respondent 2, on the other hand, asserted that inter-state cooperation through sports is plausible citing an illustration that fellow ASEAN neighbors can co-host an SME or through a private-public relationship, stating that whenever the country hosts the Olympics, it can "gather our South East Asian neighbors" and "encourage multiple countries [to co-host]." Moreover, she added that cooperation can be realized given that "it's such a huge financial burden [if there's one host country]," paving the way for state-centric and people-to-people channels of diplomacy—producing mutually beneficial relationships and outcomes.

In sum, the data above implies that even though demonstrations of sports are being utilized as a diplomatic tool to advance cooperation in the Philippines, more is needed so that we can fully manifest that cooperation is plausible through sports alone. Sports as an instrument for international relations still has to be developed and needs further collaboration and discussion for both the Department of Foreign Affairs and the Philippines Sports Commission, including athletes as non-traditional ambassadors.

Discussion

Hosting Sports Leagues and the Media: An Image Building of the State

More often than not, sporting events have afforded host states an opportunity to spawn and even amplify their soft power and further their agendas by amalgamating the political instrumentation of sports into their prime business politics, making it lucrative—by both tangible and intangible means. Most of the data presented above coincides with the hypotheses of this paper. It implies that one of the potentials of sports soft power is to contribute to the overarching intention of governments in advancing sports events—with cognizance of its favorable repercussions to the image of a state by affecting the opinion of the foreign public, at least. It has been comprehensively uncovered and, most significantly, confirmed above—that sporting events can be instrumentalized to exhibit the alluring aspects

of a country, such as—in the Philippine context—the infrastructural advancements, particularly of the Duterte administration, providing top-level facilities, increasing tourism—eventually spur the economy specifically within locale venues and to improve the image overall. As with the case of Germany in its 2006 World Cup, the German Tourist Board recorded the most significant increase in visitors from the UK—where the negative perception of the foreign public is ingrained as linked to the hostility of the Second World War (Grix & Houlihan, 2013). The SEA Games 2019, for instance, are integrated into the entire plan to seize the momentum of showcasing these Philippine attractions to the world.

The relevance of soft power has increased in the theory of international relations for one reason—the democratization of information, making it conveniently accessible and available across the globe with the aid of the IT revolution (Özsarı, 2018; Martino, 2020). In the new public diplomacy, Szondi (2008) and Abdi et al. (2019) both conceptualized the media as forming part of the "public opinion" from foreign countries that, in this case, imprints a profound impact on the image of the host country—depending on the narrative that the media portrays it to be. Most sports diplomacy scholars would affirm that media perceptions—apart from the potential of obtaining influence from their audiences—are also essential to the image-building of the state. As with the case of the 2012 London Olympics, Grix et al. (2015) observed that media perceptions mainly were affirmative of the staging of the event. This implies that media exposure can affect the process of enhancing one's prestige as it may serve a contrasting narrative to the host country—overlapping the captivating ones. In this regard, obtaining awareness of the exposure of hosting tournaments does not necessarily guarantee the generation of soft power, considering the lack of cognizance of their potential to influence, particularly those reputable and credible media outlets.

To some, if not all, staging sports events can also pose a burden to the host states. Based on the cases presented in the literature review, one of those dominating causes includes—the responsibilities embedded after a state has won the bidding—as with the case of Brazil and its double hosting of SMEs—overwhelming demands from both FIFA and the Olympic Committee and its domestic politics. Although a state should be fully aware of its hosting chores, the actualization of these with the realities on the ground might be divergent, given one's capabilities. As in other states, it is a prerequisite that the government has the full panoply of resources to invest extensively in hosting sports tournaments, though this may vary according to the criteria and demands of the league's board members. On top of that, host states must also show commitment to these responsibilities, as it does not solely leave an impression on the public in terms of being accountable but more so an opportunity for governments to generate positive experiences that can be lucrative to them in several ways—political, social, or economic benefits. Additionally, Brannagan and Guilianotti (2014) contended that host states must exude "professionalism and responsibility" for the entirety of the event, which could also mean dealing with any fiascos accordingly—apart from the hosting chores per se.

The insight from Brannagan and Guilianotti (2014) in the case of Qatar and the 2022 World Cup is worthy of reiteration—that adverse experiences in staging sports leagues may result in "soft disempowerment." Although this is not entirely the case, it further advances the argument of Freeman (2012) that hosting a sports tournament also engages media attention—even after the actual event. Furthermore, it exposes the audience to the host country's geography, demographics, history, and culture (Freeman, 2012). Therefore, it can be assumed that the media has glaring repercussions on the exposure the host state attains and is continuously associated with, amongst all other things linked to the event. Hence, the deliverer of information about the activities of the government to the public (Özsarı, 2018).

Oxford Business Group (2019) also concurred with the potential of media coverage in image-building, as—in the SEA Games 2019—it "provide[s] the country with an international platform to portray its strength as an attractive tourism destination and capable tournament host."

Sporting Victories and Representation through Athletes

The Philippines' successes were far and wide, particularly during the recent sports leagues. These sporting victories are essential in building the reputation of the country and its athletes, especially in global sports. In the SEA Games 2019, the country have become the overall champions for the first time since reigning supreme as host in 2005—signifying that Philippine athletes' performances have undeniably improved over the years. Another milestone to consider for Filipino athletes in terms of performance is the Tokyo Olympics in 2021. The Tokyo Olympics—a significant event in Philippine history—were the first time the country gained four medals from different sports, especially its pioneering gold medal.

Recently, the influence of Filipino athletes has been felt, most especially through Hidilyn Diaz—her victory in the Tokyo Olympics 2021 is mainly a major flashpoint since she is the pioneering Olympic gold medalist in Philippine history. Throughout the anticipated major events, Filipino elite athletes have been making history with their sporting victories, which undeniably shows that the Philippines can adopt this kind of sports-related strategy.

The data shows that Filipino athletes are globally competitive—hence the augmentation of their overall performance over the past few years. The achievement of elite sporting success in recent tournaments indicates that Filipino athletes are expected to become serious global competitors, given their profile. However—for elite athletes, in particular—to become effective agents of state soft power, they must perform at the highest levels, receive support from their home state, and be cognizant of global sports affairs (DeLay, 1999; Black, 2010). The successes and professionalism of Filipino athletes in sporting events and their status as non-traditional diplomats—according to the ideals of new public diplomacy—generate soft power per se and are a subject of exposure in the international arena. Apart from its potential to attract the foreign public, it can also be a source of motivation for the local sports population.

It is worth noting that sports diplomacy is within the bounds of soft power—influence plays a vital role in generating a favorable profile for the country (Abdi et al., 2019). In this regard, the cardinal purpose of influence is to show the country's culture and political values through sports athletes (Özsarı, 2018; Abdi et al., 2019). This induces sports as an obvious choice for the propagation of soft power as it mainly centers on international exposure as well as influence through cultural and peaceful values (Nye, 2004; Trunkos & Heere, 2017; Abdi et al., 2019).

Ultimately, respondents had mixed responses regarding the implications and importance of Philippine representation on the world stage. The respondents expressed uncertainty regarding the ability of contemporary athletes to exert significant cultural or political influence unless they are comparable to Pacquiao. His reputation continues to be the most potent asset, consistently referenced by the respondents as the source of the "Pacquiao Effect." Likewise, in discussions about global influence or the impact of Filipino athletes, all respondents invariably brought up Manny Pacquiao. This underscores the imperative of establishing influence within a modern framework of public diplomacy (Trunkos & Heere, 2017).

This underscores the significance of attaining a sufficient level of influence to appeal to foreign audiences and governments. Achieving this requires that the target audience

acknowledge the performative aspect; otherwise, it may not be taken seriously or will fail to yield soft power (Lekakis, 2019). Despite several influential athletes in the country, such as Hidilyn Diaz, EJ Obiena, Margielyn Didal, and others, the respondents have concluded that current athletes still need to possess the requisite influence to attract the foreign public. Their potential as non-traditional sports diplomats remains less apparent when compared to Pacquiao himself. It is evident that Philippine sports still require further development in terms of athlete performance and their ability to contribute to an effective sports-based diplomacy strategy.

Advancing Inter-state Cooperation through Sports

In probing the praxes of the Philippines in cultivating and forging cooperation with other governments through its sports-based initiatives, there are two implications vis-à-vis its potential. There is the promotion of security alliances with several countries through golf and moments of cultural exchange in a basketball tournament. It is worth noting that the diplomatic channels for these events are state-centric. In other words, the approach is traditional diplomacy, inclusive of state actors (Lee & Ayhan, 2015).

There are multiple manifestations of the results of sports as a tool for interstate cooperation. South Korea, for instance, hosted the PyeongChang Winter Games 2018 as part of the promotion of peace on the Korean peninsula (Grix et al., 2021). The PyeongChang Olympics is of cardinal value, geared toward the opening of diplomatic channels with North Korea—bringing the latter "back to the negotiating table" together with the US, which was perceived as one of the ways that sports can afford (Grix et al., 2021). As a result of the constant interaction, the communication channels of both Koreas were restored, which led to a series of inter-Korean summits, even including those with the US.

Meanwhile, contrary to the state-level cognizance of sports diplomacy, the respondents have banked on the critical assumptions of the new public diplomacy with regard to the capability of sports for cooperation among states. It is perceived to be possible through inter-agency cooperation—the DFA and the sports ministry—or through public-private partnerships. Overall, these suggest that sports, through the framework of new public diplomacy, can be anticipated in the future, as the actors mainly involved in the implementation are from the state. Given this, Szondi (2008) asserts that modern-day diplomacy challenges the status of the government as the exclusive "official face" with the growing population of non-state actors; however, its role can still be as imperative as initiating communication channels with other governments, thereby providing expediency to non-state actors in this case as well as sponsorship.

A state-centered approach is a good starting point for the instrumentalization of sports to promote cooperation. In the case of Cuba, the government supported sports for development. They optimized their professional coaches to aid Venezuela in their concerns about a lack of social development by devising sports-based programs. The Venezuelan President commended the sports professionals by linking their undertakings with improved health outcomes in the country (Huish et al., 2013). On the other hand, the Cuban government has established a profit-maximizing entity called Cubadeportes to commodify Cuba's sports and develop economic relationships with other states and sporting bodies. The organization exports skilled sports professionals to countries including Japan, Australia, India, South Africa, and Italy and contracts with sporting goods firms to cover national teams' costs. Cubadeportes operates self-sufficiently through labor exports and joint venture sponsorships.

Conclusion

We came up with three significant sports diplomacy resources in our study: hosting sporting events, athlete representation through elite sporting success, and sports for inter-state relations. Firstly, the experience in the management of the SEA Games 2019 is an opportune event that the Philippines can actually exploit to improve its stature—in fact, with its explicit and galvanized intention to build an image through the merits of soft power. Unequivocally, the government may have acknowledged and well perceived the influence it can harbor—including debunking the stereotypical identity of the country from abroad—but the matter in question hereon is ensuring its actualization and, more broadly, that the influence through soft power has been generated and concretized by public diplomacy outcomes. Exploiting the sporting event as an initiative to brand a favorable image of the country implies that the element of state interest in implementing sports-related strategies—those that are beneficial to the country—is crystal clear. In terms of attracting the foreign public, however—based on the SEA Games 2019 management fiascos—a methodical process and an orderly execution of the strategies are prerequisites to further the likelihood of achieving the intended outcomes as well as to lessen any prospect of soft disempowerment, primarily through the influence of global media.

Secondly, modern Filipino athletes have undoubtedly exhibited their sporting prowess and success through their recent representation in sporting competitions. This means they can be considered serious competitors recognized by participants from other countries. Sporting victories, in particular, have the potential to contribute to the amelioration of the image of the country—a profile of globally competitive athletes. The capability of a Filipino elite athlete with regards to being a public diplomat—to embody and execute such a state-driven responsibility—is presently bleak, engendered by their lack of essential qualities as identified by most scholars—such as significant knowledge in international affairs. On top of that, current Filipino elite athletes also do not possess a sort of solidified influence to conduct sports diplomacy effectively unless they obtain an equal level of influence as Manny Pacquiao.

Thirdly, the sports-related diplomatic approach is close to realization. The Philippines was able to conduct international cooperation both in the field of security—a hard power-related agenda—and in the field of cultural exchange and education for community integration—focusing more on the soft power outcomes. The stringent fact of the variations of these praxes traces back to traditional public diplomacy, wherein state officials are the main actors on the platform, and the new public diplomacy, the people-centered approach. It should be reiterated that one of the theoretical grounds of this paper is the assumption of the new public diplomacy—increased concentration on people-to-people interaction or state-to-people. The discourse on peace and security, in particular, is and should be a profound concern of the government to protect the welfare of its people, given that they obtain the fundamental means to further this cause.

Moreover, the question of whether sports can be used as a tool for diplomacy in the Philippine setting is less of a priority to the Philippine government. However, further study can be advanced in this area. Philippine sports may start making a meaningful contribution as a practical approach to public diplomacy; however, it demands tedious efforts for its development at the grassroots level. Moreover, the Philippines obtains its sports diplomacy resources to assist them in their pursuit of soft power influence—it must take the necessary considerations and rectify its flawed credentials in these fundamental aspects.

What's Next

Future studies may look into the so-called "*Pacquiao Effect*" and explore its impact or influence on a cultural and political level—interrogating the soft power of GOAT (Greatest of All Time) Filipino athletes at the domestic and international levels. Furthermore, it may also address the gaps in Philippine sports governance as a soft power resource for public diplomacy. Meanwhile, the objectives of this paper factored out examining the benefits gained from sports-related strategies to assess and produce an analysis of their effectiveness in generating intended diplomatic outcomes.

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The Sportsman Ship Orientation of Generation Z

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Abstract

In the research, it is purposed to analyze the sportsmanship orientation of the Z generation individuals born between 2000-2004 in terms of some variables. This research is a study that aims to examine some demographic characteristics (gender, age, sports club membership, regular exercise) and sportsmanship orientation of the Z generation individuals born between 2000-2004. The sample of the study consists of 233 Z generation individuals, 115 female and 118 men. As it is a means of collected information in the research; Developed by Vallerand, Briere, Blanchart and Provencher (1997), the original Development and Validation of the Multidimensional Sportspersonship Orientations Scale (MSOS) and the Turkish adaptation of Gülfem Sezen Balçıkanlı (2010) was applied. The obtained data were examined by using the SPSS 22 package program. Percentage, frequency and mean values were used in the descriptive analyzes of the demographic characteristics of the participants in our study. "T-Test" was used for samples in the analysis of paired groups, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests were used in the comparative analysis of three or more groups, and Post-Hoc tests were used to determine which groups the differences originated from. As a result of the tests, it was seen that the sportsmanship orientation of the Z generation individuals born between the years 2000-2004 was at the "Medium" (79,36) level. In the base dimensions of "conforming to social norms, obedience to rules and management and showing respect for the other competitors", "Medium" sportsmanship orientations of the Z generation individuals were observed, and "High" level of sportsmanship orientation was observed in the "responsibility in sports" sub-dimension.

Keywords: Generation Z, Sportsmanship Orientation, Sportsmanship

Introduction

The sports world has also taken its share from the developments and innovations in many fields in today's world. Sport, which was emerged with an amateur structure, has started to find many opportunities to take steps towards professionalization. In addition to providing individuals with healthy living habits, sports sometimes appear as an activity that includes immoral and unsportsmanlike behaviors due to the level of struggle it contains. Such negative behaviors that we encounter are shown as ordinary actions.

From the past to the present, sports events have attracted great interest by the communities and have maintained their popularity in every period. As a result of the pressure of the spectators, media and managers in the sports environments of the athletes and coaches, who have important roles in the performance of sports, immoral competition environments are formed. This kind of immoral behavior that occurs in the competition areas where these competitive environments are present or that is done consciously affects all the elements in the sport negatively (Kavussanu, 2019). Sport; It is a social environment that requires communication, interaction and relationship between the individuals involved. In this environment, we can see positive and negative behaviors in moral terms. In addition to positive behaviors such as helping the downed opponent to uphold, encouraging the teammate who made a mistake, congratulating the opponent regardless of the result, there are also negative behaviors such as deliberately injuring the opponent, using bad words, provoking the opponent or the stands (Kavussanu, 2008).

While the concept of sportsmanship initially appeared as the respect shown by the individual to the person in front of us, today it is accepted as a principle that allows the game to be played honestly in all sports branches and at every stage (Pehlivan, 2004). The concept of sportsmanship; It includes features such as being calm, self-controlling, sincere, not being condescending towards the opponent, being patient, having self-confidence, being respectful to the truths and thoughts of other individuals. When we look at the concept of sportsmanship in general, we can see it as showing attitudes and behaviors in accordance with sports ethics. As a result of attitudes and behaviors focused only on winning, sportsmanship may lose its effect on individuals (Günesen, 2022).

Sportsmanship; It can be expressed as a combination of moral and ethical rules, the philosophy of sports and the rules of the game (Koç, 2017). With another definition, sportsmanship can also be defined as behaviors that are compatible with the soul of sports (Stornes & Bru, 2002). In general, the concept of fairplay as mentioned above is interrelated to normative standards based on the socio-moral relation in sports. That fairplay is the whole of virtuous behaviors that reveal behaviors that are not contrary to the spirit of sports (Balçıkanlı & Yıldıran, 2011). Showing virtuous behavior against immoral situations frequently encountered in competitions, sportsmanship manifests itself with the concept of "fair-play" around the world. When it comes to sports as the international common denominator, "fair-play" has been accepted as the equivalent of sportsmanship and gentlemanly concepts (Varlık, 2021). Sportsmanship; It has been in the field of experts for many years. Although it was considered as a sociological concept in the past, in today's sports, the movements that lead the athletes to sportsmanship or move away from sportsmanship are the subject of examination (Abad, 2010).

An individual with a sportsmanlike personality has traits such as good morals, self-respect and patriotism, which is both physically strong and has the highest level of courage. A sportsman must have the highest physical ability. It is one of the characteristics that sportsmen should have, not accepting an undeserved victory against their opponent, fighting

against it and losing if necessary (Konter, 2006). An individual with a sense of sportsmanship avoids actions that will belittle his opponent as a result of his victory, experiences his joy in moderation as a result of the victory he has won, and knows that he should congratulate his opponent whether he wins or loses (Voigt, 1998). Ethics and sportsmanship trainings are given to individuals starting from a young age, within the family, at all levels of education and in the sports clubs they attend, and the probability of these individuals to behave in accordance with sportsmanship in sports competitions increases. (Günesen, 2022).

There are three different theoretical approaches regarding how the concept of sportsmanship should be understood. The first of these approaches is sociocognitive theory. In this theory, there is modeling and reinforcement that determines which behavior is appropriate and which is not appropriate for athletes in competitive situations. In the second approach, concepts in structural development models and especially moral logic are mentioned. It shows the possible effects on aggression by suggesting similar orientations that establish the relationship of an individual's ability to agree with the concept of sportsmanship through the moral dialog channel. The last of these theories is the sociopsychological theory. The concept of sportsmanship also has a dimension that takes the sociopsychological approach as an example. The concept of sportsmanship in sociopsychological approach; It appears under three main headings as sportsmanship orientation, development of sportsmanship orientation and attitudes towards sportsmanship (Chantal & Bernache-Assolant 2003). Vallerand and Losier (1994) explain sociopsychological theory as the possible relationship between individuals' sportsmanship behaviors and personal decisions.

It is seen that scientific studies on generational differences are made on the classification of 4 different generations. Classification of these generations:

- ✓ Baby Boomer Generation (humans of 1946 to 1964)
- ✓ Generation X (humans of 1965 to 1980)
- ✓ Generation Y (humans of 1980 to 2000)

They appear as the Z generation (individuals born in and after the year 2000) (Twenge, Campell, Hoffman & Lance, 2010).

This study is a research on Z generation individuals. The basic goal of the study is to analyze the level of sportsmanship orientation levels of the Z generation.

Material and Method

This study is a cross-sectional survey type descriptive research in which quantitative research techniques are applied. Descriptive research is generally done to illuminate a given situation, to reveal possible relationships between events, and to evaluate them within the framework of standards. descriptive research; They are studies that allow a situation to be explained as carefully and completely as possible. Scanning model; participants' views on an event or subject, or their skills, attitudes, interests, abilities, etc. These are studies conducted with large sample groups in which the characteristics of the students are determined (Büyüköztürk, Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz & Demirel, 2014).

Working group

The population of the research consists of individuals born in and after 2000 and over the age of 18. A total of 233 individuals, 115 female (x¯ = 19.89) and 118 (x¯ = 20.22) men, selected by criterion sampling method from this universe, were included in the study.

Data Collection Form

In the research, demographic information form developed by the analyst and the Multidimensional Sportsmanship Orientation Scale (MDBS) were put to use as info collection forms. The MLSS was developed by Vallerand et al. (1997). The Turkish validity and reliability study was conducted by Sezen Balçıkanlı (2010), and the MDSS is a 5-point Likert-type scale conmprised of 20 units and 4 sub-dimensions. The internal consistency coefficient values of the MLSYÖ for this study; Conforming to Social Norms 0.87; Obedience to Rules and Management 0.81; Commitment to Responsibilities in Sports 0.88; Showing Respect for the other Competitors is 0.79.

Data Collection

The data of the study were gathered in Diyarbakir city center in 2022. Before applying the data collection forms to the volunteers over the age of 18 who participated in our study, it was reported that the application was related to sportsmanship orientation, names were not requested in the forms, and the answers given would only be evaluated within the framework of the scientific study. By stating the importance of the answers to the questions asked, the participants were encouraged to take part in the research voluntarily. The form was completed in an average of 8 minutes.

Analysis of Data

The analysis of the data was made in the SPSS 22.0 package program. The error level of the data was taken as 0.05. The normality distribution of the data was determined as a result of the skewness and kurtosis tests (Büyüköztürk, 2012). Additionally, descriptive statistics, independent sample t-test and one-track analysis of variance were put to use to analyze the data. In addition, Cronbach Alpha value was calculated to determine the reliability of the scale. Result of the analysis of the Multidimensional Sportsmanship Orientation Scale, the internal reliability coefficient (Cronbach Alpha) value was found to be 0.95 and the internal reliability coefficient values in the sub-dimensions of the scale; It was calculated as 0.92 in the sub-dimension of compliance with social norms, 0.86 in the sub-dimension of obedience to rules and management, 0.88 in the sub-dimension of commitment to responsibilities in sports, and 0.88 in the sub-dimension of showing respect for the other competitors.

Findings

Z generation individuals who were born between 2000-2004; The results obtained in the research, which purposed to define the sportsmanship orientation ranges of gender, age, regular exercise status and club membership status, by means of the Multidimensional Sportsmanship Orientation Scale, are as follows.

The statistics of the demographic information of the volunteer participants participating in the research, which purposes to measure the sportsmanship orientation stages of the Z generation, are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Demographic Information of Generation Z Individuals Taking part in the Study

Variable	Groups	n	%
Gender	**Female**	115	49.4
	Male	118	50.6
	Total	233	100
Age	**18**	53	22.7
	19	43	18.5
	20	40	17.2
	21	52	22.3
	22	45	19.3
	Total	233	100
Regular Exercise Status	**Yes**	121	51.9
	No	112	48.1
	Total	233	100
Club Membership	**Yes**	87	37.3
	No	146	62.7
	Total	233	100

The results of the answers given by the Z generation individuals to the multidimensional sportsmanship orientation scale, which has sub-dimensions of conforming to social norms, obedience to rules and management, commitment to responsibilities in sports, and showing respect for other competitors, for the gender variable, are shown as in Table 2.

Table 2: T-Test Results of the Multidimensional Sportsmanship Orientation Scale of Generation Z Individuals by Gender Variable

Scale and Sub-Dimensions	Gender	n	x	ss	t	df	P
Compliance with Social Norms	Female	115	19.77	5,165	1,688	231	0.710
	Male	118	18.64	5,051			
Respect for Rules and Management	Female	115	20.16	4,084	2,053	231	0.999
	Male	118	19.06	4,075			
Commitment to Responsibilities in Sport	Female	115	21.50	4,208	-0.074	231	0.945
	Male	118	21.53	3,634			
Respect for the Opponent	Female	115	19.84	4,719	2,414	231	0.025*
	Male	118	18.27	5,205			
Multidimensional Scale of Sportsmanship Orientation (Total)	Female	115	81.26	15,108	1,879	231	0.305
	Male	118	77.50	15,434			

*p<0.05

As a result of the statistical analyzes (t-test for two different samples) in Table 2; The gender variable of generation Z individuals born between 2000-2004 was determined by compliance with social norms ($p = 0.71 > 0.05$), obedience to rules and management ($p = 0.999 > 0.05$) and commitment to responsibilities in sports ($p = 0.945 > 0.05$) sub-dimensions did not differ significantly. It was observed there had been an important divergence on behalf of female in the sub-dimension of respect for the opponent ($p = 0.025 < 0.05$) of the gender variable. However, when we look at the total of the scale ($p = 0.305 > 0.05$), it cannot be seen an important difference between two genders.

The answers of the Z generation individuals to the multidimensional sportsmanship orientation scale, which has sub-dimensions of compliance with social norms, obedience to rules and management, commitment to responsibilities in sports, and showing respect for the other competitors, show a significant difference in terms of the variable of regular exercise status. is also located.

Table 3: Multidimensional Sportsmanship Orientation Scale T-Test Results According to the Regular Exercise Status of Generation Z Individuals

Scale and Sub-Dimensions	Regular Exercise	n	x	ss	t	df	P
Conforming to Social Norms	Yes	121	18.81	5,229	-1,187	231	0.747
	No	112	19.61	5,007			
Obedience to Rules and Management	Yes	121	19.35	4,016	-0.980	231	0.789
	No	112	19.88	4,205			
Commitment to Responsibilities in Sport	Yes	121	21.77	3,480	1,027	231	0.036*
	No	112	21.24	4,344			
Respect for the Opponent	Yes	121	18.85	4,813	-0.618	231	0.524
	No	112	19.26	5,253			
Multidimensional Scale of Sportsmanship Orientation (Total)	Yes	121	78.78	14,822	-0.598	231	0.867
	No	112	79.98	15,959			

*p<0.05

For the statistical analyzes (t-test for two different samples); The regular exercise status of the Z generation individuals born between 2000-2004 was found in the sub-dimension of conforming to social norms (p = 0.747 > 0.05), obedience to rules and management (p = 0.789 > 0.05) and respect for the opponent (p = 0.524 > 0, 05), there was no clear difference in sub-dimensions. No important divergence was seen on behalf of those who regularly exercise in the sub-dimension of regular exercise status in commitment to responsibilities in sports (p = 0.036 < 0.05). However, when we look at the total of the scale (p = 0.867 > 0.05), no clear difference was seen according to regular exercise status.

The results of the t-test conducted to determine whether the answers of the Z generation individuals to the multidimensional sportsmanship orientation scale, which has sub-dimensions of conforming to social norms, obedience to rules and management, commitment to responsibilities in sports, and showing respect for the other competitors, show a significant difference in terms of club membership status variable, are given in Table 4. shown.

Table 4: T-Test Results of the Multidimensional Sportsmanship Orientation Scale by the Variable of Club Membership Status of Generation Z Members

Scale and Sub-Dimensions	Club Membership	n	x	ss	t	df	P
Compliance with Social Norms	Yes	87	18.47	5,378	-1,665	231	0.191
	No	146	19.62	4,941			

Respect for Rules and Management	Yes	87	19.20	3,824	-1,164	231	0.479
	No	146	19.84	4,262			
Commitment to Responsibilities in Sport	Yes	87	21.71	3,399	0.593	231	0.113
	No	146	21.40	4,206			
Respect for the Opponent	Yes	87	18.41	4,931	-1,490	231	0.450
	No	146	19.42	5,055			
Multidimensional Scale of Sportsmanship Orientation (Total)	Yes	87	77.79	14,975	-0.598	231	0.567
	No	146	80.29	15,557			

As a result of the t-test; The club membership status of the Z generation individuals born between 2000-2004, conforming to social norms ($p = 0.191 > 0.05$), obedience to rules and management ($p = 0.479 > 0.05$), commitment to responsibilities in sports ($p = 0.113 > 0.05$) and showing respect for the opponent sub-dimension ($p = 0.450 > 0.05$), no clear difference had been seen in the sub-dimensions. When we look at the total of the scale ($p = 0.450 > 0.05$), no clear difference had been seen according to club membership status.

In Table 5, it is seen the outcomes of the One-Way Analysis of Variance (One-Way ANOVA) test, which was carried out to define whether the responses of the Z generation individuals to the multidimensional sportsmanship orientation scale differ significantly in regard to to the age variable.

Table 5: ANOVA Test Results of Multidimensional Sportsmanship Orientation Scale by Age Variable of Generation Z Individuals

Scale	Age	n	x	ss	F	P	Post Hoc
Multidimensional Scale of Sportsmanship Orientation (Total)	18 (1)	53	85.15	14,156	4,190	**0.003***	1-4
	19 (2)	43	79.26	12,128			
	20 (3)	40	79.53	13,788			
	21 (4)	52	73.21	17,993			
	22 (5)	45	79.58	15,409			

*$p<0.05$

According to the statistical analyzes (Anova test); An important difference was seen in the responses of generation Z individuals born between 2000-2004 to the multidimensional sportsmanship orientation scale in regard to the age variable. For the test results, an important difference was observed between the ages of 18 and 21, in favor of individuals aged 18 years.

Discussion and Conclusion

Evaluating the generations universally and focusing especially on the younger generation necessitates the examination of the sportsmanship behaviors of the Z generation. The Z generation, which is the subject of discussion in terms of social life, which is digitalized as a result of technological developments, both in terms of clothing and artistic perspectives, is the most discussed generation today. It is a necessity to look in detail at the definitions and revealing the lifelines for the generations that are shaped according to the norms of the culture in which they were born (Yelkikalan, Akatay, Yıldırım, Karadeniz, Can, Koncagül & Eray, 2010). These days, it is very vital to define and shape the Z generation and to determine its cultural place in society (Kırık & Köyüstü, 2018).

When we look at the statistical analysis, statistically, it cannot be seen a difference in regard to the gender, regular exercise status and club membership variables of the Z generation, but a divergence could be seen in terms of the age variable. In terms of gender variable, female have more average than men. A statistically clear divergence was also seen in the sub-dimension of "Respect to the Competitor" in terms of the sub-dimensions of the sportsmanship orientation scale according to the gender variable of the participants. Also, the average of "Respect to the Rival" of female is higher than that of men. Contrary to our study, Gürpınar and Kurşun's (2013) study on 'basketball and football players' sportsmanship orientations found that the averages of males were higher than female participants. Gümüş (2019) found in their study that men are more prone to stiffness than female participants. In this context, the results of the research show parallelism with the literature.

In our study, there was not a clear difference in sportsmanship orientation according to the variable of regular exercise status. However, in the sub-dimension of commitment to responsibilities in sports of the multidimensional sportsmanship scale, a significant difference was observed between the participants who exercised regularly and those who did not exercise regularly. In parallel with our study, in the study of Gümüş (2019) on "the sportsmanship orientation of generation x", it was determined that the participants who exercised regularly had a higher average than those who did not exercise regularly. Çetinkaya and Ayhan (2019) also did the same observation with ours that shows no important divergence between students who exercise regularly and those who do not exercise regularly in their study on students' sportsmanship orientation.

For the result of statistical analysis, not a difference was observed according to the club membership status variable. Contrary to our study, Kahya (2020) found that the average of licensed athletes was higher in the sub-dimensions of "conforming to social norms and commitment to responsibilities in sports" in his study on licensed and unlicensed youth. In parallel with our study, Gümüş (2019) did not observe a statistically significant difference between participants who are members of sports clubs and those who are not members of sports clubs.

In our study, when the age variable was analyzed, there could be found a statistically important difference between the ages of 18 and 21 in the multidimensional sportsmanship orientation scale. In their research with secondary school students, Altun and Güvendi (2019) found that, in parallel with our study, the average of sportsmanship orientation of the participants whose classes increased statistically decreased. In the study of Türkmen and Varol (2015), it had been seen no statistically significant difference among the participants when the grade levels of the students were examined in parallel with our study. This result supports our study.

As a result; It can be said that the variables of gender, exercise status and club membership do not have an effect on the sportsmanship orientation levels of the Z generation individuals, but the age variable affects the level of sportsmanship orientation. According to the answers given by the Z generation individuals participating in our study on the scale, it can be said that the sportsmanship orientation levels are moderate. However, when we look at the sub-dimensions of the scale, it can be said that the Z generation has a high tendency towards commitment to responsibilities in sports.

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Reflective and critical thinking as determinants of academic achievement: A study in physical education and sport teacher candidates

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Abstract

This study examined the relationship between reflective thinking and academic achievement in physical education and sports teaching students. The research aimed to investigate to what extent the reflective and critical thinking tendencies of prospective physical education and sports teachers explain academic achievement. Based on John Dewey's vital and reflective thinking approaches, considered among thinking skills, an answer to this question was sought. A traditional and positivist paradigm was adopted as the research model, and a quantitative research approach was used. The study was designed with the relational method, and the relationship between critical and reflective thinking dispositions of physical education and sports teacher candidates and their academic achievement was analysed. The study group consisted of 200 participants studying in the first, second, third and fourth grades of the physical education and sports teaching program. The mean age of the participants was 22.20±2.98; 44.5% exercised regularly, and 49% were licensed athletes. Data collection tools included personal information forms, academic achievement grouping, the Critical Thinking Scale, and the Reflective Thinking Scale. The Critical Thinking Scale was adapted to Turkish using a two-dimensional model. The Reflective Thinking Scale has four sub-dimensions. The Confirmatory Factor Analysis indicated that some items were not suitable due to high error variances and cross-loading. After removing these items based on expert opinions, the remaining items in the reflection and critical reflection dimensions showed very good factor loadings. The reliability coefficients for the scale were satisfactory. Final year students scored higher in critical reflection and reflective thinking than third-grade students. No significant difference was found in critical openness, reflective skepticism, and critical thinking. Male physical education and sports teacher candidates scored higher in reflection, critical reflection, and reflective thinking tendency than their female counterparts. Consequently, the findings show that reflective thinking can potentially increase academic achievement in prospective physical education and sports teachers. These findings emphasize that developing thinking skills should be a priority in education programs.

Introduction

Thinking is the process of evaluating everything that comes to mind. People often think about things that are not directly perceived. The quality of thinking varies considerably from person to person. Good thinkers express their thoughts clearly and accurately. They know the steps for control and remember their purpose when focusing on questions. They are capable of meaningful and logical thinking, expanding their thoughts from various perspectives. They think independently of emotional and desire influences, objectively evaluate their emotions, and explore how their mind works (Paul & Elder, 2006). Creative thinking involves generating and assessing ideas (Kampylis & Berki, 2014). Modern creativity includes decision-making, critical thinking, and metacognition (Feldhusen & Goh, 1995). Analytical thinking breaks down thinking and examines its elements (Elder & Paul, 2007). Reflective thinking is actively and carefully evaluating beliefs (Dewey, 1933).

Critical thinking is a style that improves the quality of thinking by analysing, evaluating, and reconstructing an issue (Dewey, 1933; Paul & Elder, 2006). Critical thinking requires an active process to solve problems and make better decisions (Critical Thinking, 2008). According to Dewey, the best way to learn is for students to reflect on what they learn at school in real life. The reflective thinking process involves seeking solutions when faced with problems (Dewey, 1933; Shavit & Moshe, 2019). Developing critical thinking is tightly linked to reflective thinking habits (Kuhn, 1999). Thinking is a process that generally involves mental manipulation. It encompasses many activities, such as concept formation, problem-solving, creativity and cognitive functioning (Soliman, 2005). It is about recognising critical issues, asking and answering questions at the correct times, and applying essential questions to all situations. Critical thinking helps us guard against error by critically viewing existing beliefs. Strong critical thinking does not involve abandoning one's initial beliefs but rather strengthening them by examining them critically (Browne, 2010). Critical thinkers can deal not only with the tools of logic and science but also with various issues such as language, communication, morality, and politics. This way of thinking requires an inquiry into questions of truth and falsity, general matters of meaning and the imperatives of moral and political action (Foresman, 2016). Critical thinking skills include open-mindedness, making logical inferences, evaluating evidence, thinking independently, understanding alternative perspectives, and articulating critical thinking (Sternberg et al., 2007). This thinking requires an open-minded approach to what is read or thought to provide objective answers. Another important aspect of critical thinking involves various types of thinking. Critical thinkers show openness to new ideas, do not argue when information is lacking, recognise the lack of information, know the difference between truth and reality, and try to separate emotional thinking from logical thinking (Harnadek, 1998). This approach involves problem-solving and reasoning skills. Critical thinking, which includes observation, curiosity, scepticism, recognising problems, evaluating statements, and understanding logic, emphasises raising awareness (Starkey, 2010). Critical thinking requires a sustained effort to evaluate beliefs or knowledge in the light of supporting evidence and possible consequences. This process involves the ability to recognise problems, find applicable tools, gather and sort information, recognise values, understand the accuracy of language, interpret data, and evaluate evidence and arguments. Critical thinking is often associated with scepticism, but this does not mean being sceptical of everything, but rather a polite scepticism of what we hear and see. Critical thinking involves cognitive skills and strategies to solve problems and make logical decisions (Halpern, 2013). This process involves questioning one's thinking, countering prejudices, and making logical inferences. Critical thinking involves using reason to determine the truth of a claim, which is not about making true or false claims but about evaluating claims (Moore,

Parker, & Silversa, 2012). Critical thinking, unlike other forms of thinking, involves evaluating knowledge and thinking processes. Critical thinking approaches prejudiced assumptions and presents information with scepticism; it analyses ideas, evaluates them from various angles, and ultimately reaches specific ideas (Gürkaynak, Üstel, & Gülgöz, 2009).

Reflection is based on John Dewey's experiential learning approach and was introduced initially by Dewey in 1933. This approach aims to explain educational issues in depth and to find effective solutions to practical problems. Reflective thinking is a type of thinking that involves thinking deeply about a topic and seriously evaluating it in the mind (Dewey, 1933). In Dewey's view, reflective thinking will be achieved through flexible and logical thinking based on deep knowledge and experience, supported by personal qualities such as open-mindedness, sincerity, and responsibility. Reflective thinking enables teachers to guide their students' learning processes. In this context, reflective teachers guide students' access to information and create environments where students can freely express their ideas (Ersozlu & Kazu, 2011). Reflection is a mental activity that involves thinking about what is going on during and after the teaching process and correcting these thoughts (McCollum, 2002). It has also been suggested that reflective practice is a way of thinking that positively motivates students' self-confidence and personal development, as well as enriching the activities carried out in the classroom (Vitanova & Miller 2002). According to Kolb, reflection is the activity of rethinking the previous learning experience and making observations as part of a learning cycle (Kolb, 1984).

Critical thinking and reflective thinking are closely related but distinct cognitive processes. Critical thinking involves reasonable reflective thinking that focuses on deciding what to believe and do (Su & Shum, 2019). It is a meta-cognitive skill that requires individuals to interpret, apply, analyze, synthesize, and evaluate information to make informed decisions (Zhao & Liu, 2022). On the other hand, reflective thinking is a higher level of thinking that involves individuals becoming more aware of their perceptions, feelings, actions, and behaviors (Göğüş et al., 2020).   While critical thinking is essential for decision-making and problem-solving, reflective thinking plays a crucial role in self-awareness and understanding one's thought processes (Zhang et al., 2017). Critical reflection is considered a key mechanism in the process of critical thinking (Kim et al., 2018). It is argued that all degrees should promote reflective thinking as it is necessary for making reflective judgments when dealing with complex, ill-defined problems (Kember et al., 2008). Moreover, critical-thinking curricula that incorporate reflective exercises are more successful in engaging students in critical thinking (Cone et al., 2016).

Physical education and sports courses offer more than just physical activities; they serve as platforms for students to enhance their mental skills, problem-solving abilities, and readiness for real-life challenges. Teachers who possess advanced thinking skills, such as critical and reflective thinking, can cultivate environments that foster students' mental development (Tiwari et al., 2006). Moreover, implementing service-learning programs in physical education can provide valuable teaching and learning models for all involved parties, contributing to a holistic educational experience (Ordás et al., 2021). These lessons are environments where students use their mental skills, solve various issues and prepare for solving problems in daily life. Teachers with high-level thinking skills, such as critical and reflective thinking, can create learning environments that will develop students mentally. Therefore, determining the effect of reflective and critical thinking skills of physical education and sports teacher candidates on their academic achievement will contribute to physical education teacher training policies that will design learning environments and teaching methods according to their educational philosophy. This study examines the

relationship between the critical and reflective thinking skills of prospective physical education and sports teachers and their academic achievement.

The hypotheses of the study are as follows:

H_1 There is a relationship between critical thinking and academic achievement.

H_2 There is a relationship between reflective thinking and academic achievement.

H_3 There is a relationship between critical thinking and reflective thinking.

H_4 There is a difference between men and women regarding critical thinking.

H_5 There is a difference between men and women regarding reflective thinking.

H_6 There is a difference between exercisers and non-exercisers regarding critical thinking.

H_7 There is a difference between exercisers and non-exercisers regarding reflective thinking.

H_8 There is a difference between licensed and non-licensed athletes regarding critical thinking.

H_9 There is a difference between licensed and non-licensed athletes regarding reflective thinking.

Material and Method

Research Model

This research aims to determine how much the reflective and critical thinking tendencies of potential physical education and sports teachers explain academic success. The study is based on the thinking skills that John Dewey has identified in response to the question, "How should we think?" A literature review and theoretical framework were created, and data were collected from prospective physical education and sports teachers through self-report measures. The research approach used was quantitative, a traditional and positivist paradigm, and the research was designed with the relational method. The study analysed the relationship between the critical and reflective thinking tendencies of prospective physical education and sports teachers and their academic achievements.

Study Group

The study involved 200 participants from the Physical Education and Sports Teaching program who volunteered to participate. The participants were from the first (n=37, 18.5%), second (n=54, 27%), third (n=42, 21%), and fourth (n=67, 33.5%) grades. The average age of the participants was 22.20 ± 2.98, with a mean age of 22.98. Of the participants, 49% were females (n=98) and 51% were males (n=102). The GPA distribution was as follows: 10% between 0-2.00 (20 students), 18.5% between 2.01-2.50 (37 students), 28% between 2.51-3.00 (56 students), 42.5% between 3.01-3.50 (65 students), and 11% between 3.51-4.00 (22 students). Among the participants, 44.5% reported they exercised regularly (n=89), while 49% were licensed athletes (n=98).

Data Collection Tools

A Personal Information Form was used to gather the demographic and personal information of the participants. The researcher created the form, including age, gender, grade, GPA range, exercise, and sports participation status. The information collected will be kept confidential by the Personal Data Protection Law, ensuring the anonymity of the participants.

A system was created to evaluate participants' academic achievement by forming groups with equal divisions. Five groups were formed within each group based on GPA, with two digits taken after the decimal point (0.01, 0.02, 0.03). Various studies have calculated that GPA is a reliable measure of academic achievement (Steinmayr et al., 2014; Casillas et al., 2012; Casanova et al., 2023).

The Critical Thinking Disposition scale, developed by Sosu (2013), was adapted into Turkish by Akın et al. (2015). The scale has two dimensions - critical openness and reflective scepticism - and consists of 11 items. Scale item loadings are between 0.34 and 0.88. In the original study, two dimensions with an eigenvalue above one were removed due to the exploratory factor analysis of 467 participants. It was concluded that the two-factor model of the scale showed a good fit (x2 (53) = 116.55, TLI = 0.91, CFI = 0.94, RMSEA = 0.051, 90% CI 0.038-0.063, SRMR = 0.037). The alpha internal consistency coefficient of the whole scale is 0.79. The sum of all items yields a score between 11 and 55, representing the individual's overall predisposition score. Scores between 11 and 34 indicate low, 35-44 indicate medium, and 45-55 indicate high disposition. For the subscales, the total score of the Critical Openness scale ranges from 7 to 35 (7-21 low, 22-28 moderate, 29-35 high). Reflective Skepticism ranges from 4-20 (4-12 low, 13-16 moderate, and 17-20 high). In the confirmatory factor analysis, Akın et al. found that the two-dimensional model had a good fit (x²=53.24, df=40, RMSEA=0.040, NFI=0.90, NNFI=0.96, GFI=0.96, AGFI=0.93, CFI=0.97, IFI=0.97, SRMR=0.046). The scale's Cronbach Alphas were 0.78 for the whole scale, 0.75 for the reflective scepticism subscale, and 0.68 for the critical openness subscale. The item-total score correlation coefficients of the scale ranged between 0.25 and 0.57.

The Reflective Thinking Scale, developed by Kember et al. (2000), is a tool that will be employed to gauge the reflective thinking tendencies of the participants. The scale has four sub-dimensions, namely Habitual Actions, Understanding, Reflection, and Critical Reflection, consisting of 16 items. The sub-dimensions have alpha internal consistency coefficients of 0.62, 0.75, 0.83, and 0.67, respectively. Items are rated on a scale of 1-5, with the minimum score being 16 and the maximum score being 80. The four-factor model of the scale was found to fit well, with a good fit (x2= 179.3, df =100, CFI=0.903).

Data Collection Process

Once the translation process was finished, the data collection process began. The data was collected using a digital form created with Google Drive and a printed form. The online form was distributed to the physical education and sports teaching program advisors, while the responsible researcher collected the data in person. The data was gathered at the faculties of sports sciences.

Translation Process

Beaton et al. (2000) proposed specific steps for adapting a scale, which were followed in this study. Two independent translators were involved: one knowledgeable about the concept and subject (T1) and another uninformed about the concept (T2). The researcher combined the items from both translators to create a synthesis scale (T12), which was then translated back into the original language by two translators (CT1 and CT2). Finally, a committee of six experts evaluated the entire process of scale adaptation.

Statistical Analysis

The analysis of data was conducted using SPSS 25 and AMOS 24 computer programs. We determined whether the data met the assumption of normal distribution by examining the

kurtosis and skewness values. To explore the differences between the two variables, we used independent sample t-test analysis. We evaluated the relationships between variables using Pearson Correlation and Regression analyses. The construct validity of the adapted scale was tested with Confirmatory Factor Analysis, and we calculated content validity indices. Exploratory factor Analysis was applied since the scale's factor structure could not be confirmed with confirmatory factor analysis.

Content Validity

The item and scale level validity indices of the scale were calculated and evaluated by taking expert opinions (Lynn, 1986; Waltz & Bausell, 1981). The experts who evaluated the scale items scored 1-4. The indices were calculated using the universal agreement calculation method based on the scores.

Construct Validity

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) model was created to test the construct validity of the scales. First of all, the maximum likelihood method was selected. The recommended indices (Hu & Bentler, 1998; Brown, 2015) were chosen for the fit indices (CFI, RMSEA, SRMR, x2, df). CFA is a more appropriate method for testing previously theoretically based models (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999; Hurley et al., 1997; Kline, 2023). The significance of parameter estimates and factor loading values were considered for each item. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett Sphericity test values were calculated to determine the suitability of the data for factor analysis. Exploratory factor Analysis was applied since the scale's factor structure could not be confirmed due to confirmatory factor analysis.

Reliability

The consistency analysis of the scale was calculated with Cronbach's alpha coefficient. The reliability coefficient was calculated with composite reliability. When the errors are uncorrelated, and the assumptions about the Cronbach Alpha coefficient are not met, the Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient is not calculated unbiasedly, and there may be differences between the coefficient in the population and the reliability coefficient obtained from the sample (Rae, 2006). Thurber and Bonynge (2011) stated that it is more appropriate to calculate the composite reliability coefficient in such cases. Composite reliability is calculated by factor loadings and error variances obtained from CFA (Yang & Green, 2011).

Ethical Approval

This research was approved by Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University Social and Human Sciences Ethics Committee with the decision dated 27/02/2023 and numbered 230015/33.

Findings

Table 1. Content Validity Index of the Reflective Thinking Scale

Item	Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3	Rater 4	Rater 5	Rater 6	Number of Agreement	I-CVI
1	3	4	3	4	3	4	6	1
2	3	4	4	4	3	4	6	1
3	4	4	2	4	4	4	5	0.83
4	4	4	4	4	3	3	6	1
5	4	4	3	4	3	4	6	1
6	4	4	4	4	4	4	6	1
7	4	4	4	4	3	4	6	1

8	4	4	4	4	3	2	5	0.83
9	4	4	2	4	4	4	5	0.83
10	3	4	3	4	4	2	5	0.83
11	4	4	4	4	4	4	6	1
12	4	4	4	4	4	4	6	1
13	4	4	4	4	4	4	6	1
14	4	4	4	4	4	4	6	1
15	4	4	4	2	3	4	5	0.83
16	4	4	3	4	4	4	6	1
							S-CVI	0.95
							Total Agreement	11
							S-CVI/UA	0.6875

Table 1 presents the results of the content validity analysis of the reflective thinking scale. Once the translation process was completed, the scale items were sent to experts in physical education for feedback. The experts rated the items on a scale of 1-4, with 1 and 2 indicating inappropriate items and 3 and 4 indicating appropriate items. The scale items' item-level content validity indices (I-CVI) ranged from 0.83 to 1.00, indicating good content validity. The content validity index at the scale level was 0.95, further supporting the scale's content validity. However, the Universal Agreement Calculation Method (S-CVI/UA) yielded an index of 0.68, which is relatively low. Despite this, the reflective thinking scale was found to have content validity. Following the content validity analysis, the construct validity was also examined.

Table 2. Factor Structure of the Reflective Thinking Scale

Items	Item Factor Loadings		
	Discrimination	Reflection	Critical Reflection
λ_3	0.78	0.40	
λ_7	0.30	0.77	
λ_{11}	0.36	0.72	
λ_{15}	0.37	0.85	
λ_4	0.48		0.68
λ_{12}	0.22		0.89
λ_{16}	0.57		0.43
	Reliability		
Composite Reliability		0.81	0.78
Cronbach's Alpha		0.79	0.78
Factor-Factor Correlation	0.74 (%95CI: 0.64-0.84)		
KMO=0.86, Bartlett's test of sphericity= 579.605 (p<0.05), CR=0.89, a=0.84			

Table 2 shows the factor structure of the reflective thinking scale. The results of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis revealed that items 1, 2, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10, 13, and 14 of the scale were not appropriate due to high error variances and cross-loading (loading of an item on another factor that does not belong to it) although their factor loadings were high. It was understood that the related construct was not validated. After the examinations, the associated items were removed from the analysis based on expert opinions, and EFA was conducted. The items in the scale's reflection and critical reflection dimensions were observed to have very

good factor loadings. Factor loadings ranged between 0.40 and 0.85 for the reflection dimension and 0.43 and 0.89 for the critical dimension. The composite reliability coefficient of the scale is 0.81 for reflection and 0.78 for critical reflection, and these values are sufficient for reliability. The internal consistency coefficient of the reflection subscale is 0.79, and the internal consistency coefficient of the critical reflection subscale is 0.78. The composite reliability coefficient for the total value of the scale is 0.89, and the internal consistency coefficient is 0.84.

Table 3. Comparison of Critical and Reflective Thinking Scores of Physical Education and Sports Teacher Candidates at Class Level

		n	$\bar{X} \pm$ ss	F	Post Hoc
Reflection	First	37	3.85±1.04		
	Second	54	3.66±1.03		
	Third	42	3.57±1.21	2.37	
	Fourth	67	4.02±0.68		
	Total	200	3.80±0.98		
Critical Reflection	First	37	3.59±0.97		
	Second	54	3.44±0.95		
	Third	42	3.38±0.93	3.63*	3<4
	Fourth	67	3.88±0.74		
	Total	200	3.60±0.90		
Critical Openness	First	37	3.98±0.69		
	Second	54	3.93±0.53		
	Third	42	4.02±0.56	0.17	
	Fourth	67	3.97±0.62		
	Total	200	3.97±0.59		
Reflective Scepticism	First	37	4.12±0.49		
	Second	54	4.11±0.58		
	Third	42	4.03±0.61	0.20	
	Fourth	67	4.11±0.66		
	Total	200	4.10±0.60		
Critical Thinking	First	37	4.03±0.51		
	Second	54	3.99±0.51		
	Third	42	4.02±0.54	0.04	
	Fourth	67	4.02±0.60		
	Total	200	4.02±0.54		
Reflective Thinking	First	37	3.74±0.92		
	Second	54	3.57±0.87		
	Third	42	3.49±1.01	3.55*	3<4
	Fourth	67	3.96±0.60		
	Total	200	3.71±0.85		

Table 3 compares the critical and reflective thinking tendencies of first, second, third, and fourth-grade students in the physical education and sports teaching department. The results indicate no significant difference between the classes regarding reflection, critical openness, reflective scepticism, and critical thinking. However, the critical reflection subscale has a statistically significant difference (F=3.63, p<0.05). The analysis shows that the critical reflection scores of fourth-grade students were higher than those of third-grade students.

Moreover, fourth-grade students also had higher reflective thinking scores than third-grade students (F=3.55, p<0.05).

Table 3. Distribution of Critical and Reflective Thinking by Gender

	Gender	N	$\bar{X} \pm$ ss	t	p
Reflection	Female	98	3.55±1.21	-3.60	p<0.01*
	Male	102	4.04±0.62		
Critical Reflection	Female	98	3.39±0.96	-3.29	p<0.01*
	Male	102	3.81±0.80		
Critical Openness	Female	98	3.98±0.55	0.13	p>0.01
	Male	102	3.97±0.63		
Reflective Scepticism	Female	98	4.12±0.50	0.47	p>0.01
	Male	102	4.08±0.68		
Critical Thinking	Female	98	4.03±0.47	0.28	p>0.01
	Male	102	4.01±0.61		
Reflective Thinking	Female	98	3.48±1.01	-3.90	p<0.01*
	Male	102	3.94±0.59		

Table 4 displays the breakdown of critical and reflective thinking based on gender. The study found no significant difference in critical openness, reflective scepticism, and critical thinking dimensions (p>0.05). However, in the reflection subscale, male physical education and sports teacher candidates scored higher than their female counterparts (t=-3.60, p<0.01). Similarly, in the critical reflection subscale, males had higher scores than females (t=-3.29, p<0.01). Additionally, males had higher scores in reflective thinking tendency than females (t=-3.90, p<0.01).

Table 4. Distribution of Critical and Reflective Thinking According to Exercise Status

	Regular Exercise	N	$\bar{X} \pm$ ss	t	p
Reflection	No	89	3.63±1.02	-2.20	p<0.05*
	Yes	111	3.93±0.94		
Critical Reflection	No	89	3.56±0.88	-0.59	p>0.05
	Yes	111	3.64±0.92		
Critical Openness	No	89	3.94±0.55	-0.70	p>0.05
	Yes	111	4.00±0.63		
Reflective Scepticism	No	89	4.07±0.63	-0.61	p>0.05
	Yes	111	4.12±0.57		
Critical Thinking	No	89	3.98±0.54	-0.73	p>0.05
	Yes	111	4.04±0.55		
Reflective Thinking	No	89	3.60±0.87	-1.72	p>0.05
	Yes	111	3.81±0.82		

The results are presented in Table 5, which shows the distribution of critical and reflective thinking based on regular exercise. The analysis indicates no significant difference between individuals who exercise regularly and those who don't regarding critical reflection, critical openness, reflective scepticism, critical thinking and reflective thinking ($p<0.05$). However, it was observed that those who exercise regularly have higher values than those who do not in the reflection subscale ($t=-2.20$, $p<0.05$).

Table 5. Distribution of Critical and Reflective Thinking According to Being a Licensed Athlete

	Athlete	N	$\bar{X} \pm$ ss	t	p
Reflection	No	98	3.73±0.99	-0.99	p>0.05
	Yes	102	3.87±0.97		
Critical Reflection	No	98	3.70±0.86	1.46	p>0.05
	Yes	102	3.51±0.93		
Critical Openness	No	98	3.96±0.60	-0.27	p>0.05
	Yes	102	3.98±0.59		
Reflective Scepticism	No	98	4.05±0.67	-1.02	p>0.05
	Yes	102	4.14±0.51		
Critical Thinking	No	98	3.99±0.58	-0.60	p>0.05
	Yes	102	4.04±0.50		
Reflective Thinking	No	98	3.72±0.86	0.01	p>0.05
	Yes	102	3.71±0.84		

Table 6 presents the distribution of critical and reflective thinking among licensed athletes. The analysis suggests that being a licensed athlete does not affect an individual's critical and reflective thinking tendencies.

Table 6. Correlation between Critical and Reflective Thinking and Grade Point Average

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. GPA	1					
2. Reflection	0.14[*]	1				
3. Critical Reflection	0.11	0.59[**]	1			
4. Critical Openness	-0.03	0.30[**]	0.42[**]	1		
5. Reflective Scepticism	-0.06	0.27[**]	0.24[**]	0.64[**]	1	
6. Critical Thinking	-0.05	0.32[**]	0.39[**]	0.95[**]	0.84[**]	1
7. Reflective Thinking	0.14[*]	0.93[**]	0.84[**]	0.39[**]	0.29[**]	0.39[**]

Table 7 displays the correlation analysis results between critical thinking, reflective thinking, and GPA. The findings indicate a statistically significant relationship between reflective thinking and GPA ($r=0.14$, $p<0.05$). Moreover, Table 4.7 provides evidence for the criterion-related validity of the reflective thinking scale. As a result, the sub-dimensions and total value of reflective thinking were statistically significantly associated with the sub-dimensions and total value of critical thinking.

Table 7. Regression Analysis Between Reflective Thinking and General Academic Average

Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F	Standard Beta	t

| 1 | 0.146 | 0.021 | 0.016 | 4.332* | 0.146 | 2.081* |

*Dependent variable: GPA, Independent variable: Reflective Thinking, *p<0.05*

Table 8 shows the regression analysis on the level of reflective thinking explaining the general academic average. GPA is ranked between 1 and 5 as a series grouped from the lowest to the highest. Accordingly, a 1-unit change in reflective thinking leads to a 0.14-unit change in GPA.

Discussion

This study examined the relationship between reflective and critical thinking and academic achievement of prospective physical education and sports teachers. The measurement tool developed by Kember et al. (2000) was adapted into Turkish to measure the reflective thinking tendencies of the participants. First, the translation process was completed using the method suggested by Beaton et al. (2000). The content validity index was calculated based on expert opinions. It was determined that the content validity indices of the measurement tool at the item level were appropriate (Lynn, 1986). The content validity index at the scale level and the index obtained using the universal agreement calculation method were appropriate (Davis, 1992; Grant & Davis, 1997; Polit & Beck, 2004). Then, the construct validity of the measurement tool was analysed.

In this study, reflective thinking was found to increase academic achievement. Research shows that thinking styles statistically predict academic achievement (Zhang, 2001). Critical thinking has been positively associated with achievement (Villavicencio, 2011). Some findings revealed that critical thinking, reflective thinking and creative thinking are positively and significantly related to each other and that these variables positively and significantly predict academic achievement (Akpur, 2020). Critical thinking ability and its elements can be considered essential in increasing academic achievement in adolescent students (Sherafat, 2015). A positive relationship exists between students' critical thinking levels and academic achievement levels (Musa, 2020). Ghanizadeh (2017) evaluated the relationships between higher-order thinking skills (reflective thinking, critical thinking) and self-monitoring that contribute to academic achievement among university students. Self-monitoring had an indirect positive effect on achievement through comprehension and reflection. Self-monitoring was found to impact achievement through comprehension and reflection indirectly positively. Taghva et al. (2014) found a significant relationship between teachers' critical thinking and students' educational achievement. Student achievement will increase as students' critical thinking skills increase (Jafari & Yazdani, 2015). Ip et al. (2000) found that critical thinking and academic achievement are related, and as critical thinking tendency increases, academic achievement will also increase. Stupnisky et al. (2008) found a positive relationship between grade point average and critical thinking. Critical thinking positively affects students' average academic performance (D'Alessio et al., 2019).

Akbıyık and Seferoğlu (2002) examined the relationship between critical thinking and academic achievement, classifying students into high and low-critical thinking tendency groups and comparing these two groups regarding academic success. According to their

findings, students with a high tendency for critical thinking demonstrated higher academic achievements.

Critical thinking is among the fundamental values in higher education. Creativity and critical thinking are not entirely different forms of thinking, and both are important in academia. However, our norms, rules, and structures can hinder creativity (Adriansen, 2010). The role of critical thinking attitudes and cognitive learning styles in academic success is inevitable. It is recommended that faculty members respect students' different learning styles and cognitive needs and implement new approaches and procedures to enhance critical thinking skills (Hassanali, Setareh, and Zabihollah, 2012). Teaching and learning methods for critical thinking must be implemented and developed to increase students' potential for critical thinking (Shah, 2015). In-class/educational and out-of-class experiences provide positive, statistically significant, and unique contributions beyond students' pre-university characteristics and levels of critical thinking (Terenzini et al., 1995).

Reflective thinking is valuable and necessary for self-determined terms (Brookfield, 2009). Reflective thinking practices and achievement goals are significant factors in predicting students' academic success (Phan, 2009). Reflective thinking allows us to correct distortions in our beliefs and errors in problem-solving (Mezirow, 1990). Reflective thinking can be a precursor to encouraging critical thinking in teachers (Choy and San Oo, 2012). Deringöl (2019) examined the relationship between reflective thinking skills and academic achievement in fourth-grade elementary school students, finding that fourth-grade students had high reflective thinking skills and that girls had higher reflective thinking levels. For male students, a positive relationship was found between reflective thinking skills and mathematics and academic achievements.

Asakereh and Yousofi (2018) investigated the relationship between reflective thinking, general self-efficacy, self-esteem, and academic achievement among Iranian students learning English as a foreign language. They found that reflective thinking had no significant relationship with self-esteem, self-efficacy, and academic achievement. Lew and Schmidt (2011) examined whether writing in a deep-thinking journal effectively promotes self-reflection and learning. They assessed whether students who consistently engage in deep-thinking journal writing demonstrate better self-reflection. The study concluded that self-reflection on how and what students learn improves academic performance. Some potential factors that could influence the results were identified, including a) students generally being weak in self-reflection, b) students in this study being defined as "inexperienced," lacking experience in reflecting on what and how they learn, and c) differences between responses across weeks, potentially influenced by factors such as the type of questions asked by the teacher each week.

Studies indicating that activities based on reflective thinking enhance students' achievements have been identified (Ersozlu and Kazu, 2011; Bölükbaş, 2004; Uygun and Çetin, 2014). It has been determined that teacher training programs emphasise reflective thinking practices most (Ustabulut, 2021). A moderately positive and significant relationship between middle school students' tendencies towards critical thinking and metacognitive awareness has been found. Additionally, it has been observed that the critical thinking tendencies of middle school students significantly predict their metacognitive awareness (Bakır and Eğmir, 2022). In a study by Yüksel et al. (2021) investigating the impact of critical thinking tendencies on religiosity among theology faculty students, it was found that individuals with a tendency for critical thinking had higher levels of religiosity.

Aybek, Yalçın, and Öztürk (2019) experimentally investigated the relationship between high school students' critical thinking skills and their physics course. They found a significant increase in attitude scores towards critical thinking in the experimental group. The attitude scores towards critical thinking were highly correlated with physics achievement scores. Additionally, they concluded that students had different thoughts about critical thinking.

Erbir and Ünlü Aslan (2022) discovered a significant correlation between emotional intelligence and the tendency towards critical thinking in university students. They also found that emotional intelligence positively and significantly impacted the tendency towards critical thinking. In a study by Şahin, Çakmak, and Hacımustafaoğlu (2015) examining the critical thinking skills of academics, they found no significant difference in critical thinking skills based on gender and discipline. However, they concluded that despite having sufficient knowledge about critical thinking skills, teacher candidates could not effectively use activities to enhance critical thinking skills in their teaching processes.

In their study, Gökkuş and Delican (2016) found that the tendency towards critical thinking among prospective primary school teachers was moderate. The tendency towards critical thinking did not show a significant difference based on gender, but there was a significant difference favouring fourth-grade students over other classes. They also found a moderate, positive, and significant relationship between the tendency towards critical thinking and attitudes towards reading books.

Aşkın Tekkol and Bozdemir (2018), in their study examining teacher candidates' reflective thinking tendencies and critical thinking skills, concluded that there was a significant difference in reflective thinking tendencies in favour of male students. However, they did not observe a significant difference in scores based on gender and class level. They also found a positive, moderate-level relationship between teacher candidates' reflective thinking tendencies and critical thinking skills.

This research has determined that fourth-grade students have higher reflective thinking values than third-year students. Yıldırım and Şensoy (2017) conducted a study examining the critical thinking tendencies of science teacher candidates. The study concluded that there was no significant development in critical thinking tendency levels from the first to the fourth grade, and there was a positively high correlation between critical thinking tendency, critical thinking skills, and problem-solving skills.

Kuru and Şimşek (2022) reviewed studies on critical thinking skills in primary schools and found that critical thinking practices are most frequently conducted in Science and Turkish language classes. It was observed that primary school teachers are highly aware of critical thinking. While pre-service teachers' awareness of critical thinking is at a moderate level, primary school students' awareness level was found to be high. It was determined that all applied studies were generally practical in a positive direction, but there was insufficient emphasis on critical thinking skills. Students with high levels of critical thinking tendency are reported to develop a positive attitude towards reading and consist of students who comprehend what they read (Bozpolat and Kurga, 2021). In this research, it was observed that males have higher values in reflective thinking tendencies than females. It was found that students whose critical thinking tendencies were increased through the application of the academic debate model showed a significant increase compared to students who followed the existing program (Kayman and Aydın, 2021). Öztürk et al. (2019) found a high level of positive and significant relationship between the entrepreneurial characteristics of teacher candidates and their critical thinking tendencies. Küçük and Uzun (2013) examined the critical thinking tendencies of music teacher candidates. They found a moderate tendency in

general critical thinking and its sub-dimensions, with high-level positive and significant relationships between critical thinking tendency and its sub-dimensions.

Aybek and Demir (2013) found a low positive relationship between students' general critical thinking tendency scores and literacy levels. Alkan and Cengiz (2022) mentioned in their study that teachers lack sufficient knowledge about methods to develop creativity. Kartal (2012) found in their study that the critical thinking tendencies of science teacher candidates were generally above the moderate level of 60%. Durnacı and Ültay (2020) examined primary school teacher candidates' critical and creative thinking tendencies and concluded that these tendencies were not very high.

Conclusion and Hypotheses

This study examined the relationship between reflective and critical thinking and academic achievement of physical education and sports teacher candidates. The results related to the proposed hypotheses are provided below:

H_1 There is a relationship between critical thinking and academic achievement.

It has been determined that there is no significant relationship between critical thinking and academic achievement. Therefore, H_1 has been rejected.

H_2 There is a relationship between reflective thinking and academic achievement.

Reflective thinking has been found to have a significant relationship with academic achievement. Therefore, H_2 has been accepted.

H_3 There is a relationship between critical thinking and reflective thinking.

There is a significant relationship between critical thinking and reflective thinking. Therefore, H_3 has been accepted.

H_4 There is a difference between men and women regarding critical thinking.

As critical thinking does not differ based on gender, H_4 has been rejected.

H_5 There is a difference between men and women regarding reflective thinking.

Since reflective thinking differs based on gender, H_5 has been accepted.

H_6 There is a difference between exercisers and non-exercisers regarding critical thinking.

As critical thinking does not vary with exercise participation, H_6 has been rejected

H_7 There is a difference between exercisers and non-exercisers regarding reflective thinking.

Reflective thinking partially differs based on exercise participation and has been accepted.

H_8 There is a difference between licensed and non-licensed athletes regarding critical thinking.

Critical thinking does not differ based on being a licensed athlete; therefore, H_8 has been rejected.

H_9 There is a difference between licensed and non-licensed athletes regarding reflective thinking.

Reflective thinking does not differ based on being a licensed athlete; therefore, H_9 has been rejected

Recommendations

The findings obtained in this research have shown that reflective thinking has the potential to enhance academic achievement in physical education and sports teacher candidates. The following recommendations include strategies for the use of reflective thinking to improve the academic achievements of physical education and sports teacher candidates:

1. Seminars emphasizing the importance of reflective thinking in enhancing academic achievements can be organized for physical education and sports teacher candidates.

2. Reflective thinking activities can be incorporated into teaching materials for physical education and sports teacher candidates. This can help students take a more active role in learning and gain a deeper understanding of the subjects learned.

3. By teaching reflective thinking strategies to physical education and sports teacher candidates, it is possible to enable students to think more efficiently and effectively during the learning process.

4. Teachers can encourage physical education and sports teacher candidates to use reflective thinking in their assessment processes. Opportunities can be created for students to think about how much progress they have made and what they have learned throughout the learning process and express these reflections.

Limitations

This research is limited to the measurement power of the measurement tools. The research is limited to the study group determined in an easily accessible way in Turkey. The most important limitation of the study is that the participant group could not be determined by the purposive sampling method. Another limitation of this study is the use of GPA for academic achievement. Another limitation is that performance tests could not be used for academic achievement and performance.

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Examining the Relationship Between Individual Innovativeness and Positive Future Expectation Levels of Physical Education Teacher Candidates

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Abstract

This study aimed to examine the effect of teacher candidates' individual innovativeness levels on their positive future expectations. A total of 412 teacher candidates, 194 women and 218 men, studying at sports science faculties of universities in Ankara, participated in the research. "Personal Information Form", "Individual Innovativeness Scale" and "Positive Future Expectation Scale" were used in the data collection process. During the data analysis phase, Independent Samples T test, One Way ANOVA analysis, Pearson correlation analysis and Multiple Linear Regression Analysis were used in the SPSS 25.0 program. The research found that the individual innovativeness levels and positive future expectations of the teacher candidates were above the medium level. It was found that the individual innovativeness levels and positive expectations of teacher candidates differ according to the type of university (public, private) and the class they study in (p <0.05). It was observed that there was a positive relationship between the individual innovativeness level and positive future expectation among the teacher candidates participating in the research (p<0.05), and it was also determined that the individual innovativeness level positively affected the positive future expectation (pz0.05). As a result, it can be said that the high level of individual innovativeness in teacher candidates is a factor that increases positive future expectations.

Keywords: Individual innovation, Positive future expectations, University students

Introduction

It is seen that many innovations have occurred in the current century, especially in the scientific and technological fields (Johnson et al., 2006: 135). When considered from a conceptual perspective, innovation is defined as "the use of people's ideas, knowledge or applications in the development of a new service or product, thus creating new products and services" (Yalçınkaya, 2010: 373). In other words, innovation is defined as "pre-planned change". The basis of innovation is usually the desire to constantly get better and further. In a specific field, innovation can occur not only in quantity but also in quality (Özdemir, 2013: 56). The phenomenon of innovation has an essentail place in economic growth and sustainable development (Johnson, 2008: 146; Fagerberg et al., 2009: 1). When considered from an organizational perspective, the phenomenon of innovation is considered an important element in terms of efficiency, competitive advantage and organizational performance (Wadho and Chauhdry, 2018: 1283; Kijkasiwat and Phuensane, 2020: 1). This situation has paved the way for an increase in research on the concept of innovation in recent years. Studies indicate that carrying out the innovation process in a healthy way is the key to success in innovation. In order to carry out the innovation process in a healthy way, conscious and systematic steps must be taken, and developments in this process must be approached from a strategic perspective (Öğüt et al., 2007: 163). Efforts to understand innovation and research how innovation will take place also contribute to the effectiveness of the innovation process (Kılıçer, 2008: 212).

People are at the center of innovation. People's acceptance of innovation is defined as "Individual innovation" (Korucu and Olpak, 2015: 115). Individual innovativeness characteristics emerge in five different ways. These; traditionalists, innovators, pioneers, questioners and skeptics. Innovators; They are people who have a high tendency to try new ideas, like to take risks and have a vision. Pioneers; They are people who are especially technology-oriented and try to enlighten the society about innovations. Inquisitors; They are generally individuals who have a low tendency to take risks and are cautious about innovation. Skeptics; They generally have a structure that approaches innovations with suspicion and is hesitant about innovation. Traditionalists, on the other hand, consist of people who are both prejudiced against change and the last to adopt innovations (Rogers, 2013: 1). Individual innovativeness level may vary depending on the individual characteristics of people. While some people have high levels of individual innovativeness due to their nature, it is seen that some people have low levels of individual innovativeness (Ertuğ and Kaya, 2017: 196). The level of individual innovation is among the factors that directly affect a person's daily life and business life. As the level of individual innovation increases, the individual's work performance, speed of adaptation to innovations and technological developments, and motivation level in daily life and business life increase (Tarhan and Şar, 2021: 10).

It is an important issue that the level of individual innovation is high, especially among young people, as it positively affects the business life as well as the daily life of the individual. As it is known, many students studying at university today experience unemployment concerns due to limited employment opportunities (Harat and Taher, 2023: 232; Surat and Ceran, 2020: 145). In addition, many studies conducted on young people indicate that young people have low positive future expectations and are worried about their future (Mamani-Benito et al., 2023: 1; Ogurlu, 2016: 4). It is seen that studies on positive future expectations are generally conducted on university students (Manap-Davras and Alili, 2019: 40; Şanlı and Saraçlı, 2015: 25). The basis for this is that the university years are one of the most important stages before starting business life. In addition, positive future expectations positively affect psychological

health in university students. These factors have contributed to the increase in studies addressing positive future expectations in university students (Ehtiyar et al., 2017: 251). Positive future expectations of university students are affected by the education they receive, as well as the social support provided by the family in their career choice and their expectations of making a career appropriate to their abilities (Taş and Özmen, 2019: 744). Students' self-confidence levels and their personality traits are among the other factors that affect their positive future expectations (Şanlı and Saraçlı, 2015: 25).

When the information in the literature is evaluated, it is seen that the level of individual innovation is effective in all areas of human life. Especially in business life, the level of individual innovation directly affects professional attitudes, behaviors and career processes. Studies in the literature also state that innovative attitudes in professional life affect attitudes and behaviors related to business life (Park et al., 2016: 274; Akkoç et al., 2011: 83; Cheng et al., 2010: 459). At this point, it can be said that a high level of individual innovativeness in teacher candidates will contribute to high positive future expectations. However, as a result of the literature review, it was observed that there were not enough studies examining the effect of individual innovativeness level on positive future expectations in teacher candidates. In this context, this study aimed to examine the effect of individual innovativeness on positive future expectations in teacher candidates.

Material and Method

This study, used the "relational screening model" to determine the relationship between dependent variables. The research population consists of teacher candidates studying at sports science faculties of private universities and state universities in Ankara. The sample group of the research consisted of 412 physical education teacher candidates, 194 women and 218 men, studying at the sports science faculties of universities in Ankara. A simple random sample selection method was used to determine the teacher candidates in the sample group.

The personal information form prepared by the researcher was used to determine the demographic characteristics of the teacher candidates participating in the research. There are a total of four items in the personal information form. With these items, it was aimed to obtain findings regarding the type of university where teacher candidates studied, the distribution by gender, the grade level of education and the age groups of the students. "Individual Innovativeness Scale", developed by Hurt et al. (1977: 58) and whose Turkish validity and reliability study was conducted by Kılıçer and Odabaşı (2010: 150), was used to determine the individual innovativeness levels of the teacher candidates participating in the research. In the study of adapting the scale to Turkish, the internal consistency coefficient was determined as 0.82. The scale consists of a total of 20 items and four sub-dimensions. The resistance to change sub-dimension consists of a total of eight items, the opinion leadership sub-dimension consists of five items, the openness to experience sub-dimension consists of a total of five items, and the risk-taking sub-dimension consists of two items. A high score on the scale indicates that the participant's individual innovativeness level is also high. In the study, the "Positive Future Expectation Scale" developed by İmamoğlu (2001: 1) was used to determine the positive future expectations of teacher candidates. The scale structure, consisting of a total of 20 items, is of the 5-point Likert type. Therefore, the responses to the items on the scale are graded between strongly disagree (1 point) and strongly agree (5 points). During the development phase of the scale, the researcher reported the internal consistency coefficient of the scale as 0.85.

SPSS 25.0 program was used to analyze the research data. As a result of the reliability analysis applied to the scale data, parametric analyzes were used since it was determined that

Cronbach's Alpha values varied between 0.65 and 0.81, and skewness and kurtosis values were in accordance with normal distribution. While Independent Samples T test was used for scale scores according to university type, gender and class variables, One Way ANOVA analysis was used to compare scale scores according to age group. While Pearson correlation analysis was used to examine the relationship between the scales, Multiple Linear Regression Analysis was used to examine the effect of individual innovativeness on positive future expectations.

Findings

Table 1. Frequency and percentage distributions regarding the demographic information of the participants

Variable	Category	f	%
University type	Public	215	52,2
	Private	197	47,8
Gender	Female	194	47,1
	Male	218	52,9
Age group	"22-23 age	167	40,5
	24-25 ge	190	46,1
	25+ age	55	13,3
Sınıf	3.grade	204	49,5
	4.grade	208	50,5

When the table is examined, it can be seen that 52.2% of the students participating in the research were educated at a state university, 47.8% were educated at a private university, 47.1% were female, 52.9% were male, 40.5% were 22-years-old. In the 23 age group, 46.1% are in the 24.25 age group, 13.3% are in the 25+ age group, 49.5% are 3rd grade students, 50.5% are 4th grade students. .

Table 2. Frequency and percentage distributions of participants' individual innovation categories

Variable	Category	f	%
Individual innovation	Innovator	8	1,9
	Pioneer	85	20,6
	Questioner	279	67,7
	Skeptic	40	9,7
	Traditionalist	-	-

When the table is examined, it is seen that 1.9% of the participants are in the innovative category, 20.6% are in the pioneer category, 67.7% are in the questioning category, and 9.7% are in the skeptical category.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics for scale scores

Scale sub-dimensions	N	X±SS	α	Distortion	Flatness
Resistance to change	412	3,18±0,68	0,77	0,46	0,59
Leadership for idea	412	3,98±0,55	0,65	-0,01	-0,25
Openness to experience	412	4,09±0,54	0,78	-0,95	1,35
Risk taking	412	3,47±0,89	0,74	-0,24	-0,39
Positive future expectation	412	4,05±0,64	0,81	-0,51	0,19

When the table is examined, it is seen that the participants' levels of opinion leadership, openness to experience and risk taking are above the medium level, and their resistance to change levels are at the medium level. The positive future expectations of the participants are above the medium level.

Table 4. Comparison of individual innovativeness and positive future expectations according to demographic variables

		Resistance to change	Leadership of idea	Openness to experience	Risk taking	Positive future expectation
		X±SS	X±SS	X±SS	X±SS	X±SS
University type						
Public	215	3,19±0,58	3,92±0,54	4,03±0,54	3,35±0,86	3,97±0,64
Private	197	3,16±0,77	4,05±0,56	4,16±0,53	3,60±0,90	4,13±0,64
t/p		t=,455 p=,650	t=-2,491 p=,013*	t=-2,597 p=,010*	t=-2,936 p=,004**	t=-2,618 p=,009**
Gender						
Female	194	3,12±0,70	3,94±0,54	4,15±0,42	3,49±0,89	4,08±0,64
Male	218	3,24±0,65	4,02±0,57	4,05±0,62	3,44±0,89	4,02±0,65
t/p		t=-1,818 p=,070	t=-1,468 p=,143	t=1,866 p=,063	t=,568 p=,570	t=,872 p=,384
Age group						
22-23 age	167	3,24±0,61	3,99±0,59	4,10±0,51	3,39±0,95	4,12±0,61

24-25 age	190	3,18±0,72	3,94±0,51	4,06±0,56	3,53±0,85	3,99±0,68
25+ age	55	3,01±0,73	4,12±0,55	4,19±0,52	3,51±0,82	4,03±0,57
F/p		F=2,320 p=,100	F=2,433 p=,089	F=1,292 p=,276	F=1,125 p=,326	F=2,097 p=,124
Grade						
3.grade	204	3,04±0,55	3,96±0,55	4,11±0,51	3,43±0,93	4,17±0,66
4.grade	208	3,32±0,76	4,00±0,55	4,08±0,57	3,50±0,85	3,92±0,60
t/p		t=-4,357 p=,000***	t=-,720 p=,472	t=,584 p=,559	t=-,838 p=,402	t=4,030 p=,000***

**p<0,01; t: Independent Samples T-Test; F: One Way ANOVA

When the table is examined, it is seen that the individual innovativeness levels and positive future expectation levels of the participants do not differ statistically significantly (p>0.05) according to their gender and age groups. The levels of resistance to change did not differ statistically significantly according to the type of university studied (p>0.05), but the opinion leadership, openness to experience, risk taking and positive future expectations of students studying at a private university were statistically significantly higher than those of students studying at a state university. (p<0.05). It was found that the levels of opinion leadership, openness to experience and risk taking did not differ statistically significantly according to the grades received (p>0.05), but the level of resistance to change of the students educated in the 4th grade was statistically significantly higher than the students educated in the 3rd grade (p<0.05), whereas the positive future expectation level of students studying in the 3rd grade is statistically significantly higher than that of students studying in the 4th grade (p<0.05).

Table 5. Pearson correlation analysis to examine the relationship between individual innovativeness and positive future expectations

		1	2	3	4	5
1. Resistance to change	r	-				
	p					
2. Leadership for idea	r	,175***	-			
	p	,000				
3. Openness to experience	r	,146**	,309***	-		
	p	,003	,000			
4. Risk taking	r	,307***	,176***	,241***	-	
	p	,000	,000	,000		
5. Positive future	r	,139**	,278***	,450***	,287***	-

| expectation | p | ,005 | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 |

***p<0,001; **p<0,01

When the table examined, it is seen that there is a positive and low level relationship between the participants' level of resistance to change regarding individual innovation and positive future expectations (r=,139; p<0,01).

It is seen that there are positive and sub-medium level relationships between the participants' leadership for idea (r=,278; p<0,001) and risk taking (r=,287; p<0,001) regarding individual innovation and positive future expectations (p<0.001), besides, there is a positive and medium level relationships between the participants' openness to experience regarding individual innovation and positive future expectations (r=,450; p<0,001).

Table 6. Multiple linear regression analysis to examine the effect of individual innovativeness on positive future expectations

Variable	B	standard error	β	t	p
Systematic	1,177	,268		4,398	,000***
Resistance to change	,009	,043	,010	,212	,832
Leadership for idea	,156	,053	,134	2,929	,004**
Openness to experience	,438	,055	,366	7,946	,000***
Risk taking	,124	,033	,172	3,722	,000***
r=,502; r^2=,245; $F_{(4, 407)}$=34,345; p=,000***					

***p<0,001; **p<0,01

When the table is examined, it is seen that the variance explained by the level of individual innovativeness on positive future expectations is 24.5% and the effect of individual innovativeness on positive future expectations is statistically significant (r2=.245; p<0.001). When the sub-dimensions are examined, the effect of the resistance to change sub-dimension is not significant, opinion leadership (β=.134; p<0.01), openness to experience (β=.366; p<0.001) and risk taking (β=.172; p<0.01). It is seen that the effect of sub-dimensions (0.001) is significant.

Discussion and Conclusion

When the findings regarding the individual innovativeness levels of teacher candidates were examined in this study, it was found that 67.7% of the students were in the questioning category and 20.6% were in the pioneer category. It was observed that the proportion of students in the innovative, traditionalist and questioning categories was low. In studies conducted on different samples in the literature, it has been reported that the individual innovativeness level of university students and teacher candidates is generally at medium and high levels (Işık and Türkmendağ, 2016: 70; Lee et al., 2019: 1). In a study parallel to the findings obtained in the research, it was aimed to examine the individual innovation level of university students, and in the said study, it was found that 49.6% of the students were in the questioning category and 3.4% were in the pioneer category (Mülhim, 2018: 6). It can be said that the inconsistencies between the study results are due to the fact that the studies were

conducted on groups of students with different socio-cultural characteristics.

It was found that the individual innovativeness levels of the teacher candidates participating in the research differed depending on the type of university they studied at. It has been observed that the opinion leadership, openness to experience, risk taking and positive future expectations of students studying at a private university are at higher levels than students studying at a state university. When the studies in the literature were examined, it was observed that academic studies examining the individual innovation levels of students according to the type of university they studied were limited. In this study, it can be thought that the reason for the significant difference in individual innovation level in favor of private university students lies in the fact that private university students generally study at universities and departments suitable to their abilities.

Within the scope of the research, it was observed that the individual innovativeness level of teacher candidates did not differ according to their gender. In some studies conducted in this field in the literature, it has been reported that the gender variable has a significant effect on the level of individual innovation (Ilie et al., 2005: 13; Ferreras-Garcia et al., 2021: 1). In some studies, it was found that the level of individual innovation was high in favor of women, and in some studies it was found to be high in favor of male students (Baltacı and Metin, 2021: 586; Yılmaz et al., 2014: 259; Solmaz, 2019: 48). There are also research findings revealing that the individual innovativeness levels of male and female university students do not differ according to the gender variable (Korucu and Olpak, 2015: 122). Within the scope of this research, it can be thought that the reason why the individual innovativeness levels of teacher candidates do not differ significantly according to their gender is that male and female students were raised in similar socio-cultural regions.

It was observed that the individual innovativeness levels of the teacher candidates participating in this study did not differ significantly according to their age groups. The main reason for this may be that the students who comprise the sample group are in similar developmental periods in terms of their age groups. In a similar study in which university students participated, it was stated that students' individual innovativeness levels did not differ according to age (Baltacı and Metin, 2021: 586). In another study that is compatible with the research results, it was found that the innovative attitude level of physical education and sports teachers did not differ according to the age group variable (Yalvuç, 2019: 83). On the other hand, there are research findings that reveal that the level of individual innovation in university students increases significantly in parallel with the increase in age (Mülhim, 2018: 87). It can be said that the reason for the similarity between the research results lies in the fact that the studies were conducted on students studying in departments with different characteristics and having different academic equipment. In a study supporting this view, it was found that individual innovation attitudes of teacher candidates differ depending on the department they study (Işık and Türkmendağ, 2016: 83).

Within the scope of the research, it was found that there were differences in the resistance to change sub-dimension of individual innovativeness levels of teacher candidates when considered according to the grade level they studied. When the findings were evaluated, it was determined that the level of resistance to change of students studying in the 4th grade was statistically significantly higher than that of students studying in the 3rd grade. It can be thought that the basis of this finding lies in the fact that senior university students are at the beginning of their careers and therefore do not want to experience serious changes in their lives. In the literature, it has been reported in studies conducted on university students studying in different departments on this subject that the level of individual innovation varies

according to what the students study (Mülhim, 2018: 73; Korucu and Olpak, 2015: 122).

This study found that the positive future expectations of teacher candidates were above the medium level. In this context, it can be said that university students are generally hopeful about the future. In the literature, studies conducted in this field on students studying at different universities in Turkey have reported that students' positive future expectations are not at a high level (Tuncer and Tanaş, 2020: 1697; Tuncer, 2011: 942). In this context, it can be said that the results obtained in this study are generally compatible with the literature.

It was found that the positive future expectations of the teacher candidates participating in this research differed depending on the type of university they studied at. When the results obtained were evaluated, it was observed that students studying at private universities had higher positive future expectations compared to students studying at state universities. It is seen that the studies in the literature comparing the future expectations of students according to the type of university they study in are limited. In research conducted on this subject, it is generally emphasized that the variables of the department studied and liking the department rather than the type of university are decisive on positive future expectations (Dikmen, 2021: 731). In this study, it can be said that private university students' level of studying in the department they want is higher than state university students, which positively affects their future expectations.

It was found that the positive future expectations of the teacher candidates included in the research did not differ according to the gender variable. Research findings conducted on different sample groups also show that the gender variable is not a determinant of positive future expectations in university students (Akyol et al., 2018: 659; Derelioğlu, 2023: 801). In a study conducted on university students and teacher candidates on this subject in the literature, it was aimed to determine the positive future expectations of the participants according to demographic variables. The relevant study reported that students' positive future expectations did not differ according to the gender variable (Tuncer and Tanaş, 2020: 1698). Dikmen (2021: 731), in a similar study he conducted on this subject, stated that positive future expectations of university students did not differ according to their gender.

It was determined that the positive future expectations of the teacher candidates who participated in this study did not differ according to the age group variable. The main reason for this result can be shown that students' professional plans, knowledge levels about employment opportunities and future plans are similar across age groups. In another study, which is parallel to the findings obtained according to the age group variable, it was found that the positive future expectations of university students did not differ significantly according to age groups (Tuncer and Tanaş, 2020: 1699). In a different study in which students in various university departments participated, it was stated that the positive future expectations of the participants did not differ according to their age groups (Dikmen, 2021: 731).

This study found that the positive future expectations of teacher candidates differ depending on the grade they study in. According to the results, it was found that the positive future expectation level of students studying in the 3rd grade was statistically higher than that of students studying in the 4th grade. Similar research results on different sample groups in the literature also show that positive future expectations differ according to the class variable. Tuncer and Tanaş (2020: 1698) stated in their study on this subject that positive future expectations differ among university students in the first and second grades. In the study in question, it was reported that positive future expectations were higher in first-year students compared to second-year students. In the study conducted by Dikmen (2021: 731) on

university students in different departments, it was found that students' positive future expectations differ depending on the grade level of education.

In the study, it was found that the relationship between teacher candidates' individual innovativeness levels and positive future expectations was significant and positive. Similarly, it was observed that there were positive significant relationships between individual innovativeness sub-dimensions and positive future expectations. According to the results obtained from the regression analysis, it was concluded that the individual innovativeness level explained 24.5% of the total variance in positive future expectations. In this context, it has been concluded that the high level of individual innovation of university students significantly affects their positive future expectations. It can be thought that the basis for this result lies in the fact that as university students' individual innovativeness level increases, they experience less anxiety about their professional careers, which contributes to a more hopeful outlook on the future. In a study supporting this view, it was found that as the level of individual innovation in university students increases, their attitudes towards their profession are shaped positively (Baltacı and Metin, 2021: 578). In some studies conducted on this subject, it is stated that the level of individual innovation positively affects the perception of professional skills and competence, and this contributes to positive future expectations (Çuhadar et al., 2013: 797).

As a result, in this study where the relationship between individual innovativeness level and positive future expectation in physical education teacher candidates was examined, it was found that there was a significant relationship between the dependent variables, and it was also determined that the individual innovativeness level positively affected the positive future expectation. When examined in the light of demographic variables, it was found that the individual innovativeness levels of teacher candidates differed according to the type of university they were studying in (public university or private university) and the grade level, whereas the individual innovativeness level did not differ according to age and gender variables. It has been concluded that the positive future expectations of teacher candidates differ only according to the type of university they study in and the classes the students study in.

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An Analysis of the Potential of Philippine Sports as a Tool for Public Diplomacy

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Abstract

With the growing lapses of sports-based strategies in the Philippine setting, the gap between its theoretical foundation and its praxis has ballooned, predominantly attributed to the need for more academic work in this area. Correspondingly, this study provides implications for sports-related strategies for predicting a positive public image of the Philippines and harboring peaceful state cooperation through the merits of soft power. To achieve this, this paper has contrived the objectives, including (1) identifying the implications of hosting the SEA Games 2019 for the country by examining the management of the Philippine government, (2) determining the implications of the elite sporting success of Filipino athletes in sports tournaments, and, lastly, (3) identifying the potential of sports through the implementation of sports-related strategy by the Philippines. Moreover, this paper implements qualitative methods, including document review and key informant interviews, to gather pertinent testimonials from various sub-sectors in sports, including national elite athletes, professional coaches, and sports experts, to assess the state of Philippine sports and significantly determine its potential as a serious form of public diplomacy, particularly in achieving its intended outcomes. This study infers that Philippine sports have the capability to influence the country's stature with consideration of the global media as well as advance its foreign policy of international cooperation.

Keywords: Filipino athletes, Philippine soft power, Philippine sports, SEA Games 2019, sports diplomacy
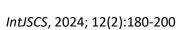
Introduction

A compelling reference point when injecting a colloquy of Filipino culture is its unfailing pride and exponential enthusiasm for local and international sports. Sports have unequivocally always been an integral part of Filipino culture. Since the framing of the 1987 Philippine Constitution, the functionality of sports is not solely grounded in its colonialist significance, as it has established a more specific legal mandate and gained statutory relevance embedded in the Constitution. With regard to the mandates of employing sports in the Philippines, its convenience has gone beyond the constitutional directives. Philippine diplomacy has constantly centered on "trade, investment, credit, and military" (Wurfel, 1990). Despite changes from different administrations, economic diplomacy remains a staple block of its foreign policy (Del Rosario & Amador, 2016). In 2016, the Department of Foreign Affairs launched the practice of cultural diplomacy, which aims "to help build inter-state relations and develop socio-cultural understanding among people all over the world" and "enhance the promotion of its national interests abroad" through soft power (Wong, 2016).

Indeed, the Philippines has a great pool of soft power resources, including its sports. Most scholars argue that sports possess cultural entitlement. Gems (2020) stipulated that integrating sports into the Filipino culture was successful, as many Filipino athletes qualified for global championships. Although initially conceived as an American colonialist practice, the Filipinos eventually adopted sport to their cultural advantage—to affirm their unique identity and foster national pride.

On top of its statutory relevance under the 1987 Philippine Constitution, its convenience to the government has exceeded the constitutional directives. The government has drawn on sports to actualize its plans, banking on the possible outcomes heralding public diplomacy. Even with its praxes, the space of literature leading to its explication is evidently capacious, which is attributable to the lack of certain cognizance of the theoretical foundations vis-à-vis its potential as an instrument for public diplomacy. Consequently, this also insinuates insufficient empirical evidence about the situation of Philippine sports, which determines the pledge of this study as both a beacon for Filipino elite athletes and a divulgence for the government to foster the capacities of its sports per se and as an instrument. With this, its potential remains a matter in question.

Embedded with its global popularity, governments deliberately perform soft power-generating activities such as hosting sports events and investing in their sports. While most cases of the implementation of sports diplomacy come from developed countries, the exhibition of such practices is scarce in progressing economies like the Philippines. The Philippines is an emerging economy (Wong, 2016).

Thus, the pronouncements of this paper are imperative to solidify the grounds on the efficiency of its implementation and, more so, diversify the discussion—both as an IR theory and its praxis. To realize this, it seeks to explicate what Abdi et al. (2019) identified as major soft power resources in sports diplomacy, including sports victories and staging sports leagues. Essentially, this study centers explicitly on (1) identifying the implications of hosting the SEA Games 2019 for the country by examining the management of the Philippine government, (2) determining the implications of the elite sporting success of Filipino athletes in sports tournaments and, lastly, (3) identifying the potential of sports through the implementation of sports-related strategy by the Philippines. Ultimately, this paper aims to introduce the Philippines' approach to sports diplomacy by providing an in-depth analysis—particularly of its potential diplomatic outcomes—while hypothesizing the enhancement of the country's profile and building interstate relations.

New Public Diplomacy

According to Trunkos and Heere (2017), interstate relationships have long been understood through the prism of realism and neorealism, particularly in "states seeking power and wanting to dominate other states." Traditionally speaking, the leverage for power merely comes from the capabilities of a state to possess and exploit land, military forces, economic might, and other wealth assets at their disposal. Nye (1990) contended that the culmination of the Cold War had been the impetus for the gradual transformation of international relations, stating that while the risks of utilizing hard power resources such as military power have increased, the relevance of the role of other intangible assets of a state such as culture, ideology, and institutions has intensified. For most countries, using force threatens their economic objectives and ability to maintain international competitiveness (Grix et al., 2015). As a result, coercive force has become less tolerated in contemporary world politics, leading to the increased significance of soft power.

Although diplomacy has long been established as both a means of representation and a communication channel (Trunkos & Heere, 2017), it has significantly changed in the past decades. In a traditionalist sense, diplomacy merely involved and is exclusive to state-to-state interaction—the conduct of affairs to advance foreign policy objectives is typically held in private between official representatives of a government—whether headed by the state leaders themselves or professional diplomats representing their sovereign states (Lee & Ayhan, 2015).

The dynamics of mainstream diplomacy do not dwell on this concept—due to the emergence of other key players in the international system, particularly non-state actors who have begun to influence the political agenda of states and have been part of world governance (Shaltaev, 2019; Martino, 2020). Lee and Ayhan (2015) laid the foundation for two kinds of public diplomacy—traditional and modern. The new public diplomacy is construed as the "associations of states and some sub-state and non-state actors to understand cultures, attitudes, and behaviors; to build and manage relationships; and to influence thoughts and to influence thoughts and mobilize actions to advance their interests and values" (Lee & Ayhan, 2015). Moreover, the increasing growth of global actors has paved the way for diversifying diplomatic networks. As Szondi (2008) has argued, states are not solely the "official face" of modern-day diplomacy, as there is an increasing role for other actors in the multifaceted nature of public diplomacy. In this state-of-the-art diplomacy—though not state-centric—governments may still be involved in sponsorship, initiator, or source of communication (Szondi, 2008).

Contrary to the state-centric features of traditional public diplomacy, the new public diplomacy also acknowledges the increasing influence of public opinion. According to Lee and Ayhan (2015), in the modern world, "public attitudes and public opinion matter"; thus, "states could no more overlook the importance of the public in order to directly or indirectly influence foreign policy decisions of other countries." Its neoteric interpretations and state-of-the-art approaches are not circumscribed by merely focusing on the governments of other countries as targets of influence nor relying on state-based interactions. In fact, it broadens the scope of interaction by further including the perception of the public—building a more fluid global environment to achieve foreign policy goals and promote national interests (Szondi, 2008). Governments mobilize their cultural resources, values, and policies "to communicate with and attract the public of other countries" rather than solely state-driven (Szondi, 2008; Lekakis, 2019). Also, governments mobilize their soft power resources, as Nye (2004) identified, specifically culture, political values, and policies, mainly aimed at attracting

foreign publics and their governments (Lekakis, 2019). In this regard, as several scholars argue, sports can be classified as having a cultural prerogative. This implies that sports are an essential part of a nation's culture and can be utilized as a soft power asset of a state to generate influence. States and non-state actors have vital roles in a fluid international environment posed with issues and contexts situated in the domain of contemporary world politics (Mortazavi et al., 2018; Shaltaev, 2019; Martino, 2020).

Sports for Image Building

Abdi et al. (2019) and Özsarı (2018) suggested that there are different resources for sports diplomacy, including hosting major sports tournaments and designating professional elite athletes as ambassadors. This study has hypothesized that hosting sports events and achieving elite sporting success can enhance the country's profile, depending on the strategy and its success. Grix and Houlihan (2014) argued that "some tangible data" can suffice for this lack of standardized measurement, mainly to gauge its success. Sports events are embedded with "universal popularity" and serve as a common ground for interaction, particularly in cultural exchanges (Trunkos & Heere, 2017). It is also a form of mass entertainment that captures the interests of global audiences (Brannagan & Giulianotti, 2014; Shaltaev, 2019). Nye (2004) stipulated that "popular sports" can represent a nation's values given its global popularity and its emphasis on culture and peaceful values. It blurs "political differences," which opens up more channels of communication and "counterbalances" the unfavorable public opinion of countries (Wong, 2016).

Germany invested in sports soft power, especially to rebrand its images deeply associated with World War II. According to Grix and Lacroix (2006, in Grix & Houlihan, 2014), the legacy and brutality of the Third Reich left permanent marks on the German psyche and that of their international neighbors. Thus, hosting the World Cup 2006 was taken as an advantage to strengthen the efforts toward remarketing the nation as a friendly, accommodating, and investment-rich country. The government has initiated several national and global campaigns to achieve this as part of its broader "World Cup Hosting Strategy." This facilitated the promotion of Germany's foreign public opinion—bringing together key players from various sectors. According to Grix and Houlihan (2014), banking on Germany's rich and varied historical and cultural heritage "probably" contributed to the high number of attendees throughout the event period. The German Tourist Board (2007, in Grix & Houlihan, 2014) stated that over 2 million international visitors came to the country to witness the football tournament in 2006—many stayed and visited tourist attractions. It recorded the most significant increase in visitors from Britain, where the negative public perception of Germany is deeply influenced. It grew by 5% from 2005 to 2007, reaching 4.4 million overnight stays. Correspondingly, Germany swiftly went from the 17th spot in 2004 to the top in 2007, remaining in second place four years later (Anholt-GfK Roper, 2011, in Grix & Houlihan, 2014).

The UK, an advanced capitalist state, has already built up a reputation. However, the Foreign Commonwealth Office (FCO) saw public perception of the country's international profile as "arrogant, stuffy, old-fashioned, and cold." The FCO sought to project a more welcoming, diverse, and tolerant image of Britain. Thus, the London Olympic Games were adopted as a critical opportunity to promote the refinement of its image.

According to Grix et al. (2015), the turning point of the UK's exploitation of soft power strategies commenced with assessing the country's global image as ordered by the FCO in 2005. However, the results generated a "mixed picture." The first two blueprints aim to enhance the UK's image and reposition the country's profile as a "vibrant, open, and modern

society, a global hub in a networked world." The FCO instigated ways to promote the UK's culture nationwide and overseas through the 2012 Olympics. It turned out to be potent as the country obtained a "positive international image" as per the Anholt-Gfk Roper Index, which the UK ranked fourth in both 2009 and 2010, respectively. Moreover, the international media have published "almost uniformly" affirmative opinions of the London Olympics 2012 (Grix et al., 2015). Grix et al. (2015) have further stipulated that the UK was seen as "a good place to do business"—invoking the component of the Anholt-Gfk Roper Index, which appraises explicitly the investment appeal of which the country secured the third spot in both 2012 and 2013 after Germany, Canada, and the USA.

The UK's case is distinct in its purpose to improve its domestic and global security through investing in Olympic legacy projects, particularly in several Middle Eastern states. On top of these is recruiting "Olympic ambassadors" from renowned Olympians and Paralympians, including Sir Steve Redgrave, Lady Tanni Grey Thompson, and Chris Holmes. These ambassadors have visited selected countries, including Israel, Jordan, and Palestine, to solidify these legacy initiatives granted by their global popularity (Grix et al., 2015). Correspondingly, sports diplomacy is carried out by the new world diplomats who have the capability to represent the country on behalf of and with the consent of the state (Abdi et al., 2019). This type of diplomacy uses the capabilities of athletes, sports officials, and sports competitions to create an attractive image of their country to the foreign public (Shaltaev, 2019; Abdi et al., 2019; Bokserov, 2023).

In a sports-based setting, a traditional diplomatic approach would mean using the government, diplomats, sports officials, and other official state representatives to exercise state-to-state relationship building. Meanwhile, in the modern era, the development and advancement of policies extend to non-state actors, subnational organizations, non-governmental organizations, and even private entities (Shaltaev, 2019). In this regard, athletes can serve as non-traditional diplomats—players of team and individual sports, especially celebrity players—and become ambassadors for their respective countries. However, if sportspeople want the world to recognize them as professionals, they cannot be amateurs in world affairs (DeLay, 1999). The efforts of Muhammad Ali during the First Gulf War stand as an epitome. Ali, in his retirement, dedicated himself to charitable causes and peacebuilding. In 1990, he was sent on a diplomatic mission by the US government to negotiate the release of 15 American hostages by Saddam Hussein (Wenn, 1999). After exactly ten days of negotiations with Iraqi officials, the hostages were released and sent home. However, Grix et al. (2015) contend that the difficulty of assessing the diplomatic value of sport as a soft power resource remains.

Sports for Interstate Cooperation

Sports diplomacy is remarkably recognized by Murray (2020) as "a panacea, a neglected yet powerful diplomatic tool that can reduce estrangement, conflict, and poverty and promote greater development and dialogue," which, in modern political realities, is commended by governments.

A quintessence of this principle is South Korea staging the PyeongChang Olympics 2018. Its cardinal rationale is to open the diplomatic channel for communication with North Korea by bringing the latter "back to the negotiating table" with the US in ways that sports can afford (Grix et al., 2021). In this regard, North Korea had snubbed its neighboring country several times through political boycotts of SMEs. Interestingly, what transpired during the 2018 Olympics was an unprecedented occurrence when both Koreas concurred to represent themselves under solitary flag, specifically during the opening rites, and have an integrated

team for women's ice hockey games. In fact, prior to the 2018 Olympics, Kim Jong-un expressed that he was prepared to start talks with South Korea and send a team to the Winter Olympics, which former South Korean President Moon Jae-in received positively—stimulated the First Korean talks in two years (Grix et al., 2021). According to the Director of Budget and Marketing of the Korean Sport and Olympic Committee, "The diplomatic channel of communication between both Koreas, which started through the participation of North Korea in the PyeongChang Games, was restored again and that became the starting point of the inter-Korean summit." It tackled "a declaration of the end of civil war and a solution to the denuclearization of the Korean peninsula." Moreover, he contended that the hosting of the 2018 Winter Olympics was "a pivotal opportunity to improve inter-Korean relations and the IOC's role was important from the central government's perspective." Correspondingly, South Korean state officials argued that through the league "the inter-Korean summit was held three times, and the US-North Korea summit was a success." And that it "served as an opportunity to show the international community the easing of tensions originally caused by the security issues on the Korean peninsula." Albeit this relationship may have gradually changed in the years that have passed, it evidently illustrates the positive outcomes of sports diplomacy with merits to the event—setting in motion peaceful relations. Some scholars argue that the interstate cooperation between North Korea and the US would not have happened otherwise if the Olympics had not occurred.

Scholars can trace the early practice of sports diplomacy to the Cold War in the 1970s. One of its far-famed cases was "Ping-Pong diplomacy." Kobierecki (2016) asserted that it was believed to have thawed the tensions between Sino-American relations. However, in the post-war era, with fewer countries at war or hostile to each other, sports-based interstate relations can still be fostered, as in the case of Cuba. It actively sought collaboration and diplomacy to pursue progressive international development. Cuban sports-based internationalism prioritizes the facilitation of Global South cooperation through elite sports training in other Global South countries, establishing community-level sports for development by investing in capacity-building projects, and engagement in sports exchange on a for-profit basis.

Firstly, Cuba centered on South-South cooperation, wherein interstate relationships "contribute towards a shared goal" of sports victory (Huish et al., 2013). For instance, Cuba's Ministry of Sport exported professional sports coaches to Guatemala to train its athletes—for between two and six years. In this case, Cuba provides the expertise, while Guatemala dispenses the facilities, equipment, and a "modest" remuneration to the Cuban coaches. This resulted in a practical outcome—five out of the seven Guatemalan gold medalists from the 2011 Pan American Games were trained by Cuban professional sports coaches. The 15 medals, including the seven gold medals, have kept pace with the number won since 1951.

For this reason, Guatemala largely owes to its athletes' enhanced performances. Subsequently, the presence of Cuban coaches has been "highly praised" by the Guatemalan national authorities (Prensa Latina, 2011, in Huish et al., 2013). Meanwhile, this collaboration for elite sporting success implies that Cuban sport challenges the domineering disposition of sports in global affairs—wherein success in elite sporting success continues to indicate a benchmark for the "global identity, competence, and competitiveness" of a nation (Houlihan, 2011, in Huish et al., 2013).

Amidst the ongoing economic crisis after the collapse of European state socialism in the early 1990s, Cuba increased its commitment to sports both at home and abroad. Cuba's ability to foster cooperation through sports continued. In Venezuela, a program was devised to "address issues of underdevelopment, including access to community-based sport," due to the "lack of

capacity" of the Venezuelan government to address concerns about their social development through sport (Huish et al., 2013). Thus, former President Hugo Chavez called upon Cuban technical experts—including 16 sports professionals—to enforce the program. By 2004, over 7 million Venezuelans had taken part in these activities, according to Cuba's Ministry of Sport officials. The President commended the sports professionals for the improved health outcomes in the country (Huish et al., 2013).

Part of Cuba's sports-based internationalism was turning sports into a lucrative enterprise within the global market. Aside from commodifying Cuban sports, it cultivated and developed economic relationships with other states, especially sporting bodies, to acquire economic benefits. It exported its highly educated, trained, and skilled sports professionals for contractual employment from countries like Japan (baseball), Australia (athletics), India (boxing), South Africa (track), and Italy (baseball) while abandoning sporting goods exportation and taking part in several agreements with far-famed sporting goods firms—the Japanese-owned companies Mizuno and Yaohan, the Spanish company Lazio, and the German manufacturer Adidas—to cover the cost of their national teams participating in global sporting events (Huish et al., 2013). These sports programs operate self-sufficiently through hard currency earnings from labor exports and joint venture sponsorships (Huish et al., 2013).

Cuba presents a profound significance on the precedence for sports-based cooperation and development, which offer essential opportunities for achieving political and economic aspirations and defining the country's policy priorities. Cuban sport is an iota of a much broader approach to reframing development in partner countries by adopting sports-based strategies, which would further its global efforts to cooperate (Huish et al., 2013).

As the world becomes more globalized and thus interdependent, several states have initiated and implemented distinct approaches to further and strengthen their influence and relationships with the other actors in the international system through the merits of soft power. Accordingly, this paves the way for new forms of diplomacy to acquire their foreign policy objectives through state-of-the-art approaches, such as by implementing sports-based strategies to achieve diplomatic outcomes. Unequivocally, a wide range of states from developed and emerging economies have shown their affirmative view of sporting prowess. While the preceding studies, as discussed above, showcase the successful implementation side of sports diplomacy, they also have shortcomings. Nevertheless, the illustrative cases have demonstrated and established the potential of sports in other countries, particularly in establishing linkages with other nations, building a state's national image, and obtaining recognition and prestige from the international community—governments and foreign publics alike—with both commitment and strategic rule at hand.

Material and Method

The exploratory research design is implemented in the study. Given that the practice of sports diplomacy is a new-fangled approach to Philippine diplomacy in particular—incorporates the dynamic roles of both traditional and non-traditional diplomats—it has limited paradigms in the country. Therefore, this study investigates the potential of sports as a tool for public diplomacy in the Philippines—through the perspectives of sportspeople, sports events, and national sports organizations. Additionally, the literature on sports diplomacy in the Philippine setting is obscure, if not ambiguous—it is, therefore, fitting for this paper to pursue an exploratory design to provide a clearly defined analysis of this area in a distinct context.

Instruments

This study conducts two qualitative-based instruments to gather the pertinent data—mainly a document review for secondary sources of data and a key informant interview as the primary source—to gain an in-depth understanding of and obtain auxiliary explanations on the phenomenon of the political instrumentation of sports for diplomacy to achieve the objectives of the study. Subsequently, to establish the confirmability of the study's findings and avoid biased results, it applies the triangulation of data sources. In this regard, the data gathered from the KII and the document review were correlated with the literature review as well as the theoretical framework of the study.

A research ethics committee diligently probed both instruments to certify the aptness of their imposition and their undertaking from data collection for the study to their management—in conformity with all the set guidelines.

Respondent Selection

This paper imposes its eligibility conditions—each respondent must qualify in order to be included in their participation. Due to unresponsiveness and time constraints, this study has scouted three of the maximum six participants. All of the participants in this study were mandated to take a pre-assessment test consisting of background quizzing and fundamental questions on the objectives to ensure that the respondents possess sufficient cognizance of the interview questions and, overall, are qualified to participate in this research. There are at least three classifications of participants for the KII, namely sports athletes, sports officials, and experts. Various data sources make this study more objective by looking at distinct paradigms of experiences and insights of sports athletes, sports officials, and experts on sports as a soft power in the Philippines.

Therefore, utilizing the KII as one of the data collection tools—with a multifaceted dimension to the topic of the instrumentation of sports for diplomacy—is opportune for this project since it enables this paper to ground its analysis on the different views of various stakeholders.
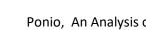
Findings

Hosting Sports Events as an Instrument for Image Building

I.   Showcasing Infrastructural Developments in the SEA Games 2019

One of the objectives of this study is to probe the management of the SEA Games 2019 to uncover the potential of sports as a tool for public diplomacy in the Philippine setting. Notably, at the time of this paper, the 30th Games was the most recent one hosted in the country. Additionally, it transpired under the former administration; thus, the trajectory of this part was centralized during the time for purposes of data accuracy and relevance.

As part of the policy priorities throughout the Duterte presidency, the "Build, Build, Build" program was strongly enacted—undeniably stimulating aggressive infrastructure developments nationwide. Considering the growing progress in the implementation of a nationwide boost in infrastructure investment during his term—the government saw an occasion of hosting the upcoming 30th Games—the Presidential Communications Office (2017) of the administration asserted in an officially published article that the event was "an opportunity to show to the rest of the world the advancements made during the 'Golden Age of Infrastructure' under the Duterte administration." It added that the country is "bound to gain more in terms of tourism" and "prove to the world that the Philippines is a safe place to visit and a secure country to hold international events."

The statement from the PCO suggested that, even with the progressing infrastructure program of the government, sports—as explicitly stated—managed to obtain a unique sort of

significance, particularly in conveying a captivating development narrative of the Philippines. This is categorically defined by showcasing the infrastructural developments in the country. The feasibility of which Philippine soft power can be actualized in its capacity to grant the external exposure induced by hosting the sports league—as an advantage of the host state—as well as its contribution to positive impacts on the profile of the Philippines vis-à-vis its established standing. At this point, the government is cognizant of the publicity it can amass concomitant with the Games.

Improved tourism is one of the indicators propounded by scholars to gauge the success of exploiting sports soft power through sports leagues, predominantly attributed to the favorable image ascribed to the triumphant implementation of sports-based strategies. However, the compartmentalization of tourists—their country of departure and the public opinion of those in that country—and the burden of attributing the increase in tourism to hosting the event remains an intricate aspect in this area.

Moreover, boosted infrastructure developments are expected to host states provided with a vast number of participants and spectators for the tournament (Huish et al., 2013; Brannagan & Giulianotti, 2014; Grix & Houlihan, 2014; Grix et al., 2015; Grix et al., 2021). Given this, one Respondent—a former elite athlete and currently a professor of Sport Management concurred with this view, stipulating that "there was infrastructure development," including— "the national training center, the athletics track, and the beautiful swimming venue that was designed by very famous Filipino designers." Additionally, within Clark City, some were developed "for probably business and residential and other venues."

Verily, the Games was well recognized as an occasion to enhance the image of the Philippines by government officials, mainly through the extravagant investment in different facilities that cater to the participants and spectators of the event—even spurring profitable strategic business agendas within the locale. In this regard, it is worth reiterating Nye's (2004) conceptualization of soft power, specifically its element of "attraction" directed toward the "foreign public." Meanwhile, an alteration of "public opinion" is crucial in the practice of public diplomacy (Szondi, 2008). For the Philippines specifically, this could mean enticing the foreign public—participants, spectators, and perhaps even the international media—by providing and flaunting "world-class facilities" through the exposure of the Games, which carries the evident maximum potential of increasing tourism as well. In fact, according to Joey Roi Bondoc, Colliers International Philippines research manager, the Games does not only "gauge our preparedness for future events and determine if we have sufficient and world-class facilities," but this will eventually "help us improve our profile as a global MICE destinations and attract more tourists." He added that hosting the tournament will "help raise hotel occupancy and foreign tourist spending in major MICE destinations such as Metro Manila, Clark, Cebu and Iloilo." Under the nation's national tourism development strategy, MICE—meetings, incentives, conventions, and exhibitions concentrating on attracting more tourists— is one of the ten tourism products. Former Department of Tourism Secretary Bernadette Romulo-Puyat underlined that a location may become increasingly competitive through the tourism industry while simultaneously being more sustainable and inclusive (The Philippine Star, 2019). Although divulging this data further is beyond this study's goals, cases from other countries would prove otherwise.

Additionally, the PHISGOC chairman, former Senator Alan Cayetano—who was appointed by the President to oversee the overall management of the Games—also explicitly assented and gave an official acknowledgment of the aptitude of the Games to the government's strategy and process of "rebranding or a reintroduction of the Philippines" image. He added

that this implementation is geared explicitly towards altering the negative typecasts associated with the country by the international community, such as "poverty, gridlock, and corruption" (ASEAN Post, 2019). These statements insinuate that one of the Philippines' agendas in hosting the Games is to exude its soft power with its capabilities and, simultaneously, obtain cognizance of these capabilities to generate soft power—influencing public opinion, especially on the global stage.

On the other hand, the rejoinders of the other two Respondents deviated from the above-discussed potential of staging the Games by underscoring and tapping on the gains of "exposure" of Filipino athletes during the event. However, this slant of sports diplomacy is further discussed in the last section.

II.   Media Perceptions Offer a Different Perspective on the Games

The vast media coverage of the Games, including—local and international news sources alike—somehow offered an opposite trajectory of the image of the Philippines, contrary to the overall goal of exhibiting a favorable profile internationally. Hosting the SEA Games 2019 undeniably accumulated lousy publicity in the media due to various predicaments. On most news article reports, the circulating issues superseded any favorable experiences of athletes and spectators or buoyant aspects of the event. Firstly, the accommodation of the national and foreign participants of the Games. According to a report from The Guardian (2019)—a US-based news source—the chef de mission for Singapore lamented the lack of halal meals for his team's athletes and poor transportation. Respondent 1 indirectly insinuated these occurrences by declaring a "risk involved there [in hosting]." Furthermore, he added a more direct statement by pointing at the inconveniences that may be experienced by "foreign participants," such as "the facilities, the setup or even the food in the hotel."

Notably, in terms of the relevance of soft power in this regard, Nye (2004) and Lekakis (2019) suggested that it must also be maneuvered to the liking of the "foreign public," which supplants the state-centric approach to public diplomacy. On the other hand, the nuisances above-discussed were encountered by participants from other countries, which contradicts the goal and perhaps debases the purpose and effectiveness of the strategy of "rebranding" the Philippines—though this area demands further research. Respondent 2 also concurred with these episodes by stating that, in some instances, "I can categorically say it was a lost opportunity and we did not know. We actually don't understand what the games actually were, except for the nice venues and nice athletes' hostels." This rejoinder further implies that there is a need to plan and implement these sports-based strategies diligently. The case of Germany wherein it produced a "World Cup Hosting Strategy" to organize and coordinate efforts with the different sectors mobilizing their roles in the successful image building of the country (Grix & Houlihan, 2014). Additionally, Respondent 3, an elite athlete, shared his personal experience on this matter, highlighting the "mismanagement" as the prime issue.

Secondly, the rushed completion of some venues which led to a few disadvantages for sports athletes—both foreign and local. For instance, according to a report from The Guardian (2019), "Days before the games formally opened, construction workers were still rushing to finish the venues. The first football match between Myanmar and Malaysia – the football competition starts early–at the renovated Rizal Memorial Stadium proceeded without a scoreboard." Additionally, there were reportedly six venues that needed to be finished in time for the Games (ABS-CBN News, 2019). Respondent 3 had a personal encounter with the consequences of these delays "...everything was so rushed. Even the tennis courts. They finished the courts like two days before the tournament. So, we couldn't even benefit [from it].

[Like] Practicing at the courts, like weeks or months before because they haven't done it. It was supposed to be a home court advantage."

Interestingly, Respondent 1 has contended that this was "a very ambitious plan" pertaining to the total of 56 sports of which it was the highest edition "a record for the Southeast Asian Games." Meanwhile, Respondent 2 offered a different perspective concerning the infrastructure boost within New Clark City, where the athletics stadium with 20,000 seating capacity accentuated the "controversy behind the development," wherein she further stated that "they might have had displaced Aeta communities." According to a news article from Al Jazeera (2019), the first phase of this project including "aquatics center, stadium and an athletes' village" had reportedly displaced the Aetas Indigenous communities.

The prevalence of negative publicity during the Games caught the attention of some government officials, including the PHISGOC chairman. He expressed his concern in a media interview by stipulating, "The problem is, even in the media, fake news is being reported. Especially online, you have to report immediately, but [still] that does not take out the responsibility to check if what is being reported is factual or not." He further pointed out in the interview that inconveniences should have been reported directly to the PHISGOC rather than expressed via social media (ABS-CBN News, 2019). Meanwhile, this propounds implications that are relevant in the discussion of media perceptions of sporting events overall and its prospect of influencing state image. Also, the intensity of the media perception, particularly on the fiascos, is high.

Philippine Representation in International Sporting Events

     I.   Elite Sporting Success of Filipino Athletes as a Soft Power Resource

The representation of athletes on the world stage is an equally important factor in sports soft power. In a press briefing on hosting the SEA Games 2019, former Senator Alan Cayetano stated, "It's our athletes that bring out the best in the Filipino eh. But whether they win or lose, people fall in love with Philippine athletes. What we want to showcase in 2019, is the Filipino, through our athletes." He reiterates that the representation of athletes of their country of origin is at the heart of sports. However, Abdi et al. (2019) argued that these athletes need to prove further that they can perform well abroad to effectively convey the values of their country and eventually improve its image. In this regard, the Respondents have concurred in concert with the implications of Philippine representation—that good performance abroad generates a favorable image of the country. Respondent 1 stipulated, "I think it helps a lot that we have competitive athletes and competitive teams going abroad because it enhances, it improves our image."

Meanwhile, Respondent 2 claimed something similar about Filipino sporting victories, underscoring its domestic impact, referring to it as "psychic income," which means to "feel good." She added an emphasis on this "feel-good factor" whenever "they are good" or, in other words, medalists. Respondent 3, on the other hand, pitched in the element of the exposure of athletes through "media coverage" on the realization of these sporting victories.

Victory is not everything in sports however. Another valuable resource in the conduct of image building in the new public diplomacy are the athletes themselves. Abdi et. al (2019), stated that athletes are the most essential resource of sports diplomacy for states—even more important than hosting or participating in sporting events. Athletes are essential pillars in the conduct of sports diplomacy. Their status as non-traditional diplomats is further solidified by way of their successes—representing their country of origin on the global stage. Additionally, athletes have varying degrees of influence—of which an exemplar of this is Manny Pacquiao.

In a press conference on the hosting of the SEA Games 2019, former Senator Cayetano concurred on this view that when Pacquiao had tournaments, "everyone stops, that's why we have zero crime rate." Although this may carry an exaggerated connotation of his boxing fights, the former Senator added a global paradigm for his influence by affirming "From the start, the Mexicans didn't like Pacquiao cause he was always beating them but now the Mexicans love him." In this regard, the potential to yield influence—especially one that is external—through the channel of sporting victories that is constant and thus legitimized.

The respondents, in this case, had various interpretations with regard to the influence of Filipino elite athletes. For instance, Respondent 1 expressed that the modern Filipino elite athletes "give us a very positive image." However, he added "it's a work in progress" while implying skepticality on the lack of capacity for these sorts of athletes to be non-traditional diplomats mainly due to their neophyte status despite being "caliber in sports." Respondent 2 also shared the same perception: "I am not sure how athletes can create that impact unless you're big like Manny Pacquiao." Meanwhile, Respondent 3 cited the people-to-people channel of public diplomacy grounded on his personal experiences as a tennis player and with the community of Filipino tennis players, in particular. "For me, everywhere I go, if there are Filipino tennis players, they would know me. And they would take me out to dinner, lunch. We get to represent and be ambassadors everywhere around the world." In this case, there are no insinuations on obtaining influence from sporting victories, in which the case remains circumscribed.

On the other hand, Respondents are uncertain on the capability of neophyte athletes particularly to create a profound cultural or political impact—unless they acquire as much popularity as Manny Pacquiao. More so, the profile of Pacquiao also remains his strongest appeal or, collectively referred to as—the "Pacquiao Effect."

It underlines the importance of having enough influence in order to become attractive towards the foreign public and or governments. It requires the performative aspect to be recognized by the target audience—otherwise, it will not be taken seriously (Lekakis, 2019). Although the country has several successful elite athletes—Hidilyn Diaz, EJ Obiena, Margielyn Didal, etc—the data above propounds that modern-day athletes lack the influence required to attract foreign publics, and their abilities as non-traditional sports diplomats are underappreciated—compared to Pacquiao. Consequently, Philippine sports necessitates further development—including investment in elite sporting success—as a prerequisite to transforming this into an effective public diplomacy strategy.

Philippine Sports As a Tool for Inter-state Cooperation

An illustrative case of sports-based diplomacy aimed at advancing collaborative endeavors through external alliances to ensure peace and security was brought into play in the Philippines. The term "fellowship golf" in 2019 referred to a gathering of the officials from the Department of National Defense (DND) and Armed Forces of the Philippines (AFP), ambassadors, charge d'affaires, and members of the Foreign Armed Forces Attaché (FAFA)—from Australia, Brunei, Canada, Germany, Indonesia, Japan, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, Singapore, South Korea, Thailand, the United States, and Vietnam. The encounter was directed towards efforts for peace and security through strengthening interstate cooperation among stakeholders. The Philippines had made a solicitation to the international diplomatic community for sustenance in "addressing the foreign activities of communist terrorist groups (CTGs) through International Solidarity Works (ISW)" (Philippine News Agency, 2019). In view of this, former Defense Secretary Delfin Lorenzana has affirmed the importance of "playing sports" as it enables the state officials "to know people with similar interests, making

friends and expanding our networks outside the confines of our respective workplaces [which is a] wonderful way of spreading goodwill, promoting trust and building confidence, which is imperative in order to carry out our duty of ensuring the peace, security, and stability." Unequivocally, this occurrence has demonstrated that sports can be employed as a means to obtain and even bolster linkages with states that advance common interests.

Seemingly, the Philippine Consulate General in New York City has orchestrated sports as an instrument of its efforts to engage with the Filipino-American community in the US Northeast Region through a basketball tournament. "Both teams played their hearts out during the course of the competition and managed to win one game apiece and, more importantly, gained the respect and friendship of the teams they played against" (Department of Foreign Affairs, 2018). This occurrence signifies that sports can serve as a platform, particularly for cultural education—through social exchanges of individuals from different cultural backgrounds. Remarkably, Murray (2020) argued that sport is "a powerful diplomatic tool" that can be instrumentalized to "reduce estrangement, conflict, and poverty and promote greater development and dialogue"—which, in the modern political realities, is commended by governments.

Meanwhile, despite the fact that there are already praxes of sports being utilized as an instrument to forge security agreements and advance cultural exchanges in particular, Respondent 1 saw the state-to-state channel to be ambiguous, saying that "it is not apparent today." He added that "there are opportunities there" while insinuating the prospect of inter-agency coordination, "something that, I believe, Philippines Sports Commission and DFA might meet and see. How they can help each other in that regard."

Respondent 2, on the other hand, asserted that inter-state cooperation through sports is plausible citing an illustration that fellow ASEAN neighbors can co-host an SME or through a private-public relationship, stating that whenever the country hosts the Olympics, it can "gather our South East Asian neighbors" and "encourage multiple countries [to co-host]." Moreover, she added that cooperation can be realized given that "it's such a huge financial burden [if there's one host country]," paving the way for state-centric and people-to-people channels of diplomacy— producing mutually beneficial relationships and outcomes.

In sum, the data above implies that even though demonstrations of sports are being utilized as a diplomatic tool to advance cooperation in the Philippines, more is needed so that we can fully manifest that cooperation is plausible through sports alone. Sports as an instrument for international relations still has to be developed and needs further collaboration and discussion for both the Department of Foreign Affairs and the Philippines Sports Commission, including athletes as non-traditional ambassadors.

Discussion

Hosting Sports Leagues and the Media: An Image Building of the State

More often than not, sporting events have afforded host states an opportunity to spawn and even amplify their soft power and further their agendas by amalgamating the political instrumentation of sports into their prime business politics, making it lucrative—by both tangible and intangible means. Most of the data presented above coincides with the hypotheses of this paper. It implies that one of the potentials of sports soft power is to contribute to the overarching intention of governments in advancing sports events—with cognizance of its favorable repercussions to the image of a state by affecting the opinion of the foreign public, at least. It has been comprehensively uncovered and, most significantly, confirmed above—that sporting events can be instrumentalized to exhibit the alluring aspects

of a country, such as—in the Philippine context—the infrastructural advancements, particularly of the Duterte administration, providing top-level facilities, increasing tourism—eventually spur the economy specifically within locale venues and to improve the image overall. As with the case of Germany in its 2006 World Cup, the German Tourist Board recorded the most significant increase in visitors from the UK—where the negative perception of the foreign public is ingrained as linked to the hostility of the Second World War (Grix & Houlihan, 2013). The SEA Games 2019, for instance, are integrated into the entire plan to seize the momentum of showcasing these Philippine attractions to the world.

The relevance of soft power has increased in the theory of international relations for one reason—the democratization of information, making it conveniently accessible and available across the globe with the aid of the IT revolution (Özsarı, 2018; Martino, 2020). In the new public diplomacy, Szondi (2008) and Abdi et al. (2019) both conceptualized the media as forming part of the "public opinion" from foreign countries that, in this case, imprints a profound impact on the image of the host country—depending on the narrative that the media portrays it to be. Most sports diplomacy scholars would affirm that media perceptions—apart from the potential of obtaining influence from their audiences—are also essential to the image-building of the state. As with the case of the 2012 London Olympics, Grix et al. (2015) observed that media perceptions mainly were affirmative of the staging of the event. This implies that media exposure can affect the process of enhancing one's prestige as it may serve a contrasting narrative to the host country—overlapping the captivating ones. In this regard, obtaining awareness of the exposure of hosting tournaments does not necessarily guarantee the generation of soft power, considering the lack of cognizance of their potential to influence, particularly those reputable and credible media outlets.

To some, if not all, staging sports events can also pose a burden to the host states. Based on the cases presented in the literature review, one of those dominating causes includes—the responsibilities embedded after a state has won the bidding—as with the case of Brazil and its double hosting of SMEs—overwhelming demands from both FIFA and the Olympic Committee and its domestic politics. Although a state should be fully aware of its hosting chores, the actualization of these with the realities on the ground might be divergent, given one's capabilities. As in other states, it is a prerequisite that the government has the full panoply of resources to invest extensively in hosting sports tournaments, though this may vary according to the criteria and demands of the league's board members. On top of that, host states must also show commitment to these responsibilities, as it does not solely leave an impression on the public in terms of being accountable but more so an opportunity for governments to generate positive experiences that can be lucrative to them in several ways—political, social, or economic benefits. Additionally, Brannagan and Guilianotti (2014) contended that host states must exude "professionalism and responsibility" for the entirety of the event, which could also mean dealing with any fiascos accordingly—apart from the hosting chores per se.

The insight from Brannagan and Guilianotti (2014) in the case of Qatar and the 2022 World Cup is worthy of reiteration—that adverse experiences in staging sports leagues may result in "soft disempowerment." Although this is not entirely the case, it further advances the argument of Freeman (2012) that hosting a sports tournament also engages media attention—even after the actual event. Furthermore, it exposes the audience to the host country's geography, demographics, history, and culture (Freeman, 2012). Therefore, it can be assumed that the media has glaring repercussions on the exposure the host state attains and is continuously associated with, amongst all other things linked to the event. Hence, the deliverer of information about the activities of the government to the public (Özsarı, 2018).

Oxford Business Group (2019) also concurred with the potential of media coverage in image-building, as—in the SEA Games 2019—it "provide[s] the country with an international platform to portray its strength as an attractive tourism destination and capable tournament host."

Sporting Victories and Representation through Athletes

The Philippines' successes were far and wide, particularly during the recent sports leagues. These sporting victories are essential in building the reputation of the country and its athletes, especially in global sports. In the SEA Games 2019, the country have become the overall champions for the first time since reigning supreme as host in 2005—signifying that Philippine athletes' performances have undeniably improved over the years. Another milestone to consider for Filipino athletes in terms of performance is the Tokyo Olympics in 2021. The Tokyo Olympics—a significant event in Philippine history—were the first time the country gained four medals from different sports, especially its pioneering gold medal.

Recently, the influence of Filipino athletes has been felt, most especially through Hidilyn Diaz—her victory in the Tokyo Olympics 2021 is mainly a major flashpoint since she is the pioneering Olympic gold medalist in Philippine history. Throughout the anticipated major events, Filipino elite athletes have been making history with their sporting victories, which undeniably shows that the Philippines can adopt this kind of sports-related strategy.

The data shows that Filipino athletes are globally competitive—hence the augmentation of their overall performance over the past few years. The achievement of elite sporting success in recent tournaments indicates that Filipino athletes are expected to become serious global competitors, given their profile. However—for elite athletes, in particular—to become effective agents of state soft power, they must perform at the highest levels, receive support from their home state, and be cognizant of global sports affairs (DeLay, 1999; Black, 2010). The successes and professionalism of Filipino athletes in sporting events and their status as non-traditional diplomats—according to the ideals of new public diplomacy—generate soft power per se and are a subject of exposure in the international arena. Apart from its potential to attract the foreign public, it can also be a source of motivation for the local sports population.

It is worth noting that sports diplomacy is within the bounds of soft power—influence plays a vital role in generating a favorable profile for the country (Abdi et al., 2019). In this regard, the cardinal purpose of influence is to show the country's culture and political values through sports athletes (Özsarı, 2018; Abdi et al., 2019). This induces sports as an obvious choice for the propagation of soft power as it mainly centers on international exposure as well as influence through cultural and peaceful values (Nye, 2004; Trunkos & Heere, 2017; Abdi et al., 2019).

Ultimately, respondents had mixed responses regarding the implications and importance of Philippine representation on the world stage. The respondents expressed uncertainty regarding the ability of contemporary athletes to exert significant cultural or political influence unless they are comparable to Pacquiao. His reputation continues to be the most potent asset, consistently referenced by the respondents as the source of the "Pacquiao Effect." Likewise, in discussions about global influence or the impact of Filipino athletes, all respondents invariably brought up Manny Pacquiao. This underscores the imperative of establishing influence within a modern framework of public diplomacy (Trunkos & Heere, 2017).

This underscores the significance of attaining a sufficient level of influence to appeal to foreign audiences and governments. Achieving this requires that the target audience

acknowledge the performative aspect; otherwise, it may not be taken seriously or will fail to yield soft power (Lekakis, 2019). Despite several influential athletes in the country, such as Hidilyn Diaz, EJ Obiena, Margielyn Didal, and others, the respondents have concluded that current athletes still need to possess the requisite influence to attract the foreign public. Their potential as non-traditional sports diplomats remains less apparent when compared to Pacquiao himself. It is evident that Philippine sports still require further development in terms of athlete performance and their ability to contribute to an effective sports-based diplomacy strategy.

Advancing Inter-state Cooperation through Sports

In probing the praxes of the Philippines in cultivating and forging cooperation with other governments through its sports-based initiatives, there are two implications vis-à-vis its potential. There is the promotion of security alliances with several countries through golf and moments of cultural exchange in a basketball tournament. It is worth noting that the diplomatic channels for these events are state-centric. In other words, the approach is traditional diplomacy, inclusive of state actors (Lee & Ayhan, 2015).

There are multiple manifestations of the results of sports as a tool for interstate cooperation. South Korea, for instance, hosted the PyeongChang Winter Games 2018 as part of the promotion of peace on the Korean peninsula (Grix et al., 2021). The PyeongChang Olympics is of cardinal value, geared toward the opening of diplomatic channels with North Korea—bringing the latter "back to the negotiating table" together with the US, which was perceived as one of the ways that sports can afford (Grix et al., 2021). As a result of the constant interaction, the communication channels of both Koreas were restored, which led to a series of inter-Korean summits, even including those with the US.

Meanwhile, contrary to the state-level cognizance of sports diplomacy, the respondents have banked on the critical assumptions of the new public diplomacy with regard to the capability of sports for cooperation among states. It is perceived to be possible through inter-agency cooperation—the DFA and the sports ministry—or through public-private partnerships. Overall, these suggest that sports, through the framework of new public diplomacy, can be anticipated in the future, as the actors mainly involved in the implementation are from the state. Given this, Szondi (2008) asserts that modern-day diplomacy challenges the status of the government as the exclusive "official face" with the growing population of non-state actors; however, its role can still be as imperative as initiating communication channels with other governments, thereby providing expediency to non-state actors in this case as well as sponsorship.

A state-centered approach is a good starting point for the instrumentalization of sports to promote cooperation. In the case of Cuba, the government supported sports for development. They optimized their professional coaches to aid Venezuela in their concerns about a lack of social development by devising sports-based programs. The Venezuelan President commended the sports professionals by linking their undertakings with improved health outcomes in the country (Huish et al., 2013). On the other hand, the Cuban government has established a profit-maximizing entity called Cubadeportes to commodify Cuba's sports and develop economic relationships with other states and sporting bodies. The organization exports skilled sports professionals to countries including Japan, Australia, India, South Africa, and Italy and contracts with sporting goods firms to cover national teams' costs. Cubadeportes operates self-sufficiently through labor exports and joint venture sponsorships.

Conclusion

We came up with three significant sports diplomacy resources in our study: hosting sporting events, athlete representation through elite sporting success, and sports for inter-state relations. Firstly, the experience in the management of the SEA Games 2019 is an opportune event that the Philippines can actually exploit to improve its stature—in fact, with its explicit and galvanized intention to build an image through the merits of soft power. Unequivocally, the government may have acknowledged and well perceived the influence it can harbor—including debunking the stereotypical identity of the country from abroad—but the matter in question hereon is ensuring its actualization and, more broadly, that the influence through soft power has been generated and concretized by public diplomacy outcomes. Exploiting the sporting event as an initiative to brand a favorable image of the country implies that the element of state interest in implementing sports-related strategies—those that are beneficial to the country—is crystal clear. In terms of attracting the foreign public, however—based on the SEA Games 2019 management fiascos—a methodical process and an orderly execution of the strategies are prerequisites to further the likelihood of achieving the intended outcomes as well as to lessen any prospect of soft disempowerment, primarily through the influence of global media.

Secondly, modern Filipino athletes have undoubtedly exhibited their sporting prowess and success through their recent representation in sporting competitions. This means they can be considered serious competitors recognized by participants from other countries. Sporting victories, in particular, have the potential to contribute to the amelioration of the image of the country—a profile of globally competitive athletes. The capability of a Filipino elite athlete with regards to being a public diplomat—to embody and execute such a state-driven responsibility—is presently bleak, engendered by their lack of essential qualities as identified by most scholars—such as significant knowledge in international affairs. On top of that, current Filipino elite athletes also do not possess a sort of solidified influence to conduct sports diplomacy effectively unless they obtain an equal level of influence as Manny Pacquiao.

Thirdly, the sports-related diplomatic approach is close to realization. The Philippines was able to conduct international cooperation both in the field of security—a hard power-related agenda—and in the field of cultural exchange and education for community integration—focusing more on the soft power outcomes. The stringent fact of the variations of these praxes traces back to traditional public diplomacy, wherein state officials are the main actors on the platform, and the new public diplomacy, the people-centered approach. It should be reiterated that one of the theoretical grounds of this paper is the assumption of the new public diplomacy—increased concentration on people-to-people interaction or state-to-people. The discourse on peace and security, in particular, is and should be a profound concern of the government to protect the welfare of its people, given that they obtain the fundamental means to further this cause.

Moreover, the question of whether sports can be used as a tool for diplomacy in the Philippine setting is less of a priority to the Philippine government. However, further study can be advanced in this area. Philippine sports may start making a meaningful contribution as a practical approach to public diplomacy; however, it demands tedious efforts for its development at the grassroots level. Moreover, the Philippines obtains its sports diplomacy resources to assist them in their pursuit of soft power influence—it must take the necessary considerations and rectify its flawed credentials in these fundamental aspects.

What's Next

Future studies may look into the so-called "*Pacquiao Effect*" and explore its impact or influence on a cultural and political level—interrogating the soft power of GOAT (Greatest of All Time) Filipino athletes at the domestic and international levels. Furthermore, it may also address the gaps in Philippine sports governance as a soft power resource for public diplomacy. Meanwhile, the objectives of this paper factored out examining the benefits gained from sports-related strategies to assess and produce an analysis of their effectiveness in generating intended diplomatic outcomes.

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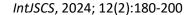
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