New Horizons in Sport Sciences

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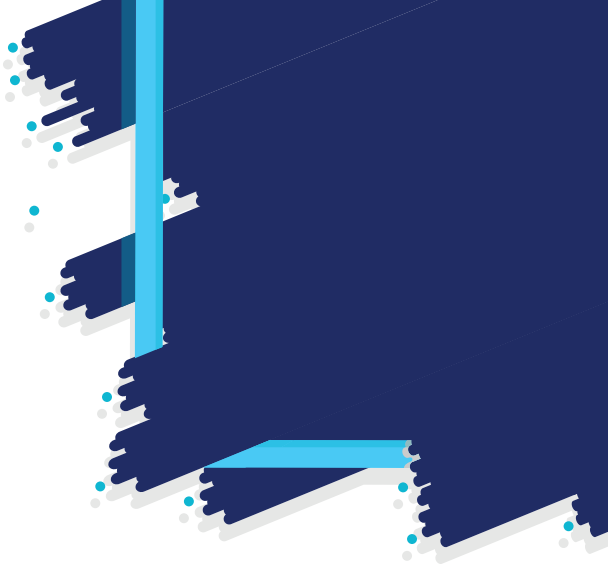

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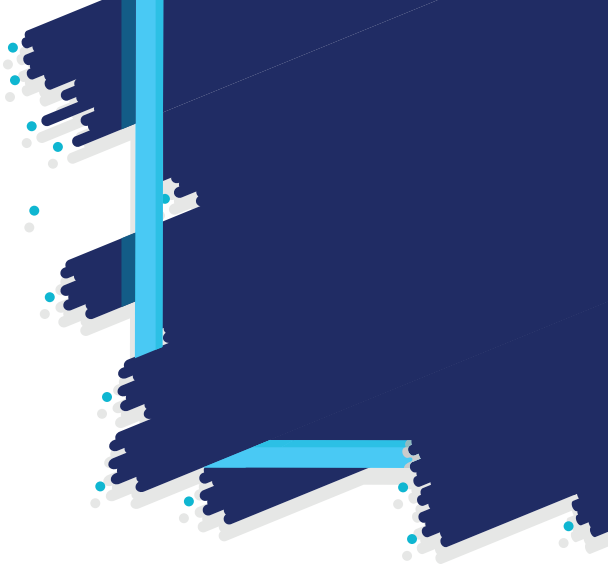

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A REVIEW OF PRE-EXERCISE AND POST-EXERCISE DEPRESSION, ANXIETY AND STRESS LEVELS OF THE ARRESTED AND SENTENCED MALE INDIVIDUALS IN AN OPEN PRISON

Yüceloğlu Keskin DÖ[1], Karakaya Y[2]

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A REVIEW OF PRE-EXERCISE AND POST-EXERCISE DEPRESSION, ANXIETY AND STRESS LEVELS OF THE ARRESTED AND SENTENCED MALE INDIVIDUALS IN AN OPEN PRISON

Yüceloğlu Keskin DÖ[1], Karakaya Y[2]

INTRODUCTION

The root of the term "depression" is "depressus" in Latin meaning; to press down, to pull, exhausted, mournful, sorrowful, to discourage, to dim, and to sober (Köknel, 1984).

The effect of depression on behaviors appears as slowing down of movements due to energy decrease. Even daily routines are seen as duties that a person cannot get through. Therefore, they are either not performed at all or performed with a great effort at a long time. The person generally wants to stay alone and avoids social relations (Hirschfeld,1999).

Özpoyraz (2000) tries to explain anxiety with terms such as "worry, mope, tediousness, and stress", but it also contains emotions as "fear, apprehension and crisis". Anxiety is an uncertain internal emotion of mope of unknown origin that is experienced with fear, worry, distress, and a feeling like something bad is going to happen. It is stated as a reaction against internal or external danger or danger prediction (Özpoyraz, 2000).

Cüceloğlu (1992) defines stress as an effort beyond physical and psychological limits given by individuals

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due to noncompliant conditions coming from physical and social environment (Cüceloğlu, 1992).

It has been seen that the use of the term "stress" has been increased widely especially in recent years. Stress is sometimes used to define stimulants (stressor) coming from the environment (such as: "I have a highly stressful job."), and sometimes used to describe an internal emotion or reaction (stress indicator) (such as: "I am very stressed today."). It is mostly used in a way to comprise both the stimulant and the reaction (such as: "This stressful job made me stressed.") (Akman, 2004).

It is clear from literature reviews that the occurrence probability of depressive symptoms is high in penitentiary institutions. Due to their conditions, the increasing of the severity of depression may increase the risk of suicide and the risk may be higher than the normal population (Görgülü, 2009).

The relationship between sports and depression and anxiety has been examined in many studies and doing regular sports has been revealed to be beneficial for these disorders (Byrne and Byrne, 1993; Salmon, 2000).

Long (1983) states that exercise is a form of meditation that enable change and relaxation of consciousness, and exercise prevents negative moods such as anxiety and stress in the cognitive system (Long, 1983).

The purpose of this study is to review the pre-exercise and post-exercise depression, stress and anxiety levels of the arrested and sentenced male individuals in Open Prison in a 4-week, 3-day, 60-minute exercise program.

Method

The study was applied to a total of 20 arrested and sentenced male individuals in Samsun Bafra Open Penitentiary Institution in 2019. An open air aerobic exercise program was followed for 60 minutes three days a week for 4 weeks during the study. Necessary permissions were obtained from Samsun Bafra Open Penitentiary Institution before the measurements. Detailed information on how to complete the scale was given to the participants and their consent of participation was received.

In this study, Depression, Anxiety and Stress Scale (DASS) which is developed with the aim of determining depression, anxiety and stress indicator levels with a single scale was used. This scale developed by Lovibond and Lovibond in 1995 consists of 42 items in total; 14 for depression, 14 for anxiety and 14 for stress. Depression items measure dissatisfaction, helplessness, worthlessness, loss of interest and low energy level. Anxiety items evaluate the autonomic arousal, situational anxiety, subjective anxiety and muscle response levels of individuals. On the other hand, stress items measure the level of symptoms of difficulty in relaxation, nerve stimulation, easy distress and boredom, discomfort, overreaction, and intolerance. Depression level is evaluated by items 3, 5, 10, 13, 16, 17, 21, 24, 26, 31, 34, 37, 38, and 42; anxiety level is assessed by items 2, 4, 7, 9, 15, 19, 20, 23, 25, 28, 30, 36, 40, and 41; and stress level is determined by items 1, 6, 8, 11, 12, 14, 18, 22, 27, 29, 32, 33, 35, and 39. The high scores obtained from each of the subscales of depression, anxiety and stress indicate that the individual has this problem. The total scores of the scale ranges from 0 to 42 for each subscale. The participant is asked to fill in the scale considering how suitable the items are for their situations in the last 15 days in the instructions of the scale. Depression Anxiety Stress Scale is a 4-point Likert-type scale and items are evaluated

between 0 and 3 (0=not suitable for me at all, 1=somewhat suitable for me, 2=usually suitable for me, 3=completely suitable for me) (Lovibond and Lovibond, 1995).

In the adaptation study they conducted in 2007, Akın and Çetin found the Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient of the Depression, Anxiety and Stress Scale to be 0.89; whereas Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient for the depression subscale was 0.90, Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient for the anxiety subscale was 0.92 and Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient for stress subscale was 0.92. In addition, Akın and Çetin (2007) applied the scale twice to 157 university students with 21-day intervals in order to determine the test-retest reliability score of the scale, and found the correlation coefficients between the two applications as 0.98 ($p < .001$) for all three subscales and 0.99 ($p < .001$) for the whole scale. All these findings indicate that the scale is reliable.

Table.1: *Score Table*

	Depression	Anxiety	Stress
Normal	0-9	0-7	0-14
Mild	9-13	8-9	15-18
Moderate	14-20	10-14	19-25
Severe	21-27	15-19	26-33
Highly severe	28+	20+	34+

The data were analyzed using SPSS 21 packaged software. Whether the data show normal distribution or not was determined by Shapiro-Wilk test. Paired t test and Wilcoxon test were used for statistical analyses. As level of significance, 0.05 value was taken.

Findings

Table.2: *Average Age of Arrested and Sentenced Individuals Participating in the Exercise Program*

	N	Ave.	Sd.	Min.	Max.
Age(year)	20	27.40	5.63	21	40

Table 2 shows that the average age of the arrested and sentenced individuals participated in the study is 27.40±5.63 years.

Table.3: *Distribution of Arrested and Sentenced Individuals Participating in the Exercise Program According to Their Educational Background*

Variables	Frequency	Percent
Primary Education	7	35
High School	7	35
University	6	30
Total	20	100

Table 3 shows the educational background of the arrested and sentenced individuals participating in the study as; Primary Education: 7 people (35%), High School: 7 people (35%), and University: 6 people (30%).

Table.4: *Comparison of Pre-Exercise and Post-Exercise Depression, Anxiety and Stress Score Averages*

Variables	N	Ave.	Sd.	p
Depression Pre	20	21.50	4.21	.070
Depression Post	20	19.15	4.67	
Stress Pre	20	28,45	8,99	.019*
Stress Post	20	22,35	8,93	
Anxiety Pre	20	24.45	7.21	.023*
Anxiety Post	20	21.40	6.53	

*p<0.05

When the average pre-exercise and post-exercise depression scores in Table 4 are compared, no statistically significant difference is determined ($p>0.05$). When the average pre-exercise and post-exercise stress scores are compared, it is seen that there is statistically significant difference ($p<0.05$). It is determined that post-exercise stress scores are decreased. When the average pre-exercise and post-exercise anxiety scores are compared, it is seen that there is statistically significant difference ($p<0.05$).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to review the pre-exercise and post-exercise depression, stress and anxiety levels of arrested and sentenced male individuals in an Open Prison in a 4-week, 3-day, 60-minute exercise program. The average age of participants was 27.40±5.63 years as seen in Table 2. In addition, the descriptive statistics of the subject group were examined and their educational backgrounds were listed in Table 3 as; 7 Primary School graduates (35%), 7 High School graduates (35%), and 6 University graduates (30%).

The average pre-exercise depression scores of the prisoners were found to be 21.50±4.21 and it was determined to be severe level of depression. The average depression score after the aerobic exercise done 3 days a week for 4 weeks was seen to be 19.15 ±4.67, and this result revealed that it was classified as moderate level of depression which is a lower level than severe depression according to DASS 42 score table (Table 1). When the average pre-exercise and post-exercise depression scores were compared, no statistically significant difference was observed ($p>0.05$). However, according to the data obtained from the study, it was seen that regular exercise had a positive effect on decreasing depression scores.

In their study, Perraton et al. (2010) reported that moderate aerobic exercise program applied for 30 minutes three times a week was effective in the treatment of major depression (Perraton et al., 2010).

In a study conducted by Trivedi et al. (2011), they divided into two 12-week exercise program groups and applied a 210-minute walk per week at an average speed of 4.0 mph or a 75-minute walk per week at an average speed of 3.0 mph. As a result, depression symptoms improved in both groups (Trivedi et al., 2011).

Güner et al. (2017) examined the effect of 12-week cardio bosu exercise on depression levels in a study they conducted with the participation of 30 women in total between ages of 25-45. There was a statistically significant difference between pre-test and post-test results in terms of pre-exercise depression values (Güner et al., 2017). The results of this study have parallels with the study.

The average pre-exercise stress scores of the prisoners were found to be 28,45± 8,99 and it was determined to be severe level of stress. The average stress score after the exercise was seen to be 22,35±8,93, and this result revealed that it was classified as moderate level of stress which is a lower level than severe stress. This difference between the average stress scores was found to be statistically significant ($p<0.05$). In conclusion, it can be interpreted that regular aerobic exercise has a positive effect on reducing stress level.

In a study carried out by Türk (2016) with 30 sedentary women between the ages of 25-45, it was aimed to determine the effect of regular bosu exercise for 3 months on stress levels. When the psychological conditions were taken into consideration, it was seen that stress scale score was 29.37 before the three-month regular bosu exercise

and the score was found to be 28.07 after 3 months. This result is in parallel with the study.

There are studies showing that regular exercise reduced the risk of anxiety disorder (Goodwin, 2003). In the study, the average pre-exercise anxiety scores of the prisoners were found to be 24.45±7.21. It was determined that this score was classified as severe anxiety according to the anxiety score table. After aerobic exercise done three days a week for 4 weeks, the average anxiety score was seen to be 21.40±6.53. However, it was determined that the level did not change according to DASS 42 score table (Table 1). It was found that the value of this score was moderate anxiety class. It was seen that this difference between the average anxiety scores was also statistically significant ($p<0.05$). According to the data obtained from the study, it can be said that regular aerobic exercise has a reducing effect on anxiety levels.

In their study, Canan and Ataoğlu (2010) determined that the average anxiety scores of those who did regular sports were less than those who did not do any sports. They interpreted the results as that regular athletes generally felt less anxiety (Canan and Ataoğlu, 2010).

It has been found that regular exercise has a decreasing effect on depression, anxiety and stress levels of arrested and sentenced individuals. In this context, it can be interpreted that regular exercise programs to be applied to the prisoners on certain days of the week in prisons can improve the psychology of prisoners as well as contributing to their socialization.

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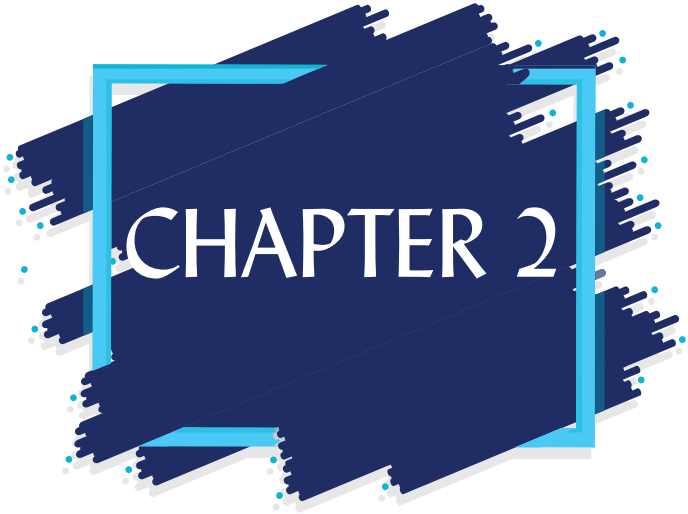
THE REASONS OF STARTING SPORTS OF HEARING-IMPAIRED PEOPLE WHO PLAY SPORTS AND THEIR EXPECTATIONS

İbrahim DALBUDAK[1]



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THE REASONS OF STARTING SPORTS OF HEARING-IMPAIRED PEOPLE WHO PLAY SPORTS AND THEIR EXPECTATIONS

İbrahim DALBUDAK[1]

1. INTRODUCTION

A person who has difficulties in adapting to social life and meeting daily needs, due to various degrees of loss of his/her physical, mental, spiritual and social abilities, which is congenital or subsequent, is defined as a disabled person who deserves to receive social-scientific studies and support in order to meet the special needs of their disability situation. Because, this person who needs protection, care, rehabilitation, counseling and support services, is confronted with obstacles and problems in daily life and social life due to the congenital or subsequent disability of appearance and function, as physical, biological or aesthetic (Akay, 2008). In another definition, "…disability includes a variety of physical and mental deficiencies that prevent or reduce of a person's daily activities. These difficulties are referred to the disability of the man or woman to perform daily activities " (Dalbudak, 2012). In the hearing disability, the level of hearing threshold of an individual deviates to a certain degree from zero threshold on the audiogram at any frequency, and this indicates a hearing loss. As a result of the hearing test, if the test results of a certain individual is different than the accepted normal hearing thresholds in a certain degree, and if the level of this hearing loss prevents the individual's acquisition of language and his/her education, the presence of hearing impairment is mentioned (Gürkan, 2013). Hearing-impaired individuals are evaluated according to

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their hearing degree. The results of this evaluation can be specified as follows:

- Hearing loss of 20 to 40 decibels is called mild hearing loss,
- Hearing loss of 40 to 70 decibels is called moderate hearing loss,
- Hearing loss of 70 to 92 decibels is called severe hearing loss,
- More than 92 decibels hearing loss is called the profound hearing loss (Kayaözkatar, 2010).

It has been suggested by the researchers that the word of "Sports" has came from the two Latin words in the dictionary, DISPORTARE and DESPORT meaning "to distribute from one another" and it has been converted to its current form "SPORT", by loosing the first syllables of these two words, during the period from the 17th century till now (İnal 1998). Sport is an important tool for raising healthy generations and thus creating contemporary societies. While sport contributes especially children and young people to be physically and spiritually healthy individuals with a socially developed personality; additionally it makes a great contribution for them to be raised as a role model, with a personality which is constructive, creative, productive, gentleman, discreet, tolerant, moral, proper behaviored, self confident, proper human and social relationships (Akay, 2008). Sports performs a highly important function for the "integration" which is aimed to reach in special education, by enabling disabled people to come together with healthy and disabled people. In such environment, the disabled people develop a positive attitude towards themselves by observing the problems of other disabled people; their creativity gets stimulated, their feeling of loneliness gets

minimized, their environment enlarges and, they catch the chance of living a more meaningful life (Gürkan, 2013).

This study has been performed to determine the reasons to start sports and expectations about sports of hearing-impaired people, and the reasons of their aims of doing sports and their expectations from sports. The result of this study is highly important for the hearing-impaired athletes, because it will provide learning the reasons of their starting to sports and their expectations from sports.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1. Research Group

The total of 107 hearing-impaired individuals (69 females and 38 males) who study education and play sports in İzmir and Muğla provinces, participated in this study voluntarily.

2.2. Data Collection Tool

In order to measure of hearing-impaired athletes' reasons to start sports and their expectations from sports, below studies were utilized as well: "Factors Affecting Starting Sports of the Elite Women and Men Volleyball Players in Turkey and Their Expectations from Sports" (Bayraktar & Sunay, 2004); "The Reasons of Tending to Sports of the Athletes Dealing with Athletism and Expectations of Athletes" (Şimşek, 2005); and "Turkish Athletes' Expectations from Sports and the Factors Directing Them to Sports" (Sunay & Saracaloğlu, 2003). The scale we used to measure the reasons of starting sports and expectations from sports, is a 5-point Likert-type of scale for evaluating reasons for starting sports and expectations from sports. The scale consists of 31 items. In the scale, one of below options is asked to be selected

for each item; 1 refers “None”, 2 refers “Low”, 3 refers “Medium”, 4 refers “Much” and 5 refers “Too much”.

3. ANALYSIS OF DATA

Each of the items in the scale is independent of each other. Therefore general average or sum of the scores given to scale items was not taken. Instead of it, average and standard deviations of each items in themselves were used. As additionally, test of frequency, t-test for independent items and ANOVA test for independent samples were used. Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient of the scale was found as 0,893.

4. RESULTS

When the participants were examined in terms of their demographic characteristics, the following findings were obtained.

Table 1. *Distribution According to Demographic Characteristics*

		n	%
Gender	**Female**	69	64.5
	Male	38	35.5
Education Level	**Secondary school**	4	3.7
	High school	75	70.1
	University	28	26.2
Age	**under18**	35	32.7
	18 and over	72	67.3
Sport Branch	**Individual**	29	27.1
	Team	78	72.9
Disability Status	**Congenital**	72	67.3
	Subsequent	35	32.7
Hearing Level	**Light**	49	45.8
	Medium	58	54.2
	Advance	0,0	0,0

Table 2. *Average Scores of Scale Items*

	N	Minimum	Maximum	X	S
s1	107	1.00	5.00	2.14	1.22
s2	107	2.00	5.00	4.03	1.01
s3	107	2.00	5.00	3.93	0.85
s4	107	1.00	5.00	3.71	0.93
s5	107	1.00	5.00	3.44	0.91
s6	107	1.00	5.00	3,58	0.85
s7	107	1.00	5.00	3.08	0.91
s8	107	1.00	5.00	3.87	1.23
s9	107	1.00	5.00	2.46	1.15
s10	107	1.00	5,00	3.58	1.05
s11	107	3.00	5.00	4.78	0,50
s12	107	2.00	5.00	4.09	1.03
s13	107	3.00	5.00	4.67	0.55
s14	107	2.00	5.00	4.23	0.78
s15	107	2.00	5.00	3.72	0.93
s16	107	1.00	5.00	2.87	1.81
s17	107	2.00	5.00	3.47	0.94
s18	106	1.00	5.00	3.83	1.05
s19	107	1.00	5.00	3.67	1.15
s20	107	2.00	5.00	4.47	0.87
s21	107	1.00	5.00	4.51	0.96
s22	107	2.00	5.00	3.82	0.97
s23	107	1.00	5.00	3.81	0.88
s24	107	1.00	5.00	2.36	1.72
s25	107	1.00	5.00	3.89	1.21
s26	107	1.00	5.00	4.04	1.02
s27	107	1.00	5.00	3.84	1.08
s28	107	1.00	5.00	3.96	1.17
s29	107	2.00	5.00	3.88	0.83
s30	107	1.00	5.00	3.87	1.42
s31	107	1.00	5.00	3.28	1.43
Average	107	2.58	4.84	3.71	.53

In order to measure the signicant difference of the answers given in scale according to gender, t-test was used for independent samples and the results of this analysis are given in Table 3.

Table 3. *T-test According to Gender*

	Female			Male				
	N	**X**	**S**	**N**	**X**	**S**	**t**	**p**
s1	**69**	**1.88**	**1.14**	**38**	**2.61**	**1.24**	**-3.03**	**.003**
s2	69	4.06	1.01	38	3.97	1.03	.41	.683
s3	69	3.91	.84	38	3.97	.88	-.35	.726
s4	69	3.74	.89	38	3.66	1.02	.43	.668
s5	69	3.48	.93	38	3.37	.88	.59	.554
s6	69	3.49	.92	38	3.74	.69	-1.43	.155
s7	69	2.96	.88	38	3.32	.93	-1.98	.051
s8	**69**	**4.22**	**1.07**	**38**	**3.24**	**1.26**	**4.26**	**.000**
s9	69	2.45	1.12	38	2.47	1.22	-.10	.917
s10	69	3.54	1.04	38	3.66	1.07	-.57	.567
s11	69	4.80	.53	38	4.74	.45	.59	.554
s12	69	4.07	1.02	38	4.13	1.07	-.28	.778
s13	69	4.68	.58	38	4.66	.48	.21	.834
s14	69	4.29	.75	38	4.13	.84	1.00	.320
s15	69	3.59	.81	38	3.95	1.09	-1.90	.060
s16	**69**	**2.59**	**1.82**	**38**	**3.37**	**1.70**	**-2.16**	**.033**
s17	**69**	**3.29**	**.81**	**38**	**3.79**	**1.09**	**-2.69**	**.008**
s18	69	3.75	1.10	37	3.97	.93	-1.03	.306
s19	69	3.75	1.17	38	3.53	1.11	.98	.329
s20	**69**	**4.59**	**.79**	**38**	**4.24**	**.97**	**2.06**	**.042**
s21	69	4.62	.77	38	4.32	1.21	1.60	.112
s22	69	3.84	1.02	38	3.79	.87	..26	.796
s23	69	3.75	.86	38	3.92	.91	-.94	.349
s24	69	2.28	1.67	38	2.50	1.81	-.65	.520
s25	69	4.00	1.01	38	3.68	1.49	1.30	.197
s26	69	4.01	1.01	38	4.08	1.05	-.31	.756
s27	69	3.90	1.11	38	3.74	1.03	.74	.462
s28	69	4.07	1.08	38	3.76	1.32	1. 31	.193
s29	69	3.90	.79	38	3.84	.92	.33	.739
s30	**69**	**4.20**	**1.16**	**38**	**3.26**	**1.66**	**3.44**	**.001**
s31	**69**	**3.49**	**1.41**	**38**	**2.89**	**1.39**	**2.11**	**.037**

A significant difference was determined in following scale items according to gender: s1($t=-3.03$, $p<0.05$), s8($t=4.26$, $p<0.05$), s16($t=-2.16$, $p<0.05$), s17($t=-2.69$,

p<0.05), s20(t=2.06, p<0.05), s30(t=3.44, p<0.05) and s31(t=2.11, p<0.05). The score of Male group was higher for items s1, s16 and s17; while the score of Female group was higher for items s8, s20, s30 and s31.

In order to measure the signicant difference of the answers given in scale according to age groups, t-test was used for independent samples and the results of this analysis are given in Table 4.

Table 4. *T-test According to Age Groups*

	Age under 18			**Age over 18**				
	N	**X**	**S**	**N**	**X**	**S**	**t**	**p**
s1	35	2.09	1.17	72	2.17	1.26	-.32	.750
s2	**35**	**4.49**	**.82**	**72**	**3.81**	**1.03**	**3.42**	**.001**
s3	35	4.09	.95	72	3.86	.79	1.29	.201
s4	35	3.83	1.07	72	3.65	.86	.91	.362
s5	35	3.26	.98	72	3.53	.87	-1.45	.151
s6	35	3.63	.88	72	3.56	.84	.42	.678
s7	35	2.94	.87	72	3.15	.93	-1.12	.266
s8	35	3.77	1.44	72	3.92	1.12	-.57	.569
s9	35	2.34	1.14	72	2.51	1.16	-.72	.474
s10	35	3.69	.90	72	3.53	1.11	.73	.467
s11	**35**	**4.94**	**.24**	**72**	**4.69**	**.57**	**2.46**	**.015**
s12	35	3.86	1.22	72	4.21	.92	-1.66	.099
s13	35	4.66	.48	72	4.68	.58	-.21	.836
s14	35	4.14	.65	72	4.28	.84	-.83	.406
s15	35	3.74	1.07	72	3.71	.86	.18	.858
s16	35	2.77	1.66	72	2.92	1.88	-.39	.698
s17	35	3.46	.89	72	3.47	.98	-.08	.939
s18	35	3.66	.94	71	3.92	1.09	-1.20	.234
s19	**35**	**3.11**	**.99**	**72**	**3.94**	**1.12**	**-3.72**	**.000**
s20	35	4.29	1.02	72	4.56	.79	-1.51	.134
s21	35	4.57	.88	72	4.49	.99	.43	.667
s22	35	3.57	.92	72	3.94	.98	-1.89	.062
s23	35	3.66	.84	72	3.89	.90	-1.28	.203
s24	35	2.03	1.58	72	2.51	1.77	-1.38	.171
s25	35	4.00	1.06	72	3.83	1.28	.67	.506
s26	35	3.97	1.01	72	4.07	1.03	-.47	.643
s27	**35**	**3.49**	**.92**	**72**	**4.01**	**1.12**	**-2.42**	**.017**
s28	35	4.06	1.33	72	3.92	1.10	.58	.564
s29	35	3.89	.72	72	3.88	.89	.06	.951
s30	35	3.83	1.44	72	3.89	1.42	-.21	.838
s31	**35**	**2.57**	**1.12**	**72**	**3.63**	**1.44**	**-3.81**	**.000**

A significant difference was determined in following scale items according to age groups: s2(t=3.42, p<0.05), s11(t=2.46, p<0.05), s19(t=-3.72, p<0.05), s27(t=-2.42, p<0.05) and s31(t=3.81, p<0.05). The score of the age group under 18 was higher for items s2, and s11; while the score of the age group over 18 was higher for items s19, s27, s30 and s31.

In order to measure the signicant difference of the answers given in scale according to sports branch, t-test was used for independent samples and the results of this analysis are given in Table 5.

Table 5. *T-test According to Sports Branches*

	Individual			**Team**				
	N	**X**	**S**	**N**	**X**	**S**	**t**	**p**
s1	29	2.45	1,30	78	2.03	1.18	1.60	.113
s2	29	4.03	1.12	78	4.03	.98	.04	.968
s3	29	3.86	.79	78	3.96	.87	-.54	.593
s4	29	4.00	.71	78	3.60	.98	1.99	.049
s5	29	3.38	.78	78	3.46	.96	-.41	.681
s6	29	3.62	.78	78	3.56	.88	.31	.760
s7	29	3.55	.78	78	2.91	.90	3.39	.001
s8	29	3.59	1.35	78	3.97	1.17	-1.46	.147
s9	29	2.45	1.21	78	2.46	1.14	-.05	.958
s10	29	3.83	1.00	78	3.49	1.05	1.50	.135
s11	29	4.72	.45	78	4.79	.52	-.65	.519
s12	29	4.21	.82	78	4.05	1.10	.69	.491
s13	29	4.69	.47	78	4.67	.57	.19	.847
s14	29	3.86	1.03	78	4.37	.63	-3.11	.002
s15	29	3.79	.82	78	3.69	.97	.50	.620
s16	29	2.38	1.84	78	3.05	1.77	-1.73	.087
s17	29	3.28	1.25	78	3.54	.80	-1.28	.203
s18	29	3.38	1.24	77	4.00	.92	-2.81	.006
s19	29	3.31	1.34	78	3.81	1.05	-2.02	.046
s20	29	4.21	1.01	78	4.56	.80	-1.91	.059
s21	29	4.34	1.26	78	4.58	.81	-1.12	.266
s22	29	3.69	.81	78	3.87	1.02	-.86	.390
s23	29	3.62	1.01	78	3.88	.82	-1.38	.169
s24	29	1.93	1.62	78	2.51	1.73	-1.57	.120
s25	29	3.59	1.66	78	4.00	.98	-1.59	.116
s26	29	3.97	1.15	78	4.06	.97	-.44	.658
s27	29	3.48	1.24	78	3.97	.99	-2.12	.036
s28	29	3.97	.98	78	3.96	1.24	.02	.988
s29	29	4.03	.78	78	3.82	.85	1.18	.239
s30	29	3.69	1.67	78	3.94	1.32	-.80	.428
s31	29	3.00	1.58	78	3.38	1.36	-1.24	.217

A significant difference was determined in following scale items according to sport branch: s4 (t=1.99, p<0.05), s7 (t=3.39, p<0.05), s14 (t=-3.11, p<0.05), s18 (t=-2.81, p<0.05), s19 (t=-2.02, p<0.05) and s27 (t=-2.12, p<0.05). The score of the individual sports is higher for items s4, and s7; while the score of the team sports is higher for items s14, s18, s19 and s27.

In order to measure the signicant difference of the answers given in scale according to Hearing Levels, t-test was used for independent samples and the results of this analysis are given in Table 6.

Table 6. *T-test According to Hearing Levels*

	Light			**Moderate**				
	N	**X**	**S**	**N**	**X**	**S**	**t**	**p**
s1	**49**	**2.51**	**1.31**	**58**	**1.83**	**1.06**	**2.98**	**.004**
s2	49	4.12	.78	58	3.95	1.18	.88	.378
s3	49	3.94	.90	58	3.93	.81	.05	.963
s4	49	3.73	.91	58	3.69	.96	.25	.805
s5	49	3.49	.87	58	3.40	.95	.52	.601
s6	49	3.45	.84	58	3.69	.84	-1.47	.144
s7	49	3.10	.92	58	3.07	.92	.19	.853
s8	49	3.61	1.40	58	4.09	1.03	-2.02	.046
s9	**49**	**2.45**	**1.21**	**58**	**2.47**	**1.11**	**-.07**	**.941**
s10	49	3.67	1.11	58	3.50	1.00	.85	.395
s11	49	4.82	.39	58	4.74	.58	.77	.443
s12	49	4.27	.95	58	3.95	1.08	1.59	.114
s13	**49**	**4.84**	**.37**	**58**	**4.53**	**.63**	**2.96**	**.004**
s14	49	4.08	.93	58	4.36	.61	-1.86	.065
s15	49	3.86	1.02	58	3.60	.84	1.41	.161
s16	**49**	**3.33**	**1.86**	**58**	**2.48**	**1.68**	**2.46**	**.015**
s17	**49**	**3.69**	**1.00**	**58**	**3.28**	**.85**	**2.33**	**.022**
s18	**49**	**4.14**	**.91**	**57**	**3.56**	**1.09**	**2.96**	**.004**
s19	49	3.78	1.16	58	3.59	1.14	.85	.398
s20	49	4.69	.55	58	4.28	1.04	2.53	.013
s21	**49**	**4.24**	**1.25**	**58**	**4.74**	**.52**	**-2.76**	**.007**
s22	**49**	**3.94**	**.99**	**58**	**3.72**	**.95**	**1.14**	**.256**
s23	49	3.90	1.03	58	3.74	.74	.92	.362
s24	**49**	**2.71**	**1.80**	**58**	**2.05**	**1.59**	**2.02**	**.046**
s25	49	3.90	1.26	58	3.88	1.17	.08	.937
s26	49	4.08	1.10	58	4.00	.96	.41	.681
s27	49	4.02	1.16	58	3.69	.99	1.59	.116
s28	49	4.16	1.07	58	3.79	1.24	1.64	.104
s29	**49**	**4.14**	**.74**	**58**	**3.66**	**.85**	**3.14**	**.002**
s30	49	3.96	1.50	58	3.79	1.36	.60	.550
s31	**49**	**3.73**	**1.43**	**58**	**2.90**	**1.32**	**3.15**	**.002**

A significant difference was determined in following scale items according to hearing levels: s1(t=2.98, <0.05), s8(t=-2.02, p<0.05), s13(t=2.96, p<0.05), s16(t=2.46, p<0.05), s17(t=233, p<0.05), s18(t=2.96, p<0.05), s20(t=2.53, p<0.05), s21(t=-2.76, p<0.05), s24(t=2.02, p<0.05), s29(t=3.14, p<0.05) and s31(t=3.15, p<.05). The score of the light hearing level was higher for items s1, s13, s16, s17, s18, s20, s24, s29 and s31; while the score of the moderate hearing level was higher for items s8 and s21.

In order to measure the signicant difference of the answers given in scale according to Disability Status, t-test was used for independent samples and the results of this analysis are given in Table 7.

Table 7: *T-test According to Disability Status*

	Congenital			**Subsequent**				
	N	**X**	**S**	**N**	**X**	**S**	**t**	**p**
s1	72	2.06	1.22	35	2.31	1.23	-1.03	.307
s2	72	4.00	1.05	35	4.09	.95	-.41	.684
s3	72	4.03	.79	35	3.74	.95	1.64	.104
s4	72	3.69	.87	35	3.74	1.07	-.25	.802
s5	72	3.53	.79	35	3.26	1.12	1.45	.151
s6	72	3.65	.86	35	3.43	.81	1.29	.200
s7	72	3.01	.85	35	3.23	1.03	-1.14	.255
s8	72	3.90	1.22	35	3.80	1.26	.40	.687
s9	72	2.32	1.00	35	2.74	1.38	-1.80	.074
s10	72	3.53	1.07	35	3.69	.99	-.73	.467
s11	72	4.78	.54	35	4.77	.43	.06	.951
s12	72	4.00	1.06	35	4.29	.96	-1.35	.181
s13	**72**	**4.60**	**.60**	**35**	**4.83**	**.38**	**-2.09**	**.039**
s14	72	4.28	.68	35	4.14	.97	.83	.406
s15	72	3.63	.94	35	3.91	.89	-1.52	.132
s16	**72**	**2.63**	**1.77**	**35**	**3.37**	**1.80**	**-2.03**	**.044**
s17	72	3.36	.88	35	3.69	1.05	-1.68	.096
s18	72	3.78	1.12	34	3.94	.89	-.75	.456
s19	72	3.67	1.13	35	3.69	1.21	-.08	.936
s20	72	4.43	.98	35	4.54	.61	-.62	.535
s21	**72**	**4.67**	**.73**	**35**	**4.20**	**1.26**	**2.42**	**.017**
s22	72	3.72	.91	35	4.03	1.07	-1.54	.126
s23	**72**	**3.67**	**.87**	**35**	**4.11**	**.83**	**-2.53**	**.013**
s24	**72**	**2.06**	**1.63**	**35**	**2.97**	**1.76**	**-2.66**	**.009**
s25	**72**	**4.06**	**1.14**	**35**	**3.54**	**1.29**	**2.09**	**.039**
s26	72	4.06	1.07	35	4.00	.91	.26	.793
s27	72	3.75	1.03	35	4.03	1.18	-1.25	.213
s28	72	3.97	1.20	35	3.94	1.14	.12	.904
s29	72	3.78	.79	35	4.09	.89	-1.81	.072
s30	72	3.74	1.49	35	4.14	1.24	-1.39	.166
s31	**72**	**2.85**	**1.36**	**35**	**4.17**	**1.12**	**-4.99**	**.000**

A significant difference was determined in following scale items according to Disability Status: s13(t=-2.09, p<0.05), s16(t=-2.03, p<0.05), s21(t=2.42, p<0.05), s23(t=-2.53, p<0.05), s24(t=-2.66, p<0.05), s25(t=2.09, p<0.05) and s31(t=-4.99, p<0.05). The score of the congenital disabled individuals is higher in items s21 and s25; while the score of the subsequent disabled ones is higher in items s13, s16, s23, s24 and s31.

In order to measure the signicant difference of the answers given in scale according to Education Status, t-test was used for independent samples and the results of this analysis are given in Table 8.

Table 8. *ANOVA Test According to Education Level*

	Secondary school (1)			High school (2)			University (3)					
	N	**X**	**S**	**N**	**X**	**S**	**N**	**X**	**S**	**F**	**p**	**DIFF-ERENCE***
s1	4	2.25	.96	75	2.20	1.23	28	1.96	1.26	.39	.678	
s2	4	3.50	1.29	75	4.13	.98	28	3.82	1.06	1.54	.218	
s3	4	3.75	1.50	75	4.04	.89	28	3.68	.55	1.98	.144	
s4	4	3.50	1.29	75	3.80	1.00	28	3.50	.64	1.17	.316	
s5	4	2.50	1.73	75	3.39	.91	28	3.71	.66	3.69	.028	1-3
s6	4	3.00	1.41	75	3.67	.79	28	3.43	.88	1.80	.170	
s7	4	2.75	.50	75	3.11	.95	28	3.07	.86	.29	.749	
s8	4	3.00	.82	75	3.99	1.30	28	3.68	1.02	1.70	.187	
s9	4	3.75	.96	75	2.24	1.15	28	2.86	.97	6.07	.003	1-2 ve 2-3
s10	4	4.25	.96	75	3.35	1.10	28	4.11	.63	6.94	.001	2-3
s11	4	5.00	.00	75	4.73	.55	28	4.86	.36	1.04	.357	
s12	4	5.00	.00	75	3.85	1.10	28	4.61	.57	7.95	.001	2-3
s13	4	5.00	.00	75	4.60	.59	28	4.82	.39	2.49	.087	
s14	4	5.00	.00	75	4.07	.81	28	4.57	.57	6.90	.002	1-2 ve 2-3
s15	4	5.00	.00	75	3.69	.90	28	3.61	.96	4.28	.016	1-2 ve 1-3
s16	4	5.00	.00	75	2.47	1.70	28	3.64	1.77	8.18	.001	1-2 ve 2-3

s17	4	4.00	1.41	75	3.47	.93	28	3.39	.92	.72	.490	
s18	4	3.75	.96	74	3.78	1.01	28	3.96	1.17	.31	.734	
s19	4	3.25	.50	75	3.60	1.16	28	3.93	1.15	1.12	.330	
s20	4	3.75	.96	75	4.56	.78	28	4.32	1.06	2.22	.114	
s21	4	3.75	.96	75	4.44	1.07	28	4.82	.39	3.07	.051	
s22	4	3.75	.96	75	3.60	.93	28	4.43	.84	8.52	.000	2-3
s23	4	4.00	.82	75	3.67	.89	28	4.18	.77	3.72	.028	2-3
s24	4	4.00	.00	75	1.99	1.61	28	3.11	1.77	6.95	.001	1-2 ve 2-3
s25	4	3.50	1.73	75	3.99	1.05	28	3.68	1.52	.88	.420	
s26	4	3.75	.50	75	4.13	.96	28	3.82	1.19	1.13	.329	
s27	4	3.75	.50	75	3.68	1.00	28	4.29	1.24	3.35	.039	2-3
s28	4	3.00	1.41	75	3.91	1.13	28	4.25	1.21	2.33	.102	
s29	4	4.00	.00	75	3.87	.81	28	3.89	.96	.05	.948	
s30	4	2.75	1.50	75	3.87	1.32	28	4.04	1.64	1.44	,241	
s31	4	2.75	1.50	75	3.05	1.28	28	3.96	1.60	4.76	,010	2-3

* 1: Secondary school, 2: High school, 3: University

A significant difference was determined in following scale items according to Education Level: s5($F=3.69$, $p<0.05$), s9($F=6.0$, $p<0.05$), s10($F=6.94$, $p<0.05$), s12($F=7.95$, $p<0.05$), s14($F=6.90$, $p<0.05$), s15($F=4.28$, $p<0.05$), s16($F=8.18$, $p<0.05$), s22($F=8.52$, $p<0.05$), s23($F=3.72$, $p<0.05$), s24($F=6.95$, $p<0.05$), s27($F=3.35$, $p<0.05$) and s31($F=4.76$, $p<0.05$). In order to determine the groups which have difference, Post Hoc tests were conducted ; The results obtained are shown in Table 8.

Notice: In all tables, the items having difference were written in **bold.**

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In this study, determining the reasons of starting sports of the hearing-impaired athletes studying different educational institutions and playing in various sports clubs in İzmir and Muğla provinces, and their opinions about

their expectations from sports was aimed. The secondary aim of the study was to determine whether there is a significant difference or relationship, between the reasons of starting sports and expectations from sports according to the demographic characteristics. A total of 107 athletes with hearing impairment as 38 males and 69 females were participated in the study voluntarily. As a result of t-test of the scale items according to gender, a significant difference was found for the items s1($t=-3.03$, $p<0.05$), s8($t=4.26$, $p<0.05$), s16($t=-2.16$, $p<0.05$), s17($t=-2.69$, $p<0.05$), s20($t=2.06$, $p<0.05$), s30($t=3.44$, $p<0.05$) and s31($t=2.11$, $p<0.05$). For the items s1, s16 and s17; the score of males is higher and for the items s8, s20 and s31; the score of females is higher. There is no significant difference in other items. The score of some items, directing individual to sports is higher in men than in women. These are; Effect of mother, father and siblings, To see new countries and Recreational activities (s1, s16 and s17). The reasons of directing to sports are different in women than man. The score of the items following is higher in women than in me; The effect of television, Being healthy and to be protected, Effect of physical education teacher, School sports facilities and materials (s8, s20, s30, s31). The study which was conducted by Bayraktar and Sunay (2007) supports our research. We can say that the different reasons to start sports and different expectations from sports were derived from the difference in gender and opinions.

As a result of t-test of scale items according to age groups, a significant difference was found for the items; s2($t=3.42$, $p<.,05$), s11($t=2.46$, $p<0.05$), s19($t=-3.72$, $p<0.05$), s27($t=-2.42$, $p<0.05$) and s31($t=3.81$, $p<0.05$). In items s2 and s11, the score of ages under 18 is higher and in items s19, s27 and s31, the score of ages over 18 is higher. In age group, for the items of “being an athlete in the national team” and “loving sports”, the reasons for starting sports and expectations from sports are higher in

hearing-impaired athletes under the age of 18 than other age groups (s2, s11). Also, in directing to sports under the effects of the items "increasing financial income", "leading a comfortable life as financially" and "school sports facilites and materials", the score of the age group which is age of 18 and older is higher (s19, s27, s31). There isn't any significant difference in other items. We can say that we have found different reasons to starts sports and different expectations about sports, because the emotions, thoughts and expectations of individuals change with the age. There isn't any difference according to the ages, in other items about reasons to start sports and expectations from sports, they are similar.

As a result of t-test of scale items by the sport branches, a significant difference has been determined in the items s4 ($t=1.99$, $p<0.05$), s7 ($t=3.39$, $p<0.05$), s14 ($t=-3.11$, $p<0.05$), s18 ($t=-2.81$, $p<0.05$), s19 ($t=-2.02$, $p<0.05$) and s27 ($t=-2.12$, $p<0.05$). The score of individual sports group is higher for the items s4 and s7, while the score of team sports group is higher for the items s14, s18, s19 and s27. As the reasons of starting sports and expectations from sports, for the items of "the effect of a sportsman I like very much" and "the effect of a sports coach in my close circle", the score of the athletes engaged in individual sports is higher than the ones engaged in team sports (s4, s7). In the items of "finding the true happiness in sports", "being recognized as an athlete and loved by friends" and "living a financially comfortable life", the score of team sports athletes is higher than the individual sport athletes (s14, s18, s19, s27). There is no difference in other items. The study of Şimşek and Gökdemir (2006) supports our study. We think there are differences in some items due to the different expectations of the athletes whether if he/she is doing a team or individual sports.

According to the hearing-test scores of the scale items of s1(t=2.98, p<0,05), s8(t=-2.02, p<0.05), s13(t=2,96, p<0.05), s16(t=2.46, p<0.05), s17(t=2.33, p<0.05), s18(t=2.96, p<0.05), s20(t=2.53, p<0.05), s21(t=-2.76, p<0.05), s24(t=2.02, p<0.05), s29(t=3.14, p<0.05) and s31(t=3,15, p<0.05); there was a significant difference by hearing levels. For s1, s13, s16, s17, s18, s20, s24, s29 and s31, the score of mild hearing level was higher, while in s8 and s21, the score of moderate hearing level was higher. The effect of mother, father and siblings to direct individual to sports, Staying healthy by doing sports, Seeing new countries, Using the leasure times in a positive way by doing sports, Being healthy and maintaining the health, Taking a scholarship training from the universities abroad, Joining friends groups easily, The effect of school sports facilities and material in directing to sport (s1, s13, s16, s17, s18, s20, s24, s29, s31). The effect of television channels for starting sports, Becoming a national team athlete (s8, s21). We can say that the expectations of hearing-impaired individuals change, as their hearing level changes. As the hearing level increases or if the hearing level is mild, we can explain that the reasons of starting sports and expectations from sports differ. We can state that there are differences in the reasons and expectations of individuals with disabilities about starting sports and their expectations from sport, in order to show themselves and prove their presence.

As a result of t-test of the scale items by disability status, there was a significant difference for items s13(t=-2.09, p<0.05), s16(t=-2. 03,p<0.05), s21(t=2.42, p<0.05), s23(t=-2.53, p<0.05), s24(t=-2.66, p<0.05), s25(t=2.09, p<0,05) and s31(t=-4.99, p<0.05) by disability status. While the score of congenitally disabled individuals was higher for the items s21 and s25; for the items s13, s16, s23, s24 and s31, the score of subsequently disabled individuals was higher. The reasons directing to sports; being a

national team athlete, being educated at the university level about sports in future (s21, s25), staying healthy by doing sports, seeing new countries, having a good physical appearance, receiving scholarship education from the universities abroad under favor of sports, directing effect of sports facilites in school and sports materials to sports (s13, s16, s23, s24, s31). There is no significant difference in other items. We can state that the reason of significant difference between hearing-impaired people is that the congenitally hearing-impaired people have different reasons about starting sports and expectations from sports than subsequently hearing-impaired people.

When ANOVA test results were examined , there was a significant difference according to education level for the items s5($F=3.69$, $p<0,05$), s9($F=6.0$, $p<0.05$), s10($F=6.94$, $p<0.05$), s12($F=7.95$, $p<0.05$), s14($F=6.90$, $p<0.05$), s15($F=4.28$, $p<0.05$), s16($F=8.18$, $p<0.05$), s22($F=8.52$, $p<0.05$), s23($F=3.72$, $p<0.05$), s24($F=6.95$, $p<0.05$), s27($F=3.35$, $p<.,05$) and s31($F=4.76$, $p<0.05$).

s31(2-3), 27(2-3), s24(1-2, 2-3,) s23(2-3), s22(2-3), s16(1-2 ve 2-3), s15(1-2 and 1-3), s14(1-2 and 2-3), s12(2-3), s10(2-3), s9(12 and 2-3), s5(1-3). (1: secondary school, 2: High school, 3: University). There is a significant difference between high school and university for the items: Effect of school sports facility and sports materials in directing to sports (s31;2-3), Enjoying success (s12; 2-3), Effect of physical education teacher in starting sports (s10; 2-3), Being a well-known athlete (s22; 2-3), Maintaining a comfortable life financially (s27; 2-3), Receiving a school scholarship from universities abroad through sports (s23;1-2, 2-3), Seing new countries (s16; 1-2, 2-3), To be aware of positive contributions of sports (s15; 1-2, 1-3), Finding true happines in sports (s14; 1-2, 2-3), The effect of media organs in starting sports (s9; 1-2, 2-3) and The effect of the environment you live in starting sports (s5; 1-3). There is

no significant difference for other items. We can say that some items of educational status show similarity and some of them differ. We can also say that the differentiation of the educational level will cause differences in the reasons for starting sports and the expectations from sports. As the level of education changes, people's expectations and opinions change as well. Therefore we can say there is difference.

Sports is one of the most important factor of original living space of a person. Every person has a tendency to play sports. Every person comes to the world, with the capability of sports. On the other hand, that doesn't mean that everyone will be a champion. Every person has the ability of doing sports, but some people have a high level of this ability. These two are totally different things. So, inside of each of us, there is a person expecting to do sports, in the structure of our presence. Sports is specific to all people, not to a specific person (Erdemli, 2008). People with disabilities are also included in these people. They have the power to do sports. There is absolutely a specific sport branch that is suitable for their disability. It is recommended to evaluate the reasons of starting sports and expectations from sports in order to reveal this branch which is special for them. As a society, we must try to make them feel that they are a part of society. We must ensure them to feel their presence in society through sports. Sports stimulates the desire to live of individuals with disability. They look at life positively. If we understand very well the items about their reasons to start sports and their expectations from sports and if we work on them, we will be able to meet their expectations. We can reveal the expectations of disabled individuals by conducting different studies in the field of disabled people.

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THE INVESTIGATION OF THE IMPACT OF FOOTBALL REFEREES' STRESS SOURCES ON THEIR DECISION-MAKING STYLES

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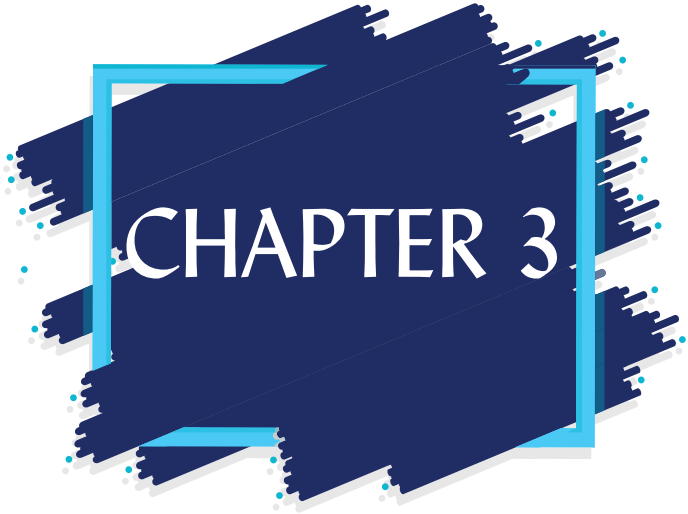

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INTRODUCTION

An individual's ability to come up with a judgment and make choices at the end of an intellectual process is expressed as the decision-making ability. The individual has a tendency to exhibit the most accurate behaviors that will let him/her achieve his/her goals within the bounds of the opportunities he/she has.

Decision-making refers to the process of making a choice for the individual. In this process, the individual chooses one of multiple options. Decision-making is a purposeful and final process in which the most appropriate option is chosen. It is also based on prediction and decisions point to the future (Dinçer & Fidan, 1996; Tosun, 1990).

Our decisions can sometimes be oriented to solve a problem or in the worst case, to move away from the problem but it may sometimes not be related to any problems. However, whatever the decision is directed towards, decision-making is a process that can create cognitive and psychological pressure and strain, and thus, create stress in the individual.

When an individual makes a choice, he/she is influenced by many factors related to that situation. Many factors have a determinative role in the decision to be made such as; whether the decision is related to daily life or profession,

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the duration of the impact, the people being affected, the effort to be made in order to put the decision into practice, the possible results of the decision, in other words, the things to be won or lost as a result of the decision.

The individual has to make many decisions about his/her private life and profession in his/her daily life (Rue & Bayers, 2003). Despite the fact that most of the decisions we make in our daily lives are related to our daily tasks, some of the decisions are professionally made decisions. Professional decisions are also mostly occupational decisions. Decision-making ability for each occupational group has different significance and intensity. In refereeing, it is particularly important to make professional decisions in a healthy way because the referee has to follow many situations related to the game in a very short time carefully and make instant decisions. The fact that these decisions are accurate is closely related to the referee's knowledge of the rules of the game as well as the ability of him/her to manage the pressure he/she feels.

A referee is the person that is chosen by the sports organizers and that is expected to manage the competition in accordance with the rules of the game, in other words, the person who determines the scores and penalties regarding who will win or lose in the competition (Cengiz & Pulur, 2004).

Constantly changing factors within the game, insufficient knowledge, the strain caused by the conflicts with the parties of the game due to contradictory situations can create psychological and physical difficulties for the referee (Daft, 2003). The reaction given to this difficulty and pressure can be explained by the concept of stress.

Human beings are exposed to many changes during their lifetime. The individual who is faced with changing

conditions in each change process will either adapt to this new situation by re-establishing the disrupted balance in his/her life or experience psychological problems until setting up a balance under the increasing stress created by the imbalance in his/her life. The faster the individual can adapt to the new situation in this rebalancing process, the more effectively he/she will deal with the new situation. According to Aldwin (2000), the adaptation process has a structure that can be acknowledged by the factors causing stress and the coping skills.

Stress expresses the individual's reaction to a new situation (Selye, 1984). According to Özkaya et al. (2008), stress is the fact the individual reacts both physically and psychologically towards adapting to a physical or psychological stimulant.

The individual may feel under stress in daily life for many reasons. These reasons may be related to daily tasks or occupational tasks requiring professionalism. Each profession has different stressors due to its unique conditions. For example, when the specific conditions of the sports events are considered, the conditions that create stress on the referees can be better understood. Not only the competition environment and the spectator pressure but also the high level of attention required to referee the match increase the work stress experienced by the referee. Today, tens of thousands of people travel for a sports event and thus, sports can be the cause of social mobility (geographical). At the same time, the sports fans who cannot follow the competition at the place where the competition is held tend to follow the competition from the mass media and live broadcasts. This makes the duty of the referees managing the competitions followed by such a lot of people even more difficult. Indeed, the study by Castagna et al. (2007) found that the referee was under as much stress as a midfielder. Besides, the study

by Weston et al. (2011) revealed the stress caused by the physical performance exhibited by the referee in order to follow the rapidly changing game, in addition to the psychological stressors experienced by the referee. During the competition, the fact that the referee must see the position in the match, analyze and evaluate it is a process that must be evolving rapidly. The requirements for making instant decisions and the fact that the evaluation to be made by the referee is watched by millions not only at the place of the competition but also on TV make the duty of the referee even more difficult and increases his/her job stress. The stress experienced by the referee will affect his/her personal life and prevent him/her from achieving success in terms of work performance. In order to be able to remove the drawback caused by stress or at least minimize its impact, there is a need to effectively manage stress. The more effectively referees can manage the stress they experience in the competitions, the more successful decisions they will be able to make and the better the results will be.

Based on the assumption that the level of being influenced by the stress sources may have an impact on the referees' accurate decision-making styles, this research aimed to investigate whether football referees' stress sources had an impact on their decision-making styles. Therefore, by increasing the awareness regarding the decision-making processes of the referees, one of the most important elements of today's popular game football, it is thought to make significant contributions to their professional development.

METHOD

Research Model

The research was conducted in descriptive survey model by using mixed method, both quantitative and qualitative research methods, in terms of defining the impact of referees' stress sources on their decision-making styles.

In the descriptive survey model, the descriptive statistical findings that belong to the sample group are reported as they are, in other words, it defines what exist as they are (Büyüköztürk et al., 2013; Karasar, 2009).

Data Collection Tools

In the study, Melbourne Decision Making Questionnaire I-II developed by Mann et al. (1998) and adapted into Turkish language by Deniz (2004) was used to determine the decision-making styles of football referees. The reliability coefficient of decision self-esteem section, which was the first section of the two-section scale, was .74. In the second section, which was composed of four sub-dimensions, the reliability coefficients of the sub-dimensions of decision-making styles section were; .80 for decision vigilance, .87 for decision buck-passing, .81 for decision procrastination, and .74 for decision hypervigilance (Mann et al., 1998). In the evaluation of the scale, high scores obtained from the scale were accepted as the indicator of the high level of decision-making related feature.

In the research, semi-structured interview questions were used to determine the stress sources of referees. As a result of the interviews, the most frequently repeated stressors were determined.

Data Collection Process

In data collection process, the referees were first asked to indicate their level of being influenced by the stress sources they previously stated and then, they were applied Melbourne Decision Making Questionnaire I-II (Mann et al. 1998). Therefore, it was examined whether there was a difference between their decision self-esteem and decision-making styles according to the level of being influenced by the stressors stated by the football referees in their professional lives.

Sample

The data of the research was obtained from 120 active football referees working in different categories in Aydın province.

Data Analysis

In data analysis, SPSS 21.00 statistical package program was used. In the analysis of quantitative data, descriptive statistics, one-way variance analysis statistical techniques were used; in the analysis of qualitative data, content analysis technique, which was a descriptive analysis technique, was used.

FINDINGS

In the research, whether football referees' decision self-esteem and decision-making styles differed according to workload density variable was analyzed by ANOVA analysis and the results of the analysis were given in Table1.

Table 1. *The Results of ANOVA Analysis Regarding Whether Football Referees' Decision Self-esteem and Decision-making Styles Differed According to Workload Density Variable*

Sub-dimension		N	**X**	**SD**	**F**	**P**
Decision Self-esteem	1	18	11,11	1,71		
2	21	10,71	1,30			
3	39	10,38	1,49		3,00	0,02
4	33	10,39	1,73			
5	10	9,00	1,82			
Decision Vigilance	1	18	9,33	1,78		
2	21	10,23	1,44			
3	39	9,02	1,76		2,48	0,04
4	33	8,93	2,07			
5	10	8,40	1,83			
Decision Buck-passing	1	18	3,55	2,00		
	2	21	4,71	2,23		
	3	39	5,25	2,76	2,25	0,06
	4	33	4,12	2,39		
	5	10	5,70	2,94		
Decision Procrastination	1	18	3,00	2,24		
	2	21	2,42	1,69		
	3	39	2,97	2,37	**1,26**	0,28
	4	33	3,03	2,12		
	5	10	4,30	2,18		
Decision Hypervigilance	1	18	2,22	2,36		
	2	21	2,42	1,77		
	3	39	3,15	2,56	2,46	0,04
	4	33	3,12	2,19		
	5	10	4,80	2,25		

P<.05

When Table 1 was analyzed, it could be seen that decision self-esteem and decision vigilance mean scores of the referees who perceived workload density as an important stressor were lower, whereas their decision buck-passing and decision hypervigilance mean scores were higher.

In the research, whether football referees' decision self-esteem and decision-making styles differed according to being exposed to the trainer's verbal or physical violence variable was analyzed by ANOVA analysis and the results of the analysis were given in Table 2.

Table 2. *The Results of ANOVA Analysis Regarding Whether Football Referees' Decision Self-esteem and Decision-making Styles Differed According to Being Exposed to the Trainer's Verbal or Physical Violence Variable*

Sub-dimension		N	X	SD	F	P
Decision Self-esteem	1	35	10,85	1,35	**1,42**	0,23
	2	18	10,72	0,86		
	3	30	10,33	2,08		
Decision Vigilance	1	35	9,68	1,49	**5,03**	**0,01**
	2	18	10,11	1,87		
	3	30	9,33	1,68		
	4	24	8,04	2,07		
	5	14	8,57	1,69		
Decision Buck-passing	1	35	4,94	2,60	**1,67**	0,16
	2	18	4,27	2,43		
	3	30	4,86	2,68		
	4	24	5,04	3,10		
	5	14	3,14	1,91		
Decision Procrastination	1	35	3,00	2,15	**0,18**	0,94
	2	18	2,83	1,61		
	3	30	2,93	2,43		
	4	24	3,33	2,56		
	5	14	2,85	1,79		
Decision Hypervigilance	1	35	2,25	2,36	**2,34**	**0,05**
	2	18	2,61	1,57		
	3	30	3,13	2,47		
	4	24	3,95	2,42		
	5	14	3,57	2,20		

P<.05

When Table 2 was analyzed, it could be seen that decision vigilance mean scores of the referees who perceived being exposed to the trainer's verbal or physical violence as an important stressor were lower, whereas their decision hypervigilance mean scores were higher.

In the research, whether football referees' decision self-esteem and decision-making styles differed according to being exposed to the player's verbal or physical violence variable was analyzed by ANOVA analysis and the results of the analysis were given in Table 3.

Table 3. *The Results of ANOVA Analysis Regarding Whether Football Referees' Decision Self-esteem and Decision-making Styles Differed According to Being Exposed to the Player's Verbal or Physical Violence Variable*

Sub-dimension		N	X	SD	F	P
Decision Self-esteem	1	33	10,84	1,43	**1,65**	0,16
	2	27	10,74	0,90		
	3	23	10,26	2,07		
	4	17	10,11	2,34		
	5	21	9,85	1,38		
Decision Vigilance	1	33	9,60	1,56	**5,32**	**0,01**
	2	27	10,14	1,83		
	3	23	8,95	1,66		
	4	17	8,76	2,16		
	5	21	8,00	1,58		
Decision Buck-passing	1	33	5,06	2,77	**1,12**	0,34
	2	27	4,37	1,94		
	3	23	5,17	2,88		
	4	17	4,52	2,98		
	5	21	3,80	1,99		
Decision Procrastination	1	33	3,03	2,03	**,62**	0,64
	2	27	2,48	1,78		
	3	23	3,43	2,82		
	4	17	3,11	2,26		
	5	21	3,09	2,07		
Decision Hypervigilance	1	33	2,42	2,54	**3,27**	**0,01**
	2	27	2,18	1,59		
	3	23	3,47	2,44		
	4	17	3,41	2,50		
	5	21	4,19	2,06		

P<.05

When Table 3 was analyzed, it could be seen that decision vigilance mean scores of the referees who perceived being exposed to the player's verbal or physical violence as an important stressor were lower, whereas their decision hypervigilance mean scores were higher.

In the research, whether football referees' decision self-esteem and decision-making styles differed according to being exposed to the fans' verbal or physical violence variable was analyzed by ANOVA analysis and the results of the analysis were given in Table 4.

Table 4. *The Results of ANOVA Analysis Regarding Whether Football Referees' Decision Self-esteem and Decision-making Styles Differed According to Being Exposed to the Fans' Verbal or Physical Violence Variable*

Sub-dimension		N	X	SD	F	P
Decision Self-esteem	1	31	10,77	1,47	**0,86**	0,48
	2	19	10,63	0,76		
	3	26	10,38	1,94		
	4	25	10,32	2,05		
	5	20	9,95	1,53		
Decision Vigilance	1	31	9,61	1,58	6,35	0,00
	2	19	10,47	1,46		
	3	26	9,23	1,88		
	4	25	8,76	1,96		
	5	20	7,90	1,55		
Decision Buck-passing	1	31	5,09	2,66	**,72**	,57
	2	19	4,73	2,44		
	3	26	4,76	2,68		
	4	25	4,44	2,75		
	5	20	3,90	1,99		
Decision Procrastination	1	31	2,96	1,97	**0,37**	0,82
	2	19	3,05	2,17		
	3	26	2,61	2,35		
	4	25	3,36	2,39		
	5	20	3,10	2,12		
Decision Hypervigilance	1	31	2,35	2,55	**2,20**	**0,07**
	2	19	2,78	1,71		
	3	26	2,84	2,39		
	4	25	3,20	2,39		
	5	20	4,25	2,07		

P<.05

When Table 4 was analyzed, it could be seen that decision vigilance mean scores of the referees who perceived being exposed to the fans' verbal or physical violence as an important stressor were lower, whereas their decision hypervigilance mean scores were higher.

In the research, whether football referees' decision self-esteem and decision-making styles differed according to making contradictory decisions in the match variable was analyzed by ANOVA analysis and the results of the analysis were given in Table 5.

Table 5. *The Results of ANOVA Analysis Regarding Whether Football Referees' Decision Self-esteem and Decision-making Styles Differed According to Making Contradictory Decisions Variable*

Sub-dimension		N	X	SD	F	P
Decision Self-esteem	1	30	11,00	1,28	3,35	0,01
	2	26	10,53	1,47		
	3	25	10,00	1,97		
	4	31	10,58	1,64		
	5	9	9,00	1,32		
Decision Vigilance	1	30	9,46	1,69	**3,60**	**0,00**
	2	26	9,48	1,72		
	3	25	8,48	1,68		
	4	31	8,00	2,01		
	5	9	9,86	1,65		
Decision Buck-passing	1	30	4,50	2,30	**1,52**	0,20
	2	26	5,53	3,12		
	3	25	4,84	2,65		
	4	31	3,93	2,09		
	5	9	4,33	2,23		
Decision Procrastination	1	30	3,06	2,42	**0,65**	0,62
	2	26	3,11	2,26		
	3	25	3,12	2,27		
	4	31	2,54	1,72		
	5	9	3,77	2,38		
Decision Hypervigilance	1	30	2,06	2,49	**3,53**	**0,00**
	2	26	3,42	2,30		
	3	25	3,12	2,31		
	4	31	2,90	1,86		
	5	9	5,11	2,26		

P<.05

When Table 5 was analyzed, it could be seen that decision self-esteem and decision vigilance mean scores of the referees who perceived making contradictory decisions as an important stressor were lower, whereas their decision hypervigilance mean scores were higher.

In the research, whether football referees' decision self-esteem and decision-making styles differed according to giving false decisions in the match variable was analyzed by ANOVA analysis and the results of the analysis were given in Table 6.

Table 6. *The Results of ANOVA Analysis Regarding Whether Football Referees' Decision Self-esteem and Decision-making Styles Differed According to Giving False Decisions in the Match Variable*

Sub-dimension		N	X	SD	F	P
Decision Self-esteem	1	26	10,84	1,37	2,04	0,09
	2	18	11,16	1,04		
	3	24	10,20	2,06		
	4	30	10,10	1,88		
	5	23	10,08	1,31		
Decision Vigilance	1	26	9,80	1,74	2,18	0,07
	2	18	9,22	1,83		
	3	24	9,41	1,76		
	4	30	9,20	1,58		
	5	23	8,30	2,22		
Decision Buck-passing	1	26	4,61	2,38	**0,08**	0,98
	2	18	4,55	2,99		
	3	24	4,50	2,04		
	4	30	4,60	3,00		
	5	23	4,91	2,37		
Decision Procrastination	1	26	3,03	2,56	**1,43**	0,22
	2	18	2,83	2,03		
	3	24	2,50	1,69		
	4	30	2,80	2,31		
	5	23	3,91	1,99		
Decision Hypervigilance	1	26	2,19	2,57	**2,64**	**0,03**
	2	18	2,55	2,22		
	3	24	3,12	2,11		
	4	30	3,00	2,18		
	5	23	4,21	2,25		

P<.05

When Table 6 was analyzed, it could be seen that decision self-esteem and decision vigilance mean scores of the referees who perceived giving false decisions as an important stressor were lower, whereas their decision hypervigilance mean scores were higher.

In the research, whether football referees' decision self-esteem and decision-making styles differed according to the presence of an observer in the competition variable was analyzed by ANOVA analysis and the results of the analysis were given in Table 7.

Table 7. *The Results of ANOVA Analysis Regarding Whether Football Referees' Decision Self-esteem and Decision-making Styles Differed According to the Presence of an Observer in the Match Variable*

Sub-dimension		N	X	SD	F	P
Decision Self-esteem	1	27	10,92	1,43	**2,22**	**0,07**
	2	24	10,62	1,46		
	3	36	10,43	1,64		
	4	22	10,22	1,90		
	5	12	9,27	1,61		
Decision Vigilance	1	27	9,74	1,50	**3,69**	**0,07**
	2	24	9,79	1,99		
	3	36	9,27	1,44		
	4	22	8,08	2,18		
	5	12	8,63	2,06		
Decision Buck-passing	1	27	3,81	2,54	**2,68**	**0,03**
	2	24	3,95	1,73		
	3	36	5,00	2,86		
	4	22	4,95	2,01		
	5	12	6,27	3,06		
Decision Procrastination	1	27	2,51	2,31	**1,02**	0,39
	2	24	3,12	1,42		
	3	36	2,86	2,22		
	4	22	3,22	2,38		
	5	12	4,00	2,36		
Decision Hypervigilance	1	27	1,74	2,34	**4,38**	**0,00**
	2	24	2,95	1,23		
	3	36	3,24	2,41		
	4	22	3,31	2,41		
	5	12	4,90	2,42		

P<.05

When Table 7 was analyzed, it could be seen that decision self-esteem and decision vigilance mean scores of the referees who perceived the presence of an observer as an important stressor were lower, whereas their decision buck-passing and decision hypervigilance mean scores were higher.

In the research, whether football referees' decision self-esteem and decision-making styles differed according to having problems with the other referees in the match variable was analyzed by ANOVA analysis and the results of the analysis were given in Table 8.

Table 8. *The Results of ANOVA Analysis Regarding Whether Football Referees' Decision Self-esteem and Decision-making Styles Differed According to Having Problems with the Other Referees in the Match Variable*

Sub-dimension		N	X	SD	F	P
Decision Self-esteem	1	37	10,72	1,48	4,00	0,04
	2	28	11,00	0,98		
	3	35	10,28	1,70		
	4	18	10,66	2,12		
	5	3	10,43	1,52		
Decision Vigilance	1	37	10,18	1,46	**5,81**	0,00
	2	28	9,14	2,10		
	3	35	8,22	1,71		
	4	18	9,22	1,21		
	5	3	9,00	3,46		
Decision Buck-passing	1	37	4,75	2,78	**2,21**	0,07
	2	28	4,32	2,03		
	3	35	4,17	2,21		
	4	18	6,05	3,09		
	5	3	3,00	1,00		
Decision Procrastination	1	37	2,89	2,15	**0,81**	0,51
	2	28	2,67	1,84		
	3	35	3,05	2,16		
	4	18	3,77	2,71		
	5	3	2,33	2,30		
Decision Hypervigilance	1	37	2,37	2,55	3,00	0,02
	2	28	2,57	1,83		
	3	35	3,45	2,09		
	4	18	4,33	2,61		
	5	3	2,00	1,73		

P<.05

When Table 8 was analyzed, it could be seen that decision self-esteem and decision vigilance mean scores of the referees who perceived having problems with the other referees as an important stressor were lower, whereas their decision buck-passing and decision hypervigilance mean scores were higher.

In the research, whether football referees' decision self-esteem and decision-making styles differed according to making simultaneous decisions in the match variable was analyzed by ANOVA analysis and the results of the analysis were given in Table 9.

Table 9. *The Results of ANOVA Analysis Regarding Whether Football Referees' Decision Self-esteem and Decision-making Styles Differed According to Making Simultaneous Decisions in the Match Variable*

Sub-dimension		N	X	SD	F	P
Decision Self-esteem	1	28	11,10	1,06	**5,77**	**0,00**
	2	29	10,96	0,98		
	3	37	10,29	1,74		
	4	22	9,50	2,01		
	5	5	8,80	2,16		
Decision Vigilance	1	28	10,82	1,21	**8,70**	**0,00**
	2	29	8,58	2,04		
	3	37	8,75	1,36		
	4	22	8,77	2,04		
	5	5	9,00	1,41		
Decision Buck-passing	1	28	4,14	2,46	**2,72**	**0,03**
	2	29	3,93	1,96		
	3	37	5,02	2,80		
	4	22	4,90	2,36		
	5	5	7,40	3,13		
Decision Procrastination	1	28	3,00	2,00	**1,68**	0,15
	2	29	2,20	1,78		
	3	37	3,24	2,46		
	4	22	3,40	2,28		
	5	5	4,20	1,92		
Decision Hypervigilance	1	28	2,07	2,20	**5,43**	**0,00**
	2	29	2,44	1,66		
	3	37	3,72	2,20		
	4	22	3,04	2,73		
	5	5	6,20	1,78		

P<.05

When Table 9 was analyzed, it could be seen that decision self-esteem and decision vigilance mean scores of the referees who perceived making simultaneous decisions as an important stressor were lower, whereas their decision buck-passing, decision procrastination and decision hypervigilance mean scores were higher.

In the research, whether football referees' decision self-esteem and decision-making styles differed according to feeling not prepared physically or psychologically variable was analyzed by ANOVA analysis and the results of the analysis were given in Table 10.

Table 10. *The Results of ANOVA Analysis Regarding Whether Football Referees' Decision Self-esteem and Decision-making Styles Differed According to Feeling Not Prepared Physically or Psychologically Variable*

Sub-dimension		N	X	SD	F	P
Decision Self-esteem	1	27	10,92	1,41	**2,83**	**0,02**
	2	24	11,00	1,28		
	3	18	10,38	1,46		
	4	36	9,80	1,90		
	5	16	10,25	1,69		
Decision Vigilance	1	27	10,07	1,77	**4,35**	**0,00**
	2	24	9,83	1,68		
	3	18	9,00	1,90		
	4	36	8,47	1,87		
	5	16	8,68	1,40		
Decision Buck-passing	1	27	4,44	2,60	**0,83**	0,50
	2	24	4,04	1,85		
	3	18	5,16	2,30		
	4	36	4,61	3,15		
	5	16	5,31	2,02		
Decision Procrastination	1	27	2,92	2,14	**0,68**	0,60
	2	24	2,41	1,76		
	3	18	3,16	2,35		
	4	36	3,19	2,48		
	5	16	3,43	1,93		
Decision Hypervigilance	1	27	2,14	2,33	**3,85**	**0,00**
	2	24	2,08	1,93		
	3	18	3,22	2,12		
	4	36	3,91	2,38		
	5	16	3,62	2,27		

P<.05

When Table 10 was analyzed, it could be seen that decision self-esteem and decision vigilance mean scores of the referees who perceived feeling not prepared physically or psychologically as an important stressor were lower, whereas their decision hypervigilance mean scores were higher.

In the research, whether football referees' decision self-esteem and decision-making styles differed according to giving disciplinary punishments variable was analyzed by ANOVA analysis and the results of the analysis were given in Table 11.

Table 11. *The Results of ANOVA Analysis Regarding Whether Football Referees' Decision Self-esteem and Decision-making Styles Differed According to Giving Disciplinary Punishments Variable*

Sub-dimension		N	X	SD	F	**P**
Decision Self-esteem	1	34	11,02	1,26	5,31	0,01
	2	22	10,81	1,13		
	3	22	10,72	1,16		
	4	23	9,95	2,03		
	5	20	9,25	1,99		
Decision Vigilance	1	34	10,20	1,47	**6,70**	**0,00**
	2	22	9,77	1,84		
	3	22	8,59	1,79		
	4	23	8,17	1,85		
	5	20	8,75	1,65		
Decision Buck-passing	1	34	4,00	2,47	1,81	0,31
	2	22	4,04	2,17		
	3	22	4,77	2,18		
	4	23	5,26	2,71		
	5	20	5,55	2,98		
Decision Procrastination	1	34	2,52	2,06	4,73	**0,00**
	2	22	2,27	1,69		
	3	22	2,40	1,68		
	4	23	3,78	2,69		
	5	20	4,40	1,93		
Decision Hypervigilance	1	34	1,67	2,05	9,70	**0,00**
	2	22	2,45	1,47		
	3	22	2,77	1,90		
	4	23	4,26	2,19		
	5	20	4,75	2,57		

P<.05

When Table 11 was analyzed, it could be seen that decision self-esteem and decision vigilance mean scores of the referees who perceived giving disciplinary punishments as an important stressor were lower, whereas their decision procrastination and decision hypervigilance mean scores were higher.

In the research, whether football referees' decision self-esteem and decision-making styles differed according to being interrupted by the other referees while making decisions variable was analyzed by ANOVA analysis and the results of the analysis were given in Table 12.

Table 12. *The Results of ANOVA Analysis Regarding Whether Football Referees' Decision Self-esteem and Decision-making Styles Differed According to Being Interrupted by the Other Referees While Making Decisions*

Sub-dimension		N	X	SD	F	P
Decision Self-esteem	1	35	10,85	1,30	**3,03**	**0,02**
	2	27	11,00	1,14		
	3	38	10,00	1,85		
	4	14	9,92	2,09		
	5	7	9,57	1,71		
Decision Vigilance	1	35	10,22	1,68	**5,52**	**0,00**
	2	27	9,37	1,54		
	3	38	8,60	1,58		
	4	14	8,21	2,54		
	5	7	8,71	1,49		
Decision Buck-passing	1	35	4,60	2,37	**0,41**	0,79
	2	27	4,37	2,57		
	3	38	4,68	2,59		
	4	14	5,35	3,24		
	5	7	4,14	1,67		
Decision Procrastination	1	35	3,00	1,98	**2,12**	**0,08**
	2	27	2,18	1,56		
	3	38	3,05	2,45		
	4	14	4,00	2,66		
	5	7	4,00	1,73		
Decision Hypervigilance	1	35	2,18	2,14	**4,13**	**0,00**
	2	27	2,22	1,94		
	3	38	3,52	2,27		
	4	14	4,35	2,79		
	5	7	4,28	2,13		

P<.05

When Table 11 was analyzed, it could be seen that decision self-esteem and decision vigilance mean scores of the referees who perceived being interrupted by the other referees while making decisions as an important stressor were lower, whereas their decision hypervigilance mean scores were higher.

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The decision-making behavior exhibited while making decisions, some of which are planned and some others are instant when a new situation is faced, is a result that is influenced by many characteristics such as the communication skills, perception capacity, attention, psychological characteristics and motivation of the individual. Therefore, the decisions we make are shaped according to the characteristics we have. For this reason, our decisions can sometimes be rational, careful and independent, whereas they can sometimes be panic, avoidant or postponing.

Due to the dynamic nature of sports, decisions in sports are also dynamic. For example, an athlete has to perform an athletic performance synchronously and utilize all the cognitive processes to analyze the situation, make the right decisions and turn them into behaviors at the same time. For a football referee, this situation has to be processed much faster. In other words, the referee has to perform the athletic performance that will enable him/her to follow the match, utilize all the cognitive processes at the highest capacity while following the match and make the right decision about each situation in the match. According to Tenenbaum and Eli (1993), the referee has to distinguish, process and decide about plenty of real and deceptive information in a very short time. According to Newell et al. (2004), this is often not possible so these are carried out in a certain order.

Although the decisions of the referee managing a match are final decisions, they are open to the interpretation of both the athletes, trainers and thousands of fans. Therefore, the referee has to be extremely sure of his/her decision regarding a situation in the match and stand behind the decision (Tiryaki, 2000). Otherwise, the other parties of the sports will put pressure on the referee to change the decision and thus, this will cause the referee to feel stressed.

The effect of stress that has a constructive or destructive impact on the individual depends on how the stressor is perceived by the individual. This effect plays a decisive role in the individual's work performance. Aydın (2008) stated that stress is a factor that increases work performance up to a certain point and that decreases the performance after exceeding a certain level. Especially when the threats targeting the self and personality are perceived, as emphasized by Fisher and Zwart (1982) in their study, the individual experiences a high level of anxiety. This anxiety causes stress and negatively affects the performance of the individual. This study, which investigated the impact of the work stress experienced by football referees on their decision-making styles, revealed that the referees who felt the impact of the 12 stressors they themselves defined more had lower decision self-esteem and decision vigilance scores, whereas they had higher decision buck-passing, decision procrastination and decision hypervigilance tendencies. Likewise, Uzunoğlu (2008), Kurban (2015), Burnett (1991), Burns et al. (2000) and Yıldız (2015) found similar results in their studies. In Satman's (2014) study on football referees, it was revealed that the referees made intuitive decisions via shortcuts under intense pressure. According to the research, it was determined that the referees used different clues (the reactions of the fans, players or trainers) about

the situations they have to make quick decisions during the matches.

In the research, it was seen that there was a difference among the decision self-esteem, decision vigilance, decision hypervigilance and decision buck-passing scores of the referees who perceived workload density as a source of intense stress. It was observed that the difference was among the referees who perceived workload density as a source of stress at the lowest and highest level. According to this result, it was seen that decision self-esteem and decision vigilance mean scores of the referees who perceived workload density as an important stressor were lower, whereas their decision buck-passing and decision hypervigilance mean scores were higher. In other words, it is revealed that the stressor caused the referees to feel less confident in their decisions and they, at the same time, tended to make decisions more carelessly but in a panic and avoidant manner. This situation is thought to be the result of the fact that the workload of the referees is too high and that the referees feel under more pressure to get these tasks done before the deadlines. The anxiety of fulfilling the responsibility required by the task may cause the referees to feel more panic in their decisions. According to Deniz (2004), decision hypervigilance refers to the effort to come up with quick solutions by exhibiting impatient behaviors under time pressure.

In the study, it was seen that there was a difference between the decision vigilance and decision hypervigilance scores of the referees who perceived being exposed to the trainers', players' and fans' verbal or physical violence as an important source of stress. It was observed that the difference was among the referees who perceived being exposed to the trainers', players' and fans' verbal or physical violence as a source of stress at the lowest and highest level. According to this result, it was seen that decision vigilance mean scores

of the referees who perceived being exposed to the trainers', players' and fans' verbal or physical violence as a stressor at the highest level were lower when compared to other groups, whereas their decision hypervigilance mean scores were higher. The referees who felt the pressure of being exposed to physical violence at the highest level tended to make decisions more carelessly but in a panic manner. In spite of the fact that the referees try to manage the stress created by the pressure of being exposed to any physical violence during the match by concentrating on the game and implementing the rules in the game (e.g. giving disciplinary punishment), they are not able to make decisions enough rationally as this stress sets a balance between the cognitive and emotional aspects of the referee while making decisions. Rational decisions are also carefully made decisions that produce the most appropriate solution required by the situation. Avşaroğlu (2007) emphasized that individuals with rational decision-making style were also in a vigilant attitude while making decisions.

In the study, it was seen that there was a difference among the decision self-esteem, decision vigilance, decision hypervigilance and decision buck-passing scores of the referees according to making contradictory decisions, the presence of the observer, having problems with the other referees, and the referee's simultaneous decisions variables. It was observed that the difference was between the referees who perceived making contradictory decisions, the presence of the observer, having problems with the other referees, and the referee's simultaneous decisions as a stressor at the highest level and the other groups. According to this result, it was seen that decision self-esteem and decision vigilance mean scores of the referees who perceived making contradictory decisions, the presence of the observer, having problems with the other referees, and the referee's simultaneous decisions as a stressor at the highest level were lower, whereas their decision buck-passing and

decision hypervigilance scores were higher. In other words, it was found that the referees who felt the anxiety of making contradictory and simultaneous decisions at a high level or who perceived the presence of the observer as a threat had a lower decision self-esteem level while making a decision and correspondingly, they made decisions in a more careless manner. The fact that the referees had more tendency to make decisions in an avoidant and panic manner because of the pressure they felt was another result observed.

In the study, it was seen that there was a difference among the decision self-esteem, decision vigilance, decision hypervigilance and decision procrastination scores of the referees according to feeling not prepared physically or psychologically to manage the match, giving disciplinary punishments and being interrupted by the other referees while making decisions variables. It was observed that the difference was between the referees who perceived feeling not prepared physically or psychologically to manage the match, giving disciplinary punishments and being interrupted by the other referees while making decisions as a stressor at the highest level and the other groups. According to this result, it was seen that the decision self-esteem of the referees who perceived the mentioned sources of stress as a stressor at the highest level were lower, that they made decisions more carelessly and in a panic manner, and that they, at the same time, had a tendency of procrastinating their decisions.

As a result, it was seen that the stressors expressed by the referees were determinants on their decision-making styles. It can be said that the referees tend to make panic and impatient decisions with the desire to finish the match as soon as possible when they perceive the pressure of fans, trainers and athletes as an important stressor for themselves. Furthermore, it can be said that their self-

esteem in the decision-making process is low and therefore, their tendency to stand behind their decisions is also low.

As a result of the research, it can be said that in the presence of a stressor that will make the referees feel under threat, they tend to exhibit a behavior to protect themselves rather than exhibiting a leader behavior taking risks by using the creativity that refereeing requires and therefore, they use decision buck-passing, decision procrastination and decision hypervigilance styles more. It is noteworthy that in every situation where the tendency to use these decision-making styles is high, their decision self-esteem and decision vigilance scores are oppositely low. Indeed, in a study conducted by Tiryaki (1997) on self-esteem, it was revealed that those who had high self-esteem levels behaved more rationally and used decision vigilance style while making decisions. In the studies by Brown and Mann (1991), Gücray (2003), Mann et al. (1998) and Deniz (2004), it was found that there was a positive relationship between decision self-esteem and decision vigilance style; whereas there was a negative relationship between decision self-esteem and decision procrastination, decision buck-passing and decision hypervigilance styles.

Rasmussen (1993) stated that the referees used certain clues while making decisions since they were obliged to take and process many information in the sports environment at the same time. In the study conducted by Helsen and Bultynck (2001), it was determined that the referees had to make at least 2-3 decisions per minute. Making such quick and accurate decisions in such a short time is only possible with high motivation. It can be said that in the cases where motivation can be achieved, the referees have higher decision self-esteem and decision vigilance levels. However, it is considered that in the cases where this motivation cannot be achieved due to match-specific or personal reasons (failure and criticism anxiety,

low income level and standard of living, communication problem, lack of ability to cope with stress), the referees are in a decision hypervigilance, decision buck-passing or decision procrastination style attitude. For example, in the studies conducted by Lane et al. (2006) and Nevill et al. (2002), it was revealed that the referees gave decisions more in favor of the home team under the pressure of fans, and that experienced referees made more vigilant decisions and paid more attention to task-specific criteria. In their study, Gilbert et al. (1995) emphasized that in the referees' decisions, both the score and the time were determinants (as cited in Macmahon, 1999).

SUGGESTIONS

The suggestions for further related studies can be stated as follows:

- Through in-service training programs that will be organized in order to improve the decision-making abilities of the referees, the improvement in their decision-making abilities can be determined.
- The ability of the referees to cope with stress can be improved through in-service training programs and the change in their pre-training and post-training decision-making abilities can be compared.
- Decision-making abilities of active referees in different branches can be compared.
- The abilities of the referees in different categories regarding decision-making and coping with stress can be compared.

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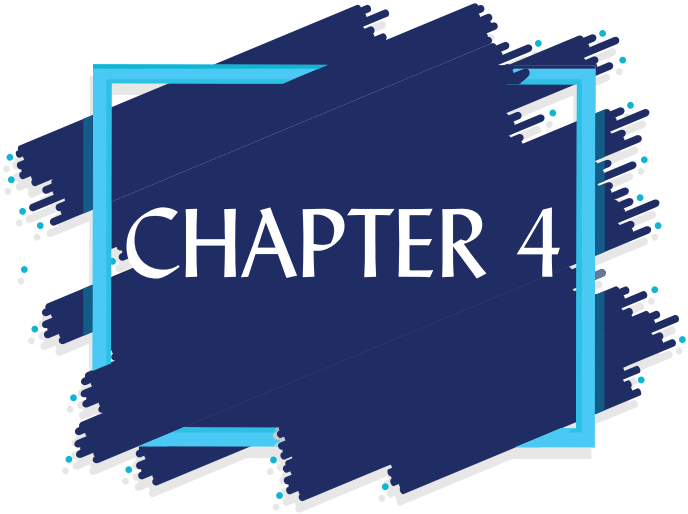
COMPARISON OF NARCISISISM AND LIFE ENGAGEMENT LEVELS OF VETERAN HANDBALL PLAYERS ACCORDING TO GENDER VARIABLE

Mustafa Deniz DİNDAR[1]



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Mustafa Deniz DİNDAR[1]

INTRODUCTION

When narcissism is addressed in regard to linguistics it can be seen that it based on ‘’narke’’ word which means ‘’insensivity’’ in Greek language (Kiraz, 2011: 3; Yeşiller, 2010: 29).

Individuals who have narcissistic personality type believe that they are more different, more special and more distinguished people. Because they have such a consideration they tend to see themselves superior to other people (Gabriel *at al.,* 1994; Tazegül & Ferah 2016).

Narcissisim concept comes from Narkissos from Greek Mythology who fell in love with himself by looking in the water seeing his reflection and living his life by watching this reflection that he will never be able to reach to (Tazegül, 2018; Tazegül & Soykan, 2013).

Narcissist athletes attribute the reasons of failures to referee decisions, audience, wrong tactics of trainer etc. claiming that rules are wrong. They never believe that they were defeated through their failures (Tazegül, 2011; Tazegül, 2013;Tazegül, 2017b).

In the studies carried out related to narcissistic personality type, it was determined that individuals whose narcissistic personality characteristics developed had a

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higher self-esteem(Campbell, *et al.,* 2004), and tended to be ostentatious (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001).

Feeling good for narcissist individuals depend on how they show their superiorities to the others and gain prestige from other people. They don't really care about being loved like others. So narcissistic individuals tend to work hard and insist more in order to protect their self-respect and not to fail. When narcissisits fail they try to prove that their failure's reason was a misfortune or something like this (Wallace & Baumeister, 2002).

One of the other important characteristic of narcissistic individuals is they have effect on team performance. Individuals who carry narcissistic features may not become a good team player. As they don't have emphaty skills they tend to see other people as a means to aggrandize themselves. As they see themselves as superior than other people they play a dominant role in their interpersonal relationships. In studies carried out as a team they show less performance than they have as a result of they think their contributions they do for team may be realized by others.

In case they show less performance than they have, is not taken kindly by other teams players that is why absence of narcissistic individuals in a team may be harmful for the objectives of team and may cause disagreements (Wallace & Baumeister, 2002).

There are a lot of factors that can affect the performance of athletes. There no doubt that the most remarkable ones are anxiety and stress. Athletes can cope with anxiety and stress which affect their performance negatively with thinking styles that they have. During anxious and stressful situations and when they have negative thoughts their performances become affected too. However if

athletes can have a positive mindset they can overcome negative situations and can show a better performance (Tazegül, 2018c).

When individuals are thought to have a limited time duration in the universe, they can reach their targets if they make plans, besides it is important arrange them in useful way. Because individuals who are exposed to some developmental crisis and duties (death of a relation, divorce, immigration, marriage, having a child) need a strong life engagement in order to cope with them. Life engagement is parallel with the aim of life directly or indirectly. Aims which help individual to give a meaning to their life and provide self development also play a protective role against psychological problems (Eryılmaz, 2012; McKnight & Kashdan, 2009).

The adaptation of individuals which is suggested to strengthen the life engagement and factors like optimism, self-sufficiency and endurance correlated. Process of reaching personal targets will become faster when when supported with this kind of psychological structures (Wroch *at al.,* 2003b).

Purposefulness is essentially provide a reason for living (De Klerk at al., 2009; Yüksel, 2013). By this means life engagement becomes not only a dynamic for survival but also can reach to a dimension for creating a difference in this limited life duration. High life engagement level individuals have strong reasons for survival. While purposefulness make individuals conducted for life, Wrosch et al (2003a) stated that purposelessness or a weak purposefulness that cannot activate an individual to make a move for finding a meaning in life may increase tendency to psychological problems.

According and Eryılmaz (2012) determining targets for life, produce positive effects on mental and physical health of individuals. Importance of concepts like setting an objective, purposefulness, life targets increase when approached with life engagement. At this point it can be suggested that life engagement is feeded the targets of an individual. As purpose concept can be associated with a lot of psychological structure, life engagement became a part of whole of this relationship. Hence there are positive relations found between life engagement and optimism, self-respect, emotional balance, social functionality, physical wellness, extroversion, life satisfaction; but negative relation was found between life engagement and depression, perceived stress, anger (Matthews, 2005).

METHOD

Sample

The sample of study consisted of 80 veteran handball players who participated voluntarily in the study.

Data Collection Tools

Life Engagement Scale

Life Engagement Scale form was developed by Scheier et al (2006) in order to evaluate individual's life purposes. Scale consists of 6 item and single dimension (life engagement). Turkish reliability study of this scale were made by Ugur and Akın in 2015. Scale has a fivefold assessment (''1'' Strongly Disagree, ''5'' Strongly Agree). 1.3. and 5th items in scale were coded reversely. Increasing numbers show a high level life engagement. It was found that while Cronbach Alpha internal consistency reliability coefficients aligned between 72 and 87;Test-repetition reliability coefficients were between 61 and 76.

Narcissistic Personality Scale

‘’Narcissistic Personality Scale’’ was developed by Daniel R. Ames, Paul Rose ve Cameron P. Anderson in 2015. Scale was translated in Turkish with its validity and reliability study.by Salim Atay in 2009. In the first study carried out by Atay, reliability coefficient was determined as 0,57. As reliability coefficient was found as less than the expected values, a revision made in four item which were considered they do not contribute anything on scale, and each factor was perceived as negative.In measurements performed after this change Reliability coefficient increased to 0,652.

In this case, Pearson Correlation was resolved between scores of NPI-16 and NPI-15 scales whether 15 question form of NPI will be used or not and values was determined as 0,987. As a result of removing an expression which showed a low correlation, reliability coefficient of NPI increased and correlation was saved with its 16 question form (Atay, 2009). Scores that can be obtained from Narcissism Scale; authority dimension 0-2, exhibitionism dimension 0-3, exploitation dimension 0-3, demanding dimension 0-2, self-sufficiency dimension 0-3, superiority dimension 0-3, and total narcissism scores are obtained between 0-16 scores. As the score increases narcissism level increases (Atay, 2010). In the study of Atay in 2010, reliability coefficient was determined as 0,713 (Atay, 2010).

Data Analysis

SPSS 20 Package Program was used in the analysis of data. In order to determined whether data had normal distribution; ‘’Kolmogorov-Smirnov’’ test, and ‘’Anova-Homogeneity of Variances’’ test was used to determine homogeneity and it was determined that data had normal

distribuation and were homogeneous. After this first analysis, it was decided to use parametrical test methodin statistical analysis. In the analysis of data; descriptive statistics, independent sample t test were used.

FINDINGS

Table 1. *Descriptive Statistics Findings related to Age, Height and Weight*

	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Age	80	38	51	43,56	3,027
Height	80	165	200	180,00	7,692
Weight	80	54	116	84,46	15,252

On table 1. There are age, height and weight descriptive statistics information withing samples

Table 2. *Narcissism and Conduct of Life Descriptive Statistics Findings according to Gender Variable*

Gender		N	Mean	SD	Std. E.M
Conduct of Life	Male	40	17,77	2,59	,410
	Female	40	17,47	3,02	,477
Narcissism	Male	40	8,25	1,70	,269
	Female	40	8,05	2,08	,330

As a result of descriptive statistics at the end of Table 2, it was determined that conduct of life score of males were seen to have higher than females and males were seen to have higher narcissisim scores than females.

Table 3. *Comparison of Conduct of Life Narcissism Levels According to Gender Variable (Independent Sample t test)*

	F	t	P
Conduct of Life	1,158	,476	,635
		,476	
Narcissism	,834	,469	,640
		,469	

As a result of t test, it was determined that there was no any statistically significant difference between two variables.

DISCUSSION AND RESULTS

As a result of descriptive statistical analysis, it was determined that males were seen to have higher narcissism and life engagement scores than females. As a result of these data it can be suggested that males have narcissistic personality characteristics and they become more dominant in human affairs. In addition, as a result of statistics males were seen to be more engaged to life and satisfied with life than females. As a result of independent t test, there was no any statistically significant difference determined. In the literatüre research studies were found which support our data and some of these studies are given below:

In Tazegül's (2018a) research athletes in Basketball branch were seen to have higher narcissism scores than soccer players. In another research of Tazegül (2018b) it was determined that steroid use had influence on narcissism level. In study of Tazegül and Güven (2017) they determined narcissism scores of body builders as 8,1429. In study of Tazegül and Özdemir (2018) they determined that students at exercise and sports department had higher narcissism scores than students who study at Training and Recreation. In study of Tazegül and Güven (2015) narcissism scores of exercise participants were seen to be higher than sedentary or non-participants to exercise. In study of Tazegül (2013b) a positive relationship was determined between show of strength motives and reaching to success motives between motivation sub-dimensions and narcissism levels of Boxers.

In study of Tazegül (2018d) a relationship between sportsmanship and narcissism was determined. In a study of Geri et al. (2018) it was determined that there was a significant difference between interpersonal visual intelligence and narcissism. In study of Tazegül (2016)

life engagement scores of tennis players was found as 25,9808±4,78667.

As a result, narcissistic tendencies and life engagament scores of male athletes were determined to be higher than female athletes.

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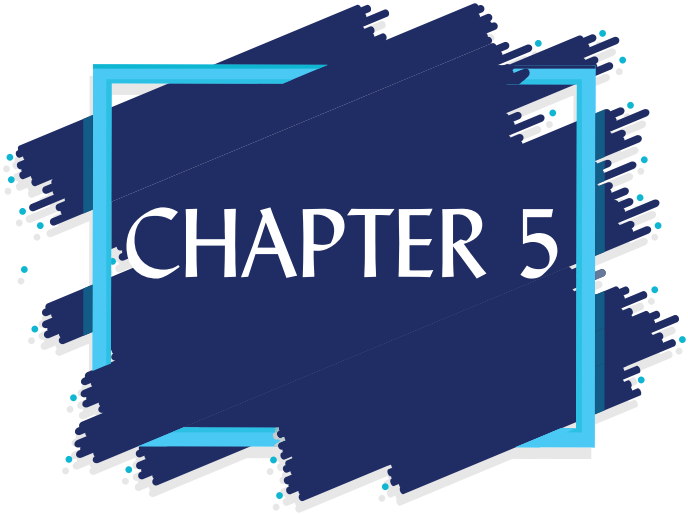
A NEW FOOTBALL PHILOSOPHY IN TURKISH FOOTBALL

"ALTINORDU FOOTBALL ACADEMY"

Onur Mutlu Yaşar, Hakan Sunay



A NEW FOOTBALL PHILOSOPHY IN TURKISH FOOTBALL

"ALTINORDU FOOTBALL ACADEMY"

Onur Mutlu Yaşar, Hakan Sunay

INTRODUCTION

In the first time of football was just considered as a game or social acitivity. But now football or soccer is recognized as the world's most popular and watched sport branch. There are 200 million football players including 40 million women in the World. The huge costs in the football industry have been particularly high in recent times for example the size of the european football industry exceeded a total of 25 billion euro (Ronald ve Jean-Pierre, 2019).

To survive in this sector and to maintain a strong development is difficult both in terms of clubs and countries football. Espacially, the increase in the commercial and entertainment element of Professional football has increased the focus on player recruitment and development (Relvas et al., 2010). When the last 30 years are examined in the world football, it can be seen that each team or country has achieved an upward momentum by investing in youth football planning organizaton. Although scientific studies about young football organizations can be seen in the related literature but not so many. (Malina et. al., 2005; Poli, et. al., 2015; Bullough and Jordan, 2017; Champ, 2018; Yaşar and Sunay, 2018; Bujnovky et. al., 2019;).

The examples of such good football youth organizations are seen to be more successful in European clubs in general such as Bercelona , Ajax, Sporting Lisbon. However, a successful young football organization in Turkish football

was not seen before the Altınordu FC. From this point of view, the aim of this study is to examine and interpret the football academy of Altınordu Football Club.

Method

Document analysis method was used in the research. Document analysis, which includes the analysis of written materials containing information about the research subject, is a technique used to collect data alone in researches where observation or interview is not possible, in order to collect data and to increase the validity of the research when used in conjunction with other data collection methods (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2005; Karataş, 2015).

Written documents may include books, newspapers and magazines, reports, records, correspondence, instructions and minutes, as well as diaries, memoirs and private letters, especially in the context of life history studies.

Results

Altınordu Sports Club

Altınordu Sports Club was established on 26 December 1923 in İzmir, Turkey. Altınordu Sports Club colors ara red and dark blue. Acoording to Altınordu Football Club, Red color came from is one of the heroes blood, and the dark blue color came from steel. The name of the Altınordu Sports Club comes from the Altınordu State, which is a great Turkish Empire in the past. The meaning of the "Altınordu" was formed by the combination of the words gold (Altın) and army (Ordu). Altınordu became champion in Izmir (Local) League 6 times and then Altınordu football team has continued to participate in national league contests, which is established in 1959. Altınordu football

team participated in competitions in different leagues in different periods (altinordu.org.tr, 2019).

Which Season in Which Leauge ?

Turkish Super Leauge : 1959-1965, 1966-1970

Turkish First Leauge: 1965-1966, 1970-1978, 1979-1992, 2014-2018

Turkish Second Leauge: 1978-1979, 1992-1996, 2008-2009, 2011-2012, 2013-2014

Turkish Third Leauge: 2003-2008, 2009-2011, 2012-2013

Amateur Leauge: 1925-1959, 1996-2003

At the end of the 2011-2012 season, the team was again in the Turkish 3rd League (Professional). As a result of the general meeting held in July after the team fell from the Turkish Secon Laeuge, a decision was made for the club to become a company Seyit Mehmet ÖZKAN , one of the names well known to Izmir football, started negotiations in the beginning of July 2012 and lasted about one month, and the results were positive and Altınordu Football Investments Company was founded by Seyit Mehmet ÖZKAN. The Turkey Football Federation at its meeting on August 8, 2012 the name of Altınordu Sports Club Investments has approved the decision to be changed as a company. Seyit Mehmet Özkan became the chairman of Altınordu A.Ş., while Hüseyin Eroğlu, became the team's first manager (who is still working in 2019). Altinordu, the first season of the Thrid League, has achieved a significant success and 2 weeks before the end of the leauge get championship guaranteed. Then Altinordu, in 2013-2014 season, 3 weeks before the end of the leauge bacame champion in the Turkish Second League.

Altınordu, lost the chance to go to the Turkish Super League in the last five seasons in last matches. After the Seyit Mehmet Özkan became a owner and president, Altınordu did not play with any foreign player in the championship until now and the president said that they will continue their way with the Turkish football players.

Altınordu Football Academy

After the Seyit Mehmet Özkan taking over the team, Altınordu sports club started an important youth football attempt. Altınordu sports club also changed its structure and became and became a football academy. The club had a new young football philosophy. Basis of this philosophy is good person, good citizen, good football player. The club started to realize many investments in this philosophy about aducation, facilities, coaches and sports schools. The club has formed a vision and mission within this philosophy.

The club vision, is that "Create a elite professional football players from the children of these lands" and club mission is that "Provide children the opportunity to play sports, to make them sportsmen, and to find talent from them and to contribute to the country's football". This point of view is fully developed in connection with the philosophy of young football investment.

Seyit Mehmet Özkan *(President and Who is Describe Himself "Don Quijote") and Şenez* ***Erzik*** *(Former Vice President Of Uefa) With Altınordu Young Football Players* **(altinordu.org.tr, 2018)**

Facilities

Altınordu football club facilities are located in 4 main centers (Selçuk, Torbalı, Yeşilyurt and Kuşadası) in different regions in İzmir and Aydın. All facilities are built in a modern structure and are designed to provide all the needs of football players (Refectory, Cafeteriaa, Dormitories, Classrooms, Plantations, Rest ands Recreational areas and like that). In 4 facilities, 12 thousand football students in 125 football schools throughout the country.

Altınordu Young Football Players Working in Facilities **(sozcu.com.tr, 2017)**

Yeşilyurt Facilities (Sait Altınordu Facilities)

Yeşilyurt Facilities, which is the place where Altınordu Club has been in the heart for many years, is the center of has a Central Football Schools and U18, U19, U10 and U11 AFO Elite Teams. People call this facilities as Sait Altınordu Facilities. Altınordu football club has a fields in Yesilyurt of 56 meters and 90 meters, the ground floor of the field, Italian-origin cocoa tree bark is covered with natural granular grass. Next to it, 4 more grass fields were constructed with the same characteristics. These fields, which are the most suitable ground for football, were certified by FIFA. The administrative of the club has been moved to the yeşilyurt camp and thus one of the first and most important steps of almost all teams is to gather under one roof.

Selçuk Facilities (İsmet Orhunbilge Facilities)

The facilities which have 8 fifa approved field including 6 artificial turf and 2 turf grass are one of the important facilities of Altınordu Football Club. Selcuk facilities have hosted international tournaments such as U12 Izmir Cup, U11 Balkan Cup and U15 KaliMerhaba Cup as well as U17 Ladies European Championship Group matches.

İzmir Cup U12

This year, 51 European clubs and 21 Turkish clubs were be attended the 6.th Izmir U12 Cup. Some of the European clubs participating in the tournament are Chealse, Mancherster City, Ac Milan, Lazio, Monaco, Valencia, Celtic, Hamburg, PSV, Ajax, AZ Alkmaar, Anderclecth, Porto, Benfica and PAOK. Some of the Turkish clubs participating in the tournament are Galatasaray SK, Bursa Spor Club, Fenerbahçe SK, Başakşehir FK, İzmir Sport Club, Göztepe A.Ş. and Akhisar Spor Club.

The tournament, organized only 8 teams in 2013, has become a big festival in a period that 56 teams participated to last year's tournament and This year 72 teams have been participated İzmir U12 Cup and Manchester City U12 Team was champion.

*Perfect Organization "İzmir U12 Cup"***(altinordu.org.tr, 2019)**

Kuşadası Facilities (Beytullah Baliç Facilities)

Located in Kuşadası district of Aydın, the settlement is the only settlement of the football club outside of İzmir. The hotel has 62 beds and an outdoor swimming pool located on in Kuşadası. Outside of the building, the condition center and the organic turf were added to the special working area, and the rest, meeting, play and hobby areas were added to the building. During the season, the professional football team is camping at this huge center in Kuşadası.

Torbalı Facilities (Metin Oktay Facilities)

Altinordu Football Academy (ALFA) teams from U12 to U19 are located at Torbalı's Metin Oktay facility. There are 3 natural turf and one artificial turf field (for striker and goalkeeper special working areas). There are 2 dormitory, health center, social facility, dining hall and administrative center in Metin Oktay Torbalı Facilities. Also there is a one amphitheater in this facilities.

*Torbalı Facilities (Metin Oktay Facilities)***(altinordu.org.tr, 2019)**

UEFA Youth and Amateur Football Committee Chairman John Delaney, said that The Altınordu Football Club "Unique Exchange Project,". Also he said

about Altınordu Football Club "Altınordu's facilities, organizational structure, planning and vision and ahead of many clubs in Europe, is a great project," (ntv.com.tr, 2018).

Altınordu Young Football Players in Tactical Trainings **(altinordu.org.tr, 2019)**

Also "Football Academy is a big and serious investment. It is not a hobby. It is like an investment as industry or tourism," President Özkan said.

Football Players

Altınordu Footbal Club started to take the worth of its investments in youth football and since 2012-2013, 50 players in various age categories have gone to Turkish national teams (haberturk.com.tr, 2019).

Altınordu has won over almost 20 million Euros of from the sale of 4 young footballers in just 2 years (sabah.com.tr, 2018). Club economy survives with money from transfers and leagues. The money from the transfer is invested in the Football Academy and the club almost does not have any borrow.

Çağlar ***Söyüncü***

(Turkish National Player)
Playing for Leciester City

(haberturk.com.tr, 2018)

Gengiz *Ünder*

(Turkish National Player)
Playing For A.S. Roma

(spor.haber7.com.tr, 2018)

Coaches

Altınordu football club attaches importance to the choice of coaches and development of selected coaches who is working in club. A total of 31 coaches are working at the Altınordu football Academy. The football club of Altınordu provides financial support for the personal development of young football teams coaches.

All coaches in the Altınordu Football Academy have coaching certificates which is accepted by UEFA or Turkish Football Fedaration. Two of the coaches in the club have UEFA Pro License and six of the coaches in the club have UEFA A Licence and nine of the coaches in the club have UEFA B Licence. In addition, there are a total of five goalkeeper coach at the Altınordu football academy.

Education of Altınordu Football Academy

Altınordu football club attaches great importance to the academic education of football players. In the Altınordu Football Club, 3 athletic trainers, 3 gymnastics Trainers, 4 masseurs and 2 physiotherapists one nutritionist, one communication specialist, one Social Media and Social Life Instructor, one English Language Teacher, one Psycho-Social Development Trainer, one cheess Teacher, one History Teacher are working as a full time personnel.

Football players in the football academy in Altınordu not only learn football but also life. They collect their own crops from the cultivated plantations within the facilities, as well as, they take the milk of the cows in the barn. Altınordu football academy does not want football players to break away from the life and Academy coaches want to say that the not only way is the football in life. Altınordu Football Academy says to footballers “You should

improve yourself, try to be beneficial to your country and the World".

The club attaches great importance to learning foreign languages. The reason for this is that the players won't have a problems when they reach the level of playing in the major leagues in Europa or abroad except for Turkey . In particular, a comprehensive study on the teaching of English as a world language is carried out within the academy.

Young Football Players in the English Language Class **(altinordu.org.tr, 2019)**

Football Schools

Altınordu football schoosl have been working in many parts of the Turkey and espacially in İzmir. Altınordu football schools give football training to young people at 31 centers in İzmir and also conducts talent screening in these football schools. As well as there are 83 football schools in different regions of Turkey for exapmle cities of Ankara, İstanbul, Antalya, Isparta, Edirne. Nearly 12 thousand young football players aged 6-14 are trained in football in these football schools. In addition, 6 scout experts are working within the scope of sports schools.

Pilot Team (Niğde Anadolu Football Club)

The Altınordu Football Club also has a pilot team which is Niğde Anadolu Football Club. This club plays in the 2nd league with the young footballers who come from Altınordu Young Teams. The average age of the team is approximately 21 and teams play in the middle row in the 2nd Leauge.

Niğde football club philosophy is also the same as the football club of Altınordu. Niğde football club wants to be successful with the footballers in its football academy. President Seyit Mehmet Özkan attaches great importance to the Niğde Anadolu Football Club project and he believes that this Project will be succeed.

Young Football Players in Niğde Anadolu Football Club **(altinordu.org.tr, 2018)**

Result and Conclusion

Investments in young teams in football have often produced positive results and have been beneficial. In this regard, the example will be given the most important European clubs samples in Barcelona, Ajax, Athletic Bilbao, etc. These teams, along with their investment in young football teams, have created important football players and have gained significant financial income from these players.

The transfer expenditures within world football have reached very high levels and continue to increase. According to fifa data, the amount of money spent on transfer fees in 2018 is 7 billion dollars (sporx.com, 2019). According to the deloitte data, the total income of 20 football teams with the highest income approached 9 billion dollars (Deloitte, 2019). The easiest way for small teams with small budgets to exist in this sector is to create and sell football players.

In this context Altınordu football club is an unprecedented organization in Turkish football. The club also has an extraordinary philosophy. We can say that The Club is succesfull with this organization and philosophy.

The turkey population under the age of 18 is higher than in many European and World countries (worldpopulationreview.com, 2016). To create successful athletes from young people, Turkish sports needs more organizations like Altınordu Football Club in all sports branches. If this kind of investments and organizations increase in Turkish sports, it is propably that Turkish sports will be more successful than today.

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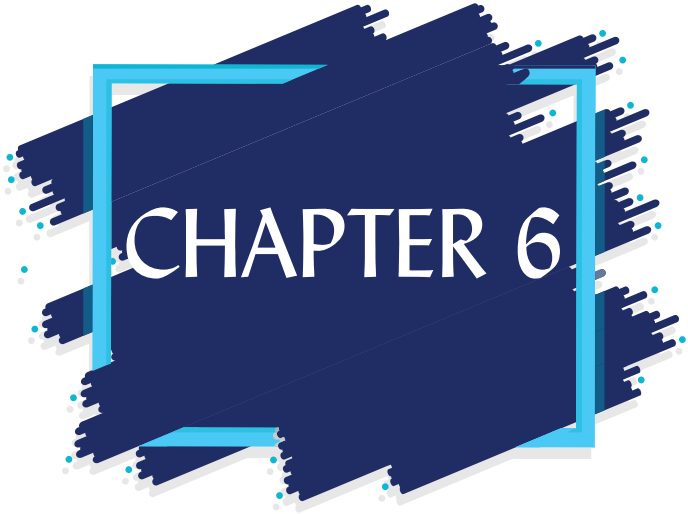
NUTRITIONAL SUGGESTIONS FOR ATHLETES

Serhat ÖZBAY[1]



NUTRITIONAL SUGGESTIONS FOR ATHLETES

Serhat ÖZBAY[1]

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, with increasing the attention for sports and athletic performance, sports nutrition has became more important than previously thought. Because all the sports branches may have many difference on account of its density, frequency, and time. So this situation needed to special nutritional diet for different sports branches. Together with improving tecnology, we can easily see the nutritional values of any food we eat or any beverage we drink. If an athlete does not have a good nutritional diets he or she can not improve performance efficiently. For example, if weightlifters does not get enough protein for their body, it is not important however hard they train because their muscle can not be nourished sufficiently and that situation will lead to decrease athletic performance. That is why sport and exercise nutrition has became so important for athletes, coaches and sport scientists. Our study aimed to understand the importance of macronutrient, vitamin, and mineral for athletes.

CARBOHYDRATES

Carbohydrates are the organic compounds that made up of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen. They are the most common nutritional element in our foods (Baysal, 2011). Two main forms of carbohydrates are exist. These are complex and simple corbahydrate. Simple carbonhydrate can also be called simple sugar. Simple carbonhydrate can be found in milk, fruit, honey, and etc. And complex carbonhydrate (starches) can be found in beans, peas potatoes, and etc. Carbohydrate is a basic macronutrient for

bodys energy requirement and are the basic fuel for high density training (>65-70% VO2 max). But endogenous source of carbohydrate (glycogen of muscle and liver) is limited (Ersoy, 2004). With proper diet and efficient training we can enhance our source of glicogen. Thus the fatigue can be delayed and the athletic performance can be improved. Besides some studies showed that proper carbonhydrate consumption before or during the long time aerobic exercises can increase athletic performance. First sources for active muscles are the muscle glycogen. Blood glucose and muscle glycogen ensure energy for body's energy requirement. That is these form of carbonhydate can provide energy for muscle contraction (Gollnick, 1985). When sources of carbohydrate of the body are depleted, athletic performance can be decrease or even can be resulted in a cessation of exercise (Bergström et al. 1967). Proper carbohydare taking is also important for athletes who are participating in sports. Because the production of power and strength depends on muscle contraction and muscle contraction happens thanks to muscle glycogen. After training or competition, sufficient carbohydate consumption can also assist in protein syntesis for muscles reparation (Chandler et al. 1994; Haff et al. 2000; Volek et al. 1997). It is commonly suggested that daily total calori intake of an athlete's should consist of 60-70% from carbohydrate. Complex carbohydrates including pasta, grains etc. are the best food for athlete. Because complex carbohydrate supply constant nutrition for the body and it is exactly very important for fulling muscle glycogen stores. Since complex carbohydrate suplly constant nutrition for the body, they suplly more nutrition than simple carbohydrate. Whereas simple carbohydrate can help us to suplly instantaneous energy source for the body, it does not last longer than complex carbohydrate (Costill, 1988). But still, within six hours after training or competition to replenish glycogen stores

faster, it is recommended that athletes should consume simple carbohydrate. Because after exhaustive training or competition our stores of corbahydrate can decrease significantly. In this case simple carbohydrates enter into the blood faster and replenish muscle glycogen stores more quickly (Ersoy, 2004). That is why athletes and coaches should know the type of carbohydrates and apply proper diet plans for their training and competition.

PROTEINS

The Latin word for protein is essential nitrogenous elements for living beings. Cells are the smallest pieces of the body, proteins are the essential molecule for cells' metabolic reactions. Since growth means the proliferation of cells, proteins are essential for growth. A large part of the body consists of proteins but the body does not have a protein stores. Only a small amount of reserve protein can be stored in the body that can eliminate short-term deficiencies. That is mean the proteins need to be taken from outside(Baysal, 2011). About three quarters of the body's solids are proteins. They include structural proteins, enzymes, oxygen-carrying proteins, contraction muscle proteins, and many proteins that perform specific functions inside and outside the cell (Guyton&Hall, 2007). Proteins are mainly used in tissue growth and healing . They are composed of various and numerous amino acids. There exist at least 20 amino acids that bind together to make up the proteins which are used for the body There are two type of amino acid. Essential amino acids and nonessential amino acids. Whereas non-essential amino acids cannot be produced in the body, essential amino acids can be produced by the body. Because of it, nonessential amino asids should be taken from the nutritional diet. Besides the body can convert one amino acid to another amino acid form. This process is called transamination. Transamination allows the conversion of non-essential

amino acids in the body to the essential amino acid form (Gropper & Smith 2012).

Daily consumption of sufficient amounts and types of proteins are significant for improving performance at sports and athletic competition. It is recommended that 12-15% of total daily energy consumption should be met from proteins (Ersoy, 2004). For protein Dietary Intake Reference (DRI) is daily 0,8 gram protein per kg body mass. While this level is sufficient for sedentary individuals, it may not be sufficient for athletes. Because athletes need more protein to repair the destructive effects of exercise and to create new muscle cells. The recommended protein for endurance athletes is 1,2 to 1,4 gr protein per kg body mass daily. But strenght and power athletes for example, body builders, weight lifters etc. need more protein than endurance athletes. They need to take 1,6 to 1,7 (or more) gr protein per kg body mass daily (Butterfield, 1991). All animal and vegetable foods contain protein, but the amount of protein in each food is different. In addition, the proportion of essential amino acids in each protein is different. The essential amino acid content of proteins usually found in animal nutrients corresponds to the body requirement. Due to lack of protein, our muscles' need for protein cannot be met and performance decreases. Protein deficiency can also be associated with anemia because protein is necessary for the construction of blood cells. It is also known that protein deficiencies can disturbe the digestive organs and thus nutrients' digest became more difficult (Baysal, 2011). There is also a misconception that excessive protein consumption also improves performance. There is no any studies that show the excessive protein consumption can be helpfull sport and exercise performance. Besides If we take more protein than we need, urinary calcium excretion increases and this case can cause stone formation in kidneys. Also, since the excess protein in our body cannot be stored, it turns into

fat with the help of enzymes and begins to accumulate in our fat stores. As a result, obesity and internal organ lubrication can occurs (Dawson-Hughes et al. 2014; Itoh et al. 1998; Ersoy, 2004). Proteins are highly important for body function. If we do not adjust our diet plan according to our needs, then athletic performance can decreases. And proper protein intake are needed to improve athletic performance.

FATS

Fats are composed of triglyceride and fatty acids. Fats are the most energy-giving nutrients. Since fats have much higher carbon content than other macro nutritients they can supply more energy for exercise performance. Subcutaneous fat layer prevents the preservation of body temperature. Fats also cover the organs and protect them from harmful external factors. Dietary fats also important for the absorption of the fat-soluable vitamins (A, D, E and K) (Potteiger, 2014). Fats can be obtained from animal and plant by various methods. Fat butter obtained from milk and vegetable oil obtained from various plants. How much fat people should consume daily may vary from person to person. According to the nature of the diet, 20-30 percent of daily energy can be supplied from fats (Baysal, 2011). Fats are used by the muscle cells to obtain energy in moderate and low intensity exercises. As the duration of the exercise increases, the rate of fat burning increases (Ersoy, 2004). For example, in aerobic running (< 50-60% MaxVo2) 70-90% of the total energy requirement by the muscle can be met from fat metabolism. With increasing endurance, skeletal muscles' ability to burn fatty acids can increase. Muscle fibers of endurance athletes may have 2.5 times more fat than non-endurance athletes. When there is enough oxygen in the environment the body's main source of energy becomes fats. Since carbohydrates are the only fuel source of the brain and nervous system, this

is considered as the body's ability to protect carbohydrates for long time aerobic exercise. The disadvantage of fats is that they need more oxygen than carbohydrates to be burned. This case is not problem for low and moderate exercise but as exercise intensity increase, the bodys fuel for exercise became carbohydrate (Jeukendrup et al. 1998; Burke et al. 2002; Rowlands and Hopkins 2002; McArdle 2018). Excessive fat diet intake is usually not considered to improve athletic performance. Besides, excessive fat consumption which means more total calorie intake, can result in excessive weight gain which is related obesity, type 2 diabets, cardiovasculer diseases and some type of cancer (Calle et al. 2003; Flegal et al. 2004). Therefore, because of the serious harmfull effect of fats we should be careful not to consume more fat than we need, but we should also add the amount of fat required for individual and athletic performance to our diets.

VITAMINS, MINERALS AND WATER

Water is the second necessary component fallowing oxygen for human life. People can survive without any nutrition for a weeks but without water only a few days. If the human body loses almost all carbohydrates and fats, half of the proteins and, 10% of body water, human life runs into danger. Reduction of body water increases the ion density of the blood. In the human body 1% increase in ion density stimulates the thirst center in the hypothalamus and develops a sense of thirst. If the reduction in the body water reduce by 3% blood volume and performance decrease, . If the reduction in the body water reduce by 8% dizziness, excessive fatigue and difficulty breathing can be seen but if the reduction in the body water reduce by 10% muscle spasm, excessive fatigue, kidney and circulatory failure can be seen (Baysal, 2011). Daily consumption of at least 2.5 liters of water can meet our individual needs

but this rate can change according to our level of sporting activity (McArdle 2018).

Minerals, which are naturally occurring and form a certain inorganic crystallized solid, work together with vitamins in our bodies. Our bodies need vitamins as well as minerals. About 4% to 5% of the human body is composed of minerals. There are 7 macromineral. These are calcium (Ca), phosphorus (P), magnesium (Mg), potassium (K), sodium (Na), sülfür (S), and chlorine (Cl) .Most minerals are found in water, in soil, in the roots of trees and plants, in tissues of animals consuming plants and water. Minerals play a vital role in our bodies because they are found in body structures such as our teeth and bones, they are involved in heart rhythm and muscle contraction and they are involved in the regulation of energy metabolism in the body. The athletes should be sure that they take enough mineral and water for their body because deficiency of minerals can decrease athletic performance and can cause some diseases (Gropper and Smith 2012; McArdle 2018).

Vitamins are organic substances that do not have chemical structures, do not provide energy to the body, and do not contribute to the total mass of the body (Potteiger, 2014). The effects of vitamins in body work are related to the regulation of biochemical reactions. They help to grow, normal functioning of the nervous and digestive system. If any of the vitamins are not taken into the body, the chemical reaction that the vitamin aids will not be able to walk, and therefore there will be disruptions in growth and body function (Baysal, 2011). There are two classification for vitamins. These are water-soluable and fat-soluable vitamins. Fat soluable vitamins are found in dietary fats and are only dissolve in fat tissue in the body. These vitamins are A, D, E and K vitamins. Water soluable vitamins are typically gropued together as the B-comlex vitamins and vitamin C. Many water-soluble

vitamins work together with large proteins in the body, and help in enzyme activities and regulate chemical reactions (Gropper and Smith 2012; McArdle 2018).

As we can understand from the information above, macronutrient, water, mineral, and vitamin highly important for both human life and athletic performance. Athletes and coaches should pay special attention for their nutritional content because some deficiency in nutrition can cause serious bad effect for sporting performance. But if we take much more nutritient than we need this situation will affect adversly to our life and sporting performance as well. That is why we should take special precautions regarding nutrition. If we want to enhance our athletic performance efficiently, as well as physiological and mental elements, we should pay special attention for our nutrition too.

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