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July, 2016

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EXAMINATION OF TURKISH NATIONAL SKI TEAM COACHES' PROBLEM SOLVING SKILLS

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ABSTRACT

Problem solving is a cognitive, affective and behavioral process that individuals develop and generate in order to find an effective way to cope with difficulties they meet in their daily life. Problem solving skills of athletes can be considered a significant factor in succeeding.

Based on these arguments, we aim to examine the problem solving skills of Turkish national ski coaches in our study. Research sample consists of 5 female and 8 male national ski team coaches who took part in the International Alpine Skiing Cup held in Sarıkamış in 2013.

An assessment instrument that comprises 2 parts was used to acquire data. At the first part, demographic data of the participants were gathered; at the second part, the Problem Solving Inventory, developed by Heppner ve Petersen in 1982 and adapted to Turkish by Şahin, Şahin and Heppner (1993) which consists of 35-item was used to analyze the participants' perception, approach to problem solving and evaluation on the problem. In analyzing the acquired data, SPSS was used and the significance level of the statistical data were analyzed in level of $p<0.05$.

Consequently, general problem solving skill levels of the ski coaches were observed above average by gender in our study. Pursuant to the age and year of coaching variables, the subscales of problem solving "Reflective Style, Monitoring, Problem-Solving Confidence and Planfulness Style" increase correspondingly while "Impulsive Style and Avoidant Style" decrease. It is believed that the experience factor in coaching has importance in both success of the athlete and individual success.

Key Words: Sports, Coach, Turkish National Team, Skiing, Problem Solving

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INTRODUCTION

Problem is a Latin word. This term was derived from the word Proballo which means emerging obstacle (Kalaycı, 2001).

Solution of the problems varies by their type and complexity. Some problems are solved logically while some of them require affective maturity. On the other hand, some of them can be solved only when the individual chooses to approach to the problem from a different standpoint. What all these problem-solving methods have in common is their aim to eliminate the interference that hinders to succeed (Cüceloğlu, 2003).

In terms of these notions, individuals live with problems. Individuals' maintaining a healthy and peaceful life depends on their skill of eliminating the factors that lead to problems (Ağcayazı Altuntaş E.2008).

Aslan (2002) puts forth that problem solving is to face a danger or difficulty which needs to be handled while Kruger (1997) defines problem solving as a systematic process of intervening in the undesirable situations.

When approached from a different point of view, problem solving can be defined handling difficulties or avoiding to assessing situations from one single point, logic, analyze, structure, filling the gap, meeting the need. As for the scientists, problem solving is perceived answering questions, disambiguation, clarifying what has not been thoroughly understood and filling the gap between what we have and what we desire to have. Based on these approaches, problem solving is to plan to answer a question, submit a satisfactory and solving respond to, suggest a possibility or show an interest in a tough situation (Ülger, Ö. E.2003).

Sports is one of individuals' self-control mechanism and common ground of different societies and cultures owing to its universality. Moreover, it plays a crucial role in developments of individuals' democratic personalities. Thus, athletes feel relaxed and independent, more confident, which enables their success to excel in (Baumann S.1994). Psychological preparation of the athletes is a fundamental factor in success in sports. Psychological states and performance of the athletes are closely related to their level of problem solving skills (Gülşen.2008, Pulur. 2012).

The first thing come to mind when it is mentioned about educational staff in sports is coaches. Sports trainers called coaches have essential roles in development of sports (Pulur A. (2012).

No matter how talented an athlete is or how much s/he works, s/he needs a coach's assistance. However, the duty of a coach should not be to exercise the athletes or to show how the sports is executed. A coach is to interpret the information s/he obtains from sports scientists, doctors and psychologists and adapt them to her/his team.

A qualified coach who trains the athletes through trainings based on sports science for the competitions carries the athletes to a constant and consciously obtained achievement Each coach has unique personality and background. However, that should not prevent her/him to be aware of her/his responsibility and implement modern training methods by adapting herself/himself to new findings (Bezci Ş. 2010, Sevim Y.2006).

One of the fundamental conditions in order that sports reaches to the desired level is to have well-educated, competent, talented and intellectual coaches. It is an obligation the coaches who are to be trained in different sports branches are educated considering their branch (Cushion C. J.2003).

In this study, it is aimed to examine the problem solving skills of Turkish national ski coaches.

METHOD

In our study, it is aimed to examine the problem solving skills of Turkish national ski coaches. Research sample consists of 5 female and 8 male national ski team coaches who took part in the International Alpine Skiing Cup held in Sarıkamış in 2013.

Data Acquisition Instruments:

An assessment instrument that comprises 2 parts was used to acquire data. At the first part, demographic data of the participants were gathered; at the second part, the Problem Solving Inventory which includes participants' perception and approach to problem solving and also problem analysis was implemented. The inventories were conducted face to face with the participants.

Problem Solving Inventory:

Problem Solving Inventory which was used to analyze individuals' perception and attitude towards problem solving and assessment of the problem; and consists of 35 items and is prepared as 6 point likert scale was developed by Heppner and Petersen in 1982 and adapted to Turkish by Şahin, Şahin and Heppner (1993). There are 6 factors in the Turkish language adaptation of this scale (29).

"Impulsive Style" (composed of nine items: 13, 14,15, 17, 21, 25, 26, 30 and 32),

"Reflective Style " (composed of five items: 18, 20, 31, 33 and 35),

"Avoidant Style" (composed of four items: 1, 2, 3 and 4),

"Monitoring" (composed of three items: 6, 7 and 8),

"Problem-Solving Confidence" (composed of six items: 5, 23, 24, 27, 28 and 34),

"Planfulness" (composed of four items: 10, 12, 16, 19) (25).

Interpretation: If an individual gets a high point in total, it means s/he sees herself/himself insufficient in her/his problem solving skills.

The skills regarding the subscales of the Problem-Solving Inventory are explained as follows:

Impulsive Style: Impulsive Style reflects whether an individual tends to do the first thing s/he can think of to solve it without thinking upon it when s/he confronts with a problem. In addition, that style shows individual disregards different factors and solutions regarding the problem.

Reflective style: consists of measuring, evaluating and comparing the results of options while the individual tries to decide how to solve problem. This approach measures whether the individual tries to understand, look over the situation and take into consideration all the information about the problem when he/she encounters a problem or not.

Avoidant style: measures whether the individuals thinks about gathering information related to solving of the problem in detail, gets suspicious about coping with the problem if his/her method becomes ineffective when he/she encounters a problem, thinks about what is effective and what is not effective to solve it after he/she has solved the problem or not.

Monitoring style: This approach measures whether the individual compares with the result of comes up and the result he/she thinks about solving the problem after he/she has tried a method, tries to think about all the ways which he/she will use to solve it in case of problem and examines his/her feelings to understand how he/she feels or not.

Problem-solving confidence: This approach explains individual's self-confidence about problem solving. The individual measures whether he/she finds himself/herself sufficient about problem solving and putting in effort to solve it or not.

Planfulness: This measures whether the individual focuses on only that problem and comes to a solution by evaluating gathered data in a planned way about solving of a problem or not. This also includes whether individual thinks that he/she is talented at problem solving or not. (Erdoğmuş N.2004, Yıldız L. 2011).

Data Analysis

Statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) was used to analyze the data gathered in the research. Frequency distribution, arithmetic average, percentages, t-test and One-Way Anova was found by means of SPSS and Tukey test results were used at the results which there is significant difference to determine among which groups the difference is. Margin of error was stated as ($p<0,05$) in the study.

FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS

Within the context of the study, the findings that shows the effects on ski coaches' problem solving skills as to variables of their gender, age and coaching year

Table-1. Distribution Function Values of The Subjects Attended Our Study As To Variable of Ski coaches' Gender

GENDER	N	%
Male	8	61,53
Female	5	38,46
Total	13	100.0

5 female 38,46% and 8 male 61,53% ski coaches who attended Turkish national ski team constitutes subject group of the study.

Table-2. T-test Distribution Function Values of Problem-Solving and Problem-Solving Factors Scale Scores In Reference To Variable of Gender

	Gender	N	$\overline{X}$	Ss	t	p
Problem Solving	Male	8	111,62	15,18	-0,84	0,41
	Female	5	118,20	10,35		
Impulsive Style	Male	8	33,37	5,47	0,32	0,74
	Female	5	32,40	4,66		
Monitoring	Male	8	10,25	2,71	0,15	0,88
	Female	5	10,00	3,16		
Planfulness	Male	8	12,87	2,69	-1,64	0,12
	Female	5	15,40	2,70		
Reflective Style	Male	8	16,87	4,12	-0,39	0,70
	Female	5	17,80	4,14		
Avoidant Style	Male	8	14,12	3,97	-0,11	0,91
	Female	5	14,40	4,77		
Problem Solving Confident	Male	8	21,37	5,55	-1,01	0,33
	Female	5	24,00	1,58		

In Table 2, when analysis results with reference to problem solving skills scale scores were examined as to variable of Turkish national ski coaches' gender, it was stated that there was not significant differentiation from the point of general problem solving (part I) and variable of gender from sub-scales of problem solving skills. ($p<0.05$).

Table-3. N, $\overline{X}$, Ss and Analysis of Variance Distribution Function Values of Problem-Solving and Problem-Solving Factors Scale Scores As To Variable of Age

	Age	N	$\overline{X}$	Ss	F	p
Problem Solving	25-30 Years	3	114,00	21,07	1,45	0,27
	31-35 Years	5	107,20	9,98		
	36 Years and over	5	121,20	9,98		
	Total	13	114,15	13,46		
Impulsive Style	25-30 Years	3	35,33	8,50	1,18	0,34
	31-35 Years	5	30,40	1,81		
	36 Years and over	5	34,20	4,60		
	Total	13	33,00	5,00		
Monitoring	25-30 Years	3	11,33	1,52	1,37	0,29
	31-35 Years	5	8,60	3,43		
	36 Years and over	5	11,00	2,23		
	Total	13	10,15	2,76		
Planfulness	25-30 Years	3	14,00	2,64	0,85	0,45
	31-35 Years	5	12,60	3,04		
	36 Years and over	5	15,00	2,91		
	Total	13	13,84	2,88		
Reflective Style	25-30 Years	3	16,66	6,02	1,383	,295
	31-35 Years	5	15,40	2,07		
	36 Years and over	5	19,40	3,84		
	Total	13	17,23	3,98		
Avoidant Style	25-30 Years	3	13,00	1,00	0,42	0,66
	31-35 Years	5	15,60	5,02		
	36 Years and over	5	13,60	4,56		
	Total	13	14,23	4,10		
Problem Solving Confident	25-30 Years	3	21,66	3,51	0,47	0,63
	31-35 Years	5	21,20	6,90		
	36 Years and over	5	24,00	1,58		
	Total	13	22,38	4,53		

In Table 3, when analysis results with reference to problem solving skills scale scores were examined as to variable of Turkish national ski coaches' age, it was stated that there was not significant differentiation from the point of general problem solving (part I) and variable of age from sub-scales of problem solving skills factors. ($p<0.05$).

When analysis results with reference to problem solving skills scale scores were examined, it was stated that monitoring, planfulness, reflective, problem-solving confidence factors from sub-scales of problem solving and problem-solving skills factors increased in a positive way as the variable of age increased. In addition to this, it was observed decrease at sub-scales of impulsive and avoidant style

Table-4. N, $\overline{X}$, Ss and Analysis of Variance Distribution Function Values of Problem-Solving and Problem-Solving Factors Scale Scores As To Year of Coaching

	Year of Coaching	N	$\overline{X}$	Ss	F	p
Problem Solving	1-5 Years	3	115,33	21,00	0,58	0,57
	6-10 Years	7	110,71	10,54		
	10 Years and over	3	121,00	14,10		
	Total	13	114,15	13,46		
Impulsive Style	1-5 Years	3	34,00	8,88	0,07	0,93
	6-10 Years	7	32,57	3,30		
	10 Years and over	3	33,00	6,00		
	Total	13	33,00	5,00		
Monitoring	1-5 Years	3	10,00	3,60	0,07	0,93
	6-10 Years	7	10,42	3,15		
	10 Years and over	3	9,66	1,52		
	Total	13	10,15	2,76		
Planfulness	1-5 Years	3	14,33	2,51	3,16	0,08
	6-10 Years	7	12,42	2,43		
	10 Years and over	3	16,66	2,51		
	Total	13	13,84	2,88		
Reflective Style	1-5 Years	3	16,00	6,24	0,22	0,80
	6-10 Years	7	17,28	3,03		
	10 Years and over	3	18,33	4,93		
	Total	13	17,23	3,98		
Avoidant Style	1-5 Years	3	15,66	3,78	0,29	0,75
	6-10 Years	7	13,42	3,99		
	10 Years and over	3	14,66	5,77		
	Total	13	14,23	4,10		
Problem Solving Confident	1-5 Years	3	23,00	4,35	0,22	0,80
	6-10 Years	7	21,57	5,62		
	10 Years and over	3	23,66	2,08		
	Total	13	22,38	4,53		

In Table 4, when analysis results with reference to problem solving skills scale scores were examined as to variable of Turkish national ski coaches' coaching year, it was stated that there was not significant differentiation from the point of general problem solving (part I) and variable of coaching year from sub-scales of problem solving skills factors. ($p<0.05$).

When analysis results with reference to problem solving skills scale scores were examined, it was stated that planfulness, reflective, problem-solving confidence factors from sub-scales of problem solving and problem-solving skills factors increased in a positive way as the variable of coaching year increased. While any difference was not observed in monitoring style, it was seen a decline at sub-scales of impulsive and avoidant style.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In this part, findings related to problem-solving skills and sub-scales of problem-solving skills factors pursuant to gender, age and coaching year variables of ski coaches who were research sample were discussed and interpreted.

When analysis results with reference to problem solving skills scale scores were examined as to variable of Turkish national ski coaches' gender, it was stated that there was not significant differentiation from the point of general problem solving (part I) and variable of gender from sub-scales of problem solving skills. ($p<0.05$).

There are other study results that show parallelism with our study; in other words there are studies that problem-solving skills do not differentiate significantly as to gender. In these studies, Taylan (1990), Saygılı (2000), Tümkaya and İflazoğlu (2000), Sonmaz (2002), Pehlivan and Konukman (2004), Akandere and others (2005), Özen and Çelebi (2006) have found that gender does not have any effect on problem-solving skill.

When analysis results with reference to problem solving skills scale scores were examined as to variable of Turkish national ski coaches' age, it was stated that monitoring, planfulness, reflective, problem-solving confidence factors from sub-scales of problem solving and problem-solving skills factors increased in a positive way as the variable of age increased. In addition to this, it was observed a decline at sub-scales of impulsive and avoidant style.

Similarly to our study, Çam (1997), the studies of Albayrak (2002), Güçlü (2003), Çinko (2004), Kaya (2005), Arın (2006), İnce and Şen (2006) support our research by showing parallelism with research findings.

When analysis results with reference to problem solving skills scale scores were examined as to variable of Turkish national ski coaches' coaching year, it was observed that ski coaches' problem-solving skills do not differentiate pursuant to their coaching year and ski coaches who have different experiences and coaching year prefer same problem-solving skills. In other words, even if the coaching years of ski coaches vary, problem-solving skills of ski coaches do not differentiate. However, it was stated that Planfulness, Reflective, Problem-solving Confidence factors from sub-scales of problem solving and problem-solving skills

factors increased in a positive way as the variable of coaching year increased. While any difference was not observed in monitoring style, it was seen a decline at sub-scales of impulsive and avoidant style.

While Bezci (2010) finds that individuals' age and experiences do not have an effect on their problem-solving skills in his studies which supports our research, the studies of ,or example, Izgar (2004), Germi and Sunay (2006), Efe and his friends (2008), Pulur A. and his friends (2012) reveal that individuals' problem-solving skills improve as their age and experience increase.

As a result, it was observed that general problem-solving skills of Turkish national ski team instructors were high. While the levels of Monitoring style, Planfulness, Reflective style ve Problem-solving confidence from sub-scales of problem-solving skills were high, the levels of Impulsive style and Avoidant style, in spite of this, were low.

Coaches' being aware of the strategies on problem solving skills and understanding which strategy to use in different situations are beneficial in their dealing with the problems.

As the literature is reviewed, we could not find a study on the examination of coaches' problem solving skills. More scientific studies are to be carried out on determination of the relation between national ski team coaches' problem solving skills and these relation levels are to be examined via different inventories.

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THE EFFECT OF BODY FAT PERCENTAGE ON ELITE FEMALE BOXER'S LENGTH OF STAYING IN BALANCE AND ANAEROBIC POWER

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to investigate the effect of body fat percentage on length of staying in balance and anaerobic power of the female boxers in Cankiri province.

18 female boxers, are participated in this study who boxing at least for 2 years. Body composition measurements were performed using a segmented body analyzer (TANITA BC 418). For Dynamic balance measurements, Lafayette Stability Platform (16020) has been used. Anaerobic power calculated by Lewis Anaerobic Power formula.

As a result, while there is not a significant difference in the investigation which is effect of body fat percentage on balance and anaerobic power ($p>0.05$), it is seen that athlete's, who has higher body fat percentage, balance ability (X=0,83, 0,97, 0,76, 0,96) and anaerobic power mean values (X=0,53) are lower than the others. We could not determine important differences because of the participant's body fat percentage are not too much high in our research group. But according to literature and our research results, it can be said that; body fat percentage is an important factor on boxer's performance and balance ability, important success and an enough sportive performance can be gain by choosing athletes who has low or normal body fat.

Keywords; Performance, Sports, Body Fat, Boxing, Balance, Anaerobic Power

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INTRODUCTION

Making sports at the highest and healthiest performance lies on the basis of the athlete's success. Sportive performance; can be described as an athletic overall success of the efforts put forth during the fulfillment of the tasks to be done. In a sense performance, should be seen as a whole and should be evaluated together with the factors affecting results during the a relatively short period of time in a competition or an encounter (Bayraktar 2004).

An excess of fat tissue in the body for all sports, including aerobic and anaerobic workouts, is a condition that effects the performance negatively. Athletes with a high percentage of fat in body weight shows less power, less explosive strength and less endurance, than athletes with a low percentage of fat in body. Because with a high fat percentage in the body and unwanted excess weight causes a reduction of athlete's strength, agility and flexibility and it may lead to excessive loss of energy (Imamoglu 2001). To know body fat percentage is important, besides the assessment of body composition, in terms of determining obesity which is a factor in the development of many diseases and determining the orientation in sports performance.(Ergun 1992) In order to meet the energy requirements of muscle cells during physical activity, fat store is reduced as a result of the release of fat from fat cells. Physical activity also stimulates muscle growth, by increasing lean body mass (Saygin 2012).

Balance is the ability to adapt to rapidly changing conditions of the body moving (Ozturk 2008). The level of the technical skills and speed of learning is closely related to balance in sports (Vuillerme 2001). A motion which requiring coordination, requires the sense of a good balance. Moving in balance or in order to come normal position quickly in imbalance, the balance skills must be developed (Sevim 2002).

Each sport involves a certain level of balance as its own. It was supported by studies that, balance is a factor in distinction between the performances of athletes in sporting skills and it is thought that, balance gives acceleration in the positive direction for the physical development of the motor skills. It is an essential element to a good performance and to improve performance (Suveren 2009).

There have been numerous research results about body fat percentage and they say that, it has a significant effect on athlete's performance. These are exemplified as the drop in the energy expended and performance due to the increase of body weight. This study aims to investigate the effect of body fat percentage on length of staying in balance and anaerobic power of elite female boxers.

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METHOD

18 female boxers, who are boxing at least for 2 years and aged between 14-17 years, are participated as the sample of this study. Tests were conducted during the preparatory training of athletes. Measurements were made within the same day and during normal training period for achieving athlete's highest performance in the tests. Dynamic balance measurements were made twice as before and after training.

Body composition analyze (body fat) were made with TANITA BC 418 segmented body analyzer.

For Dynamic balance measurements, Lafayette Stability Platform (16020) has been used. In the measurement day it was make sure that the athletes are in resting state. After explaining the device's features, it was asked them to make one trial. During the test application, 3 trials were made for each athlete, with open eyes and free arms, the best value was recorded.

Anaerobic power calculated by using the weight and vertical jump values of athletes with Lewis Anaerobic Power formula [$P = \sqrt{4.9}$ (weight) $\sqrt{}$Vertical jump (m)].

Obtained data were analyzed with SPSS 17.0 package program by using ONE WAY ANOVA test.

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FINDINGS

Table 1. One Way Anova Analyze Results Of Before And After Training Length Of Staying In Balance By Body Fat Percentage Variables

	BFP	N	$\overline{X}$	Sd	f	p
	Low	3	0,86	0,13	1,12	0,35
BTleft	Normal	6	1,00	0,45		
	High	9	0,83	0,31		
	Total	18	0,90	0,35		
	Low	3	1,65	0,16	2,80	0,09
ATleft	Normal	6	1,43	0,68		
	High	9	0,97	0,41		
	Total	18	1,24	0,55		
	Low	3	1,07	0,40	2,32	0,13
BTright	Normal	6	1,56	1,13		
	High	9	0,76	0,27		
	Total	18	1,08	0,75		
	Low	3	1,42	0,46	1,48	0,25
ATright	Normal	6	1,17	0,58		
	High	9	0,96	0,23		
	Total	18	1,11	0,42		

BFP= body fat percentage, **BTleft**= before training balance transfer from left leg to right leg, **ATleft**= after training balance transfer from left leg to right leg, **BTright**= before training balance transfer from right leg to left leg, **ATright**= after training balance transfer from right leg to left leg

When Table 1 investigated it is seen that, there is not a significant difference between before and after length of staying in balance and body fat percentage variables of participated athletes ($p>0.05$).

Table 2. One Way Anova Analyze Results Of Anaerobic Power Variables By Body Fat Percentage Variables

	BFP	N	$\overline{X}$	Sd	f	p
Anaerobic Power	Low	3	0,55	0,04	0,21	0,81
	Normal	6	0,54	0,04		
	High	9	0,53	0,03		
	Total	18	0,53	0,03		

When Table 2 investigated it is seen that, there is not a significant difference between anaerobic power and body fat percentage variables of participated athletes (p>0,05).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In the study it was observed that, athletes with a high body fat percentage has lower means of before and after training length of staying in balance than the athletes who has normal and lower body fat percentage. Proceeding from this, the formation of excessive fat tissue in the body could be thought to influence the length of staying in balance.

One of the studies made by Bektas et al. (2007) is parallel with our study by participating same category of female athletes (youth category). The average age of these athletes is a transition period from childhood to adulthood. In this period which includes many changes, the body will begin to shape the structure of the adult state. Therefore it observed a rapid change in the body's physiological and morphological structure. The amount of fat in the body, while showing a decreasing trend in the beginning of this period, than immediately catch a quick tempo increased with the start of the period. In this study it is thought that because of the period which, has quick physiological and morphological changes, %50 of participants has higher body fat.

The ability to balance varies from person to person and as a result of repeated balance measurements the learning factor affects the objectivity of measuring state of balance ability. The effect of learning factor in balance ability shows itself in many studies (Suveren 2009). In this study it is seen that, athletes after training balance values are higher than measurements made before training. As the reason of it is thought that learned repeated balance measurements effects the examination results.

When anaerobic power means investigated it seen that there is not a statistically significant difference. Hazir et al (2011) in their study also found that the percentage of body fat and muscle mass, not as high as they expected in relationship with agility. While could not reaching the expected results in anaerobic power values, the situation in anaerobic power means coincide with detection made by Hazir et al (2011) which is “force is proportional to the mass”.

As a conclusion, while it is not observed significant differences in study findings, in the length of staying in balance values athletes who has high body fat percentage has lower means of balance. Therefrom, it can be thought that having high body fat performance effects balance ability negatively.

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RECENT ETHICAL ISSUES IN SOCCER

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ABSTRACT

The violence, anger, doping, match – fixing, discrimination and incentive pay are the most significant parts against the spirit of sports ethic. To be known for the start of aggression, coaches, athletes and club managers, the accountability of media institutions, the audience and the society in general needs to be supported and trained to act within the framework of fair play to lessen violence and aggression in sport. Several ethical issues were discussed in this paper by going over several studies.

Keywords; Violence, match-fixing, doping.

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INTRODUCTION

The term ethics originates from the two Greek words éthos, meaning «character» or «custom» (Solomon 1984), and êthos, which translates into «well-established or institutionalized practice» (Loland 2002: 17). In our opinion, ethics relates to societal values of right and wrong (Singer 1986). An ethical judgment is coherent with philosophical standards for ideal human behavior (e.g., Kant's Categorical Imperative, Gandz & Hayes 1988).

When we examine the ethics of sport, we essentially focus on the social, political and economic relations. The living and lived, the athletes, managers, coaches, and fans are primarily the problem in sports ethics. It is normative aspects of sports ethics whether the athlete meets the predetermined rule or not. But more important and normative phenomenon into the area of fundamental social values is the violation of sports ethics. The consciousness questioning relations quickly realizes the violated value (Şahin, 2009:2).

This negative phenomenon may not be noticed by the majority related to the sport. The athletes performing of sports experience can meet unacceptable results in advance. Doing sports is presented as a key to live well in the first time. The age, the development of skills and increasing the efficiency and technical restraint should be considered the in terms of the athlete in the world of sport (Şahin, 2009:2).

"The most important thing in the Olympic Games is not winning but taking part; the essential thing in life is not conquering but fighting well." The founder of the Olympics, Baron Pierre de Coubertin, said this phrase. Where has this Olympic message gone to? Nowadays, it seems like everyone is only interested in the medals. Where is the motto of the Olympics; "Citius, altius, fortius" - "swifter, higher, stronger", which can be interpreted as "striving to beat one's personal best" (Introduction: It's not the, 2010). It is clear that making money is an essential value in almost every part of society . In such a case, can the ideals of olympism and fair play for athletes be put into practice? A person, firstly doing sport for fitness, who chooses doing sports as a profession is quite difficult to implement attitudes and behaviors of the sport's mentality and assimilate to sport within the framework of professional ethics the social process we live in. (Şahin, 2009). The majority related to the sport may not notice this negative phenomenon. The athletes performing of sports experience can meet unacceptable results in advance (Şahin, 2009).

Is today's sport with all the money, commercialization, drug abuse and bribing still ethical? Can we be sure that the winner is really the best, not just the one who paid off the referees, or the one who has taken performance enhancing drugs?. Competition by itself "is not unethical". It is normal that the success in the competition be rewarded. Competition is essential to sport as a good motivator; it pushes each individual to strive for his/her best. "Celebrating achievement" is also not unethical" either, "but it can drive some competitors to unethical behavior" (Introduction: It's not the, 2010). (https://www.ukessays.com/essays/sports/a-study-on-unethical-behavior-in-sport-sport-essay.php)

Sports ethics problems will continue to increase If the Sports' mission changes in society. It is rooted in Logic ''In every way I have to win '','' loosing is the end of everything''. Such an approach is considered of natural to all kinds of ugly attempt on the path to success (match-fixing, doping, violence, etc.) (Şahin, 2009).

We can pay our attentions to struggle negative things in sports. With the preventions of negative things (violence, harassment, exclusion, gambling, match fixing, homophobia and racism etc.) can lead us finding the way of ethical behaviors in sports such as soccer. So I mentioned some of them below.

DISCUSSION

How to Prevent Drugs in Sports

Doping incidents have become an essential part of modern sports; the original outcries about doping have subsided. It is at this time even being discussed whether contemporary sports can exist without doping (Møller, 2010). Because doping also occurs in recreational sports (Müller-Platz et al. 2006), the so-called spirit of sport is threatened when athletes dope (see WADA 2009). The World Anti-Doping Agency (WADA) defines the spirit of sport as «the celebration of the human spirit, body and mind which is characterized by the following values: ethics, fair play and honesty, health, excellence in performance, character and education, fun and joy, teamwork, dedication and dedication, respect for rules and laws, respect for self and other participants, courage as well as community and solidarity» (WADA 2009). Contextual factors such as the pressure to win generate a «sticky situation of sportsmanship» (May 2001: 372), so that winning alone is the uppermost value for young athletes. All other personal values are subordinated to the most important goal of winning (see Pilz 1995; Kavussanu & Roberts 2001). Accordingly, because the main target group of doping prevention should be youth sports rather than professional sports, it is significant to take a new path in doping prevention in line with the spirit of sport. Such fundamental ethical values of sport are also vital for young athletes today (Pilz 1995). We suggest that the development of pedagogical programs for young athletes should stress the values related with the spirit of sport. Our effort should lie in the Coubertin ideal: «The important thing in life is not victory, but struggle: the fundamental is not to conquer, but to fight well» (Coubertin 2000: 587).

Testing, Prevention and Education

One way to stop drugs in sports is to produce a strict testing policy for the league. The other way to make sure a clean sport is the frequency of the tests. Just like any problem, the only true way to solve it is in the course of education (http://www.ehow.com/how_5148112-prevent-drugs-sports.html).

Match-Fixing, Can It Be Prevented

Match-fixing is two words no sport or league wants to be associated with, but various sports have already endured this "Black Eye". The most recent match-fixing report to arise is in the sport of tennis. Ahead of the Australian Open, BBC and Buzzfeed reported about possible match-fixing in tennis, involving unnamed successful players. They have reported that 16 players who have been ranked in the top 50, including 8 currently competing, have been flagged for possible match-fixing. This recent report of match-fixing has sparked thoughts of other sports involved, while also has made people think of possible ways to prevent any future scandals involving the fixing of matches. There are so many other match-fixing scandals in other sports that are not just investigative reports, but were proven and dealt with in appropriate manners. Soccer is one of the most notorious sports in relation to match-fixing. Many leagues in the world, including top leagues in Italy, France, Portugal and England have been involved in match-fixing. These scandals have involved top clubs including Juventus, FC Porto and AC Milan. One of the most recent and publicized match-fixing scandals involved the Serie A in 2006. Teams such as Juventus, AC Milan and Fiorentina were all sanctioned, after being convicted of rigging games using favorable referees. These punishments included docking of points and in the case of Juventus; they were relegated to Serie B.

Match-Fixing is almost impossible to stop, but there are many ways that these sports and the people involved can prevent it. One of the first ways is the athletes need to report any suspicious activity or people that they encounter in player locker rooms or other locations. Novak Djokovic stated that his people were given a match-fixing situation in 2007, he declined to take part. Scenarios like that need to be reported immediately to whoever is running the sport, so it can be monitored and disciplined in an appropriate manner quickly. Preventing match fixing also means limiting or stopping any association with gambling. Many sports are partnering with gambling sites as a sponsor, in order to generate additional revenue. The Australian Open partnered with gambling company William Hill recently, and this has allowed gambling advertisements on court. Tennis players are not allowed to partner with betting companies, and with these companies flashing ads on court, it provides a cloud in trying to separate possible illegal gambling actions. Other sports including soccer are putting gambling sites such as Bwin (former Real Madrid sponsor) and bet365 (current Stoke City sponsor) on the front of soccer jerseys. If leagues and sports are serious about trying to stop match-fixing, they need to detach themselves from these gambling companies. They instead need partner with companies that can provide revenue, but will not promote negative actions within the sport. Understandably the higher revenues come from gambling sponsorships, because of how popular betting on sports is, but these sports need to sacrifice a little revenue for the good of the sport. Providing more prize money or more available money to players is also a way that can prevent athletes from going down the match-fixing path. Players will not feel the urge to cheat, in order to receive additional money to survive day to day living. Dropping gambling sponsorships could hurt the amount of money available in the sport, but picking up additional sponsorships could balance it, while also allowing possible increases in funds. The more money available legally within the sport, the less likely the players go outside the sport to find money illegally.

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Match-fixing is a big problem that needs to be at least prevented if not stopped. Could it be time for the punishment to go from just banning the parties involved to instead putting the parties in prison? These things need to be thought about and analyzed, because sports needs to continue to be seen in a positive light not a negative one. (https://joeysportsguy.wordpress.com/2016/01/20/match-fixing-can-it-be-prevented/)

How to Prevent Sports Violence

Violent play in sports can result in injury but isn't considered violent because it is within the rules of the game. However, sports violence occurs on several levels and includes players, coaches and spectators, and happens well outside the rules. Sports participants should sign a code of sportsmanship so everyone involved in the sport is responsible for preventing violence. Sports facilitators such as coaches and trainers need to be an example of good sportsmanship for young players. Kids should be taught about sportsmanship by emphasizing that a sport is fun to play and that the outcome of the game isn't the most important aspect. (http://www.ehow.com/how_2090451_prevent-sports-violence.html

CONCLUSION

Morality can be defined as the adopted rules to organize people act in public and their relations with each other. These rules are not usually written, separated by this aspect of the rule of law; but morality and law are still occasionally identified the rules that society comply with the guidelines. In this respect, honesty and morality comes at the beginning of the rules for athletes to comply with.

Nowadays, the concept has taken preceding on the ethics of sports in the World of sports: fair play. Fair play is gentleman ship. Fair play should not be considered to the players as a unique behavior. The administrators, the official coaches, technical directors, the match referees and the fans must show appropriate behavior to the fair play before and after the matches.

To give examples of past sports ethics, sports would outweigh humanity in the understanding of sports. It would put forward the superiority to exhibit the capabilities instead of crushing, humiliate the opponent. They were sportsman with a full understanding of the spirit of sport.

Racism comes one of the most important issues of discrimination in sport. we can also mentions religious discrimination, cultural, gender, and discrimination against people with disabilities as well as Racism in sport.

The substances containing doping are one of the worst acts for athletes which are contrary to the concept of fair play. Doping is defined as the use of ways to healthy people,

upgrading their performance in the competition and in a way that does not meet the goal of artificial ethics into their bodies of foreign substances and physiological substances enters with any non-issuance or normal shape. Many athletes using doping substances can be seen as an example of moral collapse in sports in recent years.

To develop Sports ethics, sports justice, equality and fairly struggle can be provided with a movement of many other people. The athletes, coaches, administrators, federations, referees, fans, media, teachers, and families can be the most important responsible about it.

If athletes are honest match-fixing, keeping away from bad habits, betting games, being respectful for the competitors, accepting defeat as a natural outcome, not provoking the audience, refraining from acts that lead to violence and staying away from drugs and doping. They are true sportsman and the example to the community, so it is nowadays a much-needed condition.

Managers are required to keep their supporters away from the violence and similar events. They should not say the words provoke them to violence. On the contrary, they should talk about gentleman ship, sportsmanship and fair play to them. To use them as a weapon in the struggle for rights is not an ethical behavior. Team managers well in advance of opponent's players transfer offers, incentive bonuses, match-fixing, and any attempt against fair play in sport blow to gentleman ship, sportsmanship and fair play before the critical matches. The violence, aggression, doping, match – fixing, discrimination and incentive pay are the most important parts against the spirit of sports ethic. To be known for the origins of aggression, coaches, athletes and club managers, the responsibility of media institutions, the audience and the society in general needs to be supported and trained to act within the framework of fair play to reduce violence and aggression in sport.

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STRUCTURING DISPOSITIONS? DEAF STUDENTS AND SPORTS FIELDS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to examine the sports related data of the "E-*i*şit project" on higher education (HEd) opportunities of The Deaf. This study included 130 deaf students (Female:45.38%; Male:54.62%) from high school (HS) and 80 deaf students (Female:47.5%; Male:52.5%) from HEd. Two Deaf and two CODA interviewers obtained data using Turkish Sign Language (TSL) translation with questionnaire form. According to results, HS and HEd students preferred the sports as one of their 'major leisure time activity' and 'most successful field' (43%, >34% and 42%, %34 respectively). HS students who aim sports departments (10%) in HEd presented greater struggles to follow HEd process. Only 3.75% of HEd students participated to our study were actually from these programs. HS students mostly pointed out sports related pacemakers (%31.7), while it was only 2.5% in all HEd students ($p<0.0001$). Significant differences found in subgroups; fewer female participants and AUEEYO students preferred sports related choices than male students, and other HEd and HS students respectively. This study provided salient consequences on Deaf students' connections to sports fields which we found worth to reflect on thus pushed forward to open dialogs on whether sports fields or Deaf sports itself are fulfilling their promises.

Keywords; Deaf, Disability, Higher Education, Inclusion, Sport, Recreation, Youth

INTRODUCTION

Deaf people in Turkey are the groups whom most severely facing difficulties regarding education and employment, following the people with cognitive disabilities (Turkey Disability Survey, Türkiye Özürlüler Araştırması, TÖA, 2004). According to the data interpreted from TÖA (2002, 2002a), the Deaf individuals whose primary means of communication was sign language were excluded from public communications which escalated the problems regarding their social integration. Problems such as having educators who do not know TSL, inadequacy in recognizing TSL by teaching staff and unsatisfactory TSL materials and programs, very few TSL resources and not having educational programs in TSL were not only prevented deaf people to access to existing public service and resources but also excluded them from social life in terms of cultural, economic and social participation (Kemaloğlu, 2008).

Hearing disability also displays marked differences compare to other disabilities (e.g. the visually or orthopedically) especially in terms of the prevalence rates of being congenitally deaf (2-3/1000 in Turkey) (Bolat et al., 2009, Kemaloğlu et al., 2010) and also the issues regarding the processes for the speech, language, learning and education (Emmorey, 2002).

It is also noticed that there is no adequate statistics available to allow us distinguish the number of deaf citizens in Turkey regarding their diversity -for example an information on whether their primary means of communication is sign language or not. According to the statistics from Ministry of Education (2009-2010), only 6.500 deaf citizens continue to the primary and secondary schools and this, with rough estimation, appears quite low than the number of deaf citizens at this level living in Turkey. We also do not know exact number of deaf students who continue HEd, though according to the TÖA statistics (2002, 2002) only about 0.4-0.5% of "people with hearing and speech disabilities" graduate from HEd. This ratio was estimated 2.1% for people with visual disabilities and % 2.2 for people with orthopedical disabilities. Soon after this study, Kemaloğlu and Yaprak-Kemaloğlu (2012) brought in several estimations corresponding with the issues on the number of the deaf populations and regarding their education in Turkey.

We, by extension, learnt with experience and the literature that the Deaf people in some countries have right and access to education as well as information and communication in public spaces in sign language (Komesaroff, 2005, Haualand and Allen, 2009, Emmorey, 2002), however in Turkey, it has been apparently not in accordance with these best practices, at least in recent history. There was neither the educational system with sign language established nor the little if any adequate activities to provide information and service in TSL in public spaces by governmental, private or other non-governmental organizations existed (Girgin, 2006, Kemaloğlu, 2008) by the time that this study was held (2009-2011).

While sports are considered as promising fields in order to inclusion (Bailey, 2005, Sherry, 2010) of The Deaf in the society (Stewart, 1991, Stewart and Ellis, 1999) by means of not only education, recreation, but also (e.g.) HE and employment which became major handicaps of The Deaf community in Turkey as previously mentioned (TÖA, 2004), we wanted to push this study forward to open dialogs also on whether sports fields or Deaf sports itself in Turkey have been fulfilling their promises for the members of the deaf community, especially for those whose primary means of communication is TSL.

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to analyze the sports related data of the E-*i*şit project. This project was on improving higher education opportunities of the Deaf which carried out by an NGO (Association of the Deaf Empowerment Center, IEGM) and an academic institution (Gazi University) with the support of World Bank (Kemaloğlu and Korkmaz, 2010). Results included here focusing on sports dimension derived from the broader study and were substantially revised from the proceedings which previously shared in a national meeting on the adapted physical activity (in Turkish in book of proceedings) and (with slight editions) presented in an international sport sciences conference in Turkey in 2010 (Kemaloğlu et. al. 2010a, 2010b) in accordance with the social and political actions designated through the E-işit project. We hereby limit our extent of content and discussion with the scope of these presentations, although we had other presentations or studies that (apart from this QSS and) included supporting content in different contexts which shared in these meetings (Yaprak-Kemaloğlu, 2010b, Yaprak-Kemaloğlu&Kemaloğlu, 2010) and afterwards as well (e.g. Yaprak-Kemaloğlu, 2012, 2013, 2015, 2016, etc.).

This project primarily aimed to focus on the issues regarding Deaf students' right to benefit from HEd facilities which were assumed to be the key point to address for solving the problems of the Deaf people regarding their employment, educational and social participation in general. Although the broader version of this study were not established to aim an in-depth analysis for sports dimension, this study focusing on sports related data was provided salient consequences on Deaf students' connection to sports which we found worth to reflect on. Thereby, the results were discussed in the context of sports as a field of social inclusion or exclusion, aiming to lead to the further questions on (deaf) sports which supposed to be considered and in question as an accessible (e.g.) recreational, professional or educational field for everyone.

THIS STUDY

This qualitative survey study (QSS) -and further analyses of the findings regarding sports fields- was carried within the periods of the E-*i*şit project (2009-2010). E-*i*şit project included research and political actions which also relatively described above carried out in Turkey aiming to improve higher education (HEd) opportunities of The Deaf. Total 130 deaf high school (HS) students from deaf schools and associations (Female: %45.38, n: 59; Male: %54.62, n: 71), together with 80 deaf students (Female: % 47.5, n:35; Male: %52.5, n: 45) from higher education (HEd) (which are "Anadolu University Integrated College for the Handicapped" -or the "School for the Handicapped" were interchangeably used by this institution(s) as the formal name of the school in English-, Anadolu Üniversitesi Engelliler Entegre Yüksekokulu, AUEEYO [n: 54]; and other universities [n: 26]) were volunteered to participate to this study.

All (N: 130) high school students' primary means of communication were sign language while 54 university students (out of 80) who had diverse levels of deafness and speech studying at AUEEYO where hearing-speech valued in class for communicating with deaf students, and 26 of them were from different higher education institutions (which were not specific schools for people with disabilities as AUEEYO), yet all of these students were Deaf who did not use or prefer speech for communication, and their teachers did not use SL as well.

Interviewers included in this study were TSL instructors certified by Turkey National Federation of the Deaf (Türkiye Sağırlar Milli Federasyonu, TSMF) and well known translators for their advanced use of TSL. Those, two Deaf (whose primary means of communication were sign language) and 2 H-CODA (Hearing Child of Deaf Adult), 4 interviewers in total worked closely and assisted to obtain data by using TSL translation and a questionnaire form which written in Turkish. Interviewers also gave points from 0 to 10 to the overall realized communication, quality of application and congruence of TSL that students used to the TSL which used within the body of TSMF –to eliminate errors and estimate the quality of communication -owing to the anticipated diversity among deaf community in Turkey.

Survey conducted in TSL with 129 HS students. For those with restricted writing ability, participants' responds in TSL to open-ended questions were written by the interviewers. Approximately the 1/3 of the (N: 130) HS students answered the open-ended questions by TSL while AUEEYO students answered them through reading and writing. All other HEd students preferred TSL translation of the questions, but answered by writing. HEd students engendered two distinct sub-groups. Following the interviewers explanations, while AUEEYO students answered all questions through reading and writing except with few short questions, all items were translated to TSL for students from other universities but they also (additionally read and), wrote by themselves.

HS and HEd students' questionnaire forms slightly differed in questions regarding HEd process and activities involved. Questionnaires both in Turkish and TSL were also provided (open access) in E-*i*şit project web page.

For this study, beside the data with descriptive features, especially the questions were analyzed and included where the responds related to sports fields were prominent in both HS and HEd students' questionnaires. These questions were 'what is/are your favorite extracurricular activity/activities that you participate", ''What is/are the field(s) that you think you are most successful at", 'if you want to go to the university, which programs/departments that you think to pursue in" (for HS students), "Who is/are the pacemaker(s) that you look up to and like the most", "participation preferences to the various in-campus/intramural social activities in university" (for HEd students). Results compared among HS and HEd students and also among AÜEEYO students and students from other HEd institutions.

FINDINGS

The findings of the study were given with their tables following the summary of some results here in few paragraphs.

We valued the achieved communication level as one of the most important component of the study and took several measures throughout the project including the scores given by interviewers to assess and improve the quality of the communication during the interviews. According to these results, the overall quality and reliability of the applied interviews were scored 8.79±1.72 on a ten point scale with a median of 10 (5-10); 35.7% and 64.3% of the given scores were between the range of 5-8 and, 9-10 respectively. Besides overall realized sign language communication were scored 7.02±2.19 and TSL congruence of students to the TSL body of knowledge used in TSMF were scored 6.10±2.66 point for HS students and respectively 5.38±3.25 and 5.27±3.79 for AUEEYO students, 8.42 ± 3.31 and 8.12 ± 3.02 for students from other universities. Thus the students from HS and other HEd institutions as well used TSL with higher level of compatibility to the TSL that expected to be known by wider members of deaf community in Turkey and used higher level of realized sign language communication although they were observed to be having difficulties understanding Turkish by reading and/or writing compare to AUEEYO students.

It is possible to mention some prominent features for these three groups (of HS and two HEds). The signing HS students were struggling not only in reading and writing in Turkish but also in speaking and understanding the speech by lip-reading. Students from AUEEYO were less likely to tend towards the use of TSL and more likely to communicate through hearing-speech and lip-reading –as promoted (at least) in their school (Yaprak-Kemaloğlu, 2012). Also their reading and writing levels were enough at least as criterion to fill this relatively simplified questionnaire forms. Students from other universities completely abandoned the communication through hearing and speech and also excelled in TSL and presented improved reading and writing abilities.

Table 1. The favorite extracurricular activity/activities of high school (HS) students

	M		F		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sport	42	59.15*	14	23.73	56	43.08
Computer-Internet	39	54.93	38	64.41	77	59.23
Time with Friends	35	49.30	21	35.59	59	45.38
Other**	18	25.35	14	23.73	32	26.61
Total/Actual Total N	134/71	-	87/59	-	165/130	-

*Compare to females $p < 0.001$ and HEd groups (%34 indicated sport, below in Table 2) $p = 0.02$

**Other: doing homework, drawing, staying at school, dining.

The high school students's responses to the "what is your favorite extracurricular activity that you participate" question (Table 1) formed around the three major popular activities, each with over 40% ratio. Sport was one of these three most popular choice that selected by %43.08 of the students in total. However there were highly significant difference between HS male and female (M: %59.15, F: %23.72, p=0.0001), and significant difference between HS male and HEd students (Table 2, below) regarding favorite choice of sporting activities. Therefore sport actually was the most selected activity by the male participants whereas the computer-internet was called the highest in number as favorite activity by female participants (HS). Additional 88.7% of overall male and 47.4% of overall female participants were indicated more than one favorite activity (if time with friends excluded; %39.4 and %11.8 respectively) while %17.86 of overall students answered only 'sport'.

Table 2. The favorite extracurricular activity/activities of HS students together with HEd students

	HS (%)	Higher Education (%)		
		Other Universities	AUEEYO	Total
Computer-Internet	59.23	70.9***	67.1	68.3
Time with Friends	45.38	42	45.3	44.4
Sport	43.08	46	30*;**	34.8

*Compare to HS group: $p < 0.05$; **Compare to other universities: $p < 0.02$;
*** Compare to HS group: $p = 0.051$

Sports as favorite extracurricular activity indicated less often by AUEYYO students compare to students from HS and other HEd institutions (Table 2). Nonetheless the ratio of the other two most popular favorite activities resemble, except the computer-internet choice of students from other universities were higher than especially HS students.

Table 3. The participation preferences to the in-campus/intramural social activities of the HEd students

	Other universities (%)	AUEEYO (%)
Organizations related to sports	50.1	37,03
Concert, folklore and dance shows	7.6	24.1*
Conference and conversational meetings	7.6	14.8
Activities of the student clubs	7.6	14.8
Other recreational activities (chess/Outdoor/ **Photography** / journal club)	34.7	27.7
Picnic and trips/tours	26.9	50.0**
Other	-	11.1

Chi square test: *$p = 0.02$; **$p = 0.01$

Moreover, the participation ratio of the students from AUEEYO and other universities to the in-campus/intramural social activities were 83% and 61% respectively. The activities that they prefer to participate together with their percentages were listed below (Table 3). When the students who do not participate and/or did not specified the activity that they participate were excluded, it can be much more clearly perceived that the students from other universities preferred to participate in sporting activities (highly) more than AUEEYO students, again (students from AUEEYO: 42%, other universities: 81%, $p < 0.0001$). However AUEEYO students also were more likely to prefer the social activities other than sports, especially their participation to the picnic and trips or tours as well as concert, folklore and dance shows differ significantly. Photography was the prominent activity for students from other universities among the "other recreational activities" (Table 3).

Table 4. The field(s) that the HS students think they are most successful at

	Male		**Female**		**Total**	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sport	35	49.30	20	33.84	55	42.31
Computer-Internet	22	30.99	29	49.15	51	39.23
Drawing-Fine Arts	14	19.77	16	27.12	30	23.08
Other	9	12.68	1	1.7	10	7.76
Total/Actual Total N	80/71	-	66/59	-	146/130	-

Answers to the question on the field(s) that they think they are the most successful at (Table 4 and 5) were formed around "sport" for 42.31% in total HS respondents (M: 49.3%, F: 33.9%, $p>0.05$, Table 4), and among those, the 69.09% indicated "sport" only. Again, female participants set computer-internet choice forward and sport as the most second choice (Table 4).

According to the comparative statistics (Table 5) regarding the HS and HEd students' perception for the field that they think they are most successful at; sport was pointed out the most by HS students, while it is ranked second in the group from other universities and third in AUEEYO group (% 26). AUEEYO group marked sport field lower than the other groups which found highly significant. When HS students' results excluded (Table 5), sports was third most selected field in overall university group.

Table 5. The field(s) that students think they are most successful at (together with HEd students)

	HS (%)	HEd. Institutions (%)		
		Other Universities	AUEEYO	Total
Sport	42.31	50	26***	34.05
Computer-Internet	39.23	59.3*	61.5**	63.4
Drawing-Fine Arts	23.08	38.8*	34.6*	35.8*

*Compare to HS group: $p < 0.05$; ** Compare to HS group $p < 0.01$

*** Compare to both HS and other universities group $p < 0.0001$

There was another question on whether there is/are the pacemaker(s) that they look up to (Table 6 and 7); 31.54% of HS students (M: 36.62%; F: 25.42%, $p>0.05$) pointed to their pacemakers in sports fields. This ratio was 2.5% ($p<0.0001$) in HEd groups, though none of the AUEEYO students indicated a pacemaker from sports fields.

Table 6. The pacemaker(s) (%)

	HS	Other HEd	AUEEYO
Fictional	30.1	10	0*
Non-fictional	52.1	57.69	42.85
-SAAM**	18.7	10	12.5
-Athletes, Sports	31.7	7.64	0*
Profession	3.3	20*	19.71*
None	13.8	58.33*	46.42*

*Chi square test: $p < 0.05$

**SAAM: Singer, actor/actress, model or other people of similar popular culture.

Non-fictional category included the "Atatürk", "a hearing friend" and "an older brother" in the responses of HS students (other than the subtitles given in the Table 6 and 7).

HS students responded to this question more than the other groups and indicated people or institutions from sports fields (31.7%) more than the students from other universities (7.64%) while none of the AUEEYO students wrote sports related or fictional pacemaker.

Also HS students appeared to choose pacemakers from fictional and popular world including sports more than the two HEd groups, while the HEd groups were more likely indicated the pacemakers from a profession (other than sports fields).

The pacemakers pointed by HS groups demonstrated in Table 6, which also presents the much fewer results that could obtained from female participants for such question.

The each sports institutions and athletes (Table 6) were indicated far below than the football players; even their overall total (N: 21, when "NBA" counted once) were less than the number of football players indicated (N: 22).

Table 7. HS students' pacemakers from sports fields*

	Swim-ming	Football		Basket-ball	Institu-tion*	Volleyball & Beach Volley	Wrest-ling	Table tennis
N	3	Foreign: 8	Turkish: 14	5	6	5	1	2
Name of the Player or Institution M/F	Phelps 2/1	Peter Crocuh 1/-	Volkan (Demirel) 2/-	Ibrahim (Kutluay) 1/-	Tennis -/2	Cevat Şimşek** 2/-	Hamza Yerlikaya 1/-	Tim Bolt 1/-
		Alex 2/-	Ilhan Mansız 1/-	Kobe Bryant 3/-	Sport 2/-	Volkan Güç 2/-		Ma Long 1/-
		Gerrand 1/-	Hasan GS 1/-		Physical Education 1/-	Foreign Volleyball Player		
		Randall 1/-	Arda Turan 8/1		NBA 1/-			
		Solskjaer 1/-	Volkan Demirci 1/-	NBA 1/- (as in right Column)				
		Hagi 1/-						
		Kaka 1/-						

* Some participants indicated a sports institution or branch instead of a name of an athlete (etc.). In this case, if participant indicated only a sports institution or branch, this added to the "institution" collumn above. However, if participant indicated a name of an athlete together with the institution or branch (of that athlete belongs to), these are not repeated in "institution" collumn and opened another column instead. For example, "goalkeeper/football Volkan" included under the football title, also converted to full name as " Volkan (Demirel)" to prevent confusion.

** Cevat Şimşek is a student at Gazi University Faculty of Sport Sciences and also a national volleyball player of Turkish Deaf Sports Federation.

HS students (49.6%) who want to pursue in HEd also indicated that it is necessary to pursue education "to became/live the way they imagined themselves" (37.8%) and point to the university diploma requirements to find a job (63.9%), though only 24% could somehow answer the question of "what is higher education/university?" and 62.4% of them directly respond as 'I do not know'. Almost all HS students who do not plan to go to the university shared the disabling situations and problems that they face, as the reason for not being able to participate in HEd.

Table 7. University programs/departments that HS students want to pursue in

	Male		Female		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sports Related Departments	9	12.63	4	6.78	13	10
Computer Sciences/Related Departments	17	23.94	15	25.42	32	24.61
Fine arts, Draftsperson	17	23.94	15	25.42	32	24.61
Other Occupational and Technical Departments	15	21.13	14	23.73	29	22.31
Don't Know	10	14.08	10	16.94	20	15.38
Total/Actual Total N	68/71	-	58/59	-	126/130	-

HEd students whom continue sports related departments comprise of 3.75% of all HEd group, though considering that there is no sports related department in the choices of the AUEEYO students, it corresponds to 11.54 % among the students from other universities category ($p > 0.05$). Moreover, HS students who preferred to pursue in the sports departments of HEd (table 7) were comprised of 10% (N: 13) in which male were more than twice as much of female participants (M: %12.68; F: %6.78, $p>0.05$); Although 7 (out of 13) of those did not want to go to university (%53.84) due to their beliefs for not being able to achieve the university admission exam (n: 6) and without indicating a reason (n: 1) respectively. This ratio was 25.64% for the HS students who preferred departments other than sports departments ($p<0.05$).

Participants, who think that they as Deaf people were disadvantaged in their chances to HEd (96.9%), also indicated that this is because of the difficulties coexist with the university entrance exam and instructions (17.9%) and they do not understand what they read (52%) or they cannot respond even though they understand the question (1.6%), also because of the lack of interpretation service (31.7%). There was another question on whether they have been preparing for the university entrance exam; only 34.9% of HS students expressed their concerned preparation, and most of the rest claimed the problems regarding poverty (20%), lack of adequate programs for the deaf people to prepare (35%) for not having any preparation. In HEd groups, 52.5% of the AUEEYO said they did not prepare for the university entrance exam, while 70.83% of the students from other universities claimed that they studied to be prepared. On the other hand, among the HS (77.8%) or HEd (70.83%) students who claimed that they have been preparing or they had prepared for a while but then quit preparing have also regarded their special education institution as a place where they study for university exam preparation which is in fact an organization for the rehabilitation of the hearing and speech. 16.67% of AUEEYO students and 8,33% of students from other universities claimed the poverty as their reasons for not having prepared, and respectively 52% and 63.16% declared that they did not put an effort because as a person with hearing disability, they couldn't find an adequate place to go for themselves.

CONCLUSIONS

E-*i*şit project have provided results to clearly understand the problems of the Deaf people especially regarding (higher) education that can be usually found in popular opinion in a confusing and ambiguous ways. In brief, one of the three most important results of this project beyond the common knowledge was the determination of the acceptance for the lack of solution and aggravated problems regarding Deaf students -especially in pre, primary and secondary school which probably worsening towards HS and HEd- that taken for granted by the set of stationary state of order within related governmental or non-governmental institutions. Another important finding was the identification of the computer, arts and sports (time with friends as well) as the prominent fields in the responses of deaf students which also mean the fields to examine with a pro-change potential in Turkey. Also the results of this study revealed the clear demands regarding deaf rights such as on education in TSL and with TSL interpretation that are (still) in the process of being or to be shaped by few people, especially by the members of deaf community who relatively more active in Deaf associations and Turkey National Federation of the Deaf and became aware of the opportunities of the Deaf people in the World.

Therefore, this study, although was not primarily established to aim an in-depth analysis for sports dimension, it provided salient political results and consequences for the researchers, activists or professionals in sports fields revealing the Deaf students' connection to sports which we found worth to reflect on and therefore to open a dialog on and re-examine the 'deaf and sports' contexts as well as regarding the role or impact of sports on the lives of deaf people and the relevant services provided. At first glance, sports were found as a relevant dimension in this study, included in the three most common favorite activities ("computer-internet, time with friends and sports") that participated as well as in the three most common areas (sports, fine arts and computer) that they found themselves most successful at by the all three sub-groups of this study. Namely, HS and HEd students preferred the sports as one of their 'major leisure time activity' and 'most successful field' (43%, >34% and 42%, %34 respectively) which are remarkable to question whether sport fields were in relation to be re-structured by also the habitus or structuring dispositions of deaf individual. As Bourdieu (1998) states that the structures constitutive of a particular type of environment (in this case the deaf community or the specific environment with e.g. institutions, professionals around deaf individuals) produce habitus, the systems of durable, transposable dispositions that is as principles of the structuring practices, representations or dispositions for fields (Bourdieu, 1998).

Longmuir ve Bar-Or (1994) although stated that the "youths with impairments have a sedentary lifestyle" (in Longmair Bar-or 2000), their re-analysis of data (Longmair Bar-or 2000) on 987 youths which included 164 deaf or hard of hearing (and the majority of the rest were people with physical disabilities (PD) and chronic medical conditions [CM] along with 77 participant with reduced visual acuity or the visual field [VI]) also revealed that the deaf youths were the highest in number in habitual activity levels; while percentage of youths with CM and deaf and hard of hearing who were active (47% and 53%, respectively) was significantly higher than the youths with PD (26%) or VI (27%), the percentage of sedentary

youth were also indicated as 39% for PD and VI, 24% for CM, and 17% for deaf and hard of hearing group.

Steward and Ellis (1999) also points to physical education classes as if they are often the only physical activity that many children receive and, assert that "without them, an even greater number of children, including those who are deaf, would be prone to aspects associated with sedentary lifestyles". Therefore they suggest that the emphasis of daily physical education classes in schools "should be placed on promoting physical fitness and developing skills that lead to a lifelong enjoyment of physical activity and healthy lifestyles" (Stewart and Ellis, 1999). Nonetheless, in the work of Yaprak-Kemaloğlu (2012), the focus was on the diverse identities regarding dispositions of schools and deaf students; she provided examples for deaf habitus toward sport fields and with comparative charts suggested embracing the socio-cultural perspectives for further awareness and inclusion or for achieving deaf children's rights, such as being sensitive on introducing Deaf Sport and community as well as using responsive language (Yaprak-Kemaloğlu, 2012).

It can be assumed that the sporting activities are in line with the stronger (visual, kinesthetic, etc.) perceptions of the Deaf people and also sports provide more (observable, thus) understandable and practicable spaces in comparison to many other fields where they struggle with the difficulties due to lack of accommodations available to meet their cultural demands. Furthermore, Stewart (1991) pointed out sport as a vehicle for understanding the dynamics of being Deaf in virtue of "it facilitates a social identification among Deaf people that is not easily obtained in other sociocultural contexts" (Stewart, 1986; in Stewart 1991). Owing to such predispositions it can be expected to have deaf people develop habitus and practices such as participating in sports and being successful in these fields compare to other fields and other specific groups of people. However in further analysis of this study, several differences found between male and female participants and between HS and HEd groups and HEd sub-groups, which are in line with Yaprak Kemaloğlu (2010b, 2012)'s researches. For example students from AUEEYO were understood more likely to have participations to the other social activities than these three common fields compare to HS students and students from other universities and preferred sports as in-campus social activities (37.03%) less than the students from other universities preferred (50.1%). It was also found that AUEEYO students assigned the sports as 'major leisure time activity' (%30, %46, % 43.08) and as 'their most successful field' (%26, %50, %42.31) significantly less than the students from other universities and from HS respectively. Moreover, none of the AUEEYO students pointed out sports-related role models. These results provokes the question whether school programs in which hearing-speech communication values were highlighted have somehow an influence on the tastes of deaf students away from sports, or is it because of the increase in the variety of recreational activities that these particular students interact with. These questions later relatively investigated by Yaprak-Kemaloğlu (2010b, 2012, 2013, 2015) and found some relevant results; participation to deaf sports positively associated with the Deaf identity development, although this is more problematic for deaf girls and women and some deaf people under the close assistance of institutions and families with dominant values and practices towards hearing-speech thus may develop tastes other than sports, particularly away from deaf sports (Yaprak-Kemaloğlu 2010b, 2012, 2013, 2015).

The other results from this study also supports the differences by gender in their capital or positions regarding sport fields; despite the considerable amount of all of the subgroups' perception of themselves as highly successful for sports, especially the female participation to the extracurricular sporting activities (23.73%) decrease compare to their ratio for the perception of such achievement (33.84%) while this ratio increase for male respondents (for HS students). More dramatic decrease in the sport related preferences of female students is also evident in the role models. However comparisons between male and female students in HEd level could not be analyzed due to the underrepresentation of female students at this level which brings to mind the possible dramatic decrease in female deaf students' participation to the HEd. There was no female student recorded among the students who study in sports related departments during this research was held (until 2010) neither among our participants which we still observe the deaf women's participation to the sports related departments in HEd make an exception where deaf women HEd students are for example more likely to be found in fine arts departments.

Relationships and role models valued as important resources to constitute socio-cultural and economic capital (Bourdieu, 1998). The group of results on this may lead contested interpretations; as having fictional role models as equal as pacemakers in sports or female respondents who have very few role models in sports but tend to have pacemakers such as models from fashion world. 31.7% of the HS students and among those there were only 3 female students (indicating "tennis" [n: 2] and highly popular male football player [n:1] for their pacemaker) pointed to sports-related role models. The symbolic capital of deaf male through such as the dominance of sports role models together with the wider choices of role models and sporting opportunities and patriarchal structures can result in a "symbolic violence" contributing reproduction of male dominance and lower status of women in "the most appreciated games" (Bourdieu, 1998).

Despite their relationship with sports fields in terms of their role models and leisure time or recreational interests, the sports were not involved much in overall their choice to pursue in HEd (only 10%). Compare to their interest, models and participation to the sporting activities, smaller proportion of male deaf participants (n:9) think to pursue sports related departments in HEd, while this number is only 4 for female students (male were more than twice as much of female participants: M: %12.68; F: %6.78, $p>0.05$); and considerable amount of those (%53.84) do not express determination to participate to HEd due to their thoughts for not being ready to pass the test(s) to enter HEd (the 53.84% of those stated "not knowing what to do" [n:1] and their hopelessness for achieving the concerned test [n:6]). Thus these results can be interpreted in line with the Sheridan (2008)'s determinations regarding deaf adolescents; even though they consider HEd as a possibility, they recognize, acknowledge and act in accordance with their challenges (Sheridan 2008). However, these generalizations of similarities have to be understood and distinguished together with the regional, legal, cultural (etc.) differences revealed in the results of our studies. The overall 10% proportion above is approximately in line with the HEd students whom continue sports related departments. They comprised of 3.75% of all HEd group, though considering that there is no sports related departments in the AUEEYO, it equals to an 11.54% among the students from other universities category. Additionally, students who indicate sports related HEd choice also express smaller proportion of determination to participate to HEd ($p<0.05$) and this was a

precise result to consider because this ratio was 25.64% in whom preferred other fields of HEd. Further, no answer was determined regarding the ability tests or special quota for national athletes which are in practice in the enrollment process to the sports related departments in Turkey. It is important to understand the processes and issues lay under this respond together with interacting results which may uncover the social, institutional or individual obstacles that are specific to the sporting HEd or career which may be growing incrementally in different steps or spaces of life.

These possible struggles, inequalities and recommendations with the examples of best practices were relatively pro-claimed in detail by Yaprak-Kemaloğlu (2010) in E-*i*şit reports regarding HEd and sports fields, with reference to the fact that the practices of some countries apparently embraced inclusive education often fall behind their discourses and policies (Mitchel, 2005). For example it is important to provide equal access, among hearing and deaf, or diverse sexes too, regarding not only the highly visible sporting opportunities (as competitive or intra-extramural physical education and recreational participation) but also to the organizations, professions, positive values and cultures tied to or embedded within these activities and to the information regarding the HEd processes as well -which in this case through adequate education and services such as in TSL, needed (Yaprak Kemaloğlu, 2010). Otherwise not inclusive or equitable education and exam settings before and after HEd result in an unprepared, disadvantaged status of deaf individuals in terms of necessary efforts in the process of transition to HEd (limiting the attendance only to the national athlete with disability quota), employment (it is almost impossible for a Deaf person to pass ALES exam necessary for graduate degree and academic employment as easy as a hearing person if the circumstances do not change) and society as well. *Neither the national athlete with disability quota* -which only provides access to the department of trainer education and not to all other specialties in sport- *nor the possible increase in the opportunities* (such as courses to be a trainer, referee) *in sports federations* –in which the substructure design would be easier to develop, however despite these opportunities allow them to access to short-cut, low income and sometimes volunteer professional work, to gain assistive qualities for sport career, to be in diverse fields of practice and gain psycho-social benefits- *should or can be an alternative for equal access to HEd*. Each should be considered as separate improvements. Barrowing from Barry (2002)'s statements; "even where voluntary separation from the wider society leads to diminished job opportunities, this still does not involve a denial of social justice…" and similarly, "voluntary withdrawal from political participation" (arising, for example, from membership to deaf culture) "does not constitute social injustice, because all that is required is an opportunity to participate" (Barry, 2002).

Although the association between the dispersion of incomes and social exclusion is not a straightforward one (Barry, 2002) there are particular consequences noted when specific groups faced additional obstacles such as poverty (Miranda, 1991). Child poverty means that "living in an environment that provides little stimulation or emotional support to children, on the other hand, can remove many of the positive effects of growing up in a materially rich household" (UNICEF, Available: http://www.unicef.org/sowc05/english/povertyissue.html). As, almost all students in this study expressed their concerns thinking that they as Deaf people were disadvantaged in their chances to HEd (96.9%), also claimed their problems regarding poverty (from 8% to 20%) and lack of adequate programs for the deaf people, particularly

addressing the reading and understanding difficulties along with the absence of education in TSL or TSL-Turkish translation clearly manifest the lacking zones to work up to.

It is also important to point out here that the most featured results of this broader study –for the time it was held- were obtained rather during conducting the questionnaires: As mentioned in method also, questionnaires could be conducted only with TSL translation for all HS students (except one person); approximately 1/3 of this group also answered open-end questions in TSL and translated and written in Turkish by interviewers. Together with all of the results obtained throughout the E-*i*şit project on the use of (sign) language in Turkey, this project enabled us to speak up, build on and lobby about deaf people's right to education in TSL and other problems in education and society. One of the prominent issue in sports fields as in others too regarding deaf was assessed as the unawareness towards deaf culture, history, language and other relevant aspects (Yaprak-Kemaloğlu, 2016), thus the needs of this group have been overlooked, accommodations couldn't be developed. Yaprak-Kemaloğlu (2016) suggested interdisciplinary approaches together with the perspectives developed within deaf studies to overcome the bias, misconceptions, and misconducts (etc.) with specific examples from the past practices in Turkey.

The earlier turning point in the history of Turkish deaf schools was in 1925 "regarding not only the beginning of the restrictions to use SL but also the exclusion of the older deaf children from these schools in parallel with the decisions made to restrict and prohibit SL and to embrace oralist methods of Western modernity" (Kemaloğlu and Yaprak-Kemaloğlu, 2012). It was not until the 2005 that "the new disability Code indicated SL as a necessity for education and public service in Turkey" ("Özürlüler ve bazı kanun ve kanun hükmünde kararnamelerde değişiklik yapılması hakkında kanun" No: 5378, Date:1.7.2005, in: Resmi Gazete: 7.7.2005, No: 25868; Kemaloğlu and Yaprak-Kemaloğlu, 2012). Although other than few "silent" steps, there were no teaching or learning in TSL in any educational institution including the universities during these project and studies of E-*i*şit were held thus by only this context they simply continue to receive restricted education in schools. The only adequate activities regarding public service to the Deaf people in action in Turkey were relatively bounded to the small budget projects which were being held or hosted by Gazi University, Turkey National Federation of the Deaf and associations as well as the limited efforts by the Istanbul Municipality. These also reflect and provide another explanation for the status of the Deaf people indicated above together with TÖA statistics regarding exclusion from public resources, low ratios of (higher) education and employment. In spite of several accommodations such as financial and social supports provided to deaf citizens gradually increased in the course of time, field solutions for their problems regarding communication remained due as if a radical change. Thereby the success of this study may be based upon the ways of the work held together by the researchers and members of the deaf community, diminishing the dispositional errors stem from inequalities. Inequality may have a direct effect on the ability to exercise rights, as Barry (2002) states, and has following conclusion on the role of public policy and the connection between inequality and social exclusion:

> "…public policy can make a difference to the impact that any given degree of inequality has on the extent and severity of social exclusion. Nevertheless, in any

society in which the great bulk of goods and services are allocated through the market, and in which even those provided publicly can also be bought privately, there must be a close connection between inequality and social exclusion" (Barry, 2002).

While sport can be considered as a promising field in order to inclusion (Bailey 2005, Sherry 2010) of The Deaf in the society (Stewart 1991, Stewart and Ellis 1999) by means of not only education, recreation, but also (e.g.) HEd and employment which identified as major handicaps of The Deaf community in Turkey, this study pushed forward to open dialogs on whether sports fields or Deaf sports itself in Turkey have been fulfilling their promises for the (diverse) members of the deaf community, especially for those whose primary means of communication is TSL. Along with the concerned following studies cited, accordingly this study also revealed several results and consequences with reference to the sports fields regarding deaf people with diverse affiliations and identities including their gender.

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