

LEISURE CONSTRAINTS AND NEGOTIATION STRATEGIES IN TOURISM
RECREATION: A COMPERATIVE RESEARCH WITH DIFFERENT
CULTURES

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ABSTRACT

LEISURE CONSTRAINTS AND NEGOTIATION STRATEGIES IN TOURISM RECREATION: A COMPERATIVE RESEARCH WITH DIFFERENT CULTURES

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The main problem of this study was to describe perceived constraints encountered and negotiation strategies utilized by foreign tourists in a recreational sport setting in different regions of Turkey. Moreover, discreteness in negotiation was examined according to gender, participation, the level and type of perceived constraint encountered. A questionnaire was conducted to a sample of randomly selected foreign tourists in different regions from Turkey. The modification study of Leisure Constraints Questionnaire which was developed by Alexandris and Carroll (1997) perceived constraints, and negotiation studies conducted by Jackson and Rucks (1995) and Hubbard and Mannell (2001) was used as instrument in this study. Feedbacks to perceived constraints items were used to categorize the levels of perceived constraint experienced which were utilized to consider discreteness in negotiation. Analysis Of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted for each category of negotiation to determine if significant discreteness existed in negotiation based on level of perceived constraint, gender, and participation level in recreational activities. The sample of participants mostly reported absence of time and incapability to find

partner to participate as causes of nonparticipating in recreational activities. Data strengthens the view of negotiation as tourists with higher levels of perceived constraint were significantly more likely to utilize financial, time management and changing leisure aspiration negotiation strategies. Furthermore, regular participants of recreational activities were significantly more likely to utilize time management, interpersonal coordination, and physical fitness strategies to participate more than non-participants. More research is necessary to figure out how motivation to participate may affect negotiation and the process and how those providing recreational activity programs can facilitate the negotiation process.

Keywords: Leisure Constraints, Tourism Recreation, Negotiation Strategies

ÖZ

TURİZM REKREASYONUNDA SERBEST ZAMAN ENGELLERİ VE BAŞ ETME STRATEJİLERİ:FARKLI KÜLTÜRLER İLE KARŞILAŞTIRMALI ARAŞTIRMA

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Bu araştırmanın amacı, Türkiye'deki rekreasyonel spor alanlarında yabancı turistler tarafından karşılaşılan serbest zaman engelleri ve kullanılan baş etme stratejilerini belirlemektir. Ek olarak, baş etmedeki farklılıklar; hissedilen ve karşılaşılan engel düzeyine ve türüne, cinsiyete ve katılım düzeyine göre incelendi. Türkiye'nin farklı bölgelerinden rastgele seçilen yabancı turistlerden oluşan bir örneklem ortaya koymak amacıyla bir anket uygulandı. Bu araştırma için kullanılan araç, Alexandris ve Carroll (1997) tarafından geliştirilmiş serbest zaman Engelleri Anketi, Jackson ve Rucks (1995) ve Hubbard and Mannell (2001) tarafından yürütülmüş hissedilen engeller ve baş etme araştırmalarıdır. Baş etme stratejilerindeki farklılıkları incelemek amacıyla kullanılmış, hissedilen ve tecrübe edilen engel düzeylerini sınıflandırmak amacıyla, hissedilen engel öğelerine verilen yanıtlar kullanıldı. Baş etme stratejilerinin her bir sınıfı için; hissedilen engel düzeyine, cinsiyete, ve katılım düzeyine göre baş etmede önemli ölçüde farklılıkların varlığını belirlemek için Varyans Analizi (ANOVA) çalışması yürütüldü. Katılımcıların örnekleminde, rekreasyon faaliyetlerine katılmama nedenleri olarak; en çok beraber katılacak birini

ve zaman bulamama sebepleri bildirilmiştir. Veriler, daha yüksek hissedilen baş etme düzeyine sahip turistlerin finansal, zaman yönetimi ve değişen serbest zaman isteği baş etme stratejilerini kullanma olasılıkları çok daha yüksek olduğu için, baş etme kavramını desteklemektedir. Ek olarak, rekreasyon faaliyetlerinin düzenli katılımcıları; zaman yönetimi, kişilerarası koordinasyon ve fiziksel uygunluk stratejilerini faaliyetlere katılmak için, katılımcı olmayanlara göre daha yüksek olasılıkla kullandıkları görülmüştür. Katılım motivasyonunun serbest zaman engelleriyle baş etmeyi nasıl etkileyebileceğini ve sağlanan rekreasyon faaliyetleri programlarının baş etme sürecini nasıl kolaylaştırabileceğini anlamak için daha fazla araştırma yapılması gerekmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Serbest Zaman Engelleri, Turizm Rekreasyonu, Baş Etme Stratejileri

To

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

PLAGIARISM.	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
ÖZ.....	vi
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	ix
TABLE OF CONTENTS	x
LIST OF TABLES	xiv
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xv
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1. Background of the Study	3
1.2. Statement of the Problem	4
1.3. Purpose of the Study.....	4
1.4. Need for the Study.....	5
1.5. Limitations of the Study	7
1.6. Hypotheses.....	7
1.7. Definition of Terms	9
2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....	11
2.1. Tourism Concept and Basic Qualities	11
2.1.1. Tourism Concept.....	11
2.1.2. Development of Tourism.....	13
2.1.2.1. Development of Tourism in the World	13
2.1.2.2. Development of Tourism in Turkey	16
2.1.3. Importance and Characteristics of Tourism.....	19
2.1.4. Types of Tourism.....	23
2.1.4.1. Tourism by Purpose.....	24
2.1.4.1.1. Sea and Yacht Tourism	24
2.1.4.1.2. Health Tourism.....	24

2.1.4.1.3. Congress Tourism	25
2.1.4.1.4. Cave Tourism.....	25
2.1.4.1.5. Belief Tourism	26
2.1.4.1.6. Sport Tourism	26
2.1.4.2. Tourism by Income Levels.....	26
2.1.4.2.1. Social Tourism	26
2.1.4.2.2. Luxury Tourism	27
2.1.4.3. Types of Tourism According to Where Tourists Come From .	27
2.1.4.4. Types of Tourism by Age of Participants	28
2.1.4.4.1. Youth Tourism	28
2.1.4.4.2. Middle Age Tourism.....	28
2.1.4.4.3. Third Age Tourism.....	28
2.1.4.5. Types of Tourism in terms of Selected Time.....	29
2.2. The Concept of Leisure Time.....	30
2.3. Basic Functions of Leisure Time.....	32
2.3.1. Developmental Function.....	33
2.3.2. Entertainment Function	33
2.3.3. Resting Function.....	33
2.4. Recreation Concept and Basic Characteristics	34
2.4.1. Recreation Concept.....	34
2.4.2. The Features of Recreation.....	36
2.5. Classification of Recreation	38
2.5.1. Recreation According to Space	41
2.5.2. Recreation According to Participation in the Activities.....	42
2.5.3. Recreation According to Their Function.....	43
2.5.4. Recreation by Local Events.....	44
2.6. Relationship between Recreation and Tourism.....	45
2.7. Leisure Constraints	49
2.7.1. Constraint Model Development.....	51
2.7.1.1. Model of Nonparticipation	51
2.7.1.2. Structural Leisure Constraints Model.....	52
2.7.1.3. Intrapersonal Leisure Constraints Model	52
2.7.1.4. Interpersonal Leisure Constraints Model	53

2.7.1.5. Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints	54
2.7.2. Negotiation of Leisure Constraints	56
2.8. Gender Constraints	59
2.9. Leisure Constraints in Physical Recreation Activity	62
3. METHODOLOGY	64
3.1. Sample Selection	65
3.2. Instrumentation	65
3.3. Treatment of Data	67
4. DATA ANALYSIS	71
4.1. Screening of the Data	72
4.2. Demographic Information	73
4.2.1. Age	73
4.2.2. Gender	73
4.2.3. Marital Status	74
4.3. Relationships of Perceived Constraints and Negotiation Strategies	74
4.3.1. Relationships of Perceived Constraints	74
4.3.2. Relationships of Negotiation Strategies	75
4.3.3. Relationships between Perceived Constraints and Negotiation Strategies	77
4.3.4. Perceived Constraints	78
4.3.4.1. Gender and Perceived Constraints	79
4.3.5. Participation and Perceived Constraints	80
4.3.6. Categorization of Perceived Level of Constraint	81
4.3.7. Initial Groupings Based on Perceived Constraint Responses	81
4.3.8. Modified Grouping Strategy Based on Perceived Level of Constraint	82
4.3.9. Negotiation of Perceived Constraints	84
4.4. Descriptive Results of Negotiation Strategies	84
4.4.1. Descriptive Results of Negotiation Strategies by Gender	88
4.4.2. Descriptive Results of Negotiation Strategies and Level of Participation	89
4.5. Hypothesis Testing	90
4.5.1. Time Management Negotiation Strategies	90
4.5.2. Skill Acquisition Negotiation Strategies	95

4.5.3. Interpersonal Coordination Negotiation Strategies	97
4.5.4. Improving Finances Negotiation Strategies	99
4.5.5. Changing Leisure Aspirations Negotiation Strategies.....	101
4.5.6. Physical Fitness Negotiation Strategies.....	103
5. DISCUSSION	106
5.1. Gender and Negotiation.....	107
5.2. Level of Participation and Negotiation.....	107
5.3. Level of Constraint	108
<u>6. CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS</u>	110
6.1. Conclusions	110
6.2. Implications	111
6.3. Recommendations	113
REFERENCES.....	117
APPENDICES.....	128
APPENDIX A: MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL FORM (TURKISH)	128
APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRES	129
APPENDIX C: RESEARCH VOLUNTEER PARTICIPATION FORM	131
APPENDIX D: CURRICULUM VITAE PERSONAL INFORMATION	154
APPENDIX E: TURKISH SUMMARY / TÜRKÇE ÖZET	132
APPENDIX F: TEZ İZİN FORMU/THESIS PERMISSION FORM.....	155

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1. Age of Participants	73
Table 4.2. Gender of Participants	73
Table 4.3. Marital Status of Participants	74
Table 4.4. Correlations Matrix of Perceived Constraint Mean Scores.....	74
Table 4.5. Correlation Matrix of Negotiation Strategy Mean Scores	75
Table 4.6. Correlations Coefficients of Perceived Constraints and Negotiation Strategies	77
Table 4.7. Descriptive Data for Gender and Type of Constraint	79
Table 4.8. Descriptive Data for Participation and Type of Constraint.....	80
Table 4.9. Categories of Perceived Level of Constraint.....	82
Table 4.10. Modified Categories of Perceived Level of Constraint.....	82
Table 4.11. Categories of Perceived Level of Constraint with Gender and Level of Participation.....	83
Table 4.12. Negotiation Strategies Utilized by Participants	84
Table 4.13. Negotiation Strategies Utilized by Respondents	87
Table 4.14. Descriptive Results of Gender and Negotiation Strategies	88
Table 4.15. Descriptive Results for Participation and Negotiation Strategies	89
Table 4.16. Analysis of Variance for Time Management Negotiation Strategies	91
Table 4.17. Analysis of Variance for Skill Acquisition Negotiation Strategies.....	95
Table 4.18. Analysis of Variance for Interpersonal Coordination Negotiation Strategies	97
Table 4.19. Analysis of Variance for Improving Finances Negotiation Strategies....	99
Table 4.20. Analysis of Variance for Changing Leisure Aspiration Negotiation Strategies	102
Table 4.21. Analysis of Variance for Physical Fitness Negotiation Strategies	103

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1. Model of Structural Constraints.....	52
Figure 2.2. Model of Intrapersonal Constraints	53
Figure 2.3. Model of Interpersonal Constraints	54
Figure 2.4. Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints.....	55
Figure 2.5. Modified Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints.....	56
Figure 4.1. Interaction Among Level of Participation and Structural Levels of Constraint	93
Figure 4.2. Interaction Among Level of Participation Structural Levels of Constraint	94

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Contingent upon, one admits to assume that another fundamental objectives of leisure research is to find out people's attitudes in the leisure domain of their lives, and coincide with the observation that constraints research has turn into one of the primary themes in leisure studies over the last 20 years, lately it is reasonable to ask, to what extent has leisure constrains research provided to our tendency to get the main idea of leisure behavior (Jackson & Scott, 1999)

A developing part of leisure constraints research was advanced in 80's and has been gradually built upon into the 21st century. Researches on leisure constraints have increased regularly, representing a coherent body of literature that has evolved and changed with fresh and emerging understandings (Samdahl & Jekubovich, 1997). Leisure constraints have developed into such a famous field inresearch that constraints research is treated to be a different sub-field of leisure studies (Jackson, 1991).

Though, studies on leisure constraints and barriers started in 1960s, the main body of empirical research has appeared in recent years. It has commanded increasing attention in leisure studies during the past decade, in terms of the unity of empirical data and the development of concepts (Ferriss, 1962; Mueller, Gurin, & Wood, 1962), (Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991). Having started out as barriers to recreation participation, leisure constraints research has become much more specialized and keeps on developing a much better understanding of leisure behavior. By the help of it, more and more detailed studies that have attempted to bond a relationship between perceived constraints to leisure participation with motivation (Alexanders, Tsorbatzoudis, & Grouios, 2002).

Nevertheless, there are many studies on examining leisure constraints; there remains very little research adding to an understanding of aspects impeding leisure attendance. Since 80's leisure constraints have been a densely researched subject. However, there is still no new discovered point of view. For 25 years we have worked on the same things and nothing has changed about what we have known related with the topic. Limited progress towards the improvement of a theoretical understanding of leisure constraints has direct to a better understanding of leisure behavior in terms of gender and basic leisure activities, yet considerably further study should be conducted on the field.

Raymore, Godbey, Jackson, and von Eye (1993) favorably checked and admitted the hierarchal leisure constraints model with 12th graders, while Alfadhil (1996) failed in an attempt to test the hierarchal leisure constraints model while examining perceived constraints of recreational activity participants at Michigan State University. "The outcomes suggest that constraints do not always work in the properly defined aspects or categories, and that the hierarchal model of leisure constraints should be examined further in other settings also with other samples. In aside from Alfadhil's findings, other constraints studies that have utilized confirmatory factor analysis have reported five or more dimensions of constraints (McGuire, 1984; Jackson, 1993; Henderson, Stalnaker, & Taylor, 1988). In other words perhaps the researches and the examinations limitations may cause the failure. As a result the constructors themselves may need additional researches, or further examinations of the negotiation bases of leisure constraints link with specific activities is necessary.

There are still many remains to be explored and even more remain to be discovered in leisure constraints research field. Leisure researchers have yet to thoroughly identify leisure constraints for specific leisure activities and leisure constraints for specific populations, and very little has been done to search the leisure constraints in sports. Leisure researchers' necessity of building a solid theoretical foundation on which to base an understanding of leisure constraints related to particular activities and distinguishing population groups is inevitable for this process. Upon defining leisure constraints mutual within a specific activity and setting, more research needs to be done to help leisure service providers understand how individuals negotiate constraints, and

what can planned and done during the preparation process to facilitate the negotiation phase. A better understanding of this process could facilitate an increase in leisure participation.

1.1. Background of the Study

Recreation as a concept has evolved into progressively significant along with the rise of leisure time because of industrialization. It has become a popular industry due to the increase in leisure time that individuals have with the advanced technology in the global world. Today, the use of extreme technology that individuals face in their lives confronts individuals with a variety of disadvantages that arise from loneliness and being in virtual reality. For this reason, people tend to experience social interactions that are high in interpersonal interaction in their free time (Yüncü, 2013). Recreation is an approach that is about the idea of entertainment and spending free time with joy. For this reason, recreation is accompanied by sectors that offer activities as socially accepted entertainment (Sevil, 2013).

Recreational behavior includes leading individuals to activities in which they can enjoy their free time in closed or open areas. Take part in recreational activities will ensure that the hidden energy and creativity of the individual are exposed, and it will avail the need for self-realization in the hierarchy of needs (Argan, 2007). Recreation's importance comes from its supports about education, enhances cultural and economic development, and improves work efficiency, provides the motivation and it is also accepted as being among preventive and protective activities in terms of protection and restoration of body and soul health, the prevention of harmful behaviors and get rid of other negative attitudes for society.

Recreation includes having fun, resting, entertaining and reviving. Based on this description, recreational enterprises are described as businesses that offer activities, which they participate in, to spend their free time, to have joy, relaxation and satisfaction needs (Kozak, 2012). Recreation is the major part in the geography of tourism and recreation, despite being not fully defined. Throughout the century, we have been involved, researchers and philosophers have tried to describe the

recreation via various definitions, yet none has received broad acceptance. However, in practice "recreation" meaning covers a wide variety of specific land use patterns that can be seen and also to a large number of particular group of activities (Özgüç, 2007).

Tourism is one of the most vital components of recreation itself as recreation commonly uses the goods and services provided by the tourism industry as a resource in addition that, it provides the most chosen activities from the industry. In this context, the research intends to evaluate and enhance the essential features of recreational tourism in Turkey in terms of different culture.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

The problem of the study was to determine if differences exist in negotiation strategies based on the level and type of perceived constraint encountered, while examining gender and level of participation. Categorization of each type of constraint (structural, intrapersonal, interpersonal) on three levels (low, moderate, high) enabled mean score comparisons of negotiation strategies at each level of structural, intrapersonal, and interpersonal constraint. Additionally, this study was conducted in a manner which will allow for comparison of participants and non-participants in terms of how they negotiated constraints.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the negotiation strategies of the participants in an attempt to compare levels of perceived constraints based on gender and level of participation, using negotiation strategies studied by Jackson and Rucks (1995). Identifying leisure constraints in recreational activity participation has been examined (Young, Ross, & Barcelona, 2003), but the negotiation strategies of recreational activity participants have not yet been examined.

It is clear that participation in leisure activities cause some benefits and advantages to individuals in health, psychology, social and cultural areas of their lives. However, the studies in Turkish literature are limited to leisure motives. Unfortunately, in Turkey, studies searching the negotiation strategies with constraints to leisure activities are still restricted in number. Thus, the main focus of this study is to examine negotiation strategies of local and tourists come from abroad, in dealing with the constraints on participation in leisure activities. It is assumed that the results of this study will have precious contribution to the literature on this subject.

1.4. Need for the Study

Describing leisure constraints in a variety of leisure settings has been the subject of much research over the past 20 years; on the other hand, the concept of “negotiating” constraints has only been studied in recent years. More deeply and comprehensive understanding of this phenomenon is vital to build upon the psychological perspective of a leisure constraint, and how people negotiate constraints. Jackson, Crawford, and Godbey (1993) explained one’s willingness to negotiate a constraint with their level of motivation towards the activity, but this along with other studies that have investigated the concept of negotiation have left a gap in the literature regarding the non-participant. What types of leisure constraints are those not participating in tourism recreation experiencing, and why are they not “negotiating” the leisure constraints? An identification of perceived leisure constraints and negotiation strategies in tourism recreation for participants and non- participants continues to warrant additional investigation. Identifying leisure constraints that may explain why tourists do not engage in regular physical activity is extremely important (Young, Ross, & Barcelona, 2003). This study examined perceived constraints in tourism recreation while adding a negotiation concept to the instilments and analyses.

Having a deeper understanding of these questions will contribute not only to filling avoid in the leisure constraints literature, but also serves as a valuable source of information to tourism recreation programmers as they attempt to increase participation and offer programs to facilitate the negotiation of leisure constraints.

Moreover, characteristics of those that fail or choose not to negotiate constraints are an important consideration in understanding that non-participation may not be due to programmatic failure, but perhaps the lack of negotiation could be attributed to a particularly high level of perceived constraint. This study explored levels of perceived constraint and sought to determine if lack of negotiation was affected by an individual's level of constraint.

The negotiation proposition of perceived constraints remains a relatively unexplained phenomenon. Few studies have attempted to quantify negotiation strategies, and this study attempted to discover aspects of the negotiation process through quantitative analyses. Discoveries made will further contribute to the body of knowledge in this much needed research area. With the exception of Young, Ross, and Barcelona (2003), Alexandris and Carroll (1997), and Alfadhil (1996), few studies have examined leisure constraints in recreational sports settings.

Though these studies have been successful in describing leisure constraints for the population under investigation, much more research is required to understand constraints of those not participate in recreational sports programs, and how individuals decide to negotiate or not negotiate perceived constraints. Exclusive to this study, data was collected from both participants and non-participants what enable a comparison of negotiation strategies for both participants and non-participants, and both genders. Levels of perceived constraint for tourists were examined in an attempt to determine if negotiation, or lack thereof, was significantly different based on the degree, or level of perceived constraint. This study, while examining both constraints and negotiation strategies, examined differences between these categories developed from data collected and compared mean differences among these categories. This comparison was the first step in a more comprehensive understanding of which negotiation strategies are employed under various conditions, and what may ultimately be contributing to a lack of participation.

1.5. Limitations of the Study

This study was limited by the following factors:

Antalya, Mugla and Istanbul regions are important touristic regions that can supply an evaluation of the factors of recreational tourism in terms of different cultures. The field of this research is that Antalya, Mugla and Istanbul provinces have vast opportunities in terms of tourism activities and they have the opportunity of participate in the recreational activities to be carried out extensively. In this regard, evaluation of the negotiation strategies with leisure constraints at recreation tourism in terms of cultural differences in the research will be limited to Antalya, Mugla and Istanbul.

- Selected subjects completely and accurately respond to the instrument within the time frame of the study.
- The truthfulness and accuracy of the subjects' replies to the constraint items and negotiation strategies.
- The ability of participants to realize and interpret the items comprised the instrument applied in this study.

1.6. Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested:

1. There is no difference in time management negotiation mean scores based on gender.
2. There is no difference in time management negotiation mean scores based on level of participation.
3. There is no difference in time management negotiation mean scores based on category of structural constraint (low, moderate).

4. There is no difference in time management negotiation mean scores based on a combination of variables: gender, level of participation, level of structural constraint.
5. There is no difference in skill acquisition negotiation mean scores based on gender.
6. There is no difference in skill acquisition negotiation mean scores based on level of participation.
7. There is no difference in skill acquisition negotiation mean scores based on category of intrapersonal constraint (low, moderate).
8. There is no difference in skill acquisition negotiation mean scores based on a combination of variables: gender, level of participation, level of intrapersonal constraint
9. There is no difference in interpersonal negotiation mean scores based on gender.
10. There is no difference in interpersonal coordination negotiation mean scores based on level of participation.
11. There is no difference in interpersonal coordination negotiation mean scores based on category of interpersonal constraint (low, moderate).
12. There is no difference in interpersonal negotiation mean scores based on a combination of variables: gender, level of participation, level of interpersonal constraint.
13. There is no difference in improving finances negotiation mean scores based on gender.
14. There is no difference in developing finances negotiation mean scores.
15. There is no difference in improving finances negotiation mean scores based on category of structural constraint (low, moderate).
16. There is no difference in improving finances negotiation mean scores based on a combination of variables: gender, level of participation, level of structural constraint.
17. There is no difference in changing leisure aspiration negotiation mean scores based on gender.
18. There is no difference in changing leisure aspiration negotiation mean scores based on level of participation.
19. There is no difference in changing leisure aspiration negotiation mean scores based on category of intrapersonal constraint (low, moderate).

20. There is no difference in changing leisure aspiration negotiation mean scores based on a combination of variables: gender, level of participation, level of intrapersonal constraint.
21. There is no difference in physical fitness negotiation mean scores based on gender.
22. There is no difference in physical fitness negotiation mean scores based on level of participation.
23. There is no difference in physical fitness negotiation mean scores based on category of structural constraint (low, moderate).
24. There is no difference in physical fitness negotiation mean scores based on a combination of variables: gender, level of participation, level of structural constraint.

1.7. Definition of Terms

The fundamental terminology used in this study was explained as:

Constraint; A factor impeding participation (Jackson, 1993).

Interpersonal constraint; An interpersonal constraint is the relationship between individuals' characteristics or the lack of a friend or partner with whom participate in an activity (Crawford & Godbey, 1987).

Intrapersonal constraint; Intrapersonal constraints involve individual psychological states and attributes which interact with leisure preferences and influence individual selections (Crawford & Godbey, 1987).

Structural constraint; Structural constraints consist of intervening factors that get in the way of participation. Samples of structural constraints are lack of time or money, qualities of the facility (i.e., too crowded, not accessible), or commitments to family, job or another activity (Young, Ross, & Barcelona, 2003).

Negotiation; Cognitive or behavioral strategies used to overcome perceived leisure constraints (Jackson & Rucks, 1995).

Non-participant; In this study, an individual is categorized as a non-participant unless take part in recreational sports participation at least once a week.

Participant; In this study, an individual is categorized as a regular participant if participation in a recreational sports program occurs at least once a week properly.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Tourism Concept and Basic Qualities

In this section, the definition of tourism concept and the basic characteristics of tourism concept are emphasized.

2.1.1. Tourism Concept

Many definitions have been made about tourism. This is because the perspectives of tourism workers are different. The simplest definition of tourism is that it is an activity that occurs as a result of the travels and accommodation that people do to somewhere else on condition that they do not aim at earning money and do not settle permanently (Ünüvar, 2009). In the dictionary, tourism is defined as "a trip made for the purpose of resting, having fun, seeing and getting acquainted, economic, cultural and technical measures taken to attract tourists to a country or region" (TDK, 2016).

The origin of the concept of tourism is the word "Tornus", which expresses the movement of rotation in Latin. The word "touring" in English and "tour" are derived from this word. "Tour" is a circular movement, a visit to some sites and regions, a movement for business and entertainment purposes. The concept of "touring" is used for pleasure-based, educational and cultural travel (Ünlüönen vd., 2007).

The word tourism was first added to the vocabulary of English in the 1800s. It was also widely used in German in the 1830s. It is said that after the work of famous writer Stendhal's *Memoires d'un Touriste* (1838), the word "tourist" became popular. But tourism as an activity is defined in various forms, just like recreation (Özgüç,

2007). The first definition of tourism was made by Guyer-Feuler in 1905, although there were many different explanations and definitions by many researchers and authors for tourism. According to Guyer-Feuler, tourism is an event that is based on increasing air exchange and rest requirements, the desire to recognize the glamorous beauties of nature and art, the belief that nature gives people happiness especially as a result of the development of trade and industry and the perfecting of means of transport and it is a modern age-specific fact that allows nations and communities to approach each other more (Kozak vd. 2015).

The concept of tourism in the modern sense was defined in 1954 in Palermo by Swiss economists Walter Hunziker and Kurt Krapf. According to this definition tourism, it is the whole of the events that arise from the travels and temporary accommodation of the regions provided that the foreigners do not settle permanently and earn income (Holloway, 2012). This definition was later accepted by the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) in 1963 and by the International Association of Scientific Tourism Experts (AEIST) in 1981.

In its simplest sense, it is "to go on a journey to rest and spend a holiday. But travel made for other purposes other than rest and holidaying also led to more complex definitions: the definition "Tourism is relations arising from accommodation and travel that are not connected to the purpose of foreigners' temporary or permanent business and monetization" is one of them (Özgüç, 2007). According to another definition, tourism is defined as a case of traveling abroad for any reason other than staying in a business activity, and spending money in another place during these travels (Tunç ve Saç, 2008).

Tourism is related to the whole of the events and relationships about people's participation in activities such as sightseeing, sight, curiosity, rest, entertainment, sports, religion, education, participation in meetings, health, shopping, temporary trips, accommodation for at least one night during their travels, and the purchase of products that tourism companies produce (Hazar, 2010). Tourism can also be described as the whole relations arising from the interaction between host countries

and societies during the hospitality process of tourists and other visitors, tourism and tourism enterprises (Ünusan ve Sezgin, 2007).

If there is any need to define tourism after the definitions made, it can be considered as a whole socio-economic consumption event and its relations, which are made by non-commercial reasons to a temporary place, temporary travel or accommodation exceeding at least one night or one day. As a matter of fact, people have traveled from the first ages to today for different purposes and gone to discover different places apart from the places they lived. Today, the concept of tourism has begun to be discussed on a different scale due to reasons such as the definite boundaries of working life, increase in holiday opportunities, technological advances in every area of life, and these advances play a decisive role in tourism sector as well. However, all these developments took place in a certain historical process.

2.1.2. Development of Tourism

The most important feature of tourism is to leave the permanent place for a while, to go on a trip and then return. However, although the most important part is travel, tourism does not mean travel exactly. Travel must be based on the reasons leading to the birth of tourism in order to be regarded as tourism. Since it is extremely difficult to distinguish these past travels, some writers have considered them to be tourism, and it is suggested that they later led to the birth of travel for tourism purposes. These journeys, which are made by humans first around their own environment and then further into the periphery by the development of technology to explore and see the world, have a long history (Özgüç, 2007). In this section, the historical development of tourism will be discussed under two headings as in the world and in Turkey.

2.1.2.1. Development of Tourism in the World

It is known that even in the early ages of history, people traveled to their immediate surroundings to obtain food items necessary for their lives, to hunt and to trade with primitive methods. It is known that the tourism event in today's sense was created by

the Romans in the Mediterranean Basin (Bahar ve Kozak, 2005). Travels in the early ages developed with the influence of the curiosity factor and the opportunities provided by the welfare level. In this respect, it should not be surprising that the people who traveled the most in the first ages are the Romans because the most prosperous society of this period was the Romans. This wealth, which the society possessed, led the Romans to travel with wonder and health reasons. On the other hand, the imperial borders spread over three continents and the Romans were forced to establish a perfect road network, with the idea of facilitating travel. They made road maps that pointed the way, stopping places, safe places to spend the night and distances (Öztaş ve Karabulut, 2006).

There was also a decrease in travel as the Roman Empire collapsed and safety was destroyed. Travelers traveled mainly for pilgrimage in the Middle Ages, so they had some degree of security. Visiting a pilgrimage to Canterbury in England, Lourdes in France, Ephesus in Anatolia and Jerusalem, which is known as the Holy Land, became a social feature. This trend also increased the number of places to stay along the routes, especially inns. Being an innkeeper started with sharing some of the parts of the houses with guests (Özgüç, 2007). Travelers who traveled for pilgrimage did not only use the land route, but also the sea route also made rapid progress during this period. In this period, there were great developments from guidance service, accommodation, transportation to other travel details. It can be said that some items belonging to the concept of professional tourism today were laid in this period (Altıntaş, 2011).

The contemporary sense of organizing tour first appeared in Leicester, England. In 1841, he hired train and organized a train trip to take members of the Thomas Cook Temperance (The Green Crescent) Society to a non-alcoholic meeting in Loughbrough. Cook contracted with Midland Railways company, for the first time printed private round-trip tickets and the tickets costed shillin per person, which was the cheapest cost at this time, and 570 people were transported to this city with open-top wagons (Peköz ve Yarcın, 2001). Encouraged by this success, Cook established the first tourism operation and soon opened branches to France, Switzerland, the Netherlands, Austria and Germany. Cook also organized a world tour for the first

time in 1872. During this period, we also developed a coupon (voucher) system for individual travelers (Öztaş ve Karabulut, 2006).

The increase in the level of welfare, the tendency to develop more towards holidays and a larger domestic tourism sector was interrupted first by World War I, economic decadence towards the 1930s and finally World War II (Özgüç, 2007). The most important development in this period was the triggering of the process by Ford in 1914, supporting the trip by producing the first automobile. However, the real recovery came about with the completion of World Wars. While the mobility of travel during the war did not go beyond military mobility, the introduction of airplanes to the travel industry for public transport started a new era (Altıntaş, 2011).

On the other hand, the demand for paid leave, which emerged after World War I, was sloganized by the unions and 1.5 million workers got the right of paid leave as a result of mass marches. The fact that workers were given the right of paid leave is an important step in the development of mass tourism. In 1937 the union called "The Worker's Travel Association", which was established in order to assist them in assessing the paid leave of the workers in the UK, made 24.000 bookings for leisure travel (Akoğlan-Kozak, 2013).

The most important mass transportation means in the tourism and transport movements that started again since 1920 has been still train. The journeys that were cut off due to World War I have resumed on long-haul routes such as dinner wagons, barber, hairdresser, library, game halls and expensive and well-known Oriental Express. The car is advanced and as fast as the train, but it does not discredit the trains (Ahipaşaoğlu ve Arıkan, 2003). After World War I, since the European States began to regroup, they addressed tourism only economically (Kozak vd., 2015). But it was only after World War II that the trip was accelerating again.

Since 1945, with the impact of the desire to disperse the war, the seaside coasts were revived and the brightest days began to emerge, and the mass tourist movement reflected on the railroad passenger transport (Özgüç, 2007). On the other hand, jet journeys that started after 1945 were an important factor in the activation of tourism.

Through the transfer of knowledge to the civilian life during the peace period, which was provided by the developing war technology; especially air transport was rapidly developed and got cheaper. These developments have resulted in 698 million tourists and 477 billion dollars in tourist expenditure by 2000, and caused 25 million tourists participation and \$ 2.1 billion tourist expenditure in the 1950s (Öztaş ve Karabulut, 2006).

Tourism is a sector where competition is increasing internationally and regionally. According to the Tourism 2020 Vision Report prepared by UNWTO, it is predicted that the tourism market will expand rapidly and the number of tourists will reach 1,6 billion and the expenditures will reach 2 trillion dollars in 2020, tourism sector will grow by 4% per annum and it will grow faster than the global economy. It is also reported that the number of tourists in 2020 is only 7% of the number of potential tourists, and that by 2020 Europe will be the largest international tourist area again, sending tourists and receiving tourists (Kurt, 2009). This has a big importance since tourism is one of the most important industries in the world and has a great potential. Parallel to these developments, Turkish tourism has also improved.

2.1.2.2. Development of Tourism in Turkey

Among the examples to be given to tourism movements in Turkey in the first modern sense; a steam vessel named "Swallow" brought for the purpose of sea transport in 1829 can be counted as an example. In the same year, the ships built at the Aynalıkavak shipyard and the start of the Bandırma-Tekirdağ shipments can be considered. Another development related to tourism in this period was the conversion of the church of "St. Irene" to the military museum in 1846. A fair organized under the name of "Sergi-i Umumi-i Osmanî" in Istanbul in 1863 and visits to this fair from within the country and abroad are the most important indicators of the tourism movements in our country (Öztaş ve Karabulut, 2006).

One of the most important developments after the establishment of the Republic was the Turkish Seyyahin Cemiyeti (Turkish Turing Institution) founded by Reşit Saffet Bey. The aim of this institution was to serve as a tourism and promotional institution

in order to introduce historic places in our country, especially Istanbul (Altıntaş, 2011). As a result of the efforts of the institution, Turkey's first tourism prospectuses, first banners, first road maps were printed, first interpreter guidance exams were made and first tourism related examinations were carried out. The first public organization related to tourism in Turkey was also performed in 1934 with the Law No. 2450 on the Organization and Vouchers of the Ministry of Economic Affairs. The "Tourist Information Desk" in the "Turkish Office", which was in charge of broadcasting and promotion activities, was first transformed into a separate branch in 1938 and in 1939, it was named "Tourism Directorate" during the establishment of the Ministry of Trade (Çoruh, 1995).

In 1940, a close relationship between tourism and publicity and announcement was understood, and in 1943 "Tourism Directorate" name was placed in the unit named as Directorate General of Press. Beginning in 1949, tourism-related activities continued to be carried out under the "Tourism Office" affiliated to the General Directorate of Press and Tourism, leading to the determination of a tourism policy in the country, even if it was insufficient. The Law on Encouragement of Tourism Establishments, No. 5647, issued in 1950, is the first legal regulation issued in Turkey to develop tourism. In order to encourage investments in the tourism industry, a second law called "Tourism Encouragement Law No. 6086" was issued in 1953 (Öztaş ve Karabulut, 2006).

Another legal regulation regarding tourism in the period of 1950-60 is to transform the General Directorate of Press and Tourism established in 1949 into a ministry under the name of Press Broadcasting and Tourism Deputy under Law No. 4951 in 1957 (Soyak, 2005). Tourism in Turkey during 1923-1950 was not an important sector, but the development of the tourism sector within a certain policy framework was only possible after 1950. In the first development plan, principles such as making more use of tourism, benefiting from rich natural and historical sources, making the necessary investments and giving priority to promotional activities were adopted. In the second plan period, it was aimed to benefit from economic, social and cultural functions of tourism and to increase tourism income (Başol, 2012).

In Turkey, the tourism sector, especially after 1980, has shown a great improvement and it is seen as a locomotive role in the development of the country. After the economic decisions of January 24, 1980, the import substitution policy in Turkey was abandoned and the industrialization strategy for export was adopted. Thus, in the realization of export-oriented industrialization which is accepted as the basic principle of free market economy in Turkey tourism sector is seen as easy, efficient, effective, and relatively cheap. There is no doubt that with the "Tourism Encouragement Law" numbered 2634 issued in 1982, investment incentives and financial support provided in the sector have a very important place in a rapid rise of tourism in the Turkish economy without any doubt (Hepaktan ve Çınar, 2010).

In the mid-1990s, Turkey, perhaps as a result of its efforts for many years, started to gain an important place in international tourism and became one of the top 20 countries with the highest tourist and tourism income in the World (Özgüç, 2007). In parallel with the developments, as a result of the incentives given between 1983-1991, the number of tourism certified enterprises which was 511 in 1980 increased to 1260 in 1991, and the number of beds increased from 82 thousand to 498 thousand. Between 1990 and 2000, the number of beds increased to 568 thousand (Kandar et al., 2008).

When ranking according to international number of tourists and international tourism income in tourism, although the two rankings are formed separately, the nine most important countries do not change. According to the number of arriving tourists, France is in the lead, Spain is in second place and USA is in third place. Turkey is in the 9th rank (Alper, 2008). The share of tourism within the GNP of Turkey increased from 0.6% in 1980 to 5.5% in 2003; the share of tourism export revenues in the same years increased from 11.2% to 28% while the share of foreign trade deficit increased from 6,5% to 79,2%. Moreover, today, the tourism sector has created an employment for 1 million people, equivalent to 5.5% of the population working in Turkey. With indirect employment, this number is 2.5 million. Today, tourism is the most important foreign exchange source after manufacturing industry in Turkey (Hepaktan and Çınar, 2010).

Today, in addition to the 567,470 bed capacity of active hotels in Turkey, many hotels with a total capacity of 258,287 beds are in the investment stage. Between 1998 and 2008, the compound annual growth rate of bed capacity reached 6.1%. The number of visitors departing from Turkey in 2010 is 33.027.943 in total. However, in 2010, Turkey's tourism revenue totaled 20 billion 806 thousand dollars. According to 2015 data, tourism revenue has been 31 billion 464 million 777 thousand dollars. 81.3% of the income (excluding mobile phone roaming and marina service expenditures) was obtained from foreign visitors, while 18.7% was from foreigners residing abroad (TÜİK, <http://www.tuik.gov.tr>).

Priority has been given to coastal tourism in Turkey. The tourism sector has a high development potential in terms of different branches such as health, thermal-spa, winter sports, mountaineering, congress and fair activities, yachting and golf, while expecting further growth of coastal tourism in future periods. As a result, Turkey's tourism continues to grow and develop. Tourism is an important concept not only for Turkey but for many countries in the world. In this respect, it is necessary to observe the importance of tourism and its basic qualities.

2.1.3. Importance and Characteristics of Tourism

Tourism is a sector that has a great share in the protection of the world peace with the help of the international economic and social communicative and integrative effect which increases the foreign exchange inflow and employment characteristics and contributes to the national economy (Çımat ve Bahar, 2003). In other words, tourism plays an important role not only in creating an important source of foreign exchange but also in bringing new employment opportunities, thus reducing unemployment and balance of payments problems. For this reason, the tourism sector has a position to be accepted as a key sector in the economic development strategy of the countries (Ünüvar, 2008).

From the second half of the 20th century, tourism has become one of the fastest growing and expanding sectors of the world economy. Tourism has often been used as a tool for regional or national development, like many other industries. Today, in

many developed and developing countries, tourism is seen as one of the most important sources of economic growth and development (Hepaktan and Cinar, 2010). Tourism sector and tourism have an important place in the economy. One of the most fundamental issues that attract tourism, especially in terms of developing countries, is that it is a sector providing profit in a short term. Tourism investments are investments that have started to generate income in a very short time compared to investments in other sectors (Aslan, 1998).

Today, under the name of tourism, a number of countries are engaged in a kind of lifestyle trade with their compatriots. If we go into details of this phenomenon a little bit more; The public and private sector organizations in the tourist attracting country offer a life-style to potential tourists living in a foreign country and suggest that they change their lifestyle for a significant period of time (Tekeli, 2001). This situation also promotes the cultural values of the country. Because of these considerations, tourism has various qualities.

It is possible to rank the general characteristics of tourism as follows (Hazar, 2010);

- Tourism concerns people's travels for touristic purposes other than work and money-making. - It is about people's temporary trips for at least 24 hours in the country and abroad, for 6 months in the country at most, and one year abroad at most.
- It requires temporary accommodation for at least one night in the traveled area.
- It deals with free / leisure time activities.
- It is about the fact that tourists demand touristic goods and services to meet their needs during their travels. In this respect, it has an income / foreign exchange earning feature in terms of local places or countries attracting tourists and has economic characteristics.
- It is concerned with the processes affecting the region being traveled in terms of economic, sociological, political, psychological and cultural aspects.
- It has the ability to renew or strengthen tourists' physiological, mental and psychological aspects.
- Today, it has a massive character.

- It requires substructure investments such as road, bridge, water, sewerage and infrastructure investments such as marinas, airports, hotels, holiday villages, and pensions and so on. These investments require high capital because they are based on a triple of land, buildings and equipment. For this reason, state support is compulsory.
- It requires a tourist product (packaged product) consisting of a combination of transportation, accommodation, food and beverage, entertainment and many other services. Any disruption from the circles that make up the tourist product reduces the overall product quality.
- Because of the differences in tourist needs, it makes compulsory combinations of products suitable for tourists' participation purposes.
- It is in close relation with other branches of science such as sociology, psychology, biology, law, geography, business, history, archeology, and economics.
- It is the service industry that usually has abstract characteristics. For example; the transport vehicle to be traveled, the room to be accommodated, the food to be eaten and the drinks to be enjoyed, the quality of the entertainment to be presented is unprecedented to customers. This necessitates effective publicity, advertising and sales efforts. Especially, it features the face to face sales and persuasion methods.
- The touristic product cannot be taken to the customer. On the contrary, it requires tourists to go to the places of consumption. In this respect, it has an invisible export-creating feature for foreigner tourist attracting countries.
- In terms of tourists, it requires the service production to be always available. For example; rooms should always be available for overnight stay even if there is no customer in a hotel
- Since the tourism sector is dependent on other economic sectors (agriculture, industry, etc.), it contributes to the development of other sectors as well.
- Tourists usually pay in advance for the goods and services they request. Some measures should be taken to alleviate doubts, as it will raise several suspicions about what might be return for their pre-payment.
- Touristic consumption is competing with other consumer products as it requires reserving a share from personal income.

- Touristic consumption, in general, is seasonal. For this reason, the tourism season should be extended and better measures should be taken to spread the process to all over the year. For example, coastal tourism in Turkey has an idle capacity apart from the summer season. Therefore, measures to extend the tourist season (festival, congress arrangements and so on.) should be taken.
- The opportunities for preferences in tourist consumption are quite wide. For example; Mountain tourism, thermal tourism, health tourism, sports tourism (rafting tourism, air sport tourism, underwater diving tourism etc.), eco-tourism, adventure tourism, religious tourism etc. - Labor-intensive technology is dominant in tourism, as almost all of the tourist services are carried out by people / labor. With this feature, the tourism industry provides a wide range of employment opportunities.

Parallel to the above tourism characteristics, the basic qualities of the tourism sector have also emerged. The main features of the tourism industry, which has a complex structure, can be listed as follows (Ünlüönen et. al., 2007):

- The tourism sector takes part in the services sector, but also benefits from other sectors due to its characteristics and is intertwined with them. Goods and services sold to domestic and foreign tourists are produced by a large number of branches of activity. Sometimes a part of the production is sold directly to the tourists, while the other part is directed towards the other elements of the final claim or the intermediate consumption.
- The basic raw materials of the tourism sector are the natural, historical and cultural values of the country. That is, the basic raw materials are the natural supply sources of the country, so foreign dependence is less than other sectors. The tourism sector, which has a production that also evaluates free goods, provides a chance to develop based on regional resources.
- In the tourism sector, mechanization and automation opportunities are less than other sectors. Therefore, the need for the labor factor is much greater than for the other sectors. Due to labor intensive production, employment density of the sector is high.

- In the tourism sector, companies operate under conditions of incomplete competition market. Differences in touristic assets in country, region and tourist areas, and seasonal characteristics of tourism creates an environment in which tourist goods and services producers get prices accepted and causes the market to operate under monopolistic competition and oligopoly market conditions.
- The risk in the tourism sector is quite high. Tourism, which is a highly dependent and sensitive sector to the socio-economic development level and political stability of the country and the adverse conditions in the world economic conjuncture, is affected in various measures and adversely from the whole of structural and cyclical disorders in the country.
- The tourism sector is also an expression of social productivity. In the tourism sector, economic productivity as well as social productivity is also mentioned.
- The tourism sector is not one of the sectors that produces and meets the needs of compulsory goods and services. Because touristic consumption is in the non-compulsory (luxury, comfort, leisure time, culture) group.
- The constant change in travel and tourist consumption trends and the necessity to keep pace with these changes make the industry production dynamic.
- In the tourism sector, especially the irrational behavior of consumers is mentioned all the time. The main reasons for this behavior are: traditions, worldview, psycho-social factors, social structure, fashion, snobbism, etc.
- Tourism sector's effect in the country's economy is high. Therefore, affecting foreign exchange supply with little import within a short time, creating high added value and resolving interregional imbalance is important for the country's economy.
- Because tourism sector has a cross-sectional feature and the difficulties in determining the boundaries of the industry, it prevents the creation of a data collection system that can be used in industry analysis.

2.1.4. Types of Tourism

As known, the reasons why people participate in tourism are different. It is very difficult to determine for which reason or purpose a tourist has decided on a trip,

because the aims are different from each other. However, tourism types and classification are made according to various criteria. It seems that some of the tourism types also take place in other classes according to the structure of some (Ünüsân ve Sezgin, 2007).

2.1.4.1. Tourism by Purpose

It is possible to examine tourism according to travel purposes such as sea and yacht tourism, health tourism, congress tourism, cave tourism, faith tourism and sports tourism.

2.1.4.1.1. Sea and Yacht Tourism

As it is in the whole world, the most demanding tourism type in Turkey is sea tourism. Turkey has reached today's quality thanks to the clean sea, unique beaches, long shores, natural and historical beauties required for sea tourism. However, Turkey benefits from sea tourism only in the sea-sand-sun framework. Turkey cannot benefit from the sea cure called Thalassotherapie, which evaluates the possibilities of sea climate, air and water for human health in accordance with medical science. Sea tourism also includes the concepts of cruise and yacht tourism. Cruise tourism is a type of holiday preferred by tourists with high income levels in developed countries (Öztaş and Karabulut, 2006).

2.1.4.1.2. Health Tourism

People start looking for solutions when they complain about their health and feel physically or psychologically unwell. The emergence of both psychological and biological causes is an indication of the relative importance of being healthy (Nordenfelt, 2006). People carry their diseases, if they have any, to the places they go. Sometimes they want to take these diseases with them on their journey and leave them there when returning. People are increasingly seeking to heal and return to their home healthily by visiting the spa halls of the premises or by resting. Health tourism

is shown as a sector that attracts people in these and similar situations. Health tourism is not a new phenomenon, but one of the many years of search for a solution (Connell, 2006). In this context, tourism activities which comfort people, provide a way to deal with stress and naturally result in satisfaction are considered as health tourism (Bennett et al., 2004).

2.1.4.1.3. Congress Tourism

The origin of the congressional word comes from the Latin "Congressus". The word means "gathering, meeting". For the same purpose, words such as conferences, symposiums, seminars, meetings are also used as meaningful equivalents today. As part of the parliament in the United States is called "congress", international conventions are used in the international literature as "convention" (Aymankuy, 2003). The main reason for people to leave their homes is to attend the meeting and to meet with congress city tourism activities. National and international congresses interested people and those who want to follow the congress cause tourism movements in the city (Yıldırım, 1999). In this context, congress tourism may be described as all of the travel, accommodation, and relationships that arise from the need to exchange information on a particular subject in scientific or professional fields apart from places where people are permanently engaged or work (Karasu, 1990).

2.1.4.1.4. Cave Tourism

The underground rock formed as a result of natural processes is called as a cave. Generally, caves containing underground voids or systems of interconnected voids are also defined as cenote according to their functions and structures. Within the scope of the development of tourism types, studies on cave tourism have been increasing in recent years in order to spread tourism movements in Turkey to other regions and other months of the year. The presence of thousands of untouched thousands of caves in Turkey shows that this tourism type will develop further in the future (Kozak, 2012).

2.1.4.1.5. Belief Tourism

One of the most important psychological factors that encourage people to participate in tourism is religious motives. People want to visit places and temples they think they are sacred for their beliefs. Anatolia has a very rich structure in this respect. There are countless artifacts and localities considered sacred for Islam, Judaism and Christianity. Trying to improve these crucial values that have reached today from the past in the framework of belief tourism will help to increase the number of visitors (Öztaş and Karabulut, 2006).

2.1.4.1.6. Sport Tourism

Sport tourism involves travel from home or work in all active and passive participated sports activities, incidental or planned participation, or causal participation with or without business. Almost today a large part of the people is aiming to watch sports and to be there as a participant. But the connection between sport and tourism has been established in a long time. The relationship between these two has become more important nowadays (Alpullu, 2011).

2.1.4.2. Tourism by Income Levels

Types of tourism can be classified as sociologically by social tourism and luxury tourism.

2.1.4.2.1. Social Tourism

Social tourism is defined as a kind of tourism which is born from the fact that the economically weak masses are participated in tourism activities by means of special measures and incentive practices (Kozak, 2012). Social tourism is participation of people with little or no purchasing power in tourism activities with special precautions and measures. In other words, social tourism is the sum of the activities carried out in order for people with little or no purchasing power to benefit from the

tourist activities. Social groups included in the scope of social tourism can be listed as follows: retirees, civil servants, workers, young people, people with physical disabilities, tradesmen and artisans and farmers (Öztaş and Karabulut, 2006).

2.1.4.2.2. Luxury Tourism

It is a form of tourism that is unique to the individuals in the high income group. This type of tourism includes touristic activities of those who have high economic strength and high income and have great respect within the society. Tourism understanding of these people has quite different directions than other income groups of the society (Kozak, 2012). It is a type of tourism that is unique to groups at upper income levels. This type of tourism includes participation of the community members with high economic power and high income in the tourism activities. These people have quite different aspects of tourism understanding compared to other groups of the society. In luxury tourism, individuals prefer rather expensive accommodation facilities, they usually travel with their drivers, servants and guards in transatlantic with all kinds of facilities (Öztaş and Karabulut, 2006).

2.1.4.3. Types of Tourism According to Where Tourists Come From

These types of tourism are divided into domestic tourism and foreign tourism; Domestic tourism is a type of tourism that takes place when people participate in tourism in their own countries. It covers the tourism movements of local tourists. For example, when a Turkish family travels to Antalya from Ankara, which is a permanent residence of them for 5 days for tourist purposes, it is domestic tourism. Foreign tourism is a type of tourism that occurs when people participate in tourism in foreign countries. It is divided into two categories: passive foreign tourism and active foreign tourism (Hazar, 2010).

2.1.4.4. Types of Tourism by Age of Participants

According to the age of participants, types of tourism can be categorized as youth tourism, middle age tourism, and third age tourism.

2.1.4.4.1. Youth Tourism

It is a touristic sightseeing tour which consists of students, teachers of students and education institutions and is generally organized in a mass way. Young people want special, discounted, simple, homey accommodation facilities for themselves to meet other young people. Furthermore, young people are more open to action, adventure and change due to their psychological structures, and their level of participation in touristic events is higher than other ages (Ünlüönen et al., 2007).

2.1.4.4.2. Middle Age Tourism

The tourism activities that 25-60 year-old people in the period of work and production participate in are called "adult or middle age tourism". People in this group generally have families. Since this requires family responsibility, it differs from the other age group tourism types. The type of trip and time of this group is determined by the conditions such as school and working hours of the family members and they can usually participate in tourism activities in summer. It is a distinct feature that they go on a holiday when their wives and children are available and choose transportation means where spouses and their wives and children can travel together comfortably. People in this age group generally prefer to take a vacation for a longer time and with their own cars (Öztaş and Karabulut, 2006).

2.1.4.4.3. Third Age Tourism

In developed countries, with improved health conditions, human life has been prolonged; as a result, the rate of those aged 65 and over has increased in the society. Again due to the developments in health services, the rate of various diseases

decreased in this age group; a more active, dynamic, vibrant elderly population has emerged. As these people have plenty of free time because of their retirement, and have enough income thanks to the rights granted to the retirement, they are a growing customer potential for the tourism sector. Off-seasonal tourism opportunities in particular are attractive for this group due to its low cost (Ünlüönen et al., 2007).

2.1.4.5. Types of Tourism in terms of Selected Time

In terms of selected time, tourism types are divided into two; summer tourism and winter tourism. Summer tourism is the type of tourism that takes place in summer. Activities like swimming, sunbathing, yachting and water sports are included in summer tourism. Winter tourism is a type of tourism which takes place in winter months, and which enables the sport activities (skiing etc.) to be carried out depending on clean mountain air and snowfall (Hazar, 2010). Today, around 100 thousand people in Turkey are interested in winter tourism. In the next 5-10 years, winter tourism dynamism for foreign markets are expected in Turkey in Istanbul, Bursa, Erzurum, Antalya and Kayseri regions. 11 winter tourism centers declared by the Ministry of Tourism are continuing to work on infrastructural practices and environmental connections (Kozak, 2012).

Recreational tourism can also be added as a type of tourism in terms of selected time in recent years. Structurally, recreation and tourism are associated with considerable leisure time. While tourism activities are related to leisure time and working time, recreational activities can only take place during leisure time. For example; even though faith tourism, relative and friend visits are leisure activities, they are not related to recreational activities. Areas where recreation and tourism intersect are situations that tourists and recreation participants meet in terms of time and space. Both in recreation and tourism, natural and human values (historical buildings, cultural values, etc.) are used as a source (Williams, 2003). Recreational areas (sports facilities, amphitheaters, picnic areas, jogging paths, concert venues etc.) and organized events in these areas bring vitality to animation services. Recreation is sometimes an animated product within the standard product package, in other words, it can be a circle of tourist products. For example; events such as watching festivals,

going to important sporting encounters within the scope of the package tour reveal the link between tourism and recreation (Hazar, 2014). The concepts of leisure time and recreation are discussed shorter here because they will be covered more extensively in the next chapter.

2.2. The Concept of Leisure Time

Time has characteristics such as being a basic resource that can not be saved, borrowed or rented, cannot be bought, cannot be duplicated, cannot be stored, used or lost; it is scarce and unique. Usage sections of time which is a non-saving source are "working time", "time devoted to work-related activities", "activities to sustain life" and "leisure time" (Kaya, 2013). Opinions about whether the concept of time is an appropriate concept to define and measure leisure time are frequently found in the literature. It has been mentioned many times by different researchers that leisure time is more than free time that can be used arbitrarily. Defining leisure time as time makes the concept contextless (Özdemir, 2013).

In English, "leisure" is the equivalent of the "free time" word, and in Latin it is derived from the word "licere" which means "to be allowed" or "to be free". However, "loisir", which means "leisure" in French, is derived from the "license" and "liberty" in English for the license and freedom clauses (Torkildsen, 2005). In its simplest sense, leisure time expresses the time frame that an individual can spend freely, as s/he wishes. Free time can be defined as getting rid of the obstacles, having the right to choose, spare time from work or from certain social behaviors that must be done (Gürbüz, 2006).

Nadirova (2000) describes leisure time as an anti-business concept. So working at work is not always a reward for the individual and does not allow the individual to realize his or her potential. On the other hand, leisure time gives the individual the feeling of freedom and control and helps the individual to fill this gap. Parr and Lashua (2004) have defined leisure time as fun and relaxing leisure time activities after analyzing various leisure definitions. According to Zelinski (2004), leisure time is a time zone for people to do what they want far away from the workplace. The

history of perceived leisure time as an independent living space dates back to ancient times.

Edginton et al. (2004) associates leisure time with the feeling of freedom in which individual desires can be realized. According to the definition in Janke et al.'s (2006) study, leisure time is the activity performed for the activity itself or the living internal satisfaction. In general, leisure time is defined as being free from oppression, going from restriction to freedom, freedom of choice, remaining time after work (for the individual), time remaining after compulsory social obligations are fulfilled (Torkildsen, 2005). Langviniene (2012) explains the historically changing definitions of leisure time in a chronological way. These explanations and definitions can be seen in the following table.

The social and cultural life that develops together with industrial life reveals the spaces of autonomous living in itself. The imposition of work as a compulsory, coordinated, normative, organized and ritual structure has caused the non-working field to turn into principles with industrial qualities (Aytaç, 2002). Leisure activities, which have become indispensable to modern societies today, begin to feel their power in every aspect of society, and values such as hard work are gradually becoming less important. In the understanding of "enjoy the life", a new thought structure with hedonist / narcissistic qualities emerges. The "ideal structure" of the modern individual who creates capitalism gives way to hedonist consumer putting forward his desires (Köktaş, 2004).

Leisure time can also be defined as all volunteer-selected activities that provide entertainment and satisfaction to the person (Hood, 1993). Leisure time is beyond existence, free time, what we have to do, our biological needs, our struggles to earn money, and it is a time of common sense and utility that we can use according to our own judgment and choice. Again according to another definition, leisure time is the freedom to do what we want within a time frame that we determine the limits and structure for individual satisfaction (Tekin, 2009).

As can be seen, many researchers have emphasized the universal acceptance of leisure time specifications, out-of-work time and free-running time characteristics (McLean et al., 2012). Free time means a great deal of freedom from the necessity and difficulty of work and liberation. It is also defined as a state of liberty that includes intentions and preferences. Leisure time and recreation are often mixed concepts. While leisure time is often referred to as a time free from liability or a time belonging to a person, recreation shows fun and renewal. There are more basic elements in the concept of leisure time. Pleasure, enjoyment and satisfaction are more understandable within the concept of leisure time. An examination of the concept of leisure time presents a more holistic approach to understanding people's leisure time behavior (Wang, 2008).

2.3. Basic Functions of Leisure Time

Looking at the development process of the concept of leisure time, concepts such as working with the industrial revolution, saving, capital accumulation emerged as new social values and leisure time was seen as extravagance and laziness. In the era of industrial revolution, where great importance was given to work, leisure time fulfilled the resting function of repairing the physical strength of tired individuals and helping to restore balance (Güngörmüş, 2007). It was found that only the rest function was important before the industrial revolution and with the researches made afterwards it was found that there were two other functions (entertainment and development) that were as important as the rest function together (Karaküçük, 2008).

Leisure time is a time period chosen by the individual with his or her own independent will to be free and happy, experiencing interesting experiences, where the individual is rested, enjoyable, rescued from stress and tiredness. In order to better understand the leisure time or non-compulsory free time, it is necessary to deal with terms such as recreation, personal care or work and to make a distinction between them (Kaya, 2013). The American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation states that leisure time is a freely selectable time between alternatives and has three basic functions. These are relaxation, recreation and development (Yüncü, 2013).

2.3.1. Developmental Function

The developmental function involves activities that at the same time are not beneficial, which liberate human thought from the automatism of everyday actions, prepare the ground for wider social participation, tend to develop and show personality (Karaküçük, 2008). The developmental function emerges as a function that has very important contributions to the decision-making periods of the individual. In their leisure activities, individuals can develop behaviors that may have the ability to look at events from different angles in social life or at work. Such activities bring physical and spiritual creative power to people by eliminating their physical and mental tiredness (Coruh, 2013).

2.3.2. Entertainment Function

Entertainment is an intrinsic necessity. People need time to please themselves in their free time (Torkildsen, 2005). The individual who enters the social environment will find some opportunities for psychological relaxation during his leisure time with some entertainment activities. Especially in developed areas with welfare level, entertainment centers are quite a lot. For example, if you look at the hotels, they both find more accommodation opportunities in recreation areas and activate the energies of the individuals by paving the way for individual's enjoyment (Çoruh, 2013).

2.3.3. Resting Function

Rest function according to Karaküçük (2008) is a basic function that characterizes leisure time to the greatest extent and is evaluated throughout the working life, with different perceptions. It seems to be a function that removes bodily injuries such as new post-work stress and fatigue and nervous tension. In the early days of the industrial revolution, when working hours were 12 to 15 hours, workers used the rest function in their leisure time only to recover physical strength. The prize for working is a lot for us. However, it is a fact that continuous work is both physiological and psychological deprivation for the individual. In many studies conducted, it is

emphasized that our productive time depends on total rest time (Scott, 1993). The number of individuals who choose to rest with the help of bodily or mentally challenging tasks during off-hours is too much. The "leisure time / hobbies" that the contemporary world is discovering every day are the most obvious indicators of this situation. When viewed from this point of view, rest function emerges as the most obvious function of our leisure time (Coruh, 2013).

2.4. Recreation Concept and Basic Characteristics

Recreation is a frequently used concept in which many meanings are introduced and a wide range of activities is taken. Many definitions have been made about this concept. In this section, definitions about recreation concept and basic characteristics of recreation concept are emphasized.

2.4.1. Recreation Concept

The concept of recreation has been discussed by researchers and philosophers during the 20th century, but no one has been adopted by the majority. However, in practice 'recreation' includes a wide range of visible land use patterns and also a large number of activity groups. Recreation should not be considered in a narrow sense; it is intertwined with tourism, leisure time or free time, sports, games and culture to some extent. Recreation is ten of thousands of different phenomena where different participants are demanding the use of different sources, providing different saturations at different locations (Somuncu, 2005). The concept of recreation is a concept that can be defined in many different ways.

It comes from the Latin recreation, meaning recreation, renewal, or restructuring (Karaküçük, 2008). Recreation refers to the realization of many leisure time activities, both active and passive, in order to renew the physical and spiritual aspects (O'Sullivan, 2012). Recreation is a multidisciplinary field of study involving willingly and voluntary activities to increase the quality of life of a person, without harming the nature in free and leisure time (Tütüncü, 2012).

Recreation functions as freshening and renewal for individuals and creates opportunities for individuals to solve problems and to have a good time. Recreation is regarded as a mental voice rather than a physical development or structure. It is suggested to be a personal response to an attitude, an approach, and a psychological reaction within the individual's lifestyle (Torkildsen, 2011).

Recreation, which is defined as activities that people take part in in their free time, is a common approach, and it is indicated that the activity should satisfy the individuals in some way (Torkildsen, 2011). People attend in activities outside or inside the house, in open or closed areas, in a passive-active manner in the city or in the countryside with different purposes, such as getting away from the place they are in their spare time, relaxing, changing air, traveling, seeing, being healthy, getting excited, getting different experiences. Recreation is a concept that expresses these activities that people participate in their free time (Hacıoğlu et al., 2003).

Recreation is also defined as activities that are freely chosen and change the social environment, as opposed to the compulsory activities aimed at repairing the physical strength and enriching the mental capacity of the people in their leisure time, as freely s/he wishes and regardless of forced labor activities (Karaküçük, 2008). When defining recreation, various concepts that are accepted as basic criteria are brought together. How and where these concepts are used in a sentence is the priority of the investigator to identify, but the definition will not be different from the others in meaning (Tekin, 2009).

Öztürk (2014) listed the basic concepts used in the process of defining the recreation as follows;

- Selection: The individual determines the event to which s/he will participate.
- Voluntary Participation: The individual voluntarily participates in the activity voluntarily, without coercion.
- Benefit: The individual must have development in any respect (physical, mental, psychological or social); a benefit should be gained.

From the above concepts, it can also be said that the concept of recreation is getting meanings according to the individuals. For this reason, the meanings that individuals put into their recreation or recreation experience also differ. However, the above-mentioned concepts have some sense in explaining the basic features of the recreation concept.

2.4.2. The Features of Recreation

There are difficulties in reaching a common point about the characteristics of the recreation because the diversity of the people can show different perceptions according to the forms of interest, purpose and participation and many other factors. However, it is possible to talk about some basic features of the recreation that can be accepted by many researchers and others. These are the basic features that distinguish recreation from other activities and concepts (Karaküçük, 2008). But when we look at the literature, recreation has many basic features that distinguish it from other activities. It is seen that these features are expressed in different ways by many researchers.

Torkildsen (2005) lists the characteristics of the recreation as follows:

- Recreation is personal and activities should have individual satisfaction.
- Participation in activities is voluntary. Activities that the individual can be satisfied with and freely chooses must be presented.
- It can be involved in physical, social, mental and spiritual activity. For this reason, the programs should be related to the whole of the individual.
- Recreation is refreshing and joyful. Activities should have a certain value and incentive.
- It usually occurs with a game. For this reason, the spirit of the game should be the philosophy of giving a chance to an individual to choose and encouraging the individual.
- All recreative experiences are different from each other and have their own characteristics. For this reason, it should be the goal of satisfying the individual at the highest level on the basis of activities.

In addition to the basic features of the recreation mentioned above, McLean et al. (2012) have listed the basic qualities of the recreation as follows;

- The recreation takes place during the leisure of the individuals,
- Voluntary participation is essential,
- Recreation is generally regarded as an activity (involving physical, mental, social or emotional participation and interest) as opposed to idleness and lacunarity,
- Recreation includes a range of activities such as sports, games, crafts, fine arts, performing arts, music, travel, social services and social activities,
- Recreation is acted upon by internal instincts and desire for personal satisfaction rather than extrinsic motives or awards,
- Despite the fact that recruitment is the main motivation for satisfaction and pleasure search, intellectual, physical or social needs can be the motives that cause recreation participation. In some cases, recreation requires a high level of commitment and discipline, far from being "fun".

Karaküçük (2008) examined the basic characteristics of the recreation in detail while ordering them. For example, he explained that volunteering in both of the above sequences is essential by saying;

The person participates in activities that he / she can do easily, new, or different. That is, the person freely chooses recreational activities himself / herself, without experiencing any difficulty. Participation is voluntary. This free choice of the individual reveals a sensitive situation such as the presentation of a wide range of activities to the person and the right choice of the person from this diversity.

The characteristics of the recreation expressed by Weiskopf (1982, Leitner and Leitner, 2004) are as follows;

- Participation in the recreation is voluntary, not mandatory.
- Some of the main objectives of participation in the recreation are entertainment, personal satisfaction and renewal.

- The recreation should have an activity absolutely.
- Individuals should be encouraged to participate in recreational activities with goals and awards.
- The recreation should be beneficial to the participant in spiritually, physically and socially and should also include entertainment.

Recreation features should be considered in the assessment of activities. These items constitute the basic features that distinguish recreation from other concepts or activities. Sometimes it can be seen that the activity performed with a different concept carries a recreational character. However, when the whole of the basic features of the recreation are examined, it is seen that such activities are not a recreational activity as it is supposed (Öztürk, 2014). The concept of recreation is defined in different forms and is classified in different forms as well as different features.

2.5. Classification of Recreation

The meaning and content of the concept of recreation varies from culture to culture or from individual to individual. Many elements such as social, cultural, economic and environmental conditions are influential in the formation of this difference. Being as wide as the concept and containing different meanings have directed many researchers working in the field to classify the concept by following different methods (Demir, 2003). When the literature is examined, it is seen that the classification of recreational services is subject to different classification by different researchers.

For example, it was created to meet the needs of individuals who want to have a good time and the services of organized enterprises and facilities are described as recreation. Services provided in such units as walking areas, bicycle paths, walking opportunities, playgrounds, billiards, cinemas, swimming pools, picnic areas and sports areas are defined as recreational services (Kozak, 2006). Criteria such as space, purpose and function play a role in the classification of the recreational activities that are offered to the service of the consumers in the recreational areas and

facilities. Some recreational activities are included in more than one classification. For example; recreation in the form of television viewing is included in more than one classification such as "passive recreation", "cultural recreation", "home recreation". Activities such as golf, skiing are included both in "outdoor recreation" and "sport recreation" classification. This is due to the versatile nature of the recreation (Kaya, 2013).

The principle underlying reclassification is usually the aims, desires and pleasures that contribute to the recreational activities of the individual. In addition, different groupings are made according to various criteria. Classification of recreation depends on recreation functions or various criteria. If a person decides to participate in a recreational activity in accordance with what purpose and desire, a recreation type that corresponds to it emerges. If people are perceived to be able to have individual goals and desires for each and, in parallel, a wide range of recreational activities, it will also reveal how difficult it is to group or diversify precisely (Karaküçük, 2008).

Individuals' preferences for recreational activities vary from individual to individual. For example, boat race is an ideal recreational activity for a person, while this activity can be a compulsory job for another person. Likewise, under the same conditions and at similar times, recreational activities do not always provide similar satisfaction for the individual and seem to have no similar effects. Recreational activities, however, are classified in different ways by different authors according to the number of users, the way participants use the activities, the ages of the participants, the functionality of the activities, and the place used (Yüncü, 2013).

Leitner and Leitner (2004: 17) present a list of specific recreational activities associated with each of the recreational activities.

- Simple Entertainment: This category includes sports, cinema, television viewing, and activities that involve participation without involving mental, physical and social demand for participation.

- Mental Activity and Self-awareness: An excellent example of recreational activity in this category is meditation. Other general activities under this heading are reading and writing.
- Sports and Exercise: This category includes activities such as basketball, aerobics, windsurfing and weight lifting.
- Music: This category covers a wide range of music listening and participation activities and composing.
- Art: It includes activities such as oil painting, sculpture, stained glass, as well as participation in artistic activities.
- Dance: It includes audience and participation activities. It includes cultural / aesthetic activities as well as music, art and dance categories.
- Hobbies: The Hobbies category is quite wide. It includes handicrafts such as stamp collection, model building, and wood painting.
- Games: It includes various children's games as well as non-competitive and sincere gaming activities.
- Relaxation: Jacuzzi and massage are the best examples of activities in the relaxation category.
- Social Activity: Participation in family gatherings, parties, and clubs are three social types of recreational activities.
- Human Services: It includes the participation of organizations providing voluntary work and humanitarian services.
- Nature / Outdoor Recreation: This category includes open-air outdoor activities such as hiking and fishing.
- Travel and Tourism: This category can be expressed as perhaps the widest part of the leisure industry. In a sense, this category can cover not only one tour but also twelve other categories.

Another classification for recreational activities was made by Tribe (2011). Tribe has studied recreation simply by grouping them into three:

a. Recreational Activities Made at Home

- Listening to music
- Watching TV or videos

- Listening to radio
 - Reading
 - Doing garden work
 - Playing a game
 - Exercising
 - Hobbies
- b. Recreational Activities Outside the Home
- Participation in sporting events
 - Watching fun activities
 - Hobbies
 - Visiting various areas
 - Drinking or eating something
 - Betting or gambling
- c. Travel and Tourism
- Traveling to anywhere
 - Staying in a place

As you can see, the classification of the recreation is shaped by the functions of the recreation and its various criteria. A suitable recreation type emerges in accordance with what a person decides to participate in as a recreational activity and their purpose and desire. Considering that each person can have individual goals and wishes and, in parallel, there is a wide variety of recreational activities, the difficulty of grouping or diversifying them precisely emerges. In this study, recreational activities are classified according to their location, their participation in the activities, according to their local activities and their functional aspects. The headings in the classification are discussed in detail below.

2.5.1. Recreation According to Space

Desires for recreational activities closely related to social class concerns also brought with them different spatial pursuits and dreams. Therefore, the reorganization and organization of a number of venues, from concert venues to natural parks, from

shopping centres to restaurants according to recreational activities has been the main concern of many architects and designers. For this purpose, the old mansions have been restored, lake edges have been arranged and miniature parks have been designed (Binat ve Şık, 2013). Recreational activities are classified in two groups as closed area recreation and open area recreation according to the place where they are performed. The basic functions of outdoor recreation, which can be defined as a type of recreation that includes all recreational uses in open air with its general dimensions, include forests, mountains and water regions. It meets the physiological and spiritual need of one's freedom in the modern city life to get rid of the spiritual tension in the closed place, to relax and to live their freedom. Indoor activities such as indoor sports, cinema, theatre, meetings and other similar activities, such as listening to radio, watching TV, reading books, visiting friends, resting, constitute closed space recreational activities (Yetiş, 2008).

2.5.2. Recreation According to Participation in the Activities

As already mentioned, recreation is handled in two ways according to the way to participate in the events. These are active recreation and passive recreation (Sevil, 2012);

- Active Recreation: It is a dynamic recreation of recreational activity with the active participation of individuals. The most important example for active recreation is doing sports. Other active recreational activities include playing a musical instrument, singing, taking an active part in theatre and shows, traveling and so on.
- Passive recreation: It is the type of recreation where people do not add anything or make active energy to do it, they watch it instead of participating in it, and they are spectators. They are such activities as watching a tennis match on TV, going to a soccer match in a stadium, watching a theatre performance, etc.

2.5.3. Recreation According to Their Function

Recreation means restful and entertaining activities that people do or participate voluntarily in their free time and they provide individual satisfaction. These activities are valuable functionally for the individual and therefore for the societies. It is seen that these values can be grouped under 6 headings as physical, social, relaxation, educational, psychological and aesthetic (Bammel and Bammel, 1996):

- The Value of recreation from the physical point of view: Today, with the increased opportunities provided by technology, individuals feel the need to move less in their everyday lives. As a result, a variety of discomforts arise, especially heart diseases. Physical activities such as running, walking, playing tennis, swimming, etc. have many benefits for health.
- The Value of recreation from the social point of view: Recreational activities destroy many traditional social barriers, helping individuals to make friends faster and making friendships more sincere. Breaking class distinctions allows individuals to recognize and get to know each other. In addition to all this, it helps to promote more peaceful and secure family relations.
- The Value of recreation in terms of convenience: As it is known, the basis of many diseases is stress. The most successful way to prevent or reduce stress is participation in recreational activities because the individual feels emotions such as relaxation, renewal, change, escape from daily events in these activities, and they can clear their body, their spirit and their mind.
- The Value of recreation in Terms of Education: People have a wide range of interests (art, painting, social sciences, etc.) and they are in desire to learn about these areas of interest. For example, an individual who likes collecting can have more information by reading books, reading magazines, or watching documentaries about this subject. Likewise, a person interested in a branch of sport with any interest may want to learn about players in that sport, or about past and future matches.
- Psychological recreation value: Every individual expects that the recreative activity in which he/she is involved will bring him/her recognition and appreciation. This appreciation can be like any prize, certificate, badge, plaque,

etc. Besides, people want to feel a sense of power or dominance in their recreational activities. Individuals who take orders at home or at work want to be discharged in leisure time activities that give them a sense of fun and success, in the desire to influence other individuals, which is considered quite natural.

- The value of recreation in terms of aesthetics: In today's modern world, the concept of beauty is very important for people. The concept of beauty can be considered as both external beauty and inner peace. Recreational activities provide this opportunity for individuals.

2.5.4. Recreation by Local Events

According to local classification, recreation is divided into two as rural and urban:

- Urban recreation: Urban recreational activities consist mainly of activities that can be easily reached in a short period of leisure time and in people's immediate surroundings. Outdoor or indoor sports facilities, entertainment venues, cinemas, theatres, zoo gardens, museums and many other activities play a role in addressing people's urban recreational needs and offer a wide range of possibilities. Urban recreation practices also have a wide range of commercial potentials. This sector can play a bigger role depending on the sizes, developmental levels and modern urban plans of the cities. Especially in developed, modern cities, recreation and entertainment areas are found in multi-purpose, functional centres developed in a certain place (Karaküçük, 2008).
- Rural Recreation: Rural recreation is based on activities outside of the city centre, mostly in the forest, waterside and mountainous areas, which are suitable for performing functional, scenic, recreational activities. Rural recreational activities can be exemplified as pleasure walks, water sports, camping, fishing, mountaineering, motor sports, cycling, nature studies, archaeology, and caving, underwater activities and picnicking. Individuals participating in recreational activities prefer rural recreation to stay away from city life and to be nested with nature. Rural recreational activities are carried out over a longer period of time than in urban recreational activities (Sevil, 2012).

2.6. Relationship between Recreation and Tourism

Drawing the boundaries of the tourism movement and deciding what is considered tourism and what is not considered tourism is something that scientists have been discussing for a long time. Many of the descriptions of tourism are included in the concepts of recreation and leisure time. In this context, tourism shares strong theoretical features and characteristics with recreation and leisure time concepts (Swarbrooke et al., 2003). Therefore; it is important to evaluate the concepts of recreation and tourism in relation to each other in order to understand these concepts.

Recreation and tourism have a common life relationship. The development of recreation opportunities makes the region more attractive, leading more tourists to come to the region and increase the income of the region. Considering that the public is in the expectation of an economic interest from the development of tourism, there is also a positive and encouraging approach to recreational activities. Research conducted in the rural areas of the US state of Colorado reveals that people differ in their attitudes towards recreation and tourism development. According to this research, it is concluded that the effect of the recreation on the quality of life is more positive than the effects of touristic development. In other words, it can be said that recreational services are more helpful than tourism development in terms of increasing general quality of life (Karaküçük, 2008).

Recreation and tourism are very closely related concepts. Leisure time is a unit of time, and recreation is the activity that takes place within this time unit, and tourism in this sense is clearly a kind of recreational activity. In practice, however, it is more difficult to distinguish between the concepts of recreation and tourism (Boniface and Cooper, 2009). There is no definite distinction or boundary between recreation and tourism. These two industries share the same environment and opportunities, and it makes it difficult to determine the boundaries between concepts that compete with each other spatially and financially. It is much more difficult to make this distinction especially when domestic tourism is concerned (Coskun, 2013). The concepts of recreation and tourism often share the same resources, use the same areas, compete to benefit similar consumers' budgets, and have similar social and psychological

effects on the participants (Williams, 2003). In North America, the term "tourism" is often used not only in place of the term "travel", but also in place of "recreation". In fact, the so-called tourism in Europe often means "outdoor activities" or "recreation" in North America in a number of cases. This point has been explicitly stated in an official statement by the Canadian government expressing that "these words are synonymous" with respect to "tourism" and "outdoor activities" (Özdemir, 2013).

Recreation and tourism have been influenced by the factors that increase demand. These factors can be listed as follows (Coskun, 2013):

- Increased leisure time: Reduced working hours, early retirement, extended leave periods, the right to paid leave, reduced housework with technology, mechanization and automation systems have increased leisure time.
- Increased income: The increase in real wages has led to an increase in disposable income, an increase in sales of recreational goods and services, or tourist holidays and day trips.
- Increased individual mobility: The geographical distance of recreational activities has increased. Domestic tourism has developed with the construction of highways; and with the increase of transportation facilities such as high-speed trains and low cost airlines, participation in international tourism has become widespread.
- The change of expectation: Recreation and tourism have become parts of everyday life, and changes in business life have reduced the weight of work in human life, increased the importance of social behaviours and organized them. The use of time, creating interests and establishing social relationships has become important. Recreation and tourism have become important elements of modern life style.
- Increasing opportunities: Recreation and tourism demand can only occur with the supply of appropriate facilities and services. In cities, new recreation and tourism opportunities have developed with the increase of commercial attractions such as parks, playgrounds, swimming pools, libraries and cinemas, theatres and restaurants. Shopping centres and cultural recreational areas (eg, museums, art galleries) have increased participation in recreational and touristic activities.

- Instinct: Among the reasons for participating in recreation and tourism activities, there are people's need to temporarily escape from work-related events or daily routines and their need to express themselves, acquire new skills and gain new experiences.

Behaviour Patterns and Experience: Experience is a multidimensional concept and is shaped by some activities during participation. Experience is important to explain behaviour patterns. In this way, points where recreation and tourism behaviours intersect or diverge can be revealed.

- Place and Time: Due to the limited accessibility in the past, the recreation was considered to include travels made to places close to the home and to differ from tourism with this aspect. However, nowadays with the ease of travel, the acceleration of the means of transport and the increase of possibilities, more similarities between recreation participants and tourists have emerged. In terms of location and time, recreation and tourism activities often overlap with each other.
- Politics: Politics is a common area between recreation and tourism. Due to its nature, it is renewed by adapting to policy changes. Recreation and tourism have been developed especially thanks to policies in urban and rural areas. The commonality of the policies makes these two industries even closer together.

As a result, the recreational activities, especially in the outdoors, share common grounds in terms of using the space and financial resources at the same time as the tourism events. In this respect tourism is very close to the recreational relationship. However, recreational activities that people consciously make to the cities and rural areas where they live apart from the touristic events, or recreational activities and certain activities that are made in touristic activities with the purposes other than recreation, are different from each other (Karaküçük, 2008).

Leiper (1979) identified seven main criteria separating tourism activities from recreation. These can be listed as follows (Williams, 2003, Coşkun, 2013):

- To return to the permanent living place, and activities related to it are usually in the foreground in tourism. This issue, which concerns transport facilities, affects the duration, cost and frequency of participation in tourist activities. In recreational activities, activity is focused on itself rather than transportation.
- The duration of participation in tourism activities is usually longer. The reason for this is that generally preferred destinations for participating in tourist activities are far from where people normally live.
- The frequency of participation in tourist attractions is less than other recreational activities because cost, time and distance reduce the frequency of participation.
- Tourism offers social opportunities on a wider scale than routine recreational and leisure activities. It gives the opportunity to gain new experiences in a new environment away from home and to establish deeper ties with new people who share the same interests.
- The cost of participating in tourism activities is usually higher because of the distance and the length of the trip.
- The experience obtained in tourism is more personal. People can go out of their standard recreation facilities by organizing their trips according to their own needs so that they can experience the touristic experience they need.
- Tourist trip is perceived as a more special and important activity and therefore remains in memory. Unlike other recreational activities, touristic activities are concentrated during limited periods of the year, which increases the value of tourist activities.

Given the generally accepted definitions of the concepts of recreation and tourism, it is possible to see that the concept of tourism contains a movement of displacement and that in addition to this movement of displacement, an accommodation service is utilized. The most important difference between the two concepts is the fact that there is no need to make a move and a place to stay in the recreation concept. When the concept of tourism is defined, the distance of travel, the length of time spent, and the purpose of travel are emphasized. These characteristics of the tourism concept make the differences between the concepts of recreation and tourism a little more prominent (Çetinkaya, 2014). Discussions on the differences between tourism and recreation should not lead to the conclusion that neither has any connection with each

other. In fact, there is a meaningful overlap. Recreational tourism is the most lavish part of tourism. However, there are also recreation items that cannot be described as recreation in tourism and that are clearly beyond tourism (Özdemir, 2013). Today, the strengthening of economies, the developments in the travel industry and information technology, facilitate the movement of displacement, which is regarded as the building block of tourism. As a result, the boundaries between home, workplace and recreational environment become more blurred, it is difficult to determine which activities are tourism activities and which are not tourism activities. The same developments affect recreational activities, making the boundaries between tourism and recreation concepts, which are already not very clear, even more indeterminate.

2.7. Leisure Constraints

Leisure constraints were originally conceptualized as a mechanism for better understanding barriers to activity participation (Buchanan & Allen, 1985; Jackson & Searle, 1985). The early research studies reflected this rather narrow research paradigm. McGuire (1984) provided a list of constraints to a sample of participants, requesting that they rank the importance of each constraint on a four point Likert Scale, in terms of how those items limited their leisure involvement. He concluded that external resources, time, approval, ability/social, and physical well-being were important factors. In 1986, he later used data from a nationwide survey to examine constraints to participation in outdoor recreation activities across the lifespan.

Searle and Jackson (1985) analyzed data in which subjects were asked various questions related to their leisure participation. Essentially, the subjects were asked if there were activities in which they did not currently participate, and those that responded “yes” to those questions were asked to give reasons for their failure to participate. The subjects were also presented with a list of predetermined reasons and were asked to rank each of these reasons on a scale (ranging from “never a problem” to “often a problem”). Searle and Jackson concluded the perception of barriers to participation and the effects of those barriers were dependent upon the type of activity the subjects desired (and in which they did not participate). Five common

factors emerged: interest, time, money, facilities and opportunities, and skill and abilities. They also reported that women had more barriers to participation including lack of partners, family commitments, lack of information, shyness, lack of transportation, and physical inability.

Henderson, Stalnaker, and Taylor (1988) were able to develop a list of barriers to recreation and yielded similar results to that of Searle and Jackson (1985). This study found that interest, time, money, facilities and opportunities, and skill and abilities were important for women in addition to family concerns, unawareness, decision making, and body image. Previous studies to this point had examined mixed groups of subjects and had typically found that women had more barriers than men. This study, having only looked at women, could not address that specific issue, but did find that the barriers of women were quite similar to the factors identified in previous studies. Henderson et al. showed how antecedent conditions, or constraints, could shape people's perceptions and experiences of intervening constraints—a basic form of interaction (Jackson, Crawford, & Godbey, 1993).

Raymore, Godbey, Crawford, and von Eye (1993) also examined general constraints and how those constraints affected the beginning of a new leisure activity. In this study, subjects were asked to identify their top five leisure activities and to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with a 21-item constraint instrument (related to new leisure activity participation). Measurement of these items was based on the Crawford, Godbey, and Jackson's (1991) hierarchical model, including intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints. Having collected data from a sample of 363 12th graders, the researchers were able to confirm the existence of the three types of constraints and their hierarchical order. In addition, it was found that the hierarchical process, from intrapersonal constraints to interpersonal constraints to structural constraints, was related to other variables such as self-esteem, gender, and socioeconomic background in ways consistent with Crawford et al. (1991). This has been the only empirical study that has successfully confirmed the hierarchical model of leisure constraints.

2.7.1. Constraint Model Development

The challenge in classifying leisure constraints had been that classification can give the description of the phenomenon of interest however, are unable to identify their occurrence (Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991). Jackson and Searle (1985) constructed one of the earlier models in this field of research in which they offered the effects of constraints might be perceived and experienced sequentially rather than concurrently. A matching idea was explained in Godbey's (1985) model of barriers relevant to the use public leisure service.

2.7.1.1. Model of Nonparticipation

Godbey (1985) defined a model of barriers relevant to the use of public leisure services in which a sequence of constraints (knowledge, preference, past experience, etc.) were explained as accounting for the nonuse of such services. This model fundamentally summarized the basic reasons for not utilizing leisure services with awareness of facility/service existence being used as the unit of measure. Attentiveness of facility/service existence was sub-divided into three categories: those who were unaware, those with little information, and those who were aware of the existence. The results emphasized that it was only after an individual was aware of a program or service that an interest (or lack of interest) could affect participation; only then could constraints emerge. Those that knew services existed but prefer not to participate were divided into two sub-categories: based on previous experiences and no previous experiences. Those who were eager to take part in but did not were further divided into those who did not participate for reasons within control of the agency and those who did not participate for reasons not within the control of the agency.

This research led to a better understanding of distinguishing between a lack of interest and being constrained. Another conceptualization offered by Crawford and Godbey (1987) presented the construction of three leisure barrier models: structural barriers, interpersonal barriers and intrapersonal barriers.

2.7.1.2. Structural Leisure Constraints Model

Crawford and Godbey (1987) categorized three types of barriers or what would be later considered constraints. Structural constraints contain such factors as the lack of chances or the cost of activities that result from the external conditions in the environment (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997). These constraints are generally hypothesized as intervening factors between leisure preferences and participation. Samples of structural constraints include family life-cycle stage, family financial resources, season, climate, the scheduling of work time, availability of opportunity (and knowledge of such availability), and reference group approaches concerning the suitability of definite activities (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). For example, a structural constraint could describe a young child not being able to attend a professional sporting event because of his or her family's inability to afford a ticket. An individual who enjoys flying a kite may be constrained if there is little or no wind on a particular day, or an individual with a disability could be constrained if there was no accessibility on a nature trail. Structural constraints demand social action to create situations providing better chances for those who may not have equal access.

Overcoming these constraints does not have much to do with the psychological approach (focusing on the individual), but instead deal with physical type obstacles. See Figure 2.1 for an illustration of this concept.

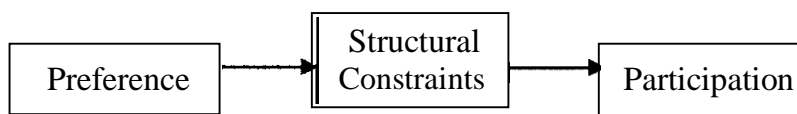


Figure 2.1. Model of Structural Constraints (Crawford & Godbey, 1987)

2.7.1.3. Intrapersonal Leisure Constraints Model

According to Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey (1991), intrapersonal constraints involve psychological states and attributes which interact with leisure preferences rather than intervening between preferences and participation. Intrapersonal constraints refer to those psychological conditions that arise internal to the individual such as

personality factors, attitudes, or more temporary psychological states such as moods. Examples of intrapersonal constraints include stress, anxiety, depression, prior socialization in specific leisure activities, perceived self-skill, and subjective evaluations of the appropriateness and availability of various leisure activities (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). An individual in a depressed state because of debilitating injury may have developed a poor attitude about team sports, and as a result, may have no interest in signing up for an adult softball league. Another individual may have the type of personality which does not enable them to take a long, relaxing vacation because of all of the work that is not being completed during the vacation. Figure 2.2 provides an illustration of how psychological states affect preferences and subsequent participation.

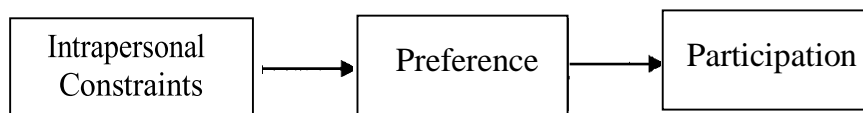


Figure 2.2. Model of Intrapersonal Constraints (Crawford & Godbey, 1987)

2.7.1.4. Interpersonal Leisure Constraints Model

Interpersonal constraints are the results of interpersonal interaction or the relationship between individuals' characteristics (Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991). These constraints come up from the interactions with other people, or the model of interpersonal relations in general. A person who feels he or she lacks a friend with whom he or she shares an interest in a mutual activity may encounter an interpersonal constraint if he or she is unable to locate a partner with whom to participate in a specific leisure activity. As Figure 2.3 illustrates, preferences or other psychological states do not influence the participation of an individual perceiving an interpersonal constraint.

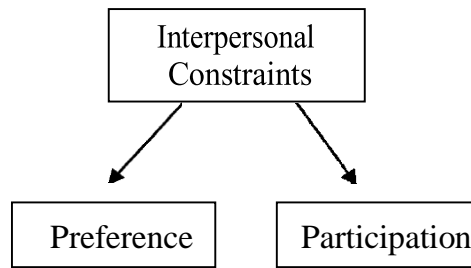


Figure 2.3. Model of Interpersonal Constraints (Crawford & Godbey, 1987)

2.7.1.5. Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints

The connection between intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints has been the focus of some analysis (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997). These models provided insight, but were considered discrete and conceptually disconnected (Jackson & Scott, 1999). Jackson, Crawford, and Godbey (1993) later developed the hierarchical model, integrating each of the formerly advanced models (intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural) into one single hierarchical model, as it was theorized these constraints were encountered hierarchically.

As far as leisure participation and non-participation are concerned, we suggest that constraints are encountered hierarchically, first at the intrapersonal level (Figure 22). Leisure preferences are formed, it is suggested, when intrapersonal constraints of the kind enumerated earlier are absent or their effects have been confronted through some combination of privilege and exercise of the human will. Next, depending on the type of the activity, the individual may encounter constraints at the interpersonal level; this could happen in activities requiring at least one partner or co-participant but would likely be less relevant in the case of solitary leisure activities. It is only when this kind of constraint has been overcome (if appropriate to the activity) that structural constraints begin to be encountered. Participation will result in the absence of, or negotiation through, structural constraints. If structural constraints are appropriately strong, however, the result will be nonparticipation. (Jackson et al.,).

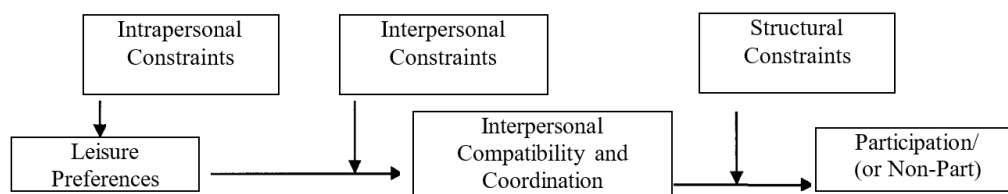


Figure 2.4. Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints

This revised model (Figure 2.4) led a new theory that the ultimate leisure participation depended on the successful confrontation of each level of constraint, each of which was considered to be in order of hierarchical prominence. On the basis of this model, Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey (1991) contended that the individuals most affected by intrapersonal constraints are least likely to encounter higher order constraints (interpersonal and structural), whereas individuals less intensely affected by intrapersonal constraints are more likely to face higher order constraints. The hierarchy of constraints is related to the hierarchy of social privilege, validated in a study examining the relationship between socioeconomic status and constraints to leisure. Research has found that the tendency to report a structural constraint often increases with income and education; therefore there may be a positive correlation between socioeconomic status and experienced level of constraint (Crawford et al., 1991).

Later research brought the phenomenon of leisure motivation into the equality. Crawford and Godbey (1987) suggested that if preference was meaningfully greater than perceived structural constraints, the leisure activity in question may take place despite the presence of the constraint. Moreover, Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey (1991) offered that if structural constraints were strong, the outcome would result in nonparticipation. Jackson, Crawford, and Godbey (1993) introduced the motivation concept, hypothesizing that the outcome of a response to leisure constraints was better defined as a level of participation, as disparate to participation or non-participation. If an individual were to encounter a constraint at any level of the hierarchy, their level of motivation would have a significant influence on how they approached or negotiated the constraint. A high level of motivation to participate in a certain leisure activity would most certainly result in the effort one would put forth in the negotiation of the constraint. Furthermore, the level of motivation most definitely would have an impact on the level of participation. Figure 2.5 provides an illustration

of leisure participation as the product of a balance between constraints and motivations. This “negotiation” model is a part of constraints literature that appeared from these phenomena.

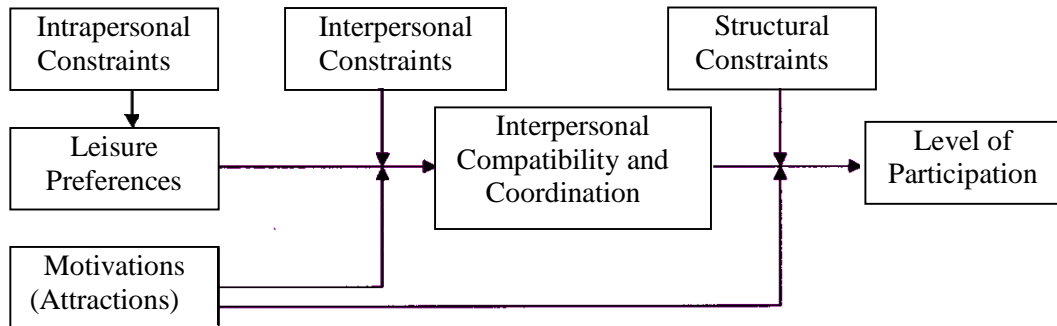


Figure 2.5. Modified Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints

2.7.2. Negotiation of Leisure Constraints

The model of constraints as “negotiable” occurred in the early 1990’s, extending the discussion of constraints and how they may prevent participation, but also how people’s leisure is incorporated into their everyday lives (Henderson & Bialeschki, 1993; Little, 2000; Samdahl & Jekubovich, 1997). Jackson, Crawford, and Godbey’s (1993) hierarchical model was later expanded by the “negotiation” and “balance” propositions, which for the first time explained the concept of motivation in leisure constraint research. Leisure participation is heavily based on the negotiating through an alignment of numerous factors, decided consecutively, that must be overcome to maintain an individual’s motivation through these systematic levels (Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991). Scott (1991) also suggested that leisure constraints are forces within people’s lives that must be magnificently negotiated if leisure participation is to occur.

Nonetheless, the hierarchical model had apparently expanded to include the model of negotiating constraints; few experimental studies had been applied to support this perception until Scott (1991). Scott identified ten types of constraints encountered either by the individual or group and mentioned three strategies that some of the participants had employed to alleviate (or negotiate) them. Those three strategies for negotiating constraints were: (1) acquisition of information about limited

opportunities (2) altered scheduling of games to adjust to reduced group participation and individuals' time commitments, and (3) skill development to permit participation in advanced play.

The second set of indication related to the “negotiation” concept was contributed by Kay and Jackson (1991). In this study, researchers found that 72% of individuals surveyed (N=366) felt there were factors averting them from doing things they wished to do, or doing things as frequently as they wanted to, in their leisure time. Interviewees were shown a list of general constraints and were asked to reply to various questions related to those constraints. They were then asked to rank order the constraints that most affected them and to indicate the two most prevalent constraints in their leisure participation. Sixty percent of those experiencing economical or financial constraints said they reduced their participation, 11% saved their money to participate, 8% tried to find the most economical opportunity, 4% made other economies, and only 117 said that they did not participate at all. With regard to the time constraints, 71% said that they cut down on their leisure in a variety of ways, 27% diminished the time they spent on household tasks, and 27 reduced their work time. The consequences of this study proposed that money and time were the main influences to leisure participation, and most definitely specified the presence of the negotiation concept.

In a study by Jackson, Crawford and Godbey (1993), three key points related to the negotiation proposition occurred from studies by Scott (1991) and Kay and Jackson (1991):

(1) People negotiate constraints in a variety of ways. Depending partially on the problem encountered, strategies involved efforts to enhance the awareness of opportunities, acquisition of skill, adjustments in the timing or frequency of leisure participation (including delayed or reduced participation), or modifications to other aspects of life to accommodate leisure needs, such as a alteration in their attitude towards a definite leisure activity. (2) The effects of constraints are not necessarily—indeed, often are not—non-participation. In Kay and Jackson's (1991) study, for instance , non-participation was the response to constraints among only a small

minority of the sample, whereas the vast majority chose one or the other of the strategies noted earlier. (3) Participation resulting from negotiation is likely to be dissimilar from participation as it might have occurred in the absence of constraints: The scheduling of engagement may be altered, the level of specialization may change, and participation may occur less frequently.

Jackson and Rucks (1995) conducted a study of 412 junior-high and high-school students in which students were asked if they participated despite encountering trouble in doing so. The 23% who specified that they encountered difficulty cited constraints (other commitments, activity inaccessibility, ill health, and lack of partners) as reasons for this difficulty. The strategies the students prefer to overcome these constraints included better time management and the acquisition of necessary skills, but the negotiation strategies varied by type of activity. Negotiation strategies were categorized as cognitive such as accepting inadequacies, or behavioral strategies (time management). Behavioral strategies were far more widespread than cognitive strategies, being adopted by 772 of the respondents who encountered and negotiated a problem. Of that 79%, 42.4% modified their leisure participation in some way, while the remaining 57.6% chose to modify some other part of their lives. Leaving out the leisure/non-leisure distinction, most of the respondents adapted their use of time using strategies such as budgeting or organizing their time, arranging the timing of their leisure participation, or quitting other things.

Samdahl and Jekubovich (1997), interviewed 78 adults (ages ranging from 28-63 years), and identified time management strategies for dealing with leisure constraints. The subjects of this study controlled their daily routines and commitments to assure the opportunities for the activities desired were possible. Since time was considered to be of great importance, many of the subjects nominated alternative leisure activities that were less time consuming to guarantee the opportunity of some leisure participation. Studies of this nature continued to validate the concept of negotiation, as subjects in this study found that making sacrifices, or having alternatives, would tolerate for at least some chances for leisure participation.

Little (2002) conducted research that endorsed the view of constraints as negotiable by examining women who have kept on the experience of the adventure recreation despite facing constraints. Though there were times when the women did not continue with their outdoor adventure, many of the women found satisfaction and adventurous expression through prioritizing their adventure recreation activity to allow for regular participation. “Other negotiation strategies included cooperating by varying the concentration of the pursuit, or substituting an alternative outdoor adventure activity to sustain a continuity of physical involvement”. Some women wielded a powerful and strong-minded influence, taking control and reducing the salience of limitations while other women accepted the influence of the constraint but renegotiated their interpretations and actions. “In effect, they showed that it is possible to flexibly adjust participative style and the construct of adventure in order to act within given restrictions or to move beyond limitations as they negotiate a delicate adventure”.

Hubbard and Mannell (2001) surveyed 168 full-time employees of four recreation related companies, measuring participation in work site activities, constraints on participation, negotiation resources, and encouragement to participate. This study found that while constraints decreased the level of participation in a corporate recreation setting, they also triggered greater use of negotiation resources, which counteracted the negative effects. Results of this study supported several of the constraint negotiation propositions developed by Jackson, Crawford, and Godbey (1993) and a theoretical model that clarified the role of motivation and distinguishes between the negotiatory and facilitator functions of negotiation resources (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001). Besides, these results clarify why constraints have been found to be unconnected to participation.

2.8. Gender Constraints

Constraints research has examined discrepancies in constraints experienced by men and women. Without question, social norms have influenced roles appropriate for men and women throughout history, and regardless of the constant shift of social norms, women may not feel relaxed or pleasant taking part in leisure activities that

have been monopolized by men, and men may not feel comfortable participating in leisure activities dominated by women. Despite drastic changes since the 1940's, social norms continue to influence leisure behavior in present day, causing constraints to participation and great effect on the participation.

In accordance with the thoughts of Bolla, Dawson, and Harrington (1991), literature shows that women's use and enjoyment of free time are effected by gender function in society, and that these roles can be disadvantageous. Bolla et al. (1991) suggested that the nature of the lives of women which involve primary childcare and household responsibilities, and oppressive forces acting from a variety of levels mean that access to free time and activity are individually barrier for women. Stated another way, the literature on women's leisure tends to support the assumption that leisure for women is somehow more constrained than leisure for men (Jackson and Henderson, 1995).

Jackson and Henderson (1995) have examined leisure constraints from a gender perspective. Using secondary data gathered from two province-wide surveys of Alberta, Canada (N=6,348), they found the differences in gender constraints were statistically significant for 10 of the 15 specified leisure constraint items. The specific items that were of significance included: too busy with family, difficult to find others, don't know where to participate, don't know where to learn, lack of transportation, no physical ability, not at ease in social situations, and physically unable to participate. Based on the nature of these constraint items, Jackson and Henderson concluded that women were more constrained in their leisure lives than men.

Harrington (1991) examined objective and subjective constraints on women's enjoyment of leisure. By using data collected from 1,326 Canadian women, Harrington concluded that both objective and subjective aspects of constraints were crucial, and that what we tend to think of as concrete constraints, such as money, often have a subjective component as well. As a survey instrument, money was operationalized objectively by "I don't have enough money" and subjectively by "I should not spend money on myself." Frequently reported objective constraints by the

full-time employed women with children living at home were: time, responsibilities, and fatigue. Childless women who were not employed full-time reported self-image, gender, and skills as the most common constraints for their leisure enjoyment. Though it had been previously reported that constraints for women and men were dissimilar, this study gestated the notion that constraints were different among women in different circumstances.

Wiley, Shaw, and Havitz (2000), conducted a study involving a survey of general sport involvement and specific activity involvement among adult recreational hockey players sport (41 men and 66 women) and figure skaters (36 men and 58 women). It was hypothesized that leisure involvement may be influenced by societal ideologies about gender- appropriateness of activities, as well as the individual interests and preferences. Though the preliminary expectations were not confirmed, the results suggested that the particular sources of personal prominence or the involvement profiles for sport involvement, varied by gender. For example, sport partaking was more central to the lives of male hockey players as compared to female hockey players or male figure skaters. Centrality of a leisure activity is determined by on an individual's social circumstances and on the interest and involvement level of friends.

Wiley, Shaw, and Havitz (2000), also concluded that women had higher activity-attraction scores than men, with women hockey players having the highest attraction scores. Though unpredicted, this finding was consistent with Henderson and Bialeschki (1994), who found female sport environments tend to place more emphasis on enjoyment and fun, and less emphasis on competition and individual achievement. Though women face high levels of constraints to leisure in general (Shaw, 1994), as well as to sports (Henderson & Bialeschki, 1993), it seems likely the ones who continue to participate would be those who are particularly highly motivated. That is, their levels of enjoyment and satisfaction gained from the activity may be high, leading to high attraction scores. This study provided support for the contention that leisure involvement may be effected by societal ideologies about the gender-appropriateness of specific activities, as well as the individual interests and preferences. As a result of this study being limited to committed participants in

hockey or figure skating (hard to make general assumption), the researcher cautioned the extent to which these findings were applicable to other sports must be examined in future empirical research.

2.9. Leisure Constraints in Physical Recreation Activity

As well as gender constraint research, there has been some research on leisure constraints related to physical recreation participation. In a study conducted by Jackson (1983), 59 activities were identified by non-participants who expressed preference for regular participation. A sample of 1,123 was asked to respond to a list of 12 reasons for a lack of participation. The most significant factors for nonparticipating (barriers) in racquetball/handball, tennis, exercise-related activities and team sports had to do with time commitments, crowding, lack of opportunity, and lack of partner (interpersonal).

Shaw (1994) examined the relationship between constraints and participation in physical activities. Shaw's study utilized data from the Canada Fitness Survey (1983), pertaining to 78% of the original sample which indicated preference for more participation in physical activities than their current level of participation. The results indicated an existence in gender differences in both lack of time constraints (because of work and other leisure activities) and lack of energy. These findings were somewhat flawed in that the investigators did not account for non-paid work or other obligations that may have not been understood as constraints to those who were sampled. The results of this study failed to find a predictive ability of constraints with respect to participation in physical activities.

Mannell and Zuzanek (1991) examined constraints on the physically active leisure of elder adults. Applying the Experiential Sampling Method (ESM) and individual interviews to monitor constraints in the lives of 89 retired adults, the results showed there was significant variability in the reasons perceived to be causes of non-participation. The most frequently reported constraint in the context of their daily lives was "being too busy." This finding contradicted a study conducted by Dishman (1988) which concluded that lack of time was an unimportant constraint on

physically active leisure for older adults since they were retired. McGuire (1984) also found that most important leisure constraints for older adults may be time related, despite being retired.

Alexandris and Carroll (1997) examined the constraints experienced by a sample of the Greek population while participating (or not participating) in recreational sports activities. Of those that responded (N=148), a vast majority of the recreational sports activity participants indicated they wished to participate more often in sports activities or start taking part in new activities (79%). Eighty percent of non-participants indicated an interest in starting sports participation. Although both participants and non-participants stated a wide range of constraints, the results indicate that non-participants are overall significantly more constrained than participants. Individuals having low levels of constraints experience are more tend to participate in sports than individuals who experienced higher levels of constraints. These results disproved those of Shaw (1991) and Kay and Jackson (1991), both of which suggested that constraints may not always avert leisure participation. As, in these studies, constraints were found to not have a significant relationship with actual leisure participation.

Young, Ross, and Barcelona (2003) have recently searched leisure constraints in a campus recreational sports setting. This study showed that the factors contributing to perceived constraints were a lack of time and a lack of information about of the recreational sports program variety. The authors implied that the perception of a lack of time was the result of the preference of a recreational sports program variety. Furthermore, respondents in this study signified a lack of information about the campus recreational sports program as components that contributed to non-participation.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Preeminently in this study the difficulty was to inquire the leisure constraints and negotiation approaches of tourists from abroad by means of analysis of both participants and non-participants in tourism recreation activities, their experienced perceived as constraints and also whether they discussed the constraints or not and which approaches were used. In fact, this study examined the following:

1. To define whether participants' average scores for negotiation responses dependably are founded on theory (intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural) for both participants and non- participants.
2. To classify the category of the constraint practiced by the participant and non-participant (intrapersonal, interpersonal or structural) for the goals of classifying constraints (low, moderate, high) for more complex examination than formerly inquired.
3. To examine the negotiation approach used founded on level of involvement, the character of the leisure constraint, and gender.
4. To guide average assessments on suggested level constraints- -low structural, moderate structural, high structural; low intrapersonal, moderate intrapersonal, high intrapersonal/ low interpersonal, moderate interpersonal and high interpersonal studying the variables seen in the following; level of participation and gender.
5. To examine the negotiation approaches for the participants/non-participants.

3.1. Sample Selection

So as to get the answer of the above-mentioned problems a randomly sample was acquired from the foreign tourist populace in various cities in Turkey. A simple random sample was carried out and included 562 foreign tourists participated in leisure activities.

3.2. Instrumentation

In this study an alteration of the instrument which was used by Young, Ross and Barcelona (2003), Alexandris and Carroll (1997), Jackson and Rucks (1995) and Hubbard and Mannell (2001) was applied. Modification of the instrument which was utilized by Young et. al. (2003) searched for the identification of perceived constraints to participate in recreational sports and reactions were developed to classify the level of perceived constraint (low, moderate and high). The purpose of this study was not to explain perceived constraints in recreational sports/ The aim of this study was not to identify perceived constraints in recreational sports, having subjects identify perceived constraints was necessary to categorize level of constraint and determine if mean differences existed in negotiation strategy based on level of constraint, level of participation, and gender. Hubbard and Mannell's negotiation instrument of which totally Cronbach's Alpha reliability was 0.74 was improved to use in a corporate recreation setting. This mentioned instrument was used nonetheless changed to use in a recreational sports setting which added some points connected to physical fitness. These were utilized by Jackson and Rucks (1995). These combined instruments were made up of three sections. Section A instrument has demanded samples to answer questions about the level of participation in demographic information and recreational sports. (A) Education level; (B)Income; (C) gender; (D) age; (E) marital status and (F) level of participation were the data gathered in Section A.

Section B demanded all subjects to answer to questions connected to perceived constraints in recreational activities which were practicing the five-point Likert scale

as in the following: 1. Strongly Disagree; 2. Disagree; 3. Neutral, 4. Agree and 5. Strongly Agree.

These objects were made up of consisted of questions relevant to the structural, intrapersonal, and interpersonal leisure constraints. This data was gathered from both regularly and unregularly recreational sports participants. Particular items and the kind of the constraint with which these subjects were linked are itemized below:

This study gathered data relating to the perceived constraints of those who did not presently participate; a distinctive feature of this study. This study gathered data relating to the perceived constraints of those who did not presently participate; a distinctive feature of this study. Answers to these objects functioned as resources for classifying level of constraint for negotiation studies with level of participation and gender.

Section C demanded items to give an answer to requests associated with negotiating approaches in recreational sports by applying five-point Likert scale as seen below: These items contained problems connected to negotiation approaches used which allowed partaking in recreational activities and were centered on the negotiation approaches defined by Jackson and Rucks (1995). These approaches contained within (a) modification of time, (b) acquisition of skills, (c) interpersonal coordination, (d) improve finances, (e) physical therapy, and (I) change leisure aspirations. Particular negotiation objects on the instrument and the negotiation approach with which the items are related are itemized in Table 3.2.

While directing the examination for this study, six negotiation approaches were linked with one of the three types of constraints -structural, intrapersonal, or interpersonal-, which were accordant to the previous negotiation examination of Jackson and Rucks (1995) and Hubbard and Mannell (2001). The negotiation approaches were related with the type of constraint in the following means in this study: 1. Modification of time (structural constraints), 2. Acquisition of skills (intrapersonal constraints), 3. Changing interpersonal relations (interpersonal constraints), 4. Improve finances (structural constraints), 5. Physical fitness

(structural constraints) and 6. Changing leisure aspirations (intrapersonal constraints).

The average total of negotiation items connected to for each type of constraint was figured to define if substantial modifications happened within every kind of negotiation approach centered on the perceived level of constraint, level of participation and gender.

3.3. Treatment of Data

By utilizing the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 22.0) data were evaluated. Cronbach's Alpha reliability analysis brought about a general coefficient of .87 for the perceived constraint and the negotiation items. Data were examined descriptively, and the regularities, processes of main propensity and measures of changeability for each of the four instrument sections were defined. Section A and B, included of demographic info and involvement frequencies and inclinations were scrutinized descriptively and applied for additional examinations together with the perceived constraints and negotiation approaches.

Succeeding the descriptive analysis, correlation analysis was used to define the character of the connection between the corresponding negotiation approaches with the constraint items. For instance, a mean was figured for structural constraint items and connected with the mean of the time management approaches; from the time when previous research has indicated that time management is linked to structural constraints.

These means were later analyzed for defining whether there were noteworthy changes among average scores of negotiation approaches centered on the level of constraint, level of participation and gender, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to liken means. Relying on how subjects gave answers to problems regarding perceived constraints, they were classified like one or more of the given information below, since it was presumed that individuals could have recreational activities constraints of more than one type of each:

1. Low structural constraint
2. Moderate structural constraint
3. High structural constraint
4. Low interpersonal constraint
5. Moderate interpersonal constraint
6. High interpersonal constraint
7. Low intrapersonal constraint
8. Moderate interpersonal constraint
9. High intrapersonal constraint.

Mission for those aforementioned classifications was relied upon the grade to which people received each type of constraint related to recreational activities involvement. Means were figured conducting respondent scores for every type of constraint items and concluded in the assignment to one or more of the nine classifications. Upon figuring the mean score for items regarding each type of the constraint, people were positioned into the group centered on the scale seen as the following:

- | | |
|----------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Mean score of 1.00-2.49 | Low perceived constraint |
| 2. Mean score of 2.5-3.49 | Moderate level of constraint |
| 3. Mean score of 3.5-5.00 | High level of constraint |

To monitor the tendency of those who gave responses to utilize the neutral option to evade deciding on a true option, the soberly constrained group has a less significant numeral range. Individuals being either unfamiliar about or indifferent in the matter might well get neutral approaches on the subject, and incline to respond in the central of the scale that does not actually epitomize their attitude (Worthen, White, Fan, & Sudweeks, 1999).

For the duration of the initial stage of this study, gender was analyzed and the nine founded groups extended to 18 to more classify the level of constraint experiences for males and females. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to study the level of constraint experienced centered upon gender with the mean score of the negotiation item responses relevant to that kind of constraint. For instance, structural constraints

got six categories such as male low constraint, female low constraint, male moderate constraint, female moderate constraint, male high constraint and female high constraint. ANOVA was carried out to scrutinize the structural constraint levels with the average scores on the negotiation items regarding structural constraints. The same analysis was used on the six levels of interpersonal constraints and the six levels of intrapersonal constraints with the negotiation approaches relevant to those types of constraints.

The second stage of the study was to make comparison the differences between those who participate and not participate. Similar to the analysis made with gender, 18 categories were formed as nine levels of constraints sub-classified with participation or non-participation. And so, structural constraints had six levels as low level participant, low level non-participant, moderate level participant, moderate level non-participant, high level participant and high level non-participant. ANOVA was applied to scrutinize the mean scores of the six levels of constraints and level of participation with mean scores of negotiation approaches regarding structural constraints. The alike analysis was made on the six levels of interpersonal constraints and the six levels of intrapersonal constraints with the negotiation approaches regarding such types of constraints.

All in all, ANOVA tests were carried out as one per negotiation approach in a challenge to make comparison the character of perceived constraint with the negotiation approach employed. Grouping approaches were adapted in the study to comprise two levels of perceived constraint which were low and moderate ones. Tests were carried out centered upon seven negotiation approaches applied by Jackson and Rucks (1995). These strategies contain (a) modification of time; (b) acquisition of skills; (c) change interpersonal relations; (d) improve finances; (e) physical fitness and (f) change leisure aspirations. The purpose of these studies was to make comparison on the type of constraint experienced at any level which was given with the negotiation approach characteristic of a male, female, participant, or non-participant. The outcome tried to discover the summary of the contributor at any level of constraint founded as a stage of this study, and how they negotiated the constraints centered upon gender and level of contribution if a regular participation

or non- participant. The final outcome was intended at a profounder opinion on how a person receives a constraint at one or additional levels was discussing the constraint centered on gender and if or not a person thought themselves to be an orderly participant in recreational activities. This assessment of negotiation approaches makes contributions to past empirical study that could prove the actuality of the negotiation manner. Furthermore, the constraints of non-participants endured analysis to form on an opinion of why people may not join and what could be completed through the recreational sports program provider to enable participation.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

The aim of this study was to analyze the leisure constraints and negotiation approaches of tourists from outside Turkey, received constraints experienced, and how they negotiate leisure constraints and which approaches are engaged. More precisely, this study searched to:

1. Classify the kind of constraint experienced through the participant and non-participant -intrapersonal, interpersonal or structural- for the aim of classifying the level of perceived constraints as low, moderate, and high.
2. Make comparison on the negotiation approach conducted under several circumstances based on level of those who participate, perceived level of the leisure constraint, and gender to define on the condition that differences were in negotiation.
3. Decide whether respondents' mean scores for negotiation responses reliably disconnected based on theory- intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural - for both those who participate and not participate.
4. Make comparison on negotiation approaches for participants and non-participants.
5. Carried out the analysis on the levels of low structural, moderate structural, high structural; low intrapersonal, moderate intrapersonal, high intrapersonal; low interpersonal, moderate interpersonal and high interpersonal constraints observing the changeable as seen in the following: gender and level of participation.

In this chapter data were noticed according to the following information:

1. A study of the model selection and reaction rate for the analysis.
2. An explanation of the features of those who participate in recreational sports

- activities, involving the types of activities, regularity of participation, length of involvement session, satisfaction level of participation, and ambitions for a variation in participation features and forms.
3. A depiction of the perceived constraint items, containing the groups centered on gender category and level of participation.
 4. Correlation analysis to define the strong point and route of connection among the structural regarding constraints and negotiation approaches, intrapersonal regarding constraints and negotiation approaches, and interpersonal regarding constraints and negotiation approaches.
 5. A depiction of the negotiation approaches conducted centered on gender category, level of involvement, and perceived level of constraint.
 6. Six separate Analysis of Variance tests- one per negotiation strategy- to make comparison on average alterations in negotiation centered upon gender category, level of participation, and perceived level of constraint.
 7. Keep on analysis to ANOVA sum-ups centered upon substantial collaboration effects among independent variables.

4.1. Screening of the Data

The survey information sheet was sent to 682 individuals but a number of them did not give response to any of the items or they were unsuccessfully completed a significant part. More precisely, of the 592 that gained contact with the survey, eight individuals answered none of the questions. The rest 584, 21 did not answer to items further than Section A -demographics. As the key tenacity of this study was to scrutinize perceived level of constraint and subsequent negotiation approaches, those who gave responses were disregarded prior to data analysis, causing a complete sample of 563 respondents who had gave answers through Section B of the survey, however not the negotiation items. The last section- Section C- of the survey related to negotiation approaches was accomplished by a complete of 562 tourists.

4.2. Demographic Information

Demographic data gathered in Section A of the survey. Whole of these sources of data have been studied in constraints literature as factors which may add to constrained leisure behavior. This analysis was intended at defining how these demographic variables had an effect on constraints and negotiation approaches in recreational activity scenery. In this study data was précised in distinct sections to describe the demographic summaries of the participants.

4.2.1. Age

Table 4.1 illustrates a breakdown of the participants based on age and shows summarized percentage.

Table 4.1. Age of Participants

Age	Frequency	Percent
18-30	260	44.9
31-45	206	37.8
Over 45	96	17.9

4.2.2. Gender

The other aim of this study was to define whether variances were in negotiation centered on gender category. Females consisted of 59.3% of the example, on the contrary to that males were only 40.7%. Table 4.2 shows a breakdown of the gender category distribution here.

Table 4.2. Gender of Participants

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	227	40.7
Female	335	59.3
Total	562	100.0

4.2.3. Marital Status

Those who gave responses were requested to answer to a point regarding their matrimonial status. As seen in the sample, 90.1% of them were single, 9.6% of them had never got married and 1.3% were either separated or divorced. The remaining 88.8% showed that they were presently married. Table 4.3 precises answers to the marital status item.

Table 4.3. Marital Status of Participants

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent
Single	55	9.6
Married	503	88.8
Separated	1	1.3
Divorced	3	1.0
Total	562	100.0

4.3. Relationships of Perceived Constraints and Negotiation Strategies

So as to carry out mean comparison analysis, each negotiation approach was related with a kind of constraint -structural, intrapersonal, and interpersonal. Even with former research which has examined on the concept, for instance, time management plans are connected to structural constraints, this study observed the character of these relations as a manner to support the theoretical structure on which this study was constructed. Three sets of Pearson product moment correlation coefficient analyses were used to define the strong point and way of connection among the (a) mean scores of the types of perceived constraints, (b) the mean scores of negotiation approaches, and (c) the mean scores of the constraints and negotiation approaches to exam the point of relationship among the classifications of constraint and negotiation approaches.

4.3.1. Relationships of Perceived Constraints

In this study correlation matrix intended for the types of constraints observed indicated strong inter-relationships among the types of constraints. Intrapersonal

constraints were intensely related with interpersonal constraint results ($r = .58, p < .001$), and this signified that a person who may be controlled for causes which result from in the interior, might be constrained interpersonally as well. In addition, structural constraint mean scores were intensely linked with average scores of intrapersonal constraints ($r = .44, p < .001$) and interpersonal constraints ($r = .46, p < .001$). As a person can be controlled in more than one way assumed dissimilar environments, it is not astonishing that a person receiving a structural constraint may practice an interpersonal constraint too, for instance the incapability to have a companion with whom to take part. Substantial relationships among all mean constraints score groupings proposed that those who gave response gained experience a combination of the constraints observed in this part of the instrument, and that with a rise of constraint in one group, there was a noteworthy rise in another. A summation of the relationship coefficients among structural, intrapersonal, and interpersonal constraints can be seen in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4. Correlations Matrix of Perceived Constraint Mean Scores

Type of Constraint	Structural Mean	Intrapersonal Mean	Interpersonal Mean
	Tourists (N=562)		
Structural Mean		.44**	.46**
Intrapersonal Mean	.44**		.58**
Interpersonal Mean	.46**	.58**	

Note. ** $p < .001$

4.3.2. Relationships of Negotiation Strategies

Known the inter-correlations of perceived constraints, correlation coefficients were figured to define the strong point and way of the relations among the negotiation approaches. Many of negotiation approach mean scores in this study were propounded to obtain very strong progressive relations, containing time management approaches with skill acquisition approaches ($r = .57, p < .001$), physical fitness approaches ($r = .54, p < .001$), interpersonal approaches, ($r = .44, p < .001$), and financial approaches, ($r = .36, p < .001$). Time management approaches were not suggestively connected with approaches correlated to varying leisure aspirations ($r = .07, p = .161$). Outcomes put forward that resembling to that of perceived constraints,

a person might also use a diversity of approaches to negotiate constraints met. Not surprisingly, a person who may come across a mixture of constraints may see this as essential to use a diversity or combination of approaches so as to negotiate the constraints. These noteworthy correlations propose it is improbable that only one approach would be used to negotiation leisure constraints.

Skill acquisition approaches had important correlations with other negotiation approaches, comprising physical fitness ($r = .56, p < .001$), interpersonal coordination ($r = .42, p < .001$), and improving finances ($r = .39, p < .001$). Resembling to time management approaches, skill acquisition approaches were not connected to approaches including varying leisure aspirations ($r = -.22, p < .001$). Added noteworthy relationships contained within physical fitness approaches with interpersonal coordination ($r = .55, p < .001$) and improving finances ($r = .40, p < .001$), interpersonal coordination approaches with improving finances ($r = .52, p < .001$), and improving finances with changing leisure aspirations ($r = .32, p < .001$). It was not astounding to see that changing leisure aspiration approaches were only interrelated with another approach improving finances because of the cognitive character of the approach. Changing leisure aspiration approaches principally consist of the variety of new activities with features more compatible with individual attitudes and inclinations. Because of being conceptually different than the other approach classes, one would suppose these approaches to not being connected to the others. A summation of correlation coefficients among negotiation approaches can be seen in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5. Correlation Matrix of Negotiation Strategy Mean Scores

Negotiation Strategy	TM	SA	PF	IC	IF	CLA
Participant(N=562)						
Time Management (TM)		.57**	.54**	.44**	.36**	.07
Skill Acquisition (SA)	.57**		.56**	.42**	.39**	-.13
Physical Fitness (PF)	.54**	.56**		.45**	.47**	.11
Interpersonal Coordination (IC)	.44**	.42**	.45**		.52**	.05
Improving Finances (IF)	.36**	.39**	.47**	.52**		.32*
Changing Leisure (CLA) Aspirations	.07	-.22	.11	.05	.32**	

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .001$

4.3.3. Relationships between Perceived Constraints and Negotiation Strategies

The outcomes of this study propose that strong relations among perceived constraints existed and there were also negotiation approaches. Known the structure of this study, it was also important to study the strong point and way of the connection of the perceived constraints with the negotiation approaches. Nonetheless it was predicted the structural constraint mean scores would be connected with financial negotiation approaches ($r = .31, p < .001$), they were also correlated with changing leisure aspirations ($r = .36, p < .001$) and interpersonal coordination $r = -.18, p = .001$). These outcomes propose that providing a person is constrained structurally, this person may use negotiation approaches that contain growth of finances and changing leisure aspirations. Furthermore, the negative connection concerning structural constraints and interpersonal approaches was not astounding, as the more fundamentally constrained a person may be, the less likely this person is to use interpersonal coordination approaches. It would not be estimated that a person constrained structurally would use interpersonal coordination approaches, and this negative connection proposes that the more structurally constrained a person may be, the less likely this person would see it is an essential to employ approaches regarding to have a partner with whom to participate.

Changing leisure aspiration approaches ($r = .34, p < .001$) were clearly connected with intrapersonal constraints nevertheless not positively connected with skill acquisition approaches ($r = -.18, p < .001$). Changing leisure aspiration approaches, theoretically, should be linked to intrapersonal constraints, and a substantial positive relationship give support the model that altering one's leisure aspirations are approaches engaged to negotiate constraints that result from within a person. It is remarkable that an individual who receives a high level of intrapersonal constraint may be suggestively less likely to use skill acquisition approaches as a consequence of a negative correlation. Outwardly, discussing a lack of skill would include approaches intended for improvement. The negative relationship submits that the more intra-personally constrained a person may be, the less likely this person would apply skill acquisition approaches. This proposes that a person who is enormously

self-conscious about their capability may not conduct skill acquisition approaches. Intrapersonal constraint mean scores were not meaningfully connected to any negotiation approaches else.

Changing leisure aspiration approaches ($r = .42, p < .001$) and improving finances ($r = .23, p < .05$) get noteworthy relations with interpersonal constraint mean scores. Even though changing leisure aspirations approaches are intensely connected with all sorts of constraints, it is slightly uncertain to the correlation amongst interpersonal constraint mean scores and approaches connected to improving finances. Conceivably the more interpersonally constrained a person is, the more probable this person would be to changing leisure choices thus this person would have a partner with whom to participate. Consequences propose that the more interpersonally constrained a person is, the better the probability of using enhancement of finance approaches. This designates that an individual without a friend with whom to join may require finding other people with a similar financial background. Feasibly the activity or set is costly, and the participator is familiar with no one within a higher salary range. Correlation coefficients concerning perceived constraints and negotiation approaches are informed in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6. Correlations Coefficients of Perceived Constraints and Negotiation Strategies

Negotiation Strategy Mean	Structural	Intrapersonal Mean	Interpersonal Mean
Tourists (N=562)			
Time Management	.09	-.09	-.01
Skill Acquisition	.00	-.10**	-.07
Physical Fitness	-.03	-.11	.00
Interpersonal Coordination	-.18**	-.03	.05
Improving Finances	.31***	.02	.23*
Changing Leisure Aspirations	.36***	.34***	.42***

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

4.3.4. Perceived Constraints

With the intention of studying perceived constraints and negotiation approaches aimed at recreational activities regular participants/non- participants, data were gathered. Section C items of the instrument were intended at defining the structure of

perceived constraints for all participants, in spite of their level of involvement. Participants were questioned to designate their level of arrangement with reports concerning structural, intrapersonal, and interpersonal constraints on a 5 point Likert scale 1 strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree.

4.3.4.1. Gender and Perceived Constraints

To define whether there was a variety in negotiation centered on gender category or not was one of the goals of this study. Proceeding to observing negotiation approaches among men and women, mean scores of perceived constraints were included for fe/males who gave answer to the survey. Five hundred and sixty-two participators answered and finished this part of the survey, 227 of them were male, and 335 were female. On objects concerning structural constraints, women who gave answers had an average score of 2.54 (SD=0.47) when compared to 2.68 for men (SD=0.56). Yet the complete perceived level of agreement with items regarding intrapersonal and interpersonal constraints lessened for men and women, women had higher average scores in both of these groups. On items regarding intrapersonal constraints, women had a higher mean score (M= 2.12, SD=0.64) than men (M= 1.92, SD=0.72) representing a larger opinion of intrapersonal constraints. Moreover, women had a higher mean score for interpersonal items (M= 2.24, SD=0.72) than men (M= 2.24, SD=0.62). Generally, females described a better opinion of constraint in each of the groups of constraint, the main being in the structural constraint group. Table 4.7 accounts means and standard deviancies for perceived level of constraint founded on gender category.

Table 4.7. Descriptive Data for Gender and Type of Constraint

Overall Mean Score for Gender Based on Type of Constraint				
Response				
Type of Constraint	Males (M)	Male (SD)	Female (M)	Female (SD)
Structural	2.68	0.56	2.54	0.47
Intrapersonal	1.92	0.72	2.12	0.64
Interpersonal	2.24	0.62	2.24	0.72

Note. Male n 227 Female n 335

Mean scores are based on responses to a 5 point Likert Scale (1—strongly disagree, 5—strongly agree)

4.3.5. Participation and Perceived Constraints

Another significant variable in this study was the analysis of perceived constraints and negotiation approaches of those who regularly join in addition to individuals who do not regularly join in recreational activity and services. Having all participators, regardless of their level of involvement, reply to questions on their opinion of constraints allowed the gathering of data from participants and non-participants with the intention of defining whether differences obtained in negotiation. Outcomes of the examination show that non-participants observed a higher level of constraint than those whom thought themselves to be regular members for once per week.

Answers to items regarding structural constraints concluded in mean scores of 2.64 (SD=0.47) meant for non-participants, a higher average score related to those who join on a regular basis (M=2.45, SD=0.54). Those who did not participate showed a higher opinion of constraint meant for items concerning intrapersonal constraints (M=2.17, SD=0.66) than participants (M=1.68, SD=0.58) and interpersonal constraints (M=2.42, SD=0.78) compared to participants (M=1.93, SD=0.67) too. Like the analysis of differences amongst both genders, structural constraints had the uppermost mean scores non-participants and participants as well, succeeded by interpersonal and intrapersonal. People who joined regularly had a lesser mean score meant for the items concerning structural, intrapersonal and interpersonal constraints. The reality is that their result was lower proposed a lesser level of perceived constraint. In Table 4.8 average scores and standard deviancies are informed for both participants and non-participants.

Table 4.8. Descriptive Data for Participation and Type of Constraint

Overall Mean Score for Participation Level and Type of Constraint				
Response				
Type of Constraint	Participants (M)	Participants (SD)	Non-part (M)	Non-part (SD)
Structural	2.45	0.54	2.64	0.47
Intrapersonal	1.68	0.58	2.17	0.66
Interpersonal	1.93	0.67	2.42	0.78

Note. Participants n=210 Non-participants n=352

4.3.6. Categorization of Perceived Level of Constraint

So as to present the notion of a level of perceived constraint, person means scores centered on sort of constraint were included meant for the goals of classifying people in a low, moderate, or highly constrained class centered upon answers to Likert scale items regarding structural, intrapersonal, and interpersonal constraints. The mean score for items concerning each sort of constraint was applied to define settlement into one of three categories low, moderate, or high centered upon the scale as seen below:

- | | | |
|-----|-------------------------|------------------------------|
| (a) | Mean score of 1.00-2.49 | Low perceived constraint |
| (b) | Mean score of 2.5-3.49 | Moderate level of constraint |
| (c) | Mean score of 3.5-5.00 | High level of constraint |

4.3.7. Initial Groupings Based on Perceived Constraint Responses

In Section C of the survey which included mean scores for all structural items, many individuals were low to reasonably constrain centered on the answers to the nine structural items. Individual mean scores alternated from 1.27 to 4.00 with a total mean of 2.78. By applying a 5-point Likert scale, the overall score (M=2.78) showed that the participators differed with the accounts -1 strongly disagree-5 strongly agreed- demonstrating a comparatively low level of structural constraint in over-all. Groups, yet, were constructed on person answers. By conducting the suggested grouping criteria, a total of 216 involvements were categorized through a low level of constraint, 322 categorized with a reasonable level of constraint and merely 24 were categorized with a high level of constraint. The summation of the initial groups centered on mean score responses to structural constraint items are informed in Table 4.8.

Group processes were directed with the rest items concerning interpersonal constraints. Individual mean scores alternated from 1.00 to 4.00 with a general mean of 2.36. The overall score (M=2.36) designates a comparatively low level of

interpersonal constraint. Groups again were founded on person answers. Utilizing the planned group criteria, an over-all of 354 responders were categorized with a low level of constraint, 180 categorized with a reasonable level of constraint, and simply 28 were categorized with a high level of constraint.

The initial groups centered upon average result answers to constraint items are listed in the Table 4.9.

Table 4.9. Categories of Perceived Level of Constraint

Categorizing Level of Constraint based on Mean Scores				
Response				
Type of Constraint	Low (1.00-2.49)	Moderate (2.50-3.49)	High (3.50-5.00)	Total
Structural	216	322	24	562
Intrapersonal	466	92	4	562
Interpersonal	354	180	28	562

N-562

As table 4.9 shows, very few partakers received a high level of constraint in every group of constraint. This was not completely astounding for two reasons. By observing complete average scores, completely overall means were less than 3.00, the midpoint of the scale. This recommends that the population under study was not extremely controlled once also seeing that all partakers were available services and activities. On a 5-point Likert scale, the midpoint response (3) was conducted to divide the respondents into two groups, low level of constraint-mean score below three- and moderate level of constraint -mean score of 3 or higher. The group of moderate was applied to categorize this collection as the data recommended that very few recreational activities participants supposed a high level of constraint.

4.3.8. Modified Grouping Strategy Based on Perceived Level of Constraint

Personal answers to items concerning structural constraints, aforementioned before, alternated from 1.33 to 4.00 with a general mean of 2.78. By altering the overall report to less than 3group into low or 3 or above moderate groups, an overall of 404 respondents were categorized with a low level of structural constraint, and 158 with a moderate level of structural constraint. Intrapersonal constraint groupings, on alteration, ended in 528 in the low level of intrapersonal constraint and 34 in the

moderate level of intrapersonal constraint. As a final point, the interpersonal constraint groupings had a result in 450 in the low-level group, and 112 in the moderate level of interpersonal constraint. The variation of groups into two groups, and yet resulting in only slight development in group sizes, better signified the outcomes of the descriptive analyses. On the condition that those who gave responses did not receive a high level of constraint, it was not practical to observe this height. The modified group outcomes applied to carry out the study of differences in perceived level of constraint is summarized in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10. Modified Categories of Perceived Level of Constraint

Categorizing Level of Constraint based on Mean Scores			
Response			
Type of Constraint	Low (1.00-3.00)	Moderate (3.01-5.00)	Total
Structural	404	158	562
Intrapersonal	528	34	562
Interpersonal	450	112	562

Note. N=562

Concerning the introduction of gender category and level of involvement, additional division of the groups for each level of perceived constraint low or moderate within each type of constraint structural, intrapersonal, interpersonal- was carried out. Table 4.11 offers a break of subclasses resulting from the introduction of gender category and level of involvement to the perceived level of constraint groups, demonstrating that each person who gave response N=562 is employed in one of eight groups to make comparison distinctly with each negotiation approach.

Table 4.11.

Categories of Perceived Level of Constraint with Gender and Level of Participation

Overall Table of Groupings based on Gender and Participation						
Level of Constraint	Male			Female		
	Part	Non-part	Total	Part	Non-part	Total
Structural Low	90	84	174	78	152	230
Structural Moderate	20	42	62	22	74	96
Total Structural	110	126	236	100	226	326
Intrapersonal Low	108	1	224	100	204	304
Intrapersonal Moderate	2	125	127	0	22	22
Intrapersonal Total	110	126	236	100	226	326
Interpersonal Low	100	98	198	92	160	252
Interpersonal Moderate	10	28	38	8	66	74
Total Interpersonal	110	126	236	100	226	326

Note. (Pan--Regular participants, Non-part--Non-participation)

4.3.9. Negotiation of Perceived Constraints

To define whether differences occurred in negotiation approaches founded on gender category, level of involvement, and level of perceived constraint or not the foremost aim of this study. Founding levels of perceived constraints founded upon answers to Section B of the instrument, and uniting with gender category and level of involvement enabled for group evaluations founded on negotiation approach. Before directing these evaluations, a descriptive analysis of the negotiation part was used to define an over-all indication of the negotiation approaches applied by gender category and level of involvement.

4.4. Descriptive Results of Negotiation Strategies

Section C of the instrument data were utilized to define the negotiation approaches applied by the complete model in this study. Items regarding time management, gaining of skills, interpersonal coordination, improving finances, physical fitness, and altering leisure aspirations were counted in and studied. Generally, the utmost applied approaches for the complete model were “trying to get better organized” - time management- and “I encourage my friends to participate with me” - interpersonal coordination-, both with means of 3.38.

Concerning in analysis of specific negotiation groups, the most usually applied time management approaches were “trying to get better organized” (M=3.38, SD=1.12), “I participate at times the facility is not crowded” (M=3.36, SD=1.22), and “I get up earlier or stay up later” (M=3.16, SD= 1.32). Other approaches were carried out, but to a lesser degree. The least utilized approach was “I schedule my classes to allow time for me to participate” (M =2.25, SD= 1.24).

Approaches concerning the gaining of skill are often carried out to negotiate constraints by, for instance, performing thus one can be more viable with others or asking for teaching so as to progress. Those who participated most commonly employed “I practice so I am better” and “I try to learn new skills/activities,” both with means of 3.28. The slightest applied approach was “If I’m not skilled, I swallow my pride and do my best” (M = 2.54, SD = 1.12), signifying participant in this example, if lacking skill, were not likely to negotiate the constraint.

Generally, those who gave responses mostly every so often applied interpersonal coordination approaches (M=3.14, SD=0.64). Contained by the grouping of interpersonal coordination approaches, participants most frequently applied “I encourage my friends to participate with me” (M =3.38, SD=1.17), and “I try to find people to do activities with” (M=3.38, SD=-1.24). Nevertheless, other approaches were conducted that were interpersonally connected, very few negotiated interpersonal constraints by “finding someone to give me a ride” (M =2.32, SD= 1.14), conceivably because approachability to recreational sports facilities was not an essential matter.

Improving finances was the minimum applied approach complete (M=2.52, SD=1.24). The most applied approach in the group of improving finances was “I improvise with the clothes/equipment I have” (M=3.38, SD=1.24). Very few participators conducted these approaches generally, predominantly “I borrow equipment/clothes to participate” (M=2.21, SD= 1.14), and “I got a job so that I would have money to participate” (M=1.87, SD=0.84).

Informal recreation involvement, the most highly joined program part in this study, does not need a payment; consequently, participants probably did not negotiate applying these approaches since they were not controlled by the fee of plans.

Physical fitness approaches are conducted to continue or increase physical health, or to recover from harm. Generally, participants applied physical fitness approaches with the second most regularity ($M=3.14$, $SD=0.74$) accompanied by acquirement of skills. The explicit physical fitness approaches most frequently applied by participants were “I try to improve my physical fitness so I can participate” ($M=3.39$, $SD=1.17$), and “I try to eat right so that I feel like participating” ($M=3.15$, $SD=1.22$). It was not astounding that physical fitness approaches were communal, owing to that many participating in recreational sports activities do so to make an improvement in physical health.

Changing leisure aspirations is an approach which may include changing leisure activities owing to an unwelcome part, such as struggle or the possibility of encounter.

Participants in this study, generally, did not use approaches in this grouping ($M=2.64$, $SD=0.72$). The most generally applied approach was “I try to select activities where I can avoid conflict” ($M=2.74$, $SD=1.25$), nevertheless it was not meaningfully greater than other approaches, such as “I participate in things I am good at” ($M=2.62$, $SD=0.87$), and “I purposely participate in activities that are not competitive” ($M=2.57$, $SD=1.15$). A summation of means for each negotiation approach and a complete mean for each group of negotiation can be seen in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12. Negotiation Strategies Utilized by Participants

Negotiation Strategy	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>Time Management</i>		
I cut short my activity session	2.70	1.04
I get up earlier or stay up later	3.16	1.32
I try to be better organized	3.38	1.12
I cut short time for work, school, and family	2.62	1.16
I schedule my classes to allow time for me to participate	2.25	1.24
I cut short time for other leisure activities	2.81	1.19
I've altered time that I would normally participate	2.90	1.06
I participate at times the facilities are not too crowded	3.43	1.15
<i>Acquisition of Skills</i>		
I utilize recreation resources to learn of activities offered	2.94	1.09
I try to learn new skills/activities	3.28	1.04
If I'm not skilled, I swallow my pride and do my best *	2.54	1.12
If I'm not skilled, I ask for help with the activity	2.94	1.10
I practice so I am better at the activity	3.28	1.05
<i>Interpersonal Coordination</i>		
I participate in activities with people of same gender	2.98	1.06
I try to find people to do activities with	3.38	1.24
I try to find someone to give me a ride	2.32	1.14
I'm willing to participate with people I don't know	3.28	1.10
I adjust my activity choice based on what my friends do	2.79	1.10
I encourage my friends to participate with me	3.52	1.24
<i>Improving Finances</i>		
I try to budget my money so that I can participate	2.53	1.06
I improvise with the equipment/clothes that I have	3.38	1.24
I got a job so I would have money to help participate	1.87	0.84
I borrow equipment/clothes from others to participate	2.21	1.14
I participate in less expensive activities	2.84	1.25
<i>Physical Fitness</i>		
I try to eat right so I feel like participating	3.15	1.22

Table 4.13. Negotiation Strategies Utilized by Respondents

Negotiation Strategy	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>Physical Fitness (continued)</i>		
I try to sleep more so I feel like participating	2.90	1.14
I try to improve my physical fitness so I can participate	3.39	1.17
I wear proper safety equipment to prevent injury	2.81	1.15
<i>Changing Leisure Aspirations</i>		
I participate in activities that I am good at *	2.62	0.87
I purposely participate in activities not competitive	2.57	1.15
I try to select activities where I can avoid conflict	2.74	1.25
Total	31 items	

Note. *N*—562

Mean scores are based on responses to a 5 point Likert Scale (1—strongly disagree, 5—strongly agree), *Reverse coded

4.4.1. Descriptive Results of Negotiation Strategies by Gender

The most common using approach of men was unlike than that of woman members as men most often used interpersonal organization approaches (M=3.16, SD=0.74). The remaining approaches used by men in order of frequency were skill acquisition (M=3.14, SD=0.62), time management (M=2.84, SD=0.65), physical fitness (M=2.84, SD=0.74), changing leisure aspirations (M=2.62, SD=0.76), and expanding finances (M=2.48, SD=0.74). Woman responses indicated that physical fitness strategies were most often utilized (M=3.15, SD=0.87), and were the third most frequently used approach for men. The remaining approaches used by women in order of frequency were interpersonal organization (M=3.16, SD=0.76), skill acquisition (M=3.14, SD=0.58), time management (M=2.96, SD=0.64), changing leisure aspirations (M=2.74, SD=0.85), and improving finances (M=2.44, SD=0.77). In terms of negotiating constraints, women had a slightly higher general mean mark (M=2.82, SD=0.65) than that of men (M=2.76, SD=0.65). Based on these effects, there is likely no important change in negotiation based on gender alone, though there may be important changes when investigative negotiation approaches separately. Table 4.14 summarizes the means and typical deviations of the negotiation approach responses separated by gender.

Table 4.14. Descriptive Results of Gender and Negotiation Strategies

Overall Mean Score for Negotiation by Gender				
Response	Males (M)		Female (M)	
Negotiation Strategy	Males (M)	Male (SD)	Female (M)	Female (SD)
Time Management	2.84	0.65	2.96	0.64
Skill Acquisition	3.14	0.62	3.14	0.58
Physical Fitness	2.84	0.74	3.15	0.87
Interpersonal Coordination	3.16	0.74	3.16	0.76
Improving Finances	2.48	0.74	2.44	0.77
Changing Leisure Aspirations	2.62	0.76	2.74	0.85
Overall	2.76	0.65	2.82	0.65

Mean scores are based on responses to a 5 point Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree)

4.4.2. Descriptive Results of Negotiation Strategies and Level of Participation

So as to further recognize the negotiation proposition and how it influences involvement in recreational sports activities, members were grouped into one of two classes based on their level of involvement.

Generally mean marks for regular participants ($M=2.86$, $SD=0.75$) were higher than non-participants ($M=2.82$, $SD=0.65$). The highest mean mark for negotiation approach of regular participants was physical fitness ($M=3.34$, $SD=0.86$), followed by interpersonal coordination ($M=3.25$, $SD=0.62$), time management ($M=3.38$, $SD=0.81$), skill acquisition ($M=3.24$, $SD=0.56$), improving finances ($M=2.45$, $SD=0.62$), and exchanging leisure aspirations ($M=2.57$, $SD=0.81$). The highest mean score for negotiation items for non-participants was interpersonal coordination ($M=2.92$, $SD=0.65$), followed by skill acquisition ($M=2.87$, $SD=0.55$), physical fitness ($M=2.92$, $SD=0.64$), time management ($M=2.62$, $SD=0.81$), changing leisure aspirations ($M=2.62$, $SD=0.74$), and developing finances ($M=2.42$, $SD=0.65$).

With the exception of one cooperation approach (changing leisure aspirations), participants had higher mean marks than non-participants. This advises that those who participated regularly in recreational activities negotiated constraints more than those who did not take part regularly. Principally, it appeared that regular participation may have been a effect of the enthusiasm to discuss constraints because of higher overall negotiation marks, but further examination was conducted to decide if statistically important changes existed in negotiation based on level of perceived constraint, gender, and level of involvement. Table 4.15 summarizes descriptive information for negotiation approaches based on involvement.

Table 4.15. Descriptive Results for Participation and Negotiation Strategies

Overall Mean Score for Participation Level and Negotiation Strategy				
Response				
Negotiation Strategy (M)	Participants	Participants (SD)	Non-part (M)	Non-part (SD)
Time Management	3.38	0.81	2.62	0.81
Skill Acquisition	3.24	0.56	2.87	0.55
Physical Fitness	3.34	0.86	2.92	0.64
Interpersonal Coordination	3.25	0.62	2.92	0.65
Improving Finances	2.45	0.62	2.42	0.65
Changing Leisure Aspirations	2.57	0.81	2.62	0.74
Overall	2.86	0.75	2.82	0.65

Mean scores are based on responses to a 5 point Likert Scale (1--strongly disagree, 5--strongly agree)

4.5. Hypothesis Testing

Examination of Variance was conducted to decide if important changes existed in negotiation approaches based on perceived level of constraint, gender, and level of participation. Six separate three-way (2 X 2 X 2) ANOVA tests were conducted; one for each negotiation approach (time management, skill acquisition, physical fitness, interpersonal coordination, improving finances, and changing leisure aspirations). The perceived level and type of constraint utilize for each test was based on groupings developed from Section B of the instrument, and the constraint (structural, intrapersonal)

4.5.1. Time Management Negotiation Strategies

The following hypotheses connected to time management negotiation were checked in the following part:

H1; There is no difference in time management negotiation mean marks based on gender characteristics.

H2; There is no difference in time management negotiation mean marks based on level of participation.

H3; There is no difference in time management negotiation mean scores based on category of structural constraint (low, moderate).

H4; There is no difference in time management negotiation mean scores based on a combination of variables: gender, level of participation, level of structural constraint.

Adapting time in order to exchange constraints is one strategy that was examined in this study. The purpose of this study was to control if differences existed in cooperation based on the perceived level of constraint, gender, and level of participation. In the case of time management strategies, ANOVA was conducted to determine if time management cooperation strategies were meaningfully different based on perceived level of structural constraint, gender, and level of participation. Grades indicated important differences in cooperation among structural levels of constraint ($F(1,485) = 3.753, p < .001$) as well as changing between participants and non-participants ($F(1,485) = 12.36, p < .001$). The important difference in time organization negotiation among structural levels of constraint, specifically, suggests those moderately constrained may be meaningfully more likely to use time management cooperation strategies than those who perceived a low structural level of constraint. In addition, participants were meaningfully more likely to use time management cooperation strategies than those who did not take part regularly in recreational sports activities. This proposes that those who participate on a regular basis were using time management negotiation strategies in order to do so. Men and women did not differ significantly in regards to time management strategies. The ANOVA summary table for time management cooperation strategies is provided in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16. Analysis of Variance for Time Management Negotiation Strategies

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
	Between Subjects		
Level of structural constraint (A)	1	3.753	.000***
Gender (B)	1	0.532	.338
Participation (C)	1	12.359	.000***
A X B	1	0.132	.832
A X C	1	4.256	.027*
B X C	1	0.063	.614
A X B X C	1	0.098	.843
S within-group error	262	(0.476)	

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors.

p* < .05. *p* < .01. ****p* < .001

A important collaboration effect resulted between the structural level of constraint and level of participation ($N(1,485) = 4.256, p < .05$). As a result, additional examines were conducted to further recognize the differences among the two independent variables. A follow-up ANOVA was essential in order to control which level of structural constraint was meaningfully different when compared to level of participation. Upon conducting this examination, regular members at the low level of structural constraint ($M = 3.26$) differed significantly than non-participants at the low level of structural constraint ($M = 2.68$) in terms of time management cooperation strategies. Additionally, important changing were also discovered among the members moderately constrained ($M = 3.45$) and non-participants moderately constrained ($M = 2.84$). These results advise that regular members who are moderately constrained were significantly more likely to use time management cooperation strategies than regular members with lower levels of structural constraints. The definite difference in cooperation among regular members with low and moderate levels of constraint is not entirely surprising as participants who encounter a higher level of constraint would most certainly need to exchange more to maintain fixed participation in recreational activities. Figure 4.1 exemplifies the important interaction effects among the levels of structural constraint and levels of participation.

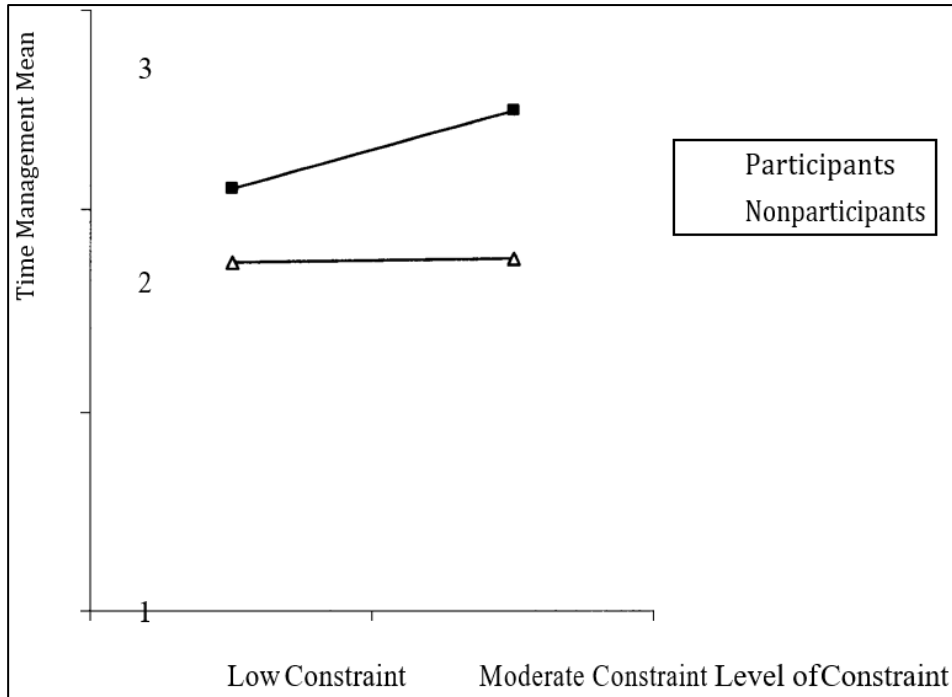


Figure 4.1. Interaction among Level of Participation and Structural Levels of Constraint

Moreover, important differences in time management strategies were also exposed among members at the low level of structural constraint (M=3.28) and the reasonable level of structural constraint (M=3.44). Among those who regularly take part, those that experience an increase in constraint are meaningfully more likely to use time management cooperation strategies, advising that the higher an individual perceives a constraint, the greater the need for negotiation strategies. There was virtually no difference in time management negotiation strategies among non-participants at the low level of structural constraint (M=2.68) and the reasonable level of structural constraint (M=2.59).

These results also advise that regular members in recreational activities were meaningfully more likely to use time management strategies than non-participants at both low and reasonable levels of structural constraint. Figure 4.2 provides an additional illustration of the important difference in time management cooperation strategies among regular members at the low and reasonable levels of structural constraint.

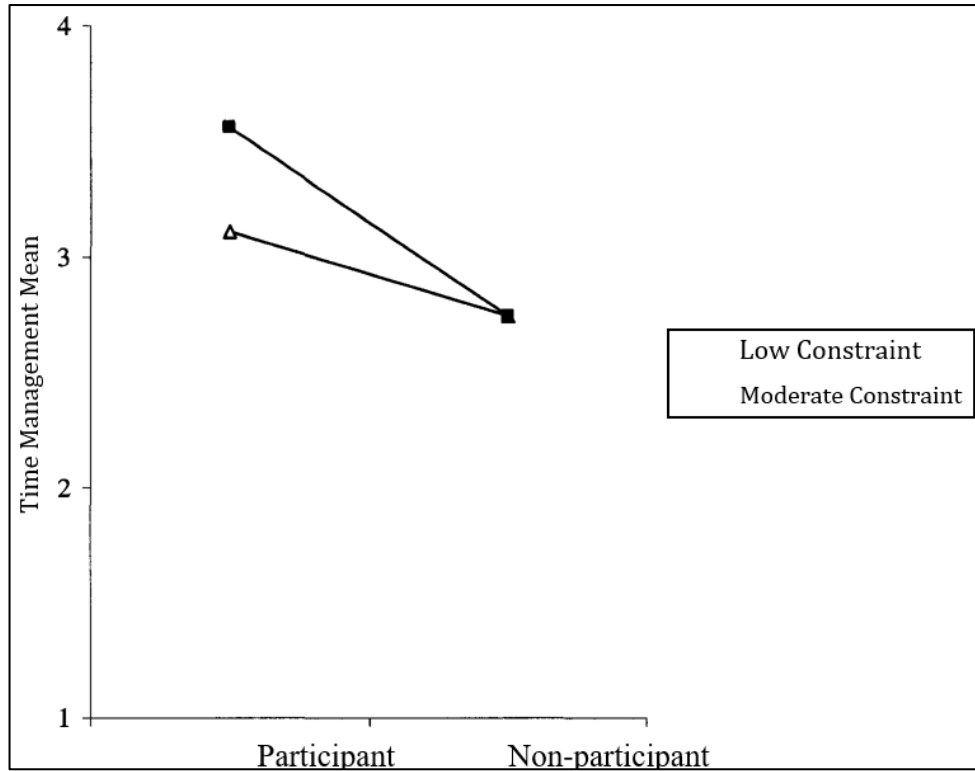


Figure 4.2. Interaction among Level of Participation Structural Levels of Constraint

According to these results, the following null hypothesis was accepted:

H1 : There was no difference in time management cooperation mean marks based on gender.

The following other hypotheses were accepted:

H2: There was an important difference in time management cooperation mean scores based on level of participation. Those that were regular participants were meaningfully more likely to use time management strategies than those that did not take part regularly.

H3: There was a important difference in time management cooperation mean marks based on category of structural constraint (low, moderate). Those that perceived a moderate level of structural constraint were meaningfully more likely to use time management cooperation strategies than those perceiving a low level of structural constraint.

H4: There was a important difference in time management cooperation mean marks based on a mixture of variables: level of participation and level of structural constraint. Members at a reasonable level of structural constraint were meaningfully more likely to use time management cooperation strategies than participants at a low level of constraint and non- participants at both the low and reasonable level of structural constraint.

4.5.2. Skill Acquisition Negotiation Strategies

The following hypotheses related to ability acquisition cooperation were tested in the following section:

H5: There is no change in ability acquisition cooperation mean marks based on gender.

H6: There is no change in ability acquisition cooperation mean marks based on level of participation.

H 7: There is no change in ability acquisition cooperation mean marks based on class of intrapersonal constraint (low, moderate).

H8: There is no change in ability acquisition cooperation mean marks based on a mixture of variables: gender, level of participation, level of intrapersonal constraint. Learning new abilities in order to increase participation is a usual strategy used to widen leisure participation. In the case of ability acquisition, ANOVA was guided to decide if ability acquisition cooperation strategies were meaningfully different based on perceived level of intrapersonal constraint, gender, and level of involvement. Results indicated no important changes in cooperation among intrapersonal levels of constraint ($F(1, 472)= 3.245, p =.072$), between participants and non-participants ($F(1,472)= 0.312, p =.718$) or between men and women ($F(1,472)= 0.212, p =.645$). Generally, there were no changes in ability acquisition cooperation strategies with any variables tested in this research. This advises that members who perceived a moderate level of intrapersonal constraint when compared to those who perceived a

low intrapersonal level of constraint did not differ meaningfully in strategies involving the acquisition of abilities. The similar conclusion can be made with gender and level of participation. Distinctively, strategies employed to negotiate constraints that may be caused by a perceived lack of ability did not differ meaningfully among men and women, fixed members and non-participants, or those that perceived a low or reasonable intrapersonal level of constraint. It seems that learning of a new ability was impacted by the variables examined in this research. The ANOVA summary table for ability acquisition cooperation strategies is provided in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17. Analysis of Variance for Skill Acquisition Negotiation Strategies

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Between Subjects			
Level of intrapersonal constraint (A)	1	3.245	.072
Gender (B)	1	0.327	.634
Participation (C)	1	0.312	.718
A X B	1	0.003	.876
A X C	1	2.612	.076
B X C	1	0.212	.645
A X B X C	1	0.000	
S within-group error	472	(0.312)	

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors.

On the base of these results, the following useless hypotheses were accepted:

H5: There was no change in ability acquisition cooperation mean marks based on gender.

H6: There was no change in ability acquisition cooperation mean marks based on level of participation.

H7: There was no change in ability acquisition negotiation mean marks based on class of intrapersonal constraint (low, moderate).

H8: There was no change in ability acquisition cooperation mean marks based on a mixture of variables: gender, level of participation, level of intrapersonal constraint.

4.5.3. Interpersonal Coordination Negotiation Strategies

The following hypotheses related to interpersonal cooperation were experienced in the following section:

H9: There is no alteration in interpersonal cooperation mean marks based on gender.

H10: There is no change in interpersonal negotiation mean scores based on level of participation.

H11: There is no change in interpersonal cooperation mean marks based on class of interpersonal constraint (low, moderate).

H12: There is no change in interpersonal cooperation mean marks based on a mixture of variables: gender, level of participation, level of interpersonal constraint.

Interpersonal cooperation strategies are used in situations in which a person may need a partner with whom to take part. Similar to other cooperation strategies, interpersonal organization strategies may enable participation though the cooperation of this kind of constraint. ANOVA was used to decide if interpersonal organization cooperation strategies were meaningfully unlike based on perceived level of interpersonal constraint, gender, and level of participation. Findings indicated significant differences in level of participation ($F(1,485) = 4.852, p = .026$) but no significant change in gender ($F(1,485) = 0.448, p = .382$) or perceived level of interpersonal constraint ($F(1,485) = 0.465, p = .424$). Overall, there were differences in interpersonal coordination negotiation strategies among those who were regular members ($M=2.65$) in recreational sports activities and those who did not regularly take part ($M=2.87$). This advises that regular members in recreational sports activities were more likely to continue their regular participation by employing strategies that involve the pursuit of a partner with whom to take part. Those that do not regularly participate may not do so because of their lack of enthusiasm to utilize interpersonal organization strategies.

There was no important change in interpersonal organization cooperation strategies among men and women, or among those who observed a low level of interpersonal constraint and those that considered to be moderately constrained. Gender, or the level of constraint that one experiences is not likely to affect one's enthusiasm to use interpersonal organization strategies, but the change in regular participation may be attributed to the use of interpersonal organization strategies. Those who did not consider themselves to be fixed members were not using interpersonal organization cooperation strategies in order to more regularly participate. The ANOVA summary table for interpersonal organization cooperation strategies is provided in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18. Analysis of Variance for Interpersonal Coordination Negotiation Strategies

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Between Subjects			
Level of Interpersonal constraint (A)	1	0.46	.42
Gender (B)	1	0.44	.38
Participation (C)	1	4.85	.02*
A X B	1	0.23	.61
A X C	1	0.54	.42
B X C	1	0.43	.54
A X B X C	1	2.34	.16
S within-group error	485	(0.56)	

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors.

* $p < .05$

On the base of these results, the following null hypotheses were accepted:

H9: There is no change in interpersonal cooperation mean marks based on gender.

H10: There is no change in interpersonal cooperation mean marks based on class of interpersonal constraint (low, moderate).

H11: There is no change in interpersonal cooperation mean marks based on a mixture of variables: gender, level of participation, level of interpersonal constraint.

The following another hypothesis was accepted:

H12: There was a change in interpersonal cooperation mean marks based on level of participation. Those who were regular members in recreational activities were meaningfully more likely to use interpersonal organization strategies than those who did not take part regularly.

4.5.4. Improving Finances Negotiation Strategies

The following hypotheses related to improving funds cooperation were experienced in the following section:

H13: There is no change in improving funds cooperation mean marks based on gender.

H14: There is no change in improving funds cooperation mean marks based on level of participation.

H15: There is no change in improving funds cooperation mean marks based on class of structural constraint (low, moderate).

H16: There is no change in improving funds cooperation mean marks based on a mixture of variables: gender, level of participation, level of structural constraint.

Improving one's financial condition in order to have the chance to take part or picking a more reasonable option are two samples of financial cooperation strategies that may be used to facilitate participation. ANOVA was directed to decide if financial cooperation strategies were meaningfully unlike based on perceived level of structural constraint, gender, and level of participation. Effects indicate important changes in structural level of constraint ($F(1,485) = 15.423, p < .001$) but no important change in gender ($F(1,485) = 0.628, p = .325$) or level of participation ($F(1,485) = 4.345, p = .068$). This advises that individuals that perceived a reasonable level of structural constraint ($M=2.86$) were meaningfully more likely to use financial strategies than individuals that perceived a low level of structural constraint ($M = 2.61$). In detail, a member who perceived a higher level of structural constraint was more likely to use financial strategies. Both group means scores were low, so

these results may advise that an individual perceiving a low level of structural constraint is meaningfully less likely to use financial strategies to increase participation, or that the fact that they perceive a low level of constraint solely means that they do not have constraints to exchange. An ANOVA summary table for improving finances cooperation strategies is provided in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19. Analysis of Variance for Improving Finances Negotiation Strategies

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Subjects			
Level of structural constraint (A)	1	15.423	.000***
Gender (B)	1	0.628	.325
Participation (C)	1	4.345	.068
A X B	1	0.372	.476
A X C	1	0.238	.723
B X C	1	0.179	.712
A X B X C	1	4.302	.043*
S within-group error	485	(0.562)	

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors.

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

In relation to Table 20, there is an important three-way relations among each of the three independent variables tested in this research. ($F(1,485) = 4.302, p = .043$). In spite of the fact that gender and level of participation main effects were not significant, further analysis was necessary in order to understand the relations among the structural level of constraint, level of participation and gender. According to Keppel (1991), relations tests are essential when independent variables with several levels are statistically important. Simple-simple main effect analyses were conducted using SPSS syntax code. These effects advise that woman members that perceived a reasonable level of structural constraint were significantly more likely to use financial cooperation strategies than man non-participants that perceived a low level of structural constraint. This conclusion, however, cannot be made since the overall probability value for these associations were not significant ($p = .068$), likely as a result of small group sizes for woman members moderately constrained ($N = 23$). It is also problematic to make this statement given the results indicated no important change in either gender or level of participation.

On the base of these results, the following null hypotheses were accepted:

H13: There was no change in improving finances cooperation mean marks based on gender.

H14: There was no change in improving finances cooperation mean marks based on level of participation.

H16: There was no change in improving finances mean marks based on a mixture of variables: gender, level of participation, level of interpersonal constraint.

The following another hypothesis was accepted:

H15: There was an important change in interpersonal cooperation mean marks based on class of interpersonal constraint (low, moderate). Those who were moderately constrained were meaningfully more likely to use improving finances cooperation strategies than those who perceived a low level of structural constraint.

4.5.5. Changing Leisure Aspirations Negotiation Strategies

The following hypotheses related to exchanging leisure target cooperation were tested in the following section:

H17: There is no change in changing leisure aspiration cooperation mean marks based on gender.

H18: There is no change in changing leisure aspiration cooperation mean marks based on level of participation.

H19: There is no change in changing leisure aspiration cooperation mean marks based on class of intrapersonal constraint (low, moderate).

H20: There is no change in changing leisure aspiration cooperation mean marks based on a mixture of variables: gender, level of participation, level of intrapersonal constraint.

Altering one's leisure preferences or targets is another strategy examined in this research. ANOVA was used to decide if changing leisure aspiration negotiation strategies were meaningfully unlike based on perceived level of intrapersonal constraint, gender, and level of participation. Effects indicate important changes in negotiation among intrapersonal levels of constraint ($F(1,485)= 14.856, p < .001$) but no important change between participants and non-participants ($F(1,485)= 2.125, p = .154$) or between men and women ($F(1,485)= 1.261, p = .412$). Generally, the only important change in changing leisure aspiration cooperation strategies was among the observed level of constraint, showing that individuals moderately constrained ($M=3.26$) were more likely to use altering leisure aspiration strategies than individuals that were categorized as perceiving a low level of intrapersonal constraint ($M=2.68$). Again, those moderately constrained may have had a higher cooperation mark as a effect of encountering more constraints. An individual who recognizes a low level of constraint simply may not need to use cooperation strategies. The ANOVA summary table for changing leisure target strategies is provided in Table 4.20.

Table 4.20. Analysis of Variance for Changing Leisure Aspiration Negotiation Strategies

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Subjects			
Level of intrapersonal constraint (A)	1	14.85	.000***
Gender (B)	1	1.26	.41
Participation (C)	1	2.12	.21
A X B	1	0.46	.49
A X C	1	2.62	.13
B X C	1	0.63	.43
A X B X C	1		
S within-group error	472	(.42)	

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors.

p < .05. **p < .01. *p < .001*

On the base of these results, the following null hypotheses were accepted:

H17: There was no change in changing leisure target cooperation mean marks based on gender.

H18: There was no change in changing leisure target cooperation mean marks based on level of participation.

H20: There was no change in changing leisure targets mean marks based on a mixture of variables: gender, level of participation, level of intrapersonal constraint.

The following another hypothesis was accepted:

H19: There was an important change in changing leisure targets cooperation mean marks based on class of intrapersonal constraint (low, moderate). Those who were moderately constrained were meaningfully more likely to use changing leisure target cooperation strategies than those who observed a low level of structural constraint.

4.5.6. Physical Fitness Negotiation Strategies

The next hypotheses related to physical fitness cooperation were experienced in the following section:

H21: There is no change in physical fitness cooperation mean marks based on gender.

H22: There is no change in physical fitness cooperation mean marks based on level of participation.

H23: There is no difference in physical fitness cooperation mean scores based on category of structural constraint (low, moderate).

H24: There is no change in physical fitness cooperation mean marks based on a mixture of variables: gender, level of participation, level of structural constraint.

Physical fitness approaches were established by Hubbard and Mannell (2001) in a research examining cooperation approaches used in a corporate recreation setting. These approaches, such as eating well in order to have more energy to take part or improving one's physical health in order to take part have been connected with structural constraints. For this study, physical fitness approaches were analyzed using ANOVA to decide if physical fitness cooperation approaches were meaningfully unlike based on perceived level of structural constraint, gender, and level of participation. Effects indicated important changes in cooperation between men and women ($F(1,485) = 4.617, p = 0.026$) and between participants and non-participants ($F(1, 485) = 12.165, p = .001$) but no important change in cooperation among structural levels of perceived constraint ($F(1,485) = 0.267, p = .567$). These findings suggest that women ($M=3.17$) were meaningfully more likely to use physical fitness approaches than men ($M=2.86$) and regular participants in recreational activities ($M=3.34$) were significantly more likely to use physical fitness strategies than non-participants ($M=2.82$). Specifically, women may be meaningfully more likely to use approaches that may result in improved health, or to keep good physical condition than men. This particular result indicates that women may be more likely to be worried about physical health or condition, or only participate in more activities that may include the chance for physical fitness. Different participants in recreational activities are motivated by different goals; results advise women may be more motivated to discuss using physical fitness approaches.

Moreover, regular members are meaningfully more likely to use physical fitness approaches to keep good physical health and condition. Those that do not regularly take part may fail to discuss constraints because of the trouble in maintaining good physical condition when not participating on a regular basis. These results indicate consistent participation that results from the cooperation of constraints may enable an improved likelihood of maintaining regular participation. A lack of regular participation which may in a negative way affecting physical health and condition could meaningfully decline person's level of enthusiasm. Lack of enthusiasm could contribute to a lack of cooperation, resulting in a lack of regular participation. The ANOVA summary chart for physical fitness approaches is showed in Table 4.21.

Table 4.21. Analysis of Variance for Physical Fitness Negotiation Strategies

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Subjects			
Structural level of constraint (A)	1	0.26	.56
Gender (B)	1	4.1	.02*
Participation (C)	1	12.16	.001**
A X B	1	0.01	.86
A X C	1	0.03	.76
B X C	1	0.08	.73
A X B X C	1	0.43	.62
S within-group error	485	(.73)	

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors.

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

On the base of these results, the next null hypotheses were admitted:

H23: There is no change in physical fitness cooperation mean marks based on class of structural constraint (low, moderate).

H24: There is no change in physical fitness cooperation mean marks based on a mixture of variables: gender, level of participation, level of structural constraint.

The next alternative hypotheses were admitted:

H21: There was a important change in physical fitness cooperation mean marks based on gender. Women were meaningfully more likely to use physical fitness approaches than men.

H22: There was a significant difference in physical fitness negotiation mean scores based on level of participation. Those who participated regularly were meaningfully more likely to use physical fitness approaches S than those who did not take part on a regular base.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Despite not being the main aim of this research, leisure constraints were nonetheless a significant way of this research. The example of members shown that the lack of time because of work, school, or family was the most forcing factor ($M = 4.01$). This backs research results by Young, Ross, and Barcelona (2003), a research conducted by means of a recreational sport setting besides Jackson and Rucks (1995) in a study of travelers. Both man and woman travelers who take part the present research were most commonly affected by structural constraints, followed by interpersonal constraints, and least affected by intrapersonal constraints. Though women had higher mean marks in each class of constraint, the changes were not statistically important. It was surprising to discovery that both men and women in this recreational sports setting perceived similar kind of constraints in similar order (structural, interpersonal, and intrapersonal).

The similar findings used to the comparison of constraint mean marks of regular participants and non-participants. Those who did not indicate regular participation responded with a better degree of perceived constraint in every class. Furthermore, participants and non-participants shown that in general, they were most affected by structural constraints, followed by interpersonal, and intrapersonal; consistent with the gender comparisons.

Cooperation approaches were the basic aim of this research. In general participants indicated the most commonly used cooperation approaches were “being on time” (time management) and “supporting by their pairs” (interpersonal coordination), both with means of 3.47. Men most often reported using interpersonal coordination approaches, while women most often employed physical fitness cooperation

approaches. Participants most often used physical fitness approaches whereas non-participants most often utilized interpersonal coordination approaches. Tests for importance changes in cooperation for gender and level of participation are summarized in the next sections: gender and cooperation, level of participation and cooperation, and level of constraint and cooperation, and correlation examines.

5.1. Gender and Negotiation

This research studied changes in negotiation based on gender characteristics. In general, women had a higher cooperation mean mark (2.88) than men (2.82), on the other hand this was not found to be a statistical change. So cooperation approaches being conceptually independent of one another, each tactic was examined separately for differences in gender. Only physical fitness strategies resulted in a significant difference based on gender, as women (M=3.09) were statistically more likely to use physical fitness approaches than men (M=2.91). This result advises women may be more likely to utilized negotiation approaches connected with improving health or rehabilitating from injury than men, or that men may be meaningfully less likely to use physical fitness approaches as a technique for increasing recreational sports activities. There were no important changes in time management, ability acquisition interpersonal organization, improving finances or changing leisure aspirations approaches. This advises that overall, gender may not be a significant variable that can be used to decide changes in negotiation in a recreational sports setting. Recent social standards on this setting, a lack of stereotyped activities that might be dominated by a certain gender, and lack of diversity in age may have contributed to cooperation approaches not being significantly unlike between men and women.

5.2. Level of Participation and Negotiation

Few researches that have tested leisure constraints or negotiation approaches have saved information from non-participants. It was significant for this research to decide the nature of change in negotiation as it related to individual participation in recreational programs. ANOVA effects showed important differences in cooperation between those who joined regularly (once per week) and those who did not take part

regularly in how they used time management, interpersonal coordination, and physical fitness approaches

Time management mean comparisons directed that participants in recreational activities ($M=3.20$) were meaningfully more likely to utilize time management approaches than non-participants ($M=2.76$). Thanks to higher time management cooperation mean marks, participants are more likely to use time management cooperation approaches than non-participants, suggesting that negotiation had an important and positive impact on the amount of participation in recreational activities. Similar conclusion can be stated with interpersonal coordination approaches and physical fitness approaches, as in separate examines; participants were meaningfully more likely to negotiate constraints than non-participants. Those who are committed to participating in recreational activities once for each week were meaningfully more likely to find a technique to take part than those who have not indicated a consistent commitment to participating in recreational activities. This level of commitment is likely connected to individuals' level of enthusiasm to take part as suggested by Jackson, Crawford, and Godbey (1993) and Alexandris, Tsorbatzoudis, and Grouios (2002).

As said by Jackson, Crawford, and Godbey (1993), the level of enthusiasm is directly linked with the other person's willingness to negotiate constraints. In the recent research, one's level of enthusiasm to take part in recreational activities, or their enthusiasm to negotiate structural constraints had a crucial, positive effect on their participation in recreational sports. The more the recreational sports member is ready to negotiate constraints, the more likely they will raise participation.

5.3. Level of Constraint

There is limited study that contributes to an understanding of the grade to which a leisure constraint affects an individual. Is an individual who perceives a higher level of constraint less likely to use negotiation approaches than someone who is only reasonably constrained. Important changes in cooperation were found among respondents with a low observed level of constraint and those moderately constrained

in how they negotiated time management, improving finances, and changing leisure aspiration approaches. Individuals categorized as moderately constrained (structurally) were meaningfully more likely to negotiate time management and improving finances approaches than those who perceived a low level of structural constraint. Furthermore, moderately constrained individuals were meaningfully more likely to utilize changing leisure aspirations approaches, such as avoiding overly competitive activities, than those who perceived a low level of intrapersonal constraint. This supports study results by Hubbard and Mannell (2001), who created that when subjects perceived an increase in a constraint, the better use of negotiation resources were used.

It could also be completed that those who perceive a low level of constraint may not need to utilize cooperation approaches since mean mark responses to constraint items that were used to place them in that class were low. Individuals who have higher marks on constraint objects on the survey, categorized as moderately constrained in this study, would naturally have to negotiate more commonly if they wish to take part as a result of perceiving leisure constraints at a higher level. On the other hand, a moderately constrained recreational participant could be more motivated to take part, resulting in an increased likelihood of negotiating the constraint. Much more study is needed in this part in order to decide if there is a constraint level that if reached, may meaningfully reduce the likelihood of recreational participation.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Purpose of this part was to summarize information and argue implications for results as well as to argue further research to build upon these results. This information will be presented in the next parts:

- a) Conclusions,
- b) Implications,
- c) Recommendations.

6.1. Conclusions

Within the restrictions of this research, the next consequences are advised:

Firstly, with the exception of one cooperation class (physical fitness), there was no change in cooperation between men and women. gender characteristics may be a significant variable in other recreational activity settings but it was not a significant factor among foreign tourists in Turkey. Though gender characteristics did not have an effect on cooperation approaches used in this research, it is still an essential factor to study in future research because gender differences in cooperation may exist in other recreational sports settings with a better diversity of age.

Secondly, fixed members in recreational activities were meaningfully more likely to use time management, physical fitness, and interpersonal coordination approaches to convey constraints. Consistent, steady participation was a result of respondents' enthusiasm to convey constraints using these types of strategies. A lack of negotiation could also be a result of other factors, such as a lack of enthusiasm to

take part, lack of concern, or lack of awareness of the programs. Those that participated on a regular base could only be more motivated to keep participation, and non-participation may not have anything to do with constraints encountered.

Thirdly, each person moderately constrained was meaningfully more likely to use time management changing, leisure ambitious, and improvement of finances approaches than those perceiving a low level of constraint. Again, those who perceived a low level of constraint may have not used negotiation approaches because there was no need, or they were not aware of or involved in the programs and services available.

Nextly, Regular members at a moderate level of perceived constraint were meaningfully more likely to use time management approaches than non-participants at the low and moderate planes of structural constraint.

Finally, Regular members at a moderate level of constraint were meaningfully more likely to use time management cooperation approaches than regular members at the low level of structural constraint. Among regular participants, those who perceived a higher level of constraint were meaningfully more likely to negotiate time management approaches. Since regular participation is consistent among this comparison, a lack of concern, lack of enthusiasm, and a lack of awareness can be eliminated as reasons for a lack of cooperation. It appears that the increased perception of constraints triggered a significant increase in cooperation.

6.2. Implications

The results of this research established that levels of perceived constraint may have an important impact on whether an individual may elect to convey a leisure constraint. These levels may also had a vital impact on negotiation among those who participated regularly, as those who were classified as moderately constrained were meaningfully more likely to negotiate time management approaches than members at a low level of perceived constraint. Further development of these points is essential and will be very significant in order to gain an understanding of this theory.

Non-participation was a result of failure to negotiate constraints. Recreational program providers will certainly be concerned in techniques to increase regular participation. It is not known, however, if a lack of cooperation is due to the lack of ability to negotiate, or the lack of general interest in participating in the activity. Most of the example (73.9%) showed the desire to increase participation; therefore, it seems that the causes for foreign tourists choosing not to negotiate constraints are the factors that need to be addressed in future study.

Clear associations among constraints and negotiation approaches kept the notion that time constraints, for instance, may not essentially be negotiated using time management approaches. Exactly, further study must analyze these relationships to decide if a specific constraint could initiate negotiation using unlike types of approaches dependent upon the activity. Jackson and Rucks (1995) concluded the choice of cooperation approach cannot always be predicted merely by knowing what type of constraint is faced. The fallouts of this research advise that cooperation of leisure constraints may involve a mixture of approaches from a variety of classes. Association of a specific kind of constraint with a class of cooperation approach may be complicated and additional factors, such as one's level of enthusiasm may be contributing to the use of cooperation approaches. If cooperation approaches cannot be predicted based on the kind of constraint perceived, perhaps the select to discuss has nothing to do with the kind and level of constraint experienced.

As said by Raymore (2002), organizers to leisure are factors that are assumed by investigators and observed or practiced by individuals to enable or promote the development of leisure preferences and to support or improve participation. Raymore advised that constraints and facilitators are complimentary approaches to understanding participation in leisure. Further analysis of how facilitators affect the negotiation process may enable a deeper understanding of how program providers can raise the use of negotiation approaches.

6.3. Recommendations

The results of this research planned an understanding of cooperation approaches in recreational activities. These results also kept the concept of negotiation originally recommended by Jackson, Craawford, and Godbey (1993), and effectively confirmed by Jackson and Rucks (1995) and Hubbard and Mannell (2001). The enthusiasm to negotiate constraints has a positive influence on the likelihood of recreational activity participation. Thanks to limitations that coincide with a new area of study, more research is needed to further understand the concept of cooperation in recreational sports setting. Based on the results and techniques of this research, the next recommendations are made for further study in this subject:

First of all, a significant recommendation is to perform this research again to get a larger example. On the word of Porter and Whitcomb (2003), survey examiners will continually have to improve their techniques in order to reach a great response rate.

Second one, A poor example size in this research prevent much needed statistical tests to check theoretical frameworks. Theoretical propositions that structural, intrapersonal, and interpersonal constraints explain all factors that impede participation needs further analysis in a recreational activity setting. The minor example limits factor examination which would analyze the existence of these three kinds of constraints. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) advised that a sample of 700 is desirable to have more reliable factor loadings. Additionally, factor examination is advised of the six negotiation methods used in this examination, to further contribute to a theoretical understanding of the collaboration process in recreational activities and decide if there are other negotiation methods that may develop from this examination.

Thirdly, additional study is essential to compare negotiation approaches using subgroups of participation levels and gender category.

Upon grouping based on gender, level of participation, and level of constraint, group sizes meaningfully decreased and comparisons were being made with very minor

groups. In order to next understand the combination of variables and how they influence negotiation, sampling a variety of settings may let for these comparisons.

Also, by reason of the nature of the population under investigation in this research, more study is necessary to know the concept of a perceived level of constraint introduced in this research. Foreign tourists in Turkey, with a comparatively small age range, may not be the suitable population to measure perceived levels of constraint. So as to more suitably assess levels of perceived constraint, future study should examine populations and settings with better diversity of constraints experiences. Nevertheless a 5-point Likert scale was used in this research to keep consistency with prior study, it is suggested that a 7-point Likert level be used. This may enable a more valid grouping approach in order to make comparisons.

Furthermore, this particular example was primarily included in the casual recreational program area of recreational sports. Other study is suggested to recognize negotiation approaches among each sub-area of recreational activities. This research had a comparatively small percentage of tourists engaged in these kinds of activities, thus additional study is needed to distinguish participation patterns, enthusiasms, and challenges cope with when participating in all areas of recreational activities.

Moreover, correlation examination advises inter-correlations among the types of constraints and the types of negotiation approaches, but little to no associations among the types of constraints when connected with the negotiation types. Future study should examine relationships among constraints and negotiation for the aims of identifying profiles of recreational activities participants and non-participants in the program parts. A single may experience any mixture of structural, interpersonal, and intrapersonal constraints, but given the kind or kinds of constraint proficient for a specific user group, can a certain cooperation approach or approaches be predicted. For instance, under those conditions because of important connections among the classes of constraints as well as the categories of negotiation approaches, future study should examine these constructs using various examinations of variance (MANOVA) actions to measure both constraints and negotiation. Future study could also examine

several correlations and if appropriate, multiple regressions examine to decide how a variety of factors may impact the negotiation process.

Next recommendation is that one's enthusiasm to discuss a constraint is related to their enthusiasm to take part a specific activity. If regular members had higher negotiation marks, it could be achieved that they were extra motivated to take part. Further examination of enthusiasms of recreational activity members should be connected with negotiation literature to improve a line of study that gets these concepts closer together. As a result of a lack of relationship of constraints and negotiation approaches found in this research, it is likely that constraints have little influence on negotiation, and that enthusiasm to take part has a more important influence on the use of negotiation approaches.

As a concluding, other demographic variables should be further studied to decide how they influence the negotiation process. The example in this research involved of 562 foreign tourists that may be very varied in terms of socioeconomic status and ethnic origin. Study on how these factors influence the negotiation process is suggested.

If marketing efforts can eliminate this as a possibility by continually assessing programming needs of all eligible users and serving unique interests, program providers can then attribute the lack of participation to a lack of negotiation. The question can then become; what can the recreational sports professional do to facilitate the negotiation process.

In this study, tourists failed to participate for a variety of reasons. Though time management strategies were utilized by some tourists, they were not utilized by all. Why did these individuals fail to manage their time or adjust their schedules to participate? Are the types of programs and services being offered not worthy of adjusting their schedules, or do tourists simply not have options during time periods that they are able to participate? When practitioners make decisions regarding program schedules, it will be extremely important to consider the needs of the users and their schedules. It may not be cost effective to keep the facility open during non-

traditional time periods, but the perception of a lack of time is consistent in several constraints studies, and new ways of thinking may be necessary to address this issue.

A failure to use time management strategies is one of many factors that may be attributed to a lack of participation in recreational activities. Researchers have much more work to do to determine reasons for a lack of negotiation and how these reasons relate to constraints, but practitioners, in the meantime, must continually assess the needs and interests of eligible users, and make administrative decisions that may facilitate the negotiation process. Due to the lack of association of constraints and negotiation strategies resulting from the analysis in this study, recreational activities program providers are advised to use caution if assuming that a lack of participation is a result of perceived constraints. Many other factors such as interest, awareness, and level of motivation to participate have perhaps more of an impact than perceived constraints. Understanding how these factors impact participation may be the key to providing recreational activity agencies an increased likelihood of fulfilling their mission.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL FORM (TURKISH)

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER



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09 AĞUSTOS 2017

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Prof. Dr. Settar KOÇAK ;

Danışmanlığını yaptığınız Tolga TEK' in "*Turizm Rekreasyonunda Serbest Zaman Engelleri ve Baş Etme Stratejileri: Kültürlerarası Karşılaştırma*" başlıklı araştırması İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay **2017-EGT-141** protokol numarası ile **09.08.2017 – 30.12.2017** tarihleri arasında geçerli olmak üzere verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Prof. Dr. Ayhan SOL

Üye

Prof. Dr. Ş. Halil TURAN

Başkan V

Prof. Dr. Ayhan Gürbüz DEMİR

Üye

Doç. Dr. Yaşar KONDAKÇI

Üye

Doç. Dr. Zana ÇITAK

Üye

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Pınar KAYGAN

Üye

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Emre SELÇUK

Üye

APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRES

Section A: This section consists of your personal information. Please fill in.

Gender	:	<input type="checkbox"/> Female	<input type="checkbox"/> Male
Age	:		
Level of Education	:	<input type="checkbox"/> Primary School	<input type="checkbox"/> High School
		<input type="checkbox"/> Under Graduate	<input type="checkbox"/> Graduate
Monthly Income	:	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section B: In this section there are given some expressions that are thought to be constraints in front of participation in the leisure time activities. Please indicate your idea in each statement.

Strongly Disagree		Neutral		Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

		1	2	3	4	5
1.	I do have time because of my work commitments	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I do not have time because of my family commitments	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I do not have time because of my social commitment	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I do not want to interrupt my daily schedule	1	2	3	4	5
5.	The timetable does not fit with mine	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Exercise makes me feel tired	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I am afraid of getting hurt	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I feel too tired to exercise	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I have health problems	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I am not fit enough	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I am not skilled enough	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I do not feel confident to exercise	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I do not like exercising in a public place	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I do not know where to participate	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I do not have anyone to teach me the activities I like	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I do not know where I can learn the activities I like	1	2	3	4	5
17.	The facilities are of poor quality	1	2	3	4	5
18.	I do not like the activities offered	1	2	3	4	5
19.	The facilities are inadequate	1	2	3	4	5
20.	The facilities are crowded	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Transportation takes too much time	1	2	3	4	5
22.	I have no opportunities to exercise near my home	1	2	3	4	5
23.	I do not have transportation	1	2	3	4	5
24.	I cannot afford	1	2	3	4	5
25.	I have nobody to do exercise with	1	2	3	4	5
26.	My friends do not have time to do exercise	1	2	3	4	5
27.	My friends do not like exercising	1	2	3	4	5
28.	My friends are not interested in exercising	1	2	3	4	5
29.	I am not interested in exercising	1	2	3	4	5
30.	I participated in exercise programs in the past and I did not like it	1	2	3	4	5
31.	I do not like doing exercise	1	2	3	4	5

Section C. In this section there are given some expressions that are thought to be useful in dealing with the constraints in front of participation in the leisure time activities. Please indicate your idea in each statement.

		Strongly Disagree		Neutral		Strongly Agree	
		1	2	3	4	5	
1.	I cut short my activity session	1	2	3	4	5	
2.	I get up earlier or stay up later	1	2	3	4	5	
3.	I try to be better organized	1	2	3	4	5	
4.	I cut short time for work, school, and family	1	2	3	4	5	
5.	I schedule my classes to allow time for me to participate	1	2	3	4	5	
6.	I cut short time for other leisure activities	1	2	3	4	5	
7.	I've altered the time that I would normally participate	1	2	3	4	5	
8.	I choose to participate at times the facilities are not crowded	1	2	3	4	5	
9.	I utilize campus resources to learn what activities are offered	1	2	3	4	5	
10.	I try to learn new skills/activities	1	2	3	4	5	
11.	If I'm not skilled, I swallow my pride and do the best I can	1	2	3	4	5	
12.	If I'm not skilled, I ask for help with the activity	1	2	3	4	5	
13.	I practice so I am better at the activity	1	2	3	4	5	
14.	I participate in activities with people of the same gender	1	2	3	4	5	
15.	I try to find people to participate with	1	2	3	4	5	
16.	I try to find someone to give me a ride	1	2	3	4	5	
17.	I encourage my friends to participate with me	1	2	3	4	5	
18.	I adjust my activity choice based on what my friends want to do	1	2	3	4	5	
19.	I'm willing to participate with people that I don't know	1	2	3	4	5	
20.	I participate in activities that I am good at	1	2	3	4	5	
21.	I purposely participate in activities that are not competitive	1	2	3	4	5	
22.	I try to select activities where I can avoid conflict with others	1	2	3	4	5	
23.	I try to eat right so I feel like participating	1	2	3	4	5	
24.	I try to sleep more so I feel like participating	1	2	3	4	5	
25.	I try to improve my physical fitness so I can participate	1	2	3	4	5	
26.	I wear proper protective/safety equipment to prevent injury	1	2	3	4	5	
27.	I try to budget my money so I can participate	1	2	3	4	5	
28.	I improvise with the equipment/clothes that I have	1	2	3	4	5	
29.	I got a job so I would have money to help me participate	1	2	3	4	5	
30.	I borrow equipment/clothes from others so I can participate	1	2	3	4	5	
31.	I participate in less expensive activities	1	2	3	4	5	

APPENDIX C: RESEARCH VOLUNTEER PARTICIPATION FORM

This research was carried out by Prof. Dr. Settar Koçak Physical Education and Sports Department of METU and is an intercultural work to be used for Research Assistant Tolga TEK's doctoral dissertation. This form is designed to inform you about the research conditions.

What is the purpose of the research?

The purpose of the research is to get information about the leisure activity obstacles and strategies for negotiation with these constraints .

How will we use the collected information from you?

Your participation in research must be entirely voluntary basis. No information is requested about your identity or institution in the survey. Your answers will be kept entirely confidential, it will be evaluated only by researchers.

Information to be obtained from participants will be evaluated in batches and will be used in scientific publications. The data you provide will not be paired with the credentials that are collected in the form of voluntary contributions.

What you should know about your participation

In general the survey does not include questions that would cause personal discomfort. However, if you feel uncomfortable during the participation due to questions or for any other reason, you are free to quit answering. In such a case, it will suffice to tell the person who conducted the survey that you have not completed the questionnaire.

If you would like to get more information about the research

At the end of the survey, your questions about this work will be answered. Thank you in advance for participating in this study. For further information about the study, you can contact Physical Education and Sport Department Research Assistant Tolga Tek (e-mail: ttek@metu.edu.tr)

I have read the information above and completely agree to attend this research voluntarily.

(Please complete the form and give it back to the practitioner after signing).

Name Surname

Date

Sign

APPENDIX D: CURRICULUM VITAE PERSONAL INFORMATION

Surname, Name : TEK, Tolga
Nationality : Turkish (TC)
Date and Place of Birth : 26 September 1979, İstanbul
Phone : +90 5019119480
Email : tolgatek5@gmail.com

EDUCATION

Degree	Institution	Year of Graduation
MS	SU School of Physical Education and Sports	2006
BS	SU School of Physical Education and Sports	2002
High School	Selcuklu High School, Konya	1997

WORK EXPERIENCE

Year	Place	Enrollment
2010- Present	METU Department of Physical Education and Sports	Research Assistant
2013-2014	University of Northern Colorado School of Sport and Exercise Science	Visiting Researcher

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Advanced English.

APPENDIX E: TURKISH SUMMARY / TÜRKÇE ÖZET

GİRİŞ

Serbest zaman değerlendirme arařtırmalarının ana hedeflerinden birinin, insanların hayatlarındaki serbest zaman değerlendirme alanındaki davranıřlarını anlamak olduđunu önermesini kabul eder ve geçtiđimiz son yirmi yılda, engel arařtırmalarının serbest zaman değerlendirme çalıřmalarının en büyük konularından biri olduđu gözlemini kabul ederse, serbest zaman değerlendirme engelleri arařtırmalarının ne ölçüde serbest zaman değerlendirme davranıřlarının anlaşılmasına katkıda bulunduđu sormak mantıklı olacaktır (Jackson & Scott, 1999). 1980'lerde giderek artan bir dizi serbest zaman engelleri arařtırması geliřtirildi ve 21. yüzyılda da bu arařtırmaların üzerine eklemeler yapılmaya sürekli olarak devam edilmektedir. Serbest zaman değerlendirme engelleri üzerine yapılan arařtırmalar, yeni geliřtirilen anlayıřlar ile deđiřen ve evrilen literatürün tutarlı bir zümresini temsil ederek geçtiđimiz birkaç sene içinde istikrarlı bir şekilde büyümeye devam etmiřtir (Samdahl & Jekubovich, 1997). Serbest zaman değerlendirme engelleri, arařtırma konusu olarak o kadar popüler bir alan haline gelmiřtir ki engelleri üzerine arařtırma serbest zaman değerlendirme çalıřmalarının seçkin bir alt alanı olarak kabul edilmiřtir (Jackson, 1991).

Serbest zaman değerlendirme davranıřları üzerindeki engeller, geçtiđimiz on sene içinde serbest zaman değerlendirme çalıřmalarında hem itibari verilen toplanması hem de kavramların geliřmesi konusunda artan ilgiye hakim olmaktadır. Her ne kadar serbest zaman değerlendirme engelleri ve bař etme üzerine çalıřmalar 1960'ların erken dönemine dayansa da (Ferriss, 1962; Mueller, Gurin & Wood, 1962), deneysel arařtırmanın ana bölümü geçtiđimiz on sene içinde ortaya çıkmıřtır (Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991). Rekreatyon katılımına engeller olarak bařladıđı için, serbest zaman değerlendirme engelleri arařtırması çok daha özelleřmiř hale gelmiř ve serbest zaman değerlendirme davranıřlarını üzerine daha iyi bir

anlayış geliştirmeye devam etmektedir. Bu genişleme, serbest zaman değerlendirme katılımındaki hissedilen engeller ve motivasyon arasında bir ilişki kurmaya çalışan daha detaylı çalışmaların yapılmasına olanak sağlamıştır (Alexanders, Tsorbatzoudis, & Grouios, 2002).

Serbest zaman değerlendirme engellerini inceleyen birçok çalışma yürütülmüş olsa da serbest zaman değerlendirme katılımlarına engelleyici bir nitelik oluşturan faktörlerin anlaşılmasına katkıda sağlayan pek az araştırma bulunmaktadır. Serbest zaman değerlendirme engelleri, 1980'lerden beri yoğun olarak araştırılan bir konu olmuştur. Peki ya gerçekten keşfedilen şey nedir? Şu anda, 25 sene önce bilmediğimiz ne biliyoruz? Serbest zaman değerlendirme engellerine bir teorik anlayış geliştirilmesine yönelik kısıtlı ilerleme, cinsiyet ve belirli serbest zaman faaliyetleri konusunda serbest zaman değerlendirme davranışlarının daha iyi bir şekilde anlaşılmasını sağlamıştır ancak yine de yapılması gereken daha bir hayli çalışma vardır.

Raymore, Godbey, Jackson ve von Eye (1993) on ikinci sınıflar üzerinde hiyerarşik serbest zaman değerlendirme engellerini başarıyla test etmiş ve onaylamıştır. Fakat Alfadhil (1996) Michigan Eyalet Üniversitesi'ndeki hissedilen rekreasyon faaliyeti engelleri katılımcılarını incelerken, hiyerarşik serbest zaman değerlendirme engelleri modelini test etme girişiminde başarısız olmuştur. "Sonuçlar, engellerin her zaman açıkça tanımlanmış boyutlarda ve kategorilerde sonuç vermediğini ve hiyerarşik serbest zaman değerlendirme engelleri modelinin farklı ortamlarda ve farklı örneklerle ile daha fazla incelenmesi gerektiğini belirtmiştir. Alfadhil'in bulgularına ek olarak, doğrulayıcı faktör analizlerinden yararlanan başka engel çalışmaları da engellerin beş veya daha fazla boyutunun olduğunu bildirmiştir (McGuire, 1984; Jackson, 1993; Henderson, Stalnaker, & Taylor, 1988). Belki de yapıların kendisinin daha fazla araştırılmaya ihtiyacı vardır veya belirli faaliyetler ile ilgili serbest zaman değerlendirme engellerinin baş etme yönünün daha iyi incelenmesi gerekmektedir.

Daha keşfedilecek çok şey ve hatta serbest zaman değerlendirme engelleri araştırmalarında keşfedilecek çok daha fazla şey bulunmaktadır. Serbest zaman değerlendirme araştırmacıları, belirli serbest zaman değerlendirme faaliyetleri ve

belirli nüfuslar için serbest zaman değerlendirme engellerini tamamen tanımlayabilmiş değıllerdir ve spor alanındaki serbest zaman değerlendirme engellerini inceleyen çok az araştırma bulunmaktadır. Serbest zaman değerlendirme arařtırmacıları, belirli faaliyet ve belirli nüfus gruplarıyla ilgili serbest zaman değerlendirme engellerini daha iyi anlamaya yönelik bir dayanağı olan, sağılam bir teorik temel oluřturmaları gerekmektedir. Belirli bir faaliyet ve ortamda yaygın olarak bulunan serbest zaman değerlendirme engellerinin belirlenmesinin akabinde, serbest zaman değerlendirme hizmet sağılayıcılarının, bireylerin engelleri nasıl baş etme ettiğini ve baş etme sürecine olanak tanıyan planlama süresi içinde ne yapılması gerektiğini anlamasına yardımcı olmak adına daha fazla araştırma yapılmalıdır. Bu sürecin daha iyi anlaşılması, serbest zaman değerlendirme katılımlarında bir artışa olanak sağılayabilir.

METODOLOJİ

Bu arařtırmanın amacı; turizm rekreasyon faaliyetlerinde hem katılımcıların hem de katılımcı olmayanların, onların hissedilen engeller üzerine tecrübelerinin ve engelleri baş etme ediyorlarsa kullandıkları stratejilerin ne olduđunun incelenmesi yoluyla, yabancı turistlerin serbest zaman değerlendirme engellerini ve baş etme stratejilerini incelemektir. Bu çalışma, özellikle řu amaçlar üzerine yođunlařmıştır:

1. Önceki çalışmalara göre daha karmařık analizlerin engelleri sınıflandırma (düşük, orta, yüksek) amacıyla yapılarak, katılımcılar veya katılımcı olmayanlar (içsel, kişilerarası veya yapısal) tarafından tecrübe edilmiş engel türlerini tespit etmek.
2. Katılım düzeyi, serbest zaman değerlendirme engellerinin doğası ve cinsiyet temellerine dayalı kullanılan baş etme stratejilerini karşılařtırmak.
3. Hem katılımcı hem de katılımcı olmayanlar için, anket katılımcılarının baş etme yanıtları için ortalama deđerlerinin hatasız bir şekilde teorik temeller ile ayrılıp ayrılmadıđını belirlemek.
4. Hem katılımcı hem de katılımcı olmayanlar için baş etme stratejilerini karşılařtırmak.

5. Cinsiyet ve katılım düzeyi gibi deęişkenlerin incelenerek, önerilen engel düzeylerinin (düşük yapısal, orta yapısal, yüksek yapısal; düşük içsel, orta içsel, yüksek içsel; düşük kişilerarası, orta kişilerarası ve yüksek kişilerarası) ortalama bir karşılaştırılmasının yapılması.

YÖNTEM

Young, Ross, ve Barcelona (2003), Alexandris ve Carroll (1997), Jackson ve Rucks (1995), ve Hubbard ve Mannell (2001) tarafından kullanılan yöntemin deęiştirilmiş bir hali bu çalışmada kullanılmıştır. Young ve ark. (2003) tarafından kullanılan yöntemin deęiştirilmiş hali, rekreasyonel sporlara katılımında hissedilen engelleri tanımlamayı amaçlamış ve hissedilen engellerinin (düşük, orta, yüksek) düzeylerini sınıflandırmak için kullanılmıştır. Bu çalışmanın amacı, rekreasyonel sporlarda hissedilen engelleri tanımlamak deęildi, engel düzeyini sınıflandırmak için hissedilen engellerin denekler tarafından tanımlanması ve engel düzeyine, katılım düzeyine ve cinsiyete göre baş etme stratejilerinde ortalama bir farkın olup olmadığını belirlemek gerekiydi. Hubbard ve Mannell'in baş etme yöntemi (genel Cronbach Alpha deęeri, 0.72), kurumsal rekreasyon ortamında kullanılmak üzere geliştirilmişti. Bu yöntemden yararlanılmış ancak Jackson ve Rucks (1995) tarafından kullanılan fiziksel uygunluk ile ilgili bazı öğeler eklenerek rekreasyonel spor ortamında kullanılmak üzere deęiştirilmişti. Bu yöntemlerin birleşimi üç bölümden oluşmaktadır: Yöntemin A bölümünde, rekreasyonel sporlara katılım düzeyi ve demografik bilgiyle ilgili sorulara örneklemlerden yanıt vermesi istenmişti. Bölüm A'da toplanan veriler; (a) eğitim düzeyini, (b) gelir seviyesini, (c) cinsiyeti, (d) yaşı, (e) medeni durumu ve (f) katılım düzeyini içermekteydi.

Bölüm B'de, aşağıdaki beş noktalı Likert ölçeęi kullanılarak, rekreasyon faaliyetlerinde hissedilen engeller ile ilgili sorulara katılımcıların cevap istenmişti:

1. Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
2. Katılmıyorum
3. Kararsızım

4. Katılıyorum
5. Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

Bu ögeler; yapısal, içsel ve kişilerarası serbest zaman değerlendirme engelleriyle ilgili sorulardan oluşmaktaydı ve bu veriler, rekreasyonel sporlara düzenli olarak katılım göstermeyenlerin yanı sıra düzenli olarak katılım gösterenlerden de toplanmıştı.

Bu çalışmanın eşsiz bir yönü, o dönem düzenli olarak katılım göstermeyenlerin hissettiği engellere yönelik bilgi de toplamasıydı. Bu ögelere verilen yanıtlar, cinsiyet ve katılım düzeyiyle baş etme analizleri için engellerin düzeyini sınıflandırma görevi üstlenmişti.

Bölüm C'de, katılımcılardan rekreasyonel sporlarda kullanılan baş etme stratejileri ile ilgili, aşağıdaki beş noktalı Likert ölçeği kullanılarak yanıt vermesi istenmişti.

1. Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
2. Katılmıyorum
3. Kararsızım
4. Katılıyorum
5. Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

Bu ögeler, rekreasyon faaliyetlerine katılımı sağlayan ve kullanılan baş etme stratejileri ile ilgili sorulardan oluşmaktaydı ve Jackson ve Rucks tarafından tanımlanan baş etme stratejilerine dayanmaktaydı. Bu stratejiler; (a) zamanın değişimini, (b) becerilerin edinimini, (c) kişilerarası koordinasyonunu, (d) finansal gelişimi, (e) fiziksel tedaviyi ve (I) serbest zaman değerlendirme isteklerinin değişimini kapsamaktaydı. Yöntem üzerindeki belirli baş etme üyeleri ve ögelerin ilgili olduğu baş etme stratejileri aşağıdaki Tablo 3.2.'de gösterilmişti.

Bu çalışmada analiz yürütülürken, Jackson ve Rucks (1995) ve Hubbard ve Mannell (2001) tarafından yapılan önceki baş etme araştırmaları ile tutarlı olarak, altı baş etme stratejisi üç tür engel türünden (yapısal, içsel ve kişilerarası) biriyle

ilişkilendirilmişti. Bu çalışmada, baş etme stratejileri aşağıdaki tutumla belirlenen engel türüyle ilişkilendirilmişti:

1. Zamanın değişimi (yapısal engeller)
2. Becerilerin edinimi (içsel engeller)
3. Değişen kişilerarası ilişkiler (kişilerarası engeller)
4. Finansal gelişim (yapısal engeller)
5. Fiziksel uygunluk (yapısal engeller)

6. Serbest zaman değerlendirme isteklerinin değişimi (içsel engeller)

Her bir engelle ilişkili baş etme öğelerinin ortalama değeri; hissedilen engel düzeyine, cinsiyete ve katılım düzeyine göre her bir baş etme stratejisi türünün arasında önemli farklılıklar olup olmadığını belirlemek için hesaplanmıştı.

BULGULAR

Anketin uygulandığı katılımcıların toplamda 682'si anketin çalışma bilgi kağıdında istenilenin de ötesinde bilgi sağlamış ancak birçoğu da öğelerin herhangi birine cevap vermemiş veya anketin önemli bir kısmını tamamlamamıştı. Daha ayrıntılı olarak, ankete katılan 592 bireyden sekizi, herhangi bir soruya cevap vermemişti. Kalan 584 bireyden, yirmi biri Bölüm A'dan (demografi) sonraki öğelere cevap vermemişti. Bu çalışmanın asıl amacı hissedilen engel düzeyini ve takiben baş etme stratejilerini incelemek olduğu için, veri analizinden önce bu katılımcılar elenmiş ve anketin B Bölümünün tamamı için (ancak tüm baş etme öğeleri için değil) yanıt sağlayan 563 katılımcıdan oluşan toplam bir örneklem elde edildi. Anketin baş etme stratejileri ile ilgili olan son kısmı (Bölüm C), toplamda 562 turist tarafından tamamlandı.

Hissedilen engel düzeyine, cinsiyete ve katılım düzeyine baęlı olarak, bař etme stratejilerinde önemli farklılıklar olup olmadığını belirlemek için Varyans Analizi yapıldı. Her bir bař etme stratejisi için bir tane olmak üzere altı farklı üç yollu (2 X 2 X 2) ANOVA testi yapıldı (zaman yönetimi, beceri edinimi, fiziksel uygunluk, kişilerarası koordinasyon, finansal gelişim ve serbest zaman değerlendirme isteklerinin deęiřimi). Her test için kullanılan engel türü ve hissedilen düzey, yöntemin B Bölümünden ve bař etme stratejisi ile ilgili engelden (yapısal, içsel, kişilerarası) geliştirilen kümeler temel alındı.

Zaman Yönetimi Bař etme Stratejileri

Zaman yönetimi bař etmesi ile ilgili ařaęıda yer alan hipotezler, ařaęıdaki bölümde test edildi:

Engelleri bař etme etmek için zamanın deęiřtirilmesi, bu alıřmada incelenen stratejilerden biridir. Bu alıřmanın amacı; hissedilen engel düzeyine, cinsiyete ve katılım düzeyine baęlı olarak bař etmede farklılıkların olup olmadığını belirlemektir. Zaman yönetimi stratejileri söz konusu olduęunda, zaman yönetimi bař etme stratejilerinin hissedilen yapısal engelin düzeyine, cinsiyete ve katılım düzeyine baęlı olarak büyük farklılıklar gösterip göstermedięini belirlemek amacıyla ANOVA yapıldı. Sonular, bař etmelerde; engellerin yapısal düzeyleri arasında ve ($F(1,485)=3.753, p <.001$) ve katılımcılar ve katılımcı olmayanlar arasında ($F(1,485)=12.48, p <.001$) önemli farklılıklar saptadı. Zaman yönetimi bař etmesinde engellerin yapısal düzeyleri arasındaki önemli farklılıklar, özellikle, orta düzeyde engel hissedenlerin, engelin yapısal düzeyini az hissedenlere göre, zaman yönetimi bař etme stratejilerini kullanmalarının daha olası olduęunu göstermektedir. Ayrıca, katılımcıların; rekreasyonel spor faaliyetlerinde düzenli olarak katılımda bulunmayanlara göre zaman yönetimi bař etme stratejilerini kullanmasının çok daha yüksek olasılıkla olduęunu göstermektedir. Bu da düzenli olarak katılımda bulunanların, böyle yapabilmek için zaman yönetimi bař etme stratejilerini kullandığını göstermektedir. Zaman yönetimi stratejileri açısından katılımcıların erkek veya kadın olması büyük

farklılıklara yol açmamıştır. Zaman yönetimi baş etme stratejileri için yapılan ANOVA'nın özeti Tablo 1. 'de gösterilmiştir.

Tablo 1.

Zaman Yönetimi Baş etme Stratejileri İçin Varyans Analizi

Kaynak	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Katılımcılar Arasında			
Yapısal engel düzeyi (A)	1	3.753	.000***
Cinsiyet (B)	1	0.532	.338
Katılım (C)	1	12.359	.000***
A X B	1	0.132	.832
A X C	1	4.256	.027*
B X C	1	0.063	.614
A X B X C	1	0.098	.843
S grup-içi hatası	262	(0.476)	

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

Engelin yapısal düzeyi ve katılım düzeyi arasında önemli bir etkileşim etkisi ortaya çıkmıştır ($F(1,485) = 4.256, p < .05$). Sonuç olarak, iki bağımsız değişken arasındaki farklılıkları daha iyi anlamak amacıyla ilave analizler yapıldı. Katılım düzeyi ile karşılaştırıldığında, yapısal engelin hangi düzeyinin bu denli farklı olduğunu belirlemek için tamamlayıcı bir ANOVA yapılması gerekti. Bu analizin yapılmasının akabinde, yapısal engelin düşük düzeyinde ($M=3.26$) yer alan düzenli katılımcılar, yapısal engelin düşük düzeyinde yer alan katılımcı olmayanlara göre, zaman yönetimi baş etme stratejileri açısından oldukça büyük farklılık gösterdi. Ayrıca, engelin orta düzeyinde ($M=3.45$) yer alan katılımcılar ve engelin orta düzeyinde yer alan ($M=2.84$) katılımcı olmayanlar arasında da önemli farklılıklar keşfedildi. Bu bulgular, engelin orta düzeyinde yer alan düzenli katılımcıların, engelin daha düşük düzeylerinde yer alan düzenli katılımcılara göre zaman yönetimi baş etme stratejilerini kullanmalarının daha olası olduğunu göstermektedir. Engelin düşük ve orta düzeyinde yer alan düzenli katılımcılar arasındaki belirli farklılık tümüyle şaşırtıcı değildir, çünkü daha yüksek düzeyde engelle karşılaşan katılımcılar, rekreasyon faaliyetlerine düzenli katılımlarını sürdürebilmek için daha fazla baş etme yapmaları gerekir. Şekil 4.1, yapısal engel düzeyleri ve katılım düzeyleri arasındaki önemli etkileşim etkilerini göstermektedir.

Ek olarak, zaman yönetimi stratejilerindeki önemli farklılıklar, düşük yapısal engel düzeyindeki (M=3.28) ve orta yapısal engel düzeyindeki (M=3.44) katılımcılar arasında da keşfedilmişti. Düzenli katılımcılar arasında, engellerde artış hissedenenlerin zaman yönetimi baş etme stratejilerini kullanmaları olasılığı önemli ölçüde daha fazladır, bu da bir bireyin hissettiği engel ne kadar fazlaysa, baş etme stratejilerine o kadar ihtiyacı olduğunu göstermektedir. Düşük (M=2.68) ve orta düzeyde (M=2.59) yapısal engel hissedenen katılımcı olmayanlar arasında zaman yönetimi baş etme stratejileri için neredeyse hiçbir fark yoktu.

Bu bulgular aynı zamanda rekreasyon faaliyetlerine düzenli olarak katılımı bulanların, hem düşük hem de orta düzeydeki katılımı bulunmayan bireylere göre zaman yönetimi stratejilerini kullanmaları olasılığının önemli ölçüde daha fazla olduğunu göstermektedir. Şekilde 4.2, düşük ve orta düzeyde yapısal engel hissedenen düzenli katılımcılar arasında kullanılan zaman yönetimi baş etme stratejilerindeki önemli ölçüdeki farklılığın ek bir örneğini göstermektedir.

Aşağıdaki alternatif hipotezler kabul edildi:

H2: Katılım düzeyine göre zaman yönetimi baş etme ortalaması değerlerinde önemli ölçüde bir fark vardı. Düzenli katılımcıların, zaman yönetimi stratejilerini kullanma olasılıkları düzenli olarak katılmayan bireylere göre önemli ölçüde daha yüksekti.

H3: Yapısal engel kategorisine (düşük, orta) dayanan zaman yönetimi baş etme ortalama değerleri arasında önemli ölçüde bir fark vardı. Orta düzeyde bir yapısal engel hissedenenlerin, zaman yönetimi baş etme stratejilerini kullanmalarının olasılığı düşük düzeyde bir yapısal engel hissedene göre önemli ölçüde daha yüksekti.

H4: Katılım düzeyi ve yapısal engelin düzeyi değişkenlerinin birleştirilmesine dayanan zaman yönetimi baş etme ortalama değerleri arasında büyük bir fark vardı. Orta düzeyde yapısal engel hissedenen katılımcıların zaman yönetimi baş etme stratejilerini kullanmalarının olasılığı, düşük düzeyde yapısal engel hissedenen ve hem düşük hem de orta düzeyde yapısal engel hissedenen katılımcı olmayan bireylere göre önemli ölçüde daha yüksekti.

Beceri Edinimi Baş Etme Stratejileri

Aşağıdaki bölümde, beceri edinimi baş etmesiyle ilgili aşağıdaki hipotezler test edildi:

H8: Cinsiyet, katılım düzeyi ve içsel engel düzeyinin birleştirilmesine dayanan beceri edinimi baş etmesi ortalama değerleri arasında bir farklılık yoktur. Katılımı arttırmak için yeni becerilerin öğrenimi, serbest zaman değerlendirmesine katılımını genişletmek için kullanılan yaygın bir stratejidir. Beceri edinimi söz konusu olduğunda, becerini edinimi baş etme stratejilerinin; hissedilen içsel engel düzeyine, cinsiyete ve katılım düzeyine dayalı olarak önemli ölçüde değişiklik gösterip göstermediğini belirlemek için ANOVA yapıldı. Sonuçlar, içsel engel düzeyleri arasında ($F(1, 472)= 3.245, p =.072$), katılımcılar ve katılımcı olmayanlar arasında ($F(1,472)= 0.312, p =.718$) veya erkekler ve kadınlar arasında ($F(1,472)= 0.212, p =.645$) baş etmede önemli ölçüde bir değişiklik göstermedi. Genel olarak, bu çalışmada incelenen değişkenlerle, beceri edinimi baş etme stratejileri arasında bir farklılık yoktu. Bu; orta düzeyde içsel engel hisseden katılımcılar, düşük düzeyde içsel engel hisseden katılımcılarla karşılaştırıldığında becerilerin edinimi kapsamındaki stratejilerde herhangi bir farklılığın olmadığını göstermektedir. Aynı çıkarım, değişkenler cinsiyet ve katılım düzeli olduğunda da yapılabilir. Özellikle, hissedilen bir beceri eksikliğinden kaynaklanabilen engelleri baş etmek için kullanılan stratejiler; kadınlar ve erkekler arasında, düzenli katılımcılar ve katılımcı olmayanlar arasında veya düşük veya orta düzeyde içsel engel hissedenler arasında önemli ölçüde bir değişiklik göstermemiştir. Görüşüne göre, bu çalışmada incelenen değişiklikler tarafından yeni bir becerinin öğrenimi pekiştirilmiştir. Beceri edinimi baş etme stratejileri üzerine ANOVA özet tablosu, Tablo 2. 'de gösterilmiştir.

Tablo 2.

Beceri Edinimi Baş etme Stratejileri için Varyans Analizi

Kaynak	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
	Katılımcılar Arasında		
İçsel Engel Düzeyi (A)	1	3.245	.072
Cinsiyet (B)	1	0.327	.634
Katılım (C)	1	0.312	.718
A X B	1	0.003	.876
A X C	1	2.612	.076
B X C	1	0.212	.645
A X B X C	1	0.000	
S grup-içi hatası	472	(0.312)	

Kişilerarası Koordinasyon Baş Etme Stratejileri

Kişilerarası baş etme stratejilerinden, bir kişinin katılım gösterebilmek için başka bir kişiye ihtiyacı olduğu durumlarda yararlanılır. Diğer baş etme stratejileriyle benzer olarak; kişilerarası koordinasyon stratejileri, bu tür engel baş etmeleri yoluyla katılımı sağlayabilir. Kişilerarası koordinasyon baş etme stratejilerinin; hissedilen kişilerarası engel, cinsiyete ve katılım düzeyine göre önemli ölçüde değişip değişmeyeceğini belirlemek için ANOVA yapıldı. Sonuçlar, katılım düzeyinde önemli ölçüde farklılık gösterdi ($F(1,485) = 5.629$, $p = .018$) ancak cinsiyet ($F(1,485) = 0.463$, $p = .497$) veya hissedilen kişilerarası engel düzeyi ($F(1,485) = 0.479$, $p = .470$) arasında önemli ölçüde bir fark yoktu. Genel olarak, rekreasyonel spor faaliyetlerine düzenli olarak katılanlar ile ($M=3.22$) düzenli olarak katılmayanlar ($M=2.96$) arasında kişilerarası koordinasyon baş etme stratejilerinde farklılıklar vardı. Bu; rekreasyonel spor faaliyetlerine düzenli olarak katılanların, beraber katılabilecekleri başka bir kimseyi bulmalarını sağlayacak stratejileri kullanarak, düzenli katılımlarını devam ettirmelerinin olasılığının daha yüksek olduğunu göstermektedir. Bu faaliyetlere düzenli olarak katılmayanlar, kişilerarası koordinasyon stratejilerini kullanma isteksizlikleri dolayısıyla bu şekilde hareket etmeyebilirler.

Aşağıdaki alternatif hipotez kabul edildi:

H12: Katılım düzeyine dayalı kişilerarası baş etme değerleri arasında bir farklılık vardı. Rekreasyon faaliyetlerine düzenli olarak katılanların, düzenli olarak katılmayanlara göre kişilerarası koordinasyon stratejilerini kullanma olasılıklarının önemli ölçüde daha yüksek olduğu görüldü.

Finansal Gelişim Baş Etme Stratejileri

Finansal gelişim baş etmesiyle ilgili aşağıdaki hipotezler aşağıdaki bölümde test edildi:

Katılım fırsatına sahip olmak veya daha uygun fiyatlı seçenekleri tercih etmek, birinin finansal durumunu geliştirmek ve katılımı kolaylaştırmak için kullanabileceği finansal baş etme stratejilerinin iki örneğidir. Finansal baş etme stratejilerinin; hissedilen yapısal engel, cinsiyete ve katılım düzeyine bağlı olarak önemli ölçüde farklılık gösterip göstermediğini belirlemek için ANOVA yapıldı. Sonuçlar, yapısal engel düzeyinde ($F(1,485)= 16.423, p < .001$) önemli ölçüde farklılıklar gösterirken, cinsiyette ($F(1,485)= 0.628, p =.325$) veya katılım düzeyinde ($F(1,485)= 4.345, p =.068$) herhangi önemli ölçüde bir farklılık göstermemiştir. Bu; orta düzeyde yapısal engel ($M=2.86$) hisseden bireylerin, düşük düzeyde yapısal engel hisseden bireylere göre finansal stratejiler kullanması olasılığının önemli ölçüde yüksek olduğunu göstermektedir. Özellikle, daha yüksek düzeyde yapısal engel hisseden bir bireyin finansal stratejileri kullanma olasılığı daha yüksekti. Her iki grubun da ortalama değerleri düşüktü, yani bu sonuçlar; düşük düzeyde yapısal engel hisseden bir bireyin, katılımı arttırmak için finansal stratejiler kullanması olasılığının önemli ölçüde düşük olacağını veya düşük düzeyde yapısal engel hissetmelerinin basit bir şekilde baş etme yapmak için engel hissetmediklerini gösterebilir. Finansal gelişim baş etme stratejileri için yapılan ANOVA'nın özet tablosu, Tablo 3' de gösterilmektedir.

Tablo 3.

Finansal Gelişim Baş etme Stratejileri İçin Varyans Analizi

Kaynak	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
	Katılımcılar Arasında		
Yapısal engel düzeyi (A)	1	15.423	.000***
Cinsiyet (B)	1	0.628	.325
Katılım (C)	1	4.345	.068
A X B	1	0.372	.476
A X C	1	0.238	.723
B X C	1	0.179	.712
A X B X C	1	4.302	.043*
S grup-içi hatası	485	(0.562)	

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

Tablo 20'ye göre, bu çalışmada incelenen üç bağımsız değer her biri arasında önemli ölçüde üç yollu bir etkileşim bulunmaktadır ($F(1,485) = 4.302$, $p = .043$). Cinsiyet ve katılım düzeyi ana etkilerinin önemli ölçüde olmamasına rağmen; yapısal engelin düzeyi, katılım düzeyi ve cinsiyet arasındaki etkileşimi anlamak için daha çok araştırma gerekliydi Keppel'e (1991) göre, farklı düzeylerdeki bağımsız değerler istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olduğunda, etkileşim testleri gereklidir. SPSS kullanılarak, basit-basit temel etki analizleri yapıldı. Bu sonuçlar, orta düzeyde yapısal engel hisseden kadın katılımcıların, düşük düzeyde yapısal engel hisseden erkek katılımcı olmayanlara göre finansal baş etme stratejilerini kullanmaları olasılığının önemli ölçüde daha yüksek olduğunu göstermektedir. Ancak bu sonuç, muhtemelen orta düzeyde engel hisseden kadın katılımcı gruplarının küçük ölçekte olmasından dolayı, bu karşılaştırmadaki genel olasılık değerinin kayda değer olmadığı için çıkarılamaz ($p = .068$). Aynı zamanda bu belirlemeyi yapmak, verilen sonuçlar hem cinsiyette hem de katılım düzeyinde önemli ölçüde bir farklılık belirtmediği için tartışmaya açıktır.

Aşağıdaki alternatif hipotez kabul edildi:

H15: Kişilerarası engel (düşük, orta) kategorisine bağlı olarak kişilerarası baş etme ortalama sonuçları arasında önemli ölçüde farklılık vardı. Orta düzeyde engel hisseden katılımcıların, düşük düzeyde yapısal engel hisseden katılımcılara göre finansal gelişim baş etme stratejilerini kullanma olasılığı önemli ölçüde yüksekti.

Değişen Serbest Zaman Değerlendirme İstekleri Baş Etme Stratejileri

Bir kimsenin serbest zaman değerlendirme tercihlerini veya isteklerini değiştirmesi bu çalışmada incelenen stratejilerden biridir. Değişen serbest zaman değerlendirme istekleri baş etme stratejilerinin; hissedilen içsel engel düzeyine, cinsiyete ve katılım düzeyine bağlı olarak farklılık gösterip göstermediğini belirlemek için ANOVA yapıldı. Sonuçlar, içsel engel düzeyleri ($F(1,485)= 15.975, p < .001$) arasında önemli ölçüde farklılıklar gösterirken, katılımcılar ve katılımcı olmayanlar ($F(1,485)= 2.042, p =.154$) arasında veya kadın ve erkekler ($F(1,485)= 1.055, p =.305$) arasında kayda değer bir farklılık göstermemiştir. Genel olarak, değişen serbest zaman değerlendirme istekleri baş etme stratejileri arasındaki tek kayda değer değişiklik, hissedilen engel düzeyi arasındadır ve bu; orta düzeyde engel hisseden bireylerin ($M=3.40$), düşük düzeyde içsel engel hisseden ($M=2.59$) bireylere göre değişen serbest zaman değerlendirme istekleri baş etme stratejilerini kullanma olasılıkları daha yüksektir. Yani; orta düzeyde engel hissedenler, daha çok engele maruz kalmaları sonucunda daha yüksek bir baş etme değerine sahip olabilirler. Düşük düzeyde engel hisseden bir birey, basitçe baş etme stratejilerini kullanmaya ihtiyaç duymayabilir. Değişen serbest zaman değerlendirme istekleri stratejileri için yapılan ANOVA'nın özet tablosu, Tablo 4.'de gösterilmektedir.

Tablo 4.

Değişen Serbest Zaman Değerlendirme İstekleri Baş Etme Stratejileri için Varyans Analizi

Kaynak	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Katılımcılar Arasında			
İçsel Engel Düzeyi (A)	L	15,975	.000***
Cinsiyet (B)	1	1,055	,305
Katılım (C)	1	2,042	,154
A X B	1	0,478	,490
A X C	1	2,617	,107
B X C	1	0,640	,424
A X B X C	1		
S grup-İçi hatası	472	(.410)	

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

Aşağıdaki alternatif hipotez kabul edildi:

H19: İçsel engel (düşük, orta) kategorisine göre değişen serbest zaman değerlendirme istekleri baş etmesi ortalama değerleri arasında önemli ölçüde farklılıklar vardı. Orta düzeyde engel hissedenlerin, düşük düzeyde engel hissedenlere göre değişen serbest zaman değerlendirme istekleri baş etme stratejilerini kullanma olasılığının önemli ölçüde daha yüksek olduğu görüldü.

Aşağıdaki alternatif hipotezler kabul edildi:

H21 : Cinsiyete göre fiziksel uygunluk baş etmesi ortalama değerlerinde önemli ölçüde farklılıklar vardı. Kadınların, erkeklere göre fiziksel uygunluk stratejilerini kullanma olasılığının önemli ölçüde daha yüksek olduğu görüldü.

H22: Katılım düzeyine göre fiziksel uygunluk baş etme ortalama değerlerinde önemli ölçüde farklılıklar vardı. Düzenli olarak katılım gösterenlerin, düzenli olarak katılım göstermeyenlere fiziksel uygunluk stratejilerini kullanma olasılığı önemli ölçüde daha yüksekti.

TARTIŞMA

Bu çalışmanın sınırları çerçevesinde, aşağıdaki sonuçlar ileri sürülmüştür:

Bir baş etme kategorisi haricinde (fiziksel uygunluk), kadınlar ve erkeklerin baş etmelerinde bir farklılığa rastlanmamıştır. Cinsiyet, diğer rekreasyon faaliyet ortamlarında önemli bir değişken olabilir ancak Türkiye'deki yabancı turistler için bu geçerli değildir. Her ne kadar cinsiyetin, bu çalışmada kullanılan baş etme stratejilerinde bir etkisi olmasa da gelecek araştırmalarda göz önünde bulundurulması gereken önemli bir faktördür çünkü baş etmelerde cinsiyet farklılıkları daha geniş bir yaş çeşitliliğine sahip diğer rekreasyonel spor faaliyetlerinde ortaya çıkabilir.

Rekreasyon faaliyetlerinin düzenli katılımcılarının, engelleri baş etmek için zaman yönetimi, fiziksel uygunluk ve kişilerarası koordinasyon stratejilerini kullanma olasılıkları daha yüksektir. Tutarlı olarak, düzenli katılım; katılımcıların bu tür stratejileri kullanarak engelleri baş etme isteklerinin bir sonucudur. Baş etmenin

eksikliği; katılım için motivasyon eksikliği, ilgi eksikliği veya programların farkında olmama gibi diğer faktörlerin bir sonucu olabilir. Düzenli olarak katılımında bulunanlar, katılımlarını sürdürmek için sadece daha motivasyonlu olabilirler ve katılımında bulunmayanların karşılaşılan engeller ile ilgisi olmayabilir.

Orta düzeyde engel hisseden bireylerin, düşük düzeyde engel hissedenlere göre zaman yönetimi, değişen serbest zaman değerlendirme istekleri ve finansal gelişim stratejilerini kullanma olasılığı önemli ölçüde daha yüksektir. Yani, düşük düzeyde engel hissedenler baş etme stratejilerini ihtiyaçları olmadığı için kullanmıyor olabilirler veya mevcut program ve hizmetleri bilmiyor veya onlarla ilgilenmiyor olabilirler.

Orta düzeyde engel hisseden düzenli katılımcıların, düşük ve orta düzeyde yapısal engel hisseden katılımcı olmayanlara göre zaman yönetimi stratejilerini kullanma olasılıkları önemli ölçüde daha yüksektir.

Orta düzeyde engel hisseden düzenli katılımcıların, düşük düzeyde yapısal engel hisseden katılımcılara göre zaman yönetimi baş etme stratejileri kullanma olasılığı önemli ölçüde daha yüksektir. Daha yüksek düzeyde engel hisseden düzenli katılımcılar arasında zaman yönetimi stratejilerinin baş etme edilme olasılığı önemli ölçüde daha yüksektir. Düzenli katılım bu karşılaştırmada tutarlı durumda olduğu için, baş etme eksikliğinin sebepleri olarak; ilgi eksikliği, motivasyon eksikliği ve farkındalık eksikliği gösterilemez. Sonuçlar, artan engel hissinin baş etmede önemli ölçüde bir artışa sebep olduğunu göstermektedir.

SONUÇ

Bu çalışmanın bulguları, hissedilen engel düzeyinin, bireylerin serbest zaman değerlendirme engelini baş edip etmemeyi seçmeleri üzerinde önemli ölçüde bir etkiye sahip olabileceğini göstermiştir. Bu düzeyler düzenli olarak katılım gösterenler arasında baş etme üzerinde önemli ölçüde etkiye sahip olabileceğini de göstermektedir, çünkü orta düzeyde engel hissedenlerin, düşük düzeyde engel

hisseden katılımcılara göre zaman yönetimi stratejilerini baş etme olasılıkları önemli ölçüde daha yüksektir. Bu düzeylerin daha da geliştirilmesi gereklidir ve kavramın anlaşılmasında oldukça önemli bir rol oynayacaktır.

Engellerle baş etmede başarısız olmanın sonucunda, katılımıda bulunmama gözlemlenir. Rekreasyon programı sağlayıcıları şüphesiz ki düzenli katılımları arttıracak yöntemler ile ilgileneceklerdir. Ancak, baş etme eksikliğinin baş etme kabiliyetinin olmaması ya da faaliyete katılmada genel ilgi eksikliğinden kaynaklandığı bilinmemektedir. Örneklemin çoğunluğu (%73.9) katılımı artırma isteği olduğunu göstermektedir; yani, görünüşe bakılırsa, turistlerin engellerle baş etmeyi seçmemelerinin sebepleri, gelecek araştırmalarda üzerinde durulması gereken faktörlerden kaynaklanmaktadır.

Engeller ve baş etme stratejileri arasındaki güçlü ilişkiler; örneğin zaman engellerinin zaman yönetimi stratejileri ile baş edilmesinin gerekli olmayabileceği düşüncesini desteklemektedir. Özellikle; belirli bir engelin faaliyete bağlı olarak farklı tür stratejiler kullanarak bir baş etme başlatıp başlatamayacağını belirlemek amacıyla gelecek araştırmalarda bu ilişkiler incelenmelidir. Jackson ve Rucks (1995) baş etme stratejisi seçiminin, sadece hangi tür engel ile karşılaşıldığı bilinerek, her zaman tahmin edilemeyeceği sonucuna varmışlardır. Çalışmanın sonuçları; serbest zaman değerlendirme engelleri baş etmelerinin çeşitli kategorilerden stratejilerin birleşimini içerebileceğini ileri sürmüştür. Belirli bir tür engeli, bir baş etme stratejisi kategorisiyle ilişkilendirmek sorunlara yol açabilir ve birinin motivasyon düzeyi gibi ilave faktörler baş etme stratejilerinin kullanımına katkıda bulunabilir. Eğer baş etme stratejileri hissedilen engelin türüne göre tahmin edilemiyorsa, belki de baş etme seçiminin hissedilen engelin düzeyi ve türüyle hiçbir alakası olmayabilir.

Raymore'a (2002) göre; serbest zaman değerlendirmede kolaylaştırıcılar, bireyler tarafından serbest zaman değerlendirme tercihlerinin oluşumunu mümkün kılmak veya teşvik etmek ve katılımı arttırmak veya teşvik etmek amacıyla hissedilen veya tecrübe edilen, araştırmacıların varsaydığı faktörlerdir. Raymore, serbest zaman değerlendirmesine katılımı anlamak amacıyla, engellerin ve kolaylaştırıcıların

karşılıksız yaklaşımlar olduğunu ileri sürmüştür. Kolaylaştırıcıların, baş etme sürecini nasıl etkilediği üzerine yapılacak incelemeler, program sağlayıcılarının baş etme stratejilerinin kullanımını nasıl arttıracığının daha iyi bir şekilde anlaşılmasını sağlayabilir.

ÖNERİLER

Bu çalışmanın bulguları, rekreasyon faaliyetlerinde müzakelerin anlaşılmasını sağlamıştır. Bu bulgular, aynı zamanda aslen Jackson, Crawford ve Godbey (1993) tarafından öne sürülen baş etme kavramını desteklemektedir ve başarılı bir şekilde Jackson ve Rucks (1995) ve Hubbard ve Mannell (2001) tarafından onaylanmıştır. Engellerle baş etmeye isteklilik, rekreasyon faaliyetlerine katılım ihtimali üzerinde olum bir etkiye sahiptir. Yeni bir araştırma alanıyla örtüşen kısıtlamaların sonucunda, rekreasyonel spor alanında baş etme kavramını anlamak için daha fazla araştırma gerekmektedir. Bu çalışmanın bulgularına ve yöntemlerine dayanarak, bu alanda yapılacak daha fazla araştırma için aşağıdaki öneriler yapılmıştır:

Önemli bir öneri, bu çalışmanın daha geniş bir örneklem ile tekrarlanmasıdır. Porter ve Whitcomb'a (2003) göre, anket araştırmacıları iyi bir yanıt oranını yakalamak için sürekli olarak tekniklerini düzenlemek durumunda kalacaklardır.

Yapısal, içsel ve kişilerarası engellerin katılımı engelleyen tüm faktörlerini açıklayan teorik önermelerin, rekreasyon faaliyet ortamında daha fazla incelenmesine ihtiyaç vardır. Küçük örneklem, bu üç tür engelin varlığını test edecek faktör alanını sınırlandırır. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), 700 kişilik bir örneklem büyüklüğünün daha güvenilir faktör belirlemeleri için daha makbul olduğunu önermiştir. Ayrıca, rekreasyon faaliyetlerindeki baş etme sürecini teorik olarak daha iyi anlamaya katkıda bulunması ve bu incelemeden ortaya çıkabilecek başka baş etme stratejilerinin olup olmadığının belirlenmesi için bu analizde kullanılan altı baş etme stratejisinin faktör analizinin yapılması önerilmektedir.

Katılım düzeyleri ve cinsiyet alt gruplarının kullanılarak baş etme stratejilerinin karşılaştırılması için ilave araştırmalar gereklidir. Cinsiyete, katılım düzeyine ve

engel düzeyine göre gruplara ayrıldığında, grup büyüklükleri önemli ölçüde düşmüş ve karşılaştırmalar oldukça küçük gruplarla yapılmıştır. Değişkenlerin birleştirilmesini ve baş etmeyi nasıl etkilediklerinin daha iyi anlaşılması için, çeşitli ortamlardan örneklemelerin edinilmesi, bu karşılaştırmaları mümkün kılabilir.

Bu çalışmada incelenen nüfusun doğası nedeniyle, bu çalışmada tanıtılan hissedilen engel düzeyleri kavramını anlamak için daha fazla araştırma gereklidir. Türkiye'de bulunan, nispeten küçük bir yaş aralığına sahip yabancı turistler, hissedilen engel düzeylerini değerlendirmek için uygun bir nüfus olmayabilir. Hissedilen engel düzeylerini uygun bir şekilde değerlendirmek için, engel tecrübeleri çeşitliliği açısından daha geniş nüfuslar ve ortamlar üzerinde daha fazla araştırma yapılmalıdır. Bu çalışmada, daha önceki çalışmalar ile tutarlılığı sürdürmek için beş-noktalı Likert ölçeği kullanılmasına rağmen, gelecek araştırmalarda yedi-noktalı Likert ölçeğinin kullanılması önerilmektedir. Bu, karşılaştırmalar yapılabilmesi için daha doğru bir gruplandırma stratejisini mümkün kılabilir.

Bu belirli örneklem, ilk olarak rekreasyonel sporların resmî olmayan rekreasyon programında bulunmaktaydı. Rekreasyon faaliyetlerinin her bir alt alanı arasındaki baş etme stratejilerini anlamak için ilave araştırmaların yapılması önerilmektedir. Bu çalışma, bu faaliyetlere katılımda bulunan nispeten küçük oranda turistleri kapsamaktadır; yani, katılım modellerini, motivasyonları ve rekreasyon faaliyetlerinin her alanında katılım sırasında karşılan zorlukları ayırt etmek için ilave araştırmalar gereklidir.

Korelasyon analizi; engel kategorileri ve baş etme stratejileri arasındaki iç korelasyonu ileri sürer ancak baş etme kategorileri ile ilişkilendirildiklerinde, engel kategorileri arasında ya çok az ilişki bulunmaktadır ya da hiç bulunmamaktadır. Gelecekteki araştırmalar; engeller ve program alanlarındaki rekreasyon faaliyetlerine katılanların ve katılmayanların profillerinin belirlenmesi amacıyla yapılan müzakerelerin arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemelidir. Bir birey; yapısal, içsel veya kişilerarası engellerin herhangi bir birleşimini tecrübe edebilir ancak belirli bir kullanıcı grubu için tecrübe edilen engel tür veya türleri göz önüne alındığında,

belirli bir baş etme stratejisi veya stratejileri tahmin edilebilir. Örneğin, baş etme stratejilerinin yanı sıra engel kategorileri arasında bulunan önemli ölçüdeki ilişkiler sebebiyle; bu şartlar altında, gelecekteki araştırmalar, çoklu varyans analizi prosedürleri kullanarak, hem engelleri hem de baş etmeleri ölçmek amacıyla bu yapıları incelemelidir. Gelecekteki araştırmalarda; çeşitli faktörlerin baş etme sürecini nasıl etkilediklerini belirlemek amacıyla çoklu ilişki ve mümkünse çok regresyon analizi yapılabilir.

Bir kimsenin, bir engeli baş etme isteği, belirli bir faaliyete katılma motivasyonlarıyla bağlantılıdır. Düzenli katılımcılar daha yüksek baş etme değerlerine sahip olduğu için, onların katılım sağlamak için daha motivasyonlu oldukları sonucu çıkarılabilir. Kavramları birbirine daha yakın hale getirecek bir araştırma dizisi geliştirmek için, rekreasyon faaliyetleri katılımcılarının motivasyonlarının daha fazla incelenmesi, baş etme literatürü ile ilişkilendirilmelidir. Bu çalışmada yer alan engel ve baş etme stratejileri arasında bir ilişki olmaması nedeniyle, bu engellerin baş etmeler üzerinde küçük bir etkiye sahip olması ve baş etme stratejilerinin kullanımında katılım motivasyonunun daha önemli ölçüde bir etkiye sahip olması mümkündür.

Diğer demografik değişkenler, baş etme sürecini nasıl etkilediklerinin belirlenmesi amacıyla daha fazla incelenmelidir. 562 yabancı turistten oluşan bu çalışmanın örnekleme, sosyo-ekonomik durum ve etnik köken açısından oldukça farklılık gösterebilir. Bu faktörlerin, baş etme sürecini nasıl etkilediği üzerine araştırma yapılması önerilmektedir.

Bu araştırmalar, baş etme sürecinin daha iyi anlaşılmasına ve rekreasyon faaliyet programlarına katılımı nasıl etkilediği konusuna katkıda bulunabilir. Bazı baş etme stratejileri diğerlerine göre daha yaygın olsa da rekreasyon faaliyet programı sağlayıcıları, araştırmanın bu boyutunda, bir bireyin karar vermesine neyin sebep olduğunun, katılımı neyin zorlaştırdığının ve ne ölçüde bu zorlukların baş etme ile sonuçlandırıldığının kesin olmadığını farkına varmaları gerekmektedir. Ancak bu çalışmada örneklem engelleri tecrübe etmiş ve bazıları bu engelleri baş etmeyi

seçerek katılımında bir artışa yol açmışlardır. Bu bireylerden bazıları, diğerlerine göre daha yüksek engel düzeyleriyle karşılaşmış; bazıları ise sadece engeli baş etmemeyi tercih etmiştir. Rekreasyon faaliyet programı sağlayıcıları, sadece mevcut katılımcıları değil, rekreasyon faaliyetlerine uygun tüm katılımcıların ihtiyaçlarını ve ilgi alanlarını sürekli olarak değerlendirmek durumundalardır. Katılımcı olmayanlara ilişkin bir bilgi aranmıyorsa, bir bireyin neden katılımında bulunmama kararını vermesinin sebebi asla belirlenemeyebilir. Birey, hangi engeli hissetmekte ve neden bu engelle baş etmemektedir? Bu, bireyim herhangi bir programa veya sağlanan hizmete katılmaya ilgisinin olmamasıyla ve özgün ilgi alanlarının açığa çıkarmayı başaramayan market yaklaşımlarıyla basit bir şekilde açıklanabilir. Eğer pazarlama çabaları bu olasılığı sürekli olarak tüm uygun katılımcıların ihtiyaçlarına yönelik programlama ve özgün ilgi alanlarına hizmet sağlama değerlendirmeleri yaparak eleyebiliyorsa, program sağlayıcıları katılımsızlığı, baş etmenin olmaması ile ilişkilendirebilir. Böylelikle soru, şu hali alır: rekreasyonel spor profesyonelleri, baş etme sürecini kolaylaştırmak için ne yapabilir?

Bu çalışmada turistlerin katılım sağlayamamasının çeşitli sebepleri vardır. Her ne kadar bazı turistler tarafından zaman yönetimi stratejileri kullanılsa da hepsi tarafından kullanılmamıştır. Bu bireyler katılım sağlamak için niçin zamanlarını yönetemediler veya programlarına buna göre ayarlayamadılar? Program türleri ve sunulan hizmetler, onların programlarını ayarlamasına değmeyecek nitelikte miydi yoksa turistler sadece katılabilecekleri zaman dilimlerinde bu seçeneklere sahip mi değillerdi? Sağlayıcılar, program planları hakkında kararlar vermeden önce, katılımcıların ihtiyaçlarını ve onların planlarını göz önünde bulundurmaları son derece önem taşımaktadır. Geleneksel olmayan zaman dilimlerinde, işletmeleri açık tutmak maliyetli olabilir ancak zaman eksikliği hissi birçok engel çalışmalarında tutarlıdır ve bu sorunu gidermek için yeni düşünce şekilleri gerekli olabilir.

Zaman yönetimi stratejilerini kullanamamak, rekreasyon faaliyetlerine katılım eksikliğiyle ilişkilendirilebilecek birçok faktörden biridir. Araştırmacıların; baş etme eksikliğinin sebeplerini ve bu sebeplerin engeller ile nasıl bağlantılı olduğunu belirlemek için daha yapacakları çok fazla iş bulunmaktadır ancak bu süre içinde

sağlayıcılar, uygun katılımcıların ihtiyaçlarını ve ilgi alanlarını sürekli olarak değerlendirmeli ve baş etme sürecini kolaylaştıracak idari kararlar vermelidir. Bu çalışmada, analizden kaynaklanan engel ve baş etme stratejileri arasındaki ilişki eksikliği sebebiyle, katılım eksikliğinin, hissedilen engellerin bir sonucu olduğu varsayılırsa rekreasyon faaliyet programı sağlayıcılarına dikkatli olmaları tavsiye edilmektedir. İlgi alanı, farkındalık ve katılım için motivasyon düzeyi gibi diğer birçok faktöre, hissedilen engellerin belki de daha çok etkisi olabilir. Bu faktörlerin katılımı nasıl etkilediğini anlamak, rekreasyon faaliyet ajanslarının görevlerini yerine getirme olasılığının artmasının anahtarı olabilir.

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