



KADIR HAS UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION DISCIPLINE AREA

**UNDERSTANDING THE EFFECTS OF ATHLETES'
INSTITUTIONALIZATION PERCEPTIONS ON
PROFESSIONAL COMMITMENT AND MOTIVATION:
A STUDY ON WRESTLERS' ATTITUDES**

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MASTER'S THESIS

ISTANBUL, DECEMBER, 2018

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MASTER'S THESIS

Submitted to the Graduate School of Social Sciences of Kadir Has University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master's in the Discipline Area of Business Administration under the Program of Business Administration

ISTANBUL, DECEMBER, 2018

I, KANSU İLDEM;

Hereby declare that this Master's Thesis is my own original work and that due references have been appropriately provided on all supporting literature and resources.

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ACCEPTANCE AND APPROVAL

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ABSTRACT

İLDEM, KANSU. *UNDERSTANDING THE EFFECTS OF ATHLETES' INSTITUTIONALIZATION PERCEPTIONS ON PROFESSIONAL COMMITMENT AND MOTIVATION: A STUDY ON WRESTLERS' ATTITUDES*, MASTER'S THESIS, İstanbul, 2018.

The main purpose of this thesis is to examine the relationships between athletes' institutionalization perceptions and their professional commitment and motivation. Given the nature of the research objectives, data were collected through an online questionnaire which has 59 items from 236 wrestlers who are affiliated with Turkish Wrestling Federation. Multiple regression analyses were performed to test the hypothesized relationships. The results indicate that athletes' institutionalization perceptions have partial positive effect on both professional commitment and motivation. One of the sub-dimension of institutionalization, objectivity factor has a significant relationship with most of dependent variables and has negative impact on them, while professionalism which is other sub-dimension of institutionalization, has positive impact on most of dependent variables. Other contributions and implications of the findings are presented in the discussion and conclusion section.

Keywords: Athlete, Institutionalization perception, Professional commitment, Motivation, Sport management.

ÖZET

İLDEM, KANSU. *SPORCULARIN KURUMSALLAŞMA ALGILARININ MESLEKLERİNE OLAN BAĞLILIKLARI VE MOTİVASYONLARI ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİSİNİ ANLAMAK: GÜREŞÇİLERİN TUTUMLARI ÜZERİNE BİR ÇALIŞMA*, YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ, İstanbul, 2018.

Bu tezin ana amacı, sporcuların kurumsallaşma algıları ile mesleklerine olan bağlılıkları ve motivasyonları arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektir. Bu araştırmanın hedefleri doğrultusunda 59 maddeden oluşan çevrimiçi bir anket oluşturulmuş ve bu anket yoluyla Türkiye Güreş Federasyonuna bağlı toplam 236 güreşçiden veri toplanmıştır. Önerilen ilişkileri test etmek için çoklu regresyon analizleri yapılmıştır. Sonuçlara göre, sporcuların kurumsallaşma algılarının, mesleki bağlılıkları ve motivasyonları üzerine kısmı pozitif bir etkisi olduğu bulunmuştur. Kurumsallaşmanın alt-boyutlarından olan nesnellik faktörünün çoğu bağımlı değişken için önemli olduğu ve onları negatif etkilediği, diğer kurumsallaşma alt-boyutlarından olan profesyonellik faktörünün ise pozitif bir etkiye sahip olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır. Araştırmanın diğer katkıları, tartışma ve sonuç bölümünde detaylı olarak belirtilmiştir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Sporcu, Kurumsallaşma algısı, Mesleki bağlılık, Motivasyon, Spor yönetimi.

INTRODUCTION

Change is continuous in modern society. It can be noticed that meaning of most of terms or notions are transforming nowadays. It is natural that most thoughts or concepts didn't have the same meaning of 20 years ago anymore and probably it will not be the same after 20 years. While a few concepts remain same, most of them adopt itself to change. Change can either improve the concept or alter it such that the concept diverges from its basis. Moreover, the great leap of technology in last century boosted the speed of the change and it affected everything. Improvement of technology is fast enough to reform most concepts of life and it has also changed the meaning of sport inevitably.

Originally "Sport is an activity involving physical exertion and skill in which an individual or team competes against another or others for entertainment" according to Oxford Living Dictionary. Ekmekçi, Ekmekçi and İrmış (2013) state that sport is a phenomenon which is practiced by people to stay healthy and have fun. As it seen, the focus point of the description of sport is physical activity and entertainment. However, there are some other definitions of sport that emphasize other aspects of it. For example, The Council of Europe (2001) defined sport as "all forms of physical activity which, through casual or organized participation, aim at expressing or improving physical fitness and mental well-being, forming social relationships or obtaining results in competition at all levels" (p.1). Moreover, Pitts, Fielding and Miller (1994) indicate that sport is the sum of all activity, business enterprise, experience and their main focus is fitness, recreation, athletics and leisure. As mentioned, sport is also about social relations, experience and business.

Early descriptions of sport are mostly focus on health, fun and social experience sides of it. However, it is known that sport means more than these today. According to Basım and Metin (2009), sport was used for essential needs in ancient times while it is seen as a social attendance tool or an occupation today. Parks, Quarterman and Thibault (2014) stated that sport means having fun but it could be also considered as a work for a professional athlete, as an employment for a sport tourism director and as a business for sport market agency. It is obvious today that sport is not described as war exercises as in

ancient times or it is not just physical activities which are done for fun. This century highlights the social, economic and monetary sides of sport and it became one of the biggest industries of the world and affects nearly half of the world population.

The concept of sport has changed rapidly in last centuries. As Breitbarth, Walzel, Anagnostopoulos and Eekeren (2015) stated that international sport system, individual sports and sport organizations had gone through various phases of professionalization and commercialization in last recent decades. Especially after the collapse of Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) in late 20th century, movement of globalization spread all over the world. Open market, market liberalization, technological improvement and fast communication made the world smaller and countries closer to each other. Globalization, commercialization and professionalization transformed sport into one of the biggest industries of the world economy. TV live broadcast just made it bigger. For example, more than one billion people watched the final game of 2014 World Cup which was played between Germany and Argentina on July 14, 2014 according to ESPN. PricewaterhouseCoopers (2011) declared that, Global sport revenues were valued at US\$ 145.3 billion in 2015. These figures are increasing rapidly and makes the sport business one of the most profitable industries of the world.

As this academic paper mentioned above, sport industry has become one of the biggest industries within global economy and Turkey is no exception. Especially with the first decade of 21st century, Turkish sport industry has had a massive economic progress. With the help of increasing revenue from sponsors, TV broadcast and help of internet sales, Turkish sport clubs (mainly football clubs) have become businesses with significant economic volume. However, this rapid and inordinate economic growth have brought along structural and managerial problems. According to Sönmezoğlu and Çoknaz's article (2013), a group of administrators who works at Turkish football clubs from Turkish Football Super League, mention that there are some institutional problems in management of sport in Turkey such as; structural problems, one-person management, lack of professionalization, financial problems and misunderstanding of concept of institutionalization. Most of time, Turkish sport is stuck between public bureaucracy and private sector. There is a lack of professional management and sport managers mostly have other jobs or their work as sport managers are voluntary. Most decisions are made by one-person because there is no adequate structure of management and these cause

ineffective sport management. Additionally, Turkey is a developing country and most of its institutions have managerial and institutional problems. Punnett (2004) clarified some of these problems such as, inconsistencies in legal frameworks and practices, economic and political instability and less structured and less formalized organizational systems and as a developing country, Turkey is dealing with those typical institutional problems. The mix of these two kind of problems is crucial and lack of the institutionalization appears as a significant need.

Although Turkey has enough young population (according to TÜİK' research in 2015, %16.4 of Turkish population is between 15-24 years old which is equal to 13 million), sufficient geographic conditions and increasing financial support, Turkey is not considered as a "sport country" and it is not successful enough at Olympic Games or World Cups. Turkey won one gold medal at each of the last three Olympic Games and didn't pass 10 medal border (8 medal at 2008 Olympics, 4 medal at 2012 Olympics and 8 medal at 2016 Olympics). One of the main reasons of this is that institutional problems and inadequacies affects athletes. First of all, Turkish education system is not suitable for being an athlete-student at the same time. Countries which have strong traditions of sport (which may or may not be developed economically) support young people to be athlete while their education continue and there are lots of scholarship programs to ensure it. However Turkish education system turns into a total examination process unfortunately and it forces parents and students to make a decision between sport and education. Secondly, future anxiety and financial concerns are crucial problems for athletes as well. Most of the Turkish athletes who are counted as amateur don't have health insurance and/or social security (despite it is a legal obligation). Their compensations are in the form of unofficial payments and sometimes as donations. That makes whole financial process in sport insecure and hard to inspect.

As mentioned above, Turkish sport industry is growing economically each day. However, each sport doesn't have same economic share in terms of income. While football has the biggest share among other sports, especially amateur sports are struggling with financial crisis. These problems affect athletes' private and professional life and also their productivity while they have a negative impact on athletes' professional commitment and motivations.

Academic studies in Turkey regarding sports mainly focus on physical improvement of athletes because most of these studies are originating from physical education and sport departments of universities. Even though number of academic studies of sport management in Turkey is increasing, it is still inadequate considering the problems of Turkish sport management. This paper aims to explore institutional problems of sport management in Turkey academically and to offer solutions and contribute to academic studies which transform these solutions into real life executions. Specifically, this study focuses on the relationships between athletes' institutionalization perceptions and their professional commitment and motivation.



CHAPTER 1

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1.1. PROFESSIONAL COMMITMENT

There is a great interest to study Employee Commitment and there is a considerable amount of research which focus on this topic. Especially Human Resources departments of companies and academicians pay attention to that subject. Commitment or Employee commitment is critical because it has a direct connection with both attitude variables and work outcomes. Both attitude variables such as loyalty, work involvement and job satisfaction, and work outcomes such as absenteeism, employee turnover and productivity have vital role on institutional sustainability and career of employees.

Commitment is a psychological state which characterizes the relation between organization and employee while it has effects on the decision to stay or leave in the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Despite its importance, there is no absolute definition of commitment. It is a multifaceted concept. Commitment can be in different forms (Meyer and Allen, 1991) beside having different focuses (Becker, 1992). Because of the fact that it is hard to define, Meyer and Allen (1991;1997) Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) make a list of all definitions and bring out the similarities as the essence of commitment. According to Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), “Commitment is a force that binds an individual to a course of action that is of relevance to a particular target” (p. 301). It is also defined as loyalty to the entity, attachment or identification (Morrow, 1993). Christy and Mullins (2016) elucidate that employee commitment is considered as an individual’s psychological bond to the organization including job involvement, loyalty and belief in the value of the organization. As understood from description of commitment, it is an intangible notion and it is hard to measure. On the other hand, there are many studies attempting to measure employee commitment because it is limited to a specific context and can be easier to assess.

Studies show that there are also some demographic variables which are associated with commitment (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Age is one of these variables which has positive impact on commitment. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) state that older employees have higher employee commitment because of less alternatives for occupation options. Allen and Meyer (1993) argue that older employees are conservative to change their jobs and have reluctant attitude toward changing organizations. Gender is another demographic variable which has effect on commitment. In this vein, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) claim that women are more committed than men. It can be explained that women in business life have more barriers than men to get the same position in the organization when it is compared with men. On the other hand, Ngo, Wing and Tsang (1998) argue that if there is a gender inequality within a specific organization, it affects commitment of women negatively. Pala, Eker and Eker (2008) clarify that gender effect on commitment depends on sector, position and work environment. Moreover, marital status is another significant variable for commitment. Married employees are more committed as employee because they have greater economic and family responsibilities (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Choong, Tan, Keh, Lim and Tan (2012) attach that married individuals need stable jobs because of their perceived responsibilities for their families.

1.1.1. Types of Commitment

As it is mentioned above, commitment can have different focuses and it depends on individuals. While a person can feel commitment to countless things, this study focus on employees and their work. So that there are mainly two commitments for employees; commitment to organization (organizational commitment) and commitment to profession (professional commitment). Early studies on employee commitment assume that work commitment is also one of types of employee commitment. However, Morrow and McElroy (1986) state that work commitment is empirically distinct from these two other forms of commitment. Mueller, Wallace and Price (1992) state that work commitment is related to attitude variables such as job involvement and work motivation and it has been conceptualized in a less consistent manner than either organization or professional commitment. Therefore, this thesis examines organizational commitment and professional commitment as types of employee commitment.

1.1.2. Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is always a valuable subject for sociologists, economists, organizational and industrial psychologists because understanding of employee's intentions to quit and turnover is vital for organizations (Mueller, Wallace and Price, 1992). It has also a direct relation with absenteeism and employee's job performance. Neiningger, Willenbrock, Kauffeld and Henschel (2010) argue that employee's organizational commitment is an essential interest for present day organizations to keep talented employees within organizations. Therefore, organizational commitment has been conceptualized and measured in many ways and many times (Bryant, Moshavi and Nguyen, 2007). However, as commitment itself, it is hard to define organizational commitment in one simple way since it is a multidimensional concept but there are still attempts to explain it. Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) clarify that commitment is the strength of a person's identification and involvement within an organization. Kalleberg and Berg's (1987) definition of organizational commitment is that "the degree to which an employee identifies with the goals and values of organization and is willing to exert effort to help it succeed" (p.159). It can be summarized that organizational commitment develops when employee identification and job involvement meet with the goals and values of an organization.

As this paper mentioned above, studies about commitment has been popular among researchers in last 50 years and organizational commitment is the focus of these studies mostly. In 1991, Meyer and Allen published "A Three-Component Conceptualization of Organizational Commitment" and created a three-component framework for organizational commitment. This academic work is one of the most valid, referenced and important studies on concept of commitment.

1.1.3. Professional Commitment

Vandenburg and Scarpello (1994) describe professional commitment as "a person's belief in and acceptance of the values of his or her chosen occupation or line of work, and a willingness to maintain membership in that occupation" (p.535). Mueller, Wallace and

Price (1992) declare that professional commitment is the concept of being committed to a profession or occupation rather than the organization where he/she works at. Professional commitment is also called career commitment, occupational commitment or career salience but Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) select to use the term occupational commitment over professional commitment because of nonprofessionals could also show commitment to their occupation. In the same way, the term career commitment is also evaded because an employee could have different jobs within his/her working life. However, these terms are used interchangeably in literature and they are all very much related each other. This paper uses the professional commitment as the term. Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) published another study which is called “Commitment to Organizations and Occupations: Extension and Test of a Three-Component Conceptualization” and extended the three-component framework of organizational commitment to professional commitment. This study was tested many times (e.g. Irving, Coleman and Cooper, 1997) and there is no hesitation to use and to generalize the three-component framework in all commitment types. Irving, Coleman and Cooper (1997) argue that confirmatory factor analyses on a sample nurses which was done by Meyer, Allen and Smith in 1993 confirmed that three-component model of organizational commitment could be extended to occupations and that organizational and professional commitment were different concepts. Consequently, this research will use three-component model and give brief descriptions of each types of commitment.

1.1.4. Three-Component Model

According to early researches, organizational commitment was defined as unidimensional concept but Meyer and Allen (1991) argue that commitment to organization can take different forms because the nature of psychological situation for each commitment is unique. In their work, Meyer and Allen (1991) classified three separate themes to identify organizational commitment. After that, Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) extended this model to professional commitment. These themes are *affective commitment*, *normative commitment* and *continuance commitment*.

1. Affective commitment is the employee's emotional attachment and identification with the profession. Employees with strong affective commitment want to stay in that profession because work experiences bring feeling of comfort.
2. Normative commitment is a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with strong normative commitment ought to stay in that profession because internalization of loyalty norm and/or the receipt of favors that require refund.
3. Continuance commitment is an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the profession. Employees with strong continuance commitment need to stay in that profession because of financial anxiety or lack of alternatives.

Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) declare that taking a multidimensional approach to professional commitment, offers more information about an employee's relation with his/her profession. Even though all three types of commitment are linked with an employee's staying in the profession, the employee involvement of each employee can be different depending on which types of commitment is predominant. Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) state that if work involvement within a certain profession provides satisfying experience, affective commitment would develop. Secondly, normative commitment is expected to develop if internalization of normative pressures to follow a course of action or there is a receipt of benefits which create obligation to continue. Finally, continuance commitment is expected to develop if employee's investments (side bets) would be lost when he/she changes the profession.

Even though Meyer and Allen's (1991) study of three component model to conceptualized organizational commitment and Meyer, Allen and Smith's (1993) extension the concept to professional commitment are valid and coherent, there are still suggestions of modifications to this conceptualization. Despite, Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) state that three component conceptualization of professional commitment is adequate, Blau (2003) declares that four-component instead of three-component conceptualization is better to explain professional commitment. According to this model, components are affective, normative, accumulated costs and limited alternatives; first two components (affective and normative) are similar to three component concept and Blau (2003) divides continuance professional commitment into two (accumulated cost and

limited alternatives) distinct dimensions based on Carson, Carson, and Bedeian's (1995) career entrenchment study. Meyer and Allen (1991, 1997) argue that continuance commitment is developed when employees have accumulated investments or side bets which would be lost if they left their organization, or there are limited alternatives for changing organization. Blau (2003) suggests that these two components of continuance commitment would be distinct components of commitment for better understanding of professional commitment.

1.1.5. Athlete's Commitment

Commitment is an important aspect for an athlete's success. Hall (1993) declares that athlete's commitment is one of the bases which cause motivation and reaching goals in sport. Scanlan, Carpenter, Schmidt, Simons and Keeler (1993) describe sport commitment as "a psychological construct representing the desire or resolve to continue sport participation" (p. 6). Barnhill, Martinez, Andrew and Todd (2018) state that it is an extension branch of the commitment theory, which analyze how outcomes of sport commitment affects an athlete's action and behaviors. Despite sport commitment is an important subject for sport psychology, there is not enough number of study to examine it. However, Scanlan et al. (1993) create a theoretical model to study the meaning and antecedents of sport commitment.

According to Sport commitment model of Scanlan et al. (1993), there are 5 components of sport commitment. These are; sport enjoyment, involvement alternatives, personal investment, social constraints and involvement oppurtunities which are shown in below figure 1.1.

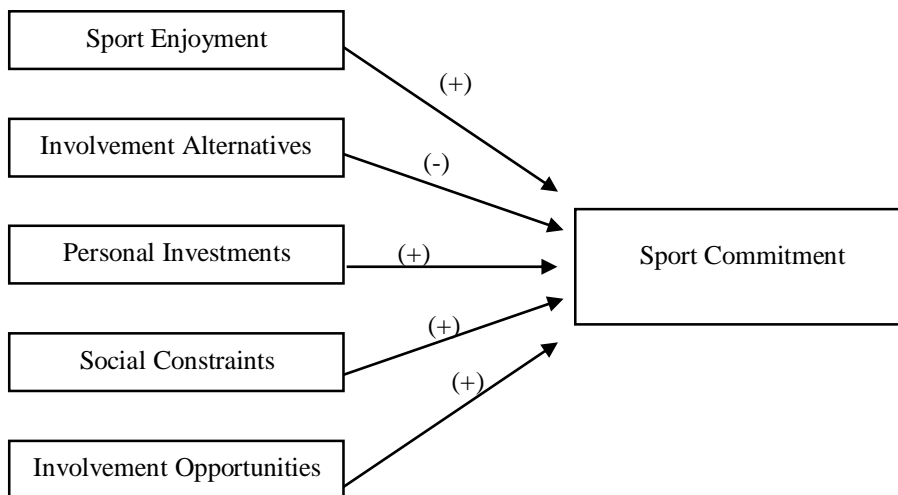


Figure 1.1 The Sport Commitment Model

Scanlan et al. (1993) describe sport enjoyment as “a positive affective response to the sport experience that reflects generalized feelings such as pleasure, liking, and fun” (p. 6). Sport enjoyment is basically the degree of enjoyment which an athlete has as a result of participation to the sport. Scanlan and Simons (1992) argue that sport enjoyment can come from intrinsic, extrinsic sources and achievements or non-achievements outcomes. Gould and Petlichkoff (1988) declare that mostly athletes intend to continue to participate in sport if the sport experience is enjoyable. Therefore, sport enjoyment is in direct proportion to sport commitment in other words if the sport enjoyment increases, sport commitment will increase.

Involvement alternatives are alternative activities which athletes cannot participate because of participation in sport. For instance, having an active social life is an involvement alternative according to Sport Commitment Model because it is hard to participate social events while having trainings or tournaments. Rusbult (1980) declares that athletes who have attractive alternatives have lower sport commitment while athletes with less attractive alternatives have higher sport commitment.

Personal investment is described as “personal resources that are put into the activity which cannot be recovered if participation is discontinued” by Scanlan et al. (1993, p.7). These resources can be time, effort or money. If athletes invest more in sport, their sport

commitment will increase and if they invest less in sport, their sport commitment tend to decrease.

Scanlan et al. (1993) state that social constraints are the feeling of obligation to participate in sport and they are created by social expectations or norms. The feeling of obligation mostly occurs with social pressure on athletes which is put by teammates, coaches, parents, fans or sponsors and has positive impact on sport commitment. If social constraints are high, the sport commitment increases and if social constraints are low, the sport commitment of athlete decreases.

Involvement opportunities are the results of participating in sport which are received by athletes. These opportunities can be both possibility or guaranteed. For instance, being a part of sport community is a guaranteed result while having Olympic gold medal is a possibility. Therefore, high involvement opportunities mean higher sport commitment. These five components are factors which show the effects of an individual's commitment on specific sport activity.

1.2. MOTIVATION

The concept of motivation has been an important topic for organizations, scholars and psychologists. Its importance is increasing at present and scholars are still studying it because motivation has a direct relation with employees, and employees are the biggest factor for the success of an organization. According to Kampf and Ližbetinová (2015), human resources are still most important and most expensive component in manufacturing and Irum, Sultana, Ahmed, and Mehmood, (2012) include that human resources are main assets to reach goals for organizations. Therefore, organizations, no matter how small or big their size, want to establish positive relations with their employees (Lee and Raschke, 2016).

Mitchell (1982) defines motivation as “those psychological processes that cause the arousal, direction and persistence of voluntary actions that are goal directed” (p.81). Nahavandi, Denhardt, Denhardt and Aristigueta (2015) simplify motivation as a psychological attribute that explains why people behave in particular ways. Eisenberger,

Rhoades and Cameron, (1999) describe work motivation as an employee's desire to make an effort which can be aroused internally by the satisfaction of work activities or externally by the separate outcome. According to work motivation theories, an employee's motivation can be determined from different bases. It can be determined from an individual's intellectual evaluation such as expectation of the result and self-efficacy, unique characteristics, such as traits and values and context such as culture and work design characteristics (Latham and Pinder, 2005; Steers, Mowday and Shapiro, 2004).

One of managers' main mission is to motivate employees and let them reach organizational goals. For this, managers have to satisfy employee's needs. Therefore, Lee and Raschke (2016) clarify that it is essential for an organization and its managers to understand what motivate its employees if they want to increase organizational performance. If motivation level is high within an organization, it will increase employee commitment, ongoing employee development, improve employee satisfaction and employee efficiency. The process of motivation is a complex structure and each employee has different needs to satisfy. As Hitka and Balážová (2015) mention, most managers' intent to assume that monetary factors are the most important factors for employee motivation. However, there are other motivation instruments such as job security or development in expertise which increase motivation of employees. As a result, there are two different types of motivation.

These two types are intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Gagne and Deci (2005) elucidate that intrinsic motivation is a form of self-directed motivation which an individual's objective to perform a duty for its own sake not accomplish it for some other external reason. Ryan and Deci (2000) attach that, employees who are intrinsically motivated, identify their job behaviors as independently and self-regulated by their own inherent interest. Intrinsic motivation comes from individual's own personality and character so it is more natural and relatively stable than extrinsic motivation as an impulse and individuals with intrinsic motivation have intentions to support organizational behavior. Moreover, intrinsically motivated employees are more eager to carry out a specific task just because it is interesting and challenging. Cerasoli, Nicklin and Ford (2014) underline that employees with higher intrinsic motivation put more effort into task and perform better in their jobs. Joo, Jeung and Yoon (2010) argue that intrinsically motivated employees can perform different tasks without need of any additional

resources. Yoon, Sung, Choi, Lee and Kim (2015) claim that extrinsic factors such as expected reward or expected evaluation can weaken the intrinsic motivation and creativity of an employee.

On the other hand, extrinsic motivation is a form of controlled motivation which is activated by external factors or influences. (Gagne and Deci, 2005) Amabile, Hill, Hennessey and Tighe, (1994) state that extrinsically motivated employees want to complete the specific task for extrinsic factor such as reward or recognition, not for task itself. Loscocco (1989) clarifies that these extrinsic factors can be a good salary, benefits, stable life, promotion or recognition from others. Therefore, all monetary and financial rewards and expectations are counted as extrinsic motivation factors.

1.2.1. Motivational Theories

Motivation is one of the most studied fields of psychology and there are several important theories which provide understandings of employee motivation. Sotirofski (2018) argues that motivational theories can be categorized into two different types which are content and process theories. Sotirofski (2018) clarifies that content theories focus on motivation and individual needs and goals (e.g. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs and Herzberg's Motivators and Hygiene Factors Theory). Topaloğlu and Özer (2008) explain that content theories aim to understand the situation which an individual is in and the dynamics which reason of individual to act. On the other hand, process theories analyze motivation as a process from the moment of its creation. (e.g. Adam's Equity Theory and Vroom's Expectancy Theory). This section of the study summarizes the important elements of motivation theories to understand the evaluation of motivation studies.

Abraham Maslow's (1943) "Hierarchy of Needs" is one of the significant studies about individual motivation. According to Maslow (1943), there are five levels of needs which are called as physiological, safety, love/belonging, esteem and self-actualizing. Like a pyramid, lower level is broader and an individual cannot reach next higher level without satisfies the lower level. Put differently, Benson and Dundis (2003) clarify that when lower needs are satisfied, motivation is aroused to meet higher level needs. Wilson and

Madsen (2008) state that people intent to fulfill needs. Noe (2002) describes need as “a deficiency drives an individual to act in such a way as to satisfy the deficiency” (p.114). According to Hierarchy of Needs, lowest level is an individual’s basic physiological needs such as eating or drinking. Maslow (1943) declares that even all needs are unsatisfied, the individual still be dominated by physiological needs and all other needs become non-existed or pushed into background. Second level is safety and security needs which is basically place to live and being in a safe condition. For employees, it can be job security. The third level of hierarchy of needs is need of love/belongings. This level is about having healthy social relations, to have friends and feeling of love and belongings. The next level is need of esteem. Maslow (1943) believes that most of the people need stable, high evaluation of themselves for self-respect and for esteem of others. According to this level, it is about having the feeling of strength, self-confidence, capability and meaning in life. Top level of hierarchy of needs is self-actualization. At this level, an individual reaches its potential and ultimate happiness from its accomplishments.

The two factor theory which is also known as Dual Factor Theory, Herzberg Model or Herzberg’s Motivation and Hygiene Factors Theory was published in 1959 by Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman. According to that study, there are two categories of motivation which are motivators and hygienes. Hackman and Oldham (1976) state that motivators give positive satisfaction which develop from intrinsic condition of job such as recognition, achievement or personal growth and produce job satisfaction. They can be in form of involvement in decision making process, responsibility or feeling of being important for organization. Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959) declare that lack of motivators can lead dissatisfaction of an employee and make him/her unmotivated. On the other hand, Hackman and Oldham (1976) clarify that hygienes are extrinsic factors which don’t provide positive satisfaction or extra motivation. However, their absence leads to dissatisfaction of an employee. They can be in form of payment, job security or company policies. Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959) argue that motivator factors are related to individuals while hygiene factors are related to work environment.

Expectancy Theory is published by Victor Vroom in 1964 to evaluate human motivation. According to this theory, motivation can be explained towards goals. If an individual believes that there is a positive relation between effort and performance, and there is a reward, the individual becomes motivated. Vroom (1964) states that motivation depends

on three concepts which are valence, expectancy and instrumentality. Valence is the emotional orientations held by people with respect to rewards or outcomes. Expectancy is what an individual/employee expects from him/her own efforts. Each individual can have different level of confidence about his/her own capability. Instrumentality is the employee's perception whether he/she can get what he/she desires even it has been promise by supervisor. Lee and Raschke (2016) clarify that rewards can be positive or negative and motivation of employee will be higher if the reward becomes more positive. Vroom (1964) creates a formula to measure motivational force which is;

$$\text{Motivational Force} = \text{Expectancy} \times \text{Valence} \times \text{Instrumentality}$$

Equity Theory or as well-known name Adams's Equity Theory is published in 1963 by J. Stacy Adams. Adams (1963) declares that there is supposed to be a balance or equity between an employee's input and output. According to the Equity Theory, employees tend to compare themselves with their colleagues who are doing same jobs or putting same amount of output. It is vital for employees that there is an equity between others. If there is a fair relation between their input and output and also between other employees, productivity and motivation will rise. On the other hand, if there is an inequity within colleagues and between input and output of employees, it will lead to demotivation and lower productivity. Adams (1963) expresses that effort, loyalty, skill, commitment and hard work can be named as input while salary, other material benefits, sense of achievement and job advancement can be named as output.

Goal Setting Theory is one of forerunner studies of motivation. Locke (1968) declares that combination of clear goals and proper feedback leads motivation and motivation leads improved performance. Locke, Shaw, Saari and Latham (1981) analyze most of the studies on goal setting and performance and state that specific and challenging goals improve performance more than easier goals because feeling of accomplishment is stronger at challenging goals. Locke and Latham (1990) define five goal setting principles to improvement of performance. These principles are *clarity* of goals, *challenge* of goals, *commitment* to goals, proper *feedback* of work and task *complexity*.

One of the most well-known contemporary theories on Motivation has been written by Ryan and Deci (2008) named as Self-Determination Theory (SDT). SDT is an empirically based theory of human motivation, development, and wellness. The theory gives

importance on types of motivation, rather than amount. Also focuses on *autonomous motivation*, *controlled motivation*, and *amotivation* as predictors of performance. It also examines people's life goals, differential relations of intrinsic versus extrinsic life goals to effective performance and psychological wellness.

Difference between autonomous motivation and controlled motivation is the main split of SDT. While Autonomous motivation contains both *intrinsic motivation* and types of *extrinsic motivation*, controlled motivation consists of external regulation in one's behavior. Extrinsic motivation, which is part of *autonomous motivation*, individuals will have recognized with an activity's value and ideally will have integrated it into their sense of self. *Controlled motivation's* external regulation is a function of external contingencies of reward or punishment. Moreover, it is energized by factors such as an approval motive, avoidance of shame, contingent self-esteem, and ego-involvements. Both autonomous and controlled motivation energize and direct behavior, and they stand in contrast to amotivation, which refers to a lack of intention and motivation.

Motivation also takes important place in Social Exchange Theory (SET) and Psychological Contract Theory (PCT). Both theories focused on individual-level exchange relationships.

Social Exchange Theory (SET) has roots in both economics and psychology. Baxter and Braithwaite (2008) clarify the comparison of economical and psychological sides clearly. While rewards and costs are important economically, people's interactions are determined by the *rewards* or *punishments*, which they expect to receive from others psychologically. SET claims that social behavior is the result of an exchange process. The Social Exchange Framework was formally developed in the late 1950's in the work of the sociologists George Homans (1961) and Peter Blau (1964) and the work of social psychologists Thibaut and Kelley (1959).

If needed to visualize the theory, the formulas below, which have been summarized in study of Redmond (2015) Social Exchange Theory, could be used:

Exchange = Trade something of value (cost) for something needed/valued (reward)

Rewards – Costs = Positive Outcomes (profits) or Negative Outcomes (net loss)

Inequity = Cost > Reward or My Costs > Your Costs or My Rewards < Your Rewards

In other words, people seek profits in their exchanges such that rewards are greater than the costs and this circumstance's effect on motivation is inevitable.

Psychological Contract Theory (PCT) claims psychological contracts are individual-level cognitive structures that reflect how people think about their exchange relationships. History of the theory has been summarized in study of George and Marianthi (2012). The development of concept can be divided into two parts. Between 1930s-1980s, studies on the theory were dominated by more exploratory and less empirical research on the concept of psychological contract. In addition, central to that research was the concept of mutual and reciprocal exchange relations between employee and employer (Argyris 1960, Blau, 1964,). The period from 1989 is dominated by more studies that are empirical and less exploratory studies on psychological contract.

The theory is the basis of psychological contract construction, which has major place on today's business life. The psychological contract is a psychological connection between the employee and the organization. It affects the employees' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance and ultimately affects the organization's objectives to achieve results. In management and human resources, the term "Psychological Contract" commonly refers to the actual and unwritten expectations of an employee from the employer. The Psychological Contract represents the duties, rights, rewards, etc., that an employee believes he/she is "owed" by his/her employer, in return for the work and loyalty. When PCT is evaluated from today's conditions, psychological contract has a great influence on motivation.

There are some theories and scales to understand and measure the sport motivation. Pelletier, Fortier, Vallerand, Tuson, Brière and Blais (1995) argue that early sport motivation measurement tools couldn't satisfactorily measure all kinds of motivation which are explained by SDT. There was a great need of such sport motivation scale with valid multi-dimensional measurement tools because number of studies about sport motivation was increasing. There were some attempts to measure sport motivation before but Sport Motivation Scale (SMS) by Pelletier et al. (1995) was significantly successful and valid to measure sport-related motivation. SMS was tested by numerous studies and confirmed as reliable and valid. However, in recent years, some questions arose about psychometric properties of SMS. Some studies argued that certain items should be

removed, measurement scale of integrated regulation should be added and intrinsic subscales should be combined into one measure (Mallet, Kawabata, Newcombe, Otero-Forero and Jackson, 2007). Later they proposed a revised version of the scale and named it as SMS-6. After these critics, Pelletier, Meredith, Rocchi, Vallerand, Deci and Ryan (2013) decided to make necessary changes and SMS-II was born. Integrated scale was added, measurement of intrinsic motivation was created and number of items per scale reduced to three.

In this dissertation, SMS-II is used to measure sport related motivation of athletes. There are six sub-dimension in the scale which are also types of motivation with their regulatory styles from Self-Determination Theory. These six sub dimensions are determined according to Regulatory Styles, Perceived Locus of Causality and Relevant Regulatory Processes and there are shown below Figure 1.2.

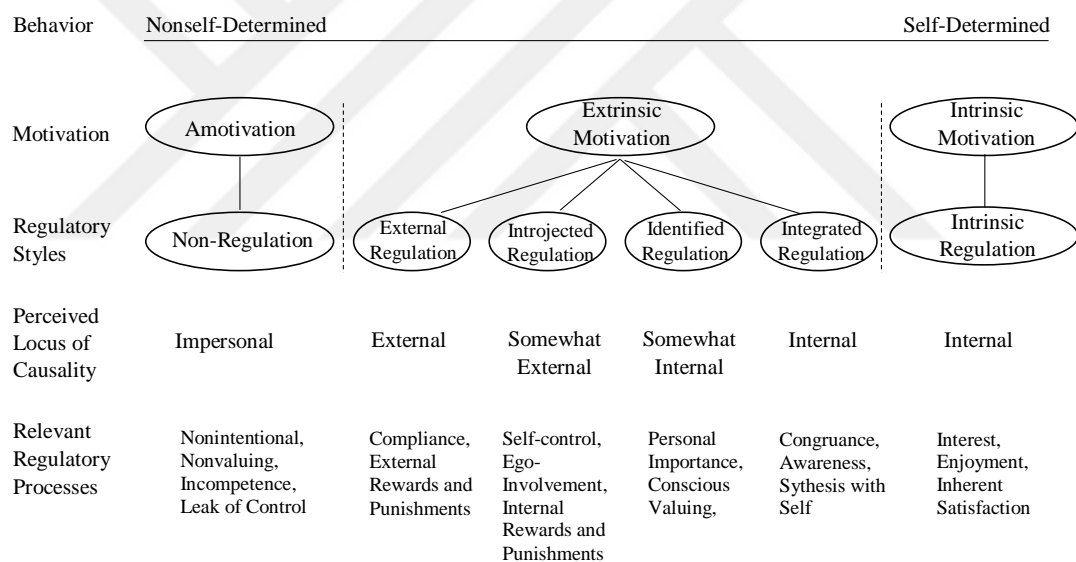


Figure 1.2 :Self-Determination Continuum Showing Types of Motivation with Their Regularity Styles

1.3. INSTITUTIONALIZATION

Institutionalization is a complex yet vital subject for governance of organizations. There are numerous studies which focus on institutionalization and preliminary studies emanated mostly from field of sociology. Contemporarily, there are two approaches with

emphasis on institutionalization which are also called old institutionalism and neo-intuitionism.

Philip Selznick is one of the scholars who studied institutionalization. His work "Leadership in Administration (1957) can be count as one of main sources of old institutionalism. This essay emphasizes the process of organizations become institutions and focus on problems and opportunities which are created during the process tried to explain his two earlier works in this essay. These two works; *TVA and Gross Roots (1949)* and *The Organizational Weapon (1952)* both have different themes and mainly focus on two key ideas; character and competence. Selznick (1957) argues that there is a difference between organization and institution, and as an organization turns into an institution, it tends to have a special character and unique competence. Organization is a formal system of rules and goals. It has tasks and procedures according to a significant pattern. Selznick (1957) claims that the organization is designed to direct human resources to specific goals. Governance of an organization consists of tasks, delegation of authority, guides communication and they all are governed by rationality and discipline. Barnard (1938) adds that "organization is a certain bareness, a lean, no-nonsense system of consciously coordinated activities" (p.73). On the other hand, Selznick (1957) states that institution is a natural outcome of social needs and pressures and it is a responsive and adaptive organism. Hall (1986) clarifies institution from historical perspective as formal rules and procedures, and operating practices which establish between human beings and units of economics and politics. Suddaby (2013) describes institutional theory as an opinion to take organizations and management practices as the result of social pressure rather than economic pressure and it is adequate to explain organizational behaviors which challenge economic rationality. As institutional theory was developed, scholars were searching for new models to explain organization because they wanted to explain human resources and decision making process better. They focused on organizations because most organizations couldn't reach their potential capacity and apprehension of efficiency was high. However according to Selznick, having two different descriptions for organization and institution, doesn't make them completely different. Most of the time, an enterprise is a combination of two notions.

Selznick (1957) states that institutionalization is a process. Uygun, Kahveci, Taşkın and Piriştine (2015) clarify that institutionalization has a strategic role in the success of the organizations and make them more constant and robust. Broom and Selznick (1955) define institutionalization as “the emergence of orderly, stable, socially integrating patterns out of unstable, loosely organized, or narrowly technical activities (p.238)”. Selznick (1957) attaches that it is a process which happened to an organization, which is coming from its own unique history, people who work in it, the groups and interest which they created and its style how to adopt itself to its environment. As Uygun et. al. (2015) explain institutionalization as systemization of an organization from its processes to management of organization according to objectives and goals which are suitable with its mission, values, vision and principles. Selznick (1996) declares that meaning of to be institutionalized is to “infuse with value beyond the technical requirements of the task at hand” (p.17). Moreover, there are other institutionalization processes such as; having formal structure, creation of informal norms, recruiting, managerial rituals, ideologies, adaptation and problem solving style. Selznick (1969) also attaches that institutionalization can be form of legalization when bureaucratic character of organizations supports administrative self-restraint and employee rights. Institutionalization is a process which can be a form of imitations of other successful organizations or sharing same values within environment. Main goals of an organization which is eager to embrace institutionalization are legitimacy, resources and organizational survival. According to Uygun et al. (2015), institutionalized organizations have capability to perform their processes systematically. These organizations have eligible organizational culture which is organized based on strategic management activities and supported by information systems to fully attain the institutionalization process.

Alpay, Bodur, Yılmaz, Çetinkaya and Arıkan (2008) argue that there are two schools to explain institutionalization. Zucker (1987) describes organization-as-institution approach where organizations are institutionalized and in the center of process. DiMaggio and Powell (1991) state environment as-institution approach that institutionalization happens at environmental level and organizational forms and rules are institutionalized not organizations. Centered on these two approaches, there are two different adoption processes for organizations. First type which is studied by Selznick, clarifies this process

as inside-out adoption. According to the type, motivation for institutionalization process comes from inside of the organization, done by systems within organization and aims to increase efficiency. On the other hand, DiMaggio and Powell (1991) describe second type as outside-in adoption which is an institutionalization process to obtain legitimacy within environment as isomorphic processes.

As this paper mentioned above, roughly, there are two group of studies to focus on institutionalization. DiMaggio and Powell (1983) examine isomorphism to study institutionalization in their work “The Iron Cage Revisited: Institutional Isomorphism and Collective Rationality in Organizational Fields”. With its re-interpretations on classic institutionalism, this study is counted as one of pioneers of neo-institutionalism.

DiMaggio and Powell (1983) argue that when a group of organizations comes together within a field which can be created by competition, state or profession, they are more likely getting similar to each other as they try to change themselves. As Weber mentions in his study (1968), bureaucracy is so powerful and once it is established, it is irreversible because it is efficient and powerful. DiMaggio and Powell (1983) accept that claim and extend it as it is the common organizational form of present day. However, they argue that bureaucratization or other organizational changes arise, not because of need of efficiency, improve performance or competition, and they become more similar to each other even when these changes will not affect their effectiveness. Meyer and Rowan (1977) clarify that these adoptions and organizational changes provides legitimacy rather than efficiency or improved performance. DiMaggio and Powell (1983) argue that there may be different organizations with different goals or practices, but at some point, organizational actors make rational decisions to connect their organizations to environment which restrains their competence of change and ultimately make these organizations similar because effects of individual organizational changes decrease after a certain point within the field (organizational changes such as; changes in formal structure, organizational culture and goals, mission or programs).

DiMaggio and Powell (1983) say that isomorphism is the best notion to explain the process of homogenization. They divide institutional isomorphism into three processes. These are coercive, mimetic and normative isomorphism. Coercive isomorphism is concerning political influence and legitimacy. This type of isomorphism can be formal or

informal pressure which come from other organizations or society where the organization has a dependency. It can be in form of force, persuasion, invitation or it is possible to be a direct result of government obligation. Mimetic isomorphism is a process which is a result of uncertainty instead of coercive authority. March and Olsen (1976) state that mimetic isomorphism can occur when organizational technologies aren't understood enough or if there are uncertain goals and uncertainty within environment. Modelling can be implemented unintentionally by employee turnover between organizations or intentionally via consulting firms or industry associations. Normative isomorphism or pressures are mostly associated with professionalization. Professionalization is clarified as a definition of the conditions and methods of a work by members of the occupation and their effort to form a cognitive base and legitimation for their professional autonomy by Larson (1977) and Collins (1979). However, Larson (1977) attaches that professional changes is not completed most of time because professionals mostly deal with unprofessional individuals such as clients and bosses. DiMaggio and Powell (1983) state that there are two important aspect of professionalization which affect isomorphism. Firstly, universities and institutions offer formal education to develop organizational norms among managers and their staff. Secondly, growing professional networks where new models are spread easily among organizations is an underpinning power of isomorphism.

DiMaggio and Powell (1983) argues that all three types of institutional isomorphism improve outcomes of organizations because it is mostly rewarded being similar within their fields. A likeness of organizations within same fields help them to do business with others while they can attract staffs from other organizations and they can be count as legitimate, reputable and well-acknowledged organizations.

Institutionalized Organization: Formal Structure as Myth and Ceremony by Meyer and Rowan (1977) is another primary source on neo-institutionalism. Meyer and Rowan (1977) argue institutional rules as myths which lead organizations to gain legitimacy, access resources, have stability and survive. Moreover, institutionalized products, policies, services and programs are also strong myths and organizations accept them ceremonially. However, Meyer and Rowan (1977) attach that in some situations, it is possible to have conflict between institutional rules and efficiency actions and organizations compromise their legitimacy to promote efficiency.

Meyer and Rowan (1977) object the idea of formal structure is the most effective way to control and coordinate such organizations in modern world. Classic theories claim that, organizations strictly perform and do their work activities according to their formal structure while all rules and procedures are followed perfectly within organizations. The authors state that formal organizations emerge in modern societies mostly. There are two reasons why modern societies have more rationalized bureaucracies. Firstly, relational networks are getting complex as societies become more modernize. Secondly, modern societies have too many institutional rules which demonstrate formal structures as rational processes to achieve goals. They also clarify that organizational structures are created and detailed by institutionalized myths and within institutionalized environment, the organization must support these myths with their action. However, organizations also need practical activities especially at their day-to-day works. Meyer and Rowan suggest that it is better to maintain organization in a “loosely coupled state”.

In conclusion, Meyer and Rowan (1977) summarize that environment with institutionalized and rational myths tend to create more formal organization. Secondly, organizations which have more institutionalized myths are more successful, legitimate and likely to survive. Finally, they argue that organizations which are in institutionalized contexts, are keen to ritual conformity both internally and externally.

Alpay et al. (2008) argue that most of studies focus on outcomes of institutionalization process such as survival, stability and isomorphism. As Uygun et al. (2015) mention that ironically institutionalization approach is not an institutionalized notion because there is no unanimity about its definition, key concept and measurement. Thus there is no certain set of components of institutionalization. However, Alpay et al.’s (2008) article is a very important study on institutionalization because it focuses on performance implications of institutionalization process while it gives examples from emerging economy as family owned businesses. Even though this dissertation is not about family-owned business, sport management in Turkey is a leader-based management or managed by small group where professionalization is rare and Turkey is an emerging economy which has its own problems. Alpay et al. (2008) argue that institutionalization process is more critical for organizations in emerging economies because they need to satisfy both institutionalization and integration with global market concurrently. So that, this article

is adequate to subject of this dissertation. Therefore, this paper uses the components of institutionalization which are formed by Alpay et al. (2008).

Alpay et al. (2008) declare that there are five facets/components of institutionalization process, these are *objectivity, fairness, transparency, formalization* and *professionalism*. Objectivity is occurred when organizational processes and rules are based on objective realities instead of interpretations, prejudice and personal feelings. Transparency is that organizational principles and practices are seen and checked by third parties while they are manifested clearly. Fairness is that when organizational practices and actions are implemented without bias, fraudulence and prejudice. Formalization is a facet of institutionalization when an organization have appropriate procedures as formal rules. Professionalization is occurred when an organization embraces universal ethics and standards.

As it mentioned above, Turkey is an emerging country and most of its organizations have both specific problems of emerging countries and lack of institutionalization and sport organizations are no exception. However, studies which focus on institutionalization of sport organization are rare. Walters and Tacon's (2018) study focus on codification of governance which is very popular recently. As Nordberg and McNulty (2013) state that codification is significant to set policy for business and set regulation for governments and it spread to public and non-profit sectors such as sport. It is an important subject to understand institutionalization process because Sahlin and Wedlin (2008) argue that codes of governance can be counted as institutional forces. Walters and Tacon (2018) attach that codification might be understood better through wide institutional framework. In their essay Walter and Tacon explore codification of governance through a wide institutional framework while focusing on legitimacy. Aguilera and Cuervo-Cazurra (2009) declare that there are nearly 200 codes of governance across 64 countries in 2008 and institutional pressures are the biggest factors of demand for codes of governance. As other relevant studies also point out, Ebrahim (2010) analyzes that adoption of codes is an indicator of good governance. Thus, Walter and Tacon (2018) clarify that organizations implement codes of governance as answers to institutional pressures as well as take a place in institutional environment. Codification is explained better within concept of legitimacy. Suchman (1995) described legitimacy as "generalized perception

or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions” (p.574). As Selznick (1996) argues, organizations embrace specific forms or structures to become legitimate within institutional environment not because of efficiency.

1.4. PROPOSED MODEL

As mentioned in the Introduction section, the number and content of academic studies of sport management in Turkey is inadequate considering the problems of Turkish sport management, and this paper aims to contribute to academic studies in this field. The focus of the study is understanding athletes’ institutionalization perceptions, their professional commitment and their motivation, and investigating the relationships among these variables.

This study proposes that athletes’ perceptions of institutionalization of the National Federation, where they are active members, have a relationship with their professional commitment and their motivation. Furthermore, based on existing literature, a relationship between professional commitment and motivation is also expected.

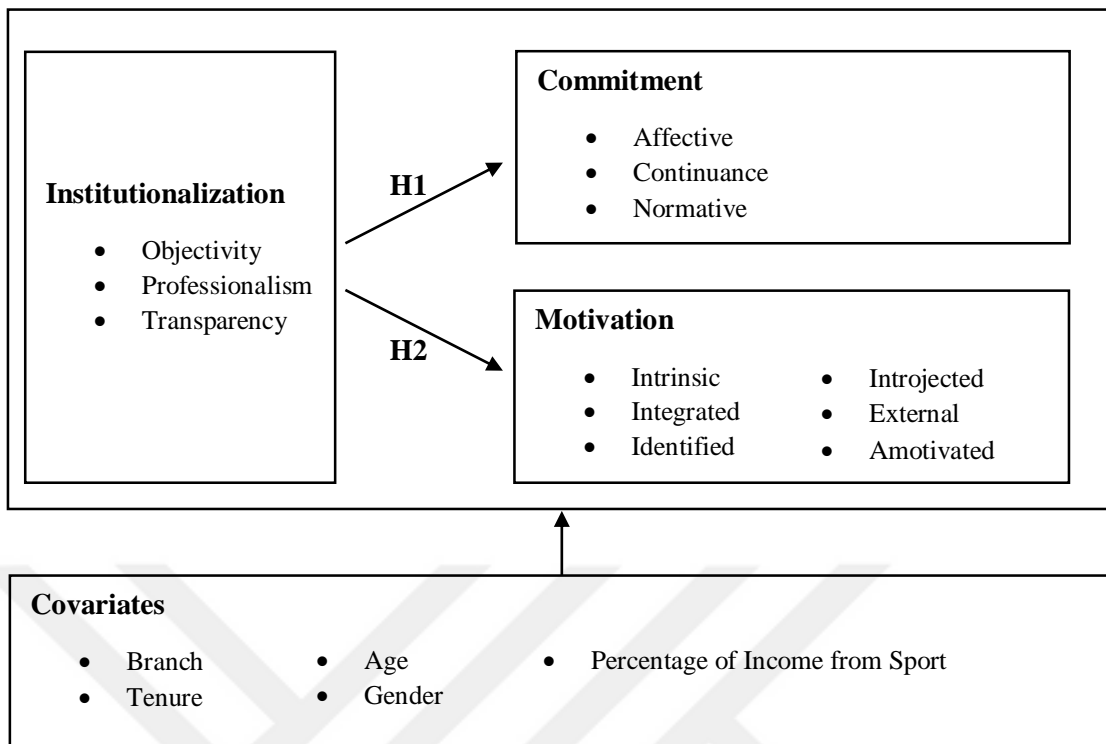


Figure 1.3 Proposed Model

Hypothesis 1: Athletes’ institutionalization perceptions have a positive relationship with their professional commitment.

H1a. Objectivity has a positive relationship with affective commitment.

H1b. Professionalism has a positive relationship with affective commitment.

H1dc. Transparency has a positive relationship with affective commitment.

H1d. Objectivity has a positive relationship with continuance commitment.

H1e. Professionalism has a positive relationship with continuance commitment.

H1f. Transparency has a positive relationship with continuance commitment

H1g. Objectivity has a positive relationship with normative commitment.

H1h. Professionalism has a positive relationship with normative commitment.

H1i. Transparency has a positive relationship with normative commitment.

Hypothesis 2: Athletes' institutionalization perceptions have a positive relationship with their motivation.

H2a. Objectivity has a positive relationship with intrinsic motivation.

H2b. Professionalism has a positive relationship with intrinsic motivation.

H2c. Transparency has a positive relationship with intrinsic motivation.

H2d. Objectivity has a positive relationship with integrated motivation.

H2e. Professionalism has a positive relationship with integrated motivation.

H2f. Transparency has a positive relationship with integrated motivation.

H2g. Objectivity has a positive relationship with identified motivation.

H2h. Professionalism has a positive relationship with identified motivation.

H2i. Transparency has a positive relationship with identified motivation.

H2j. Objectivity has a positive relationship with introjected motivation.

H2k. Professionalism has a positive relationship with introjected motivation.

H2l. Transparency has a positive relationship with introjected motivation.

H2m. Objectivity has a positive relationship with external motivation.

H2n. Professionalism has a positive relationship with external motivation.

H2o. Transparency has a positive relationship with external motivation.

H2p. Objectivity has a negative relationship with amotivation.

H2q. Professionalism has a negative relationship with amotivation.

H2r. Transparency has a negative relationship with amotivation.

As with most perception and attitude variables, it can be expected that demographic variables such as age, gender, tenure, and income can have a significant effect on the main variables in this study. Therefore, the following variables are included as control variables:

- Age
- Gender
- Sport specialization / branch
- Tenure
- Single / Multiple professions
- Percentage of income from this sport
- Guarantee of social security



CHAPTER 2

METHODOLOGY

Selecting and integrating the appropriate research method is crucial for academic research and dissertations. Mugenda (1999) states that, there are many research methods, however selection and integration of the method is the writer's decision.

In this dissertation, quantitative method is used to examine the relationships between institutionalization perceptions of athletes and their professional commitment and motivation.

2.1. SAMPLE AND DATA COLLECTION

In this study, purposive sampling is used. Purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling method, where the sample is constructed using the researcher's knowledge and judgement. Although non-probability sampling methods do not have the "generalizability" advantage of probability sampling methods; purposive sampling, compared to other non-probability sampling methods such as convenience sampling, can provide meaningful conclusions, especially when the population is not very large (Kurtuluş, 2010). This study is about understanding the perceptions and attitudes of wrestlers. The population then can be defined as all licensed wrestlers in Turkey. The sample in this dissertation consists of the group of athletes who are actively affiliated with Turkish Wrestling Federation, who are between the ages 18 and 40, and whose contact information is available. Data collection process was another crucial part of this dissertation and its outcomes. The data was collected online for 20 days between 29.08.2018 and 18.09.2018. The total number of the participants in the study are 236 active wrestlers. The population relevant for this study is the total number of wrestlers licensed by Turkish Wrestling Federation and are 84489 people (80855 men and 3634 women). Therefore, the sampling rate of this study is 0.003.

A questionnaire was prepared with “Google forms” which is an online research web platform and distributed to participants by sharing survey link on social media platforms or on “WhatsApp” which is one of the most common message services currently. The questionnaires were distributed 300 participants and the Response Rate is 79%. The response rate is relatively high because the questionnaires were distributed when most of the participants were together (there were Turkish Wrestling Super League matches which is organized by Turkish Wrestling Federation). Moreover, Turkish wrestling community was eager to help the writer of the dissertation because he is one of the members of that community. While data collection process, the writer got contact with the coaches of Turkish Wrestling teams to select proper profiles to participate (for example, wrestlers who have active sport life and between 18-40 years old). Detailed demographic information of athletes are shown in the following table:

Table 2.1 Characteristics of Respondents

	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Female	51	21.6
Male	185	78.4
Total	236	100
Age		
18-23	130	55.1
24-29	75	31.7
30-35	26	11
36-40	5	2.1
Total	236	100
Sport Branch		
Greco-Roman	135	57.2
Free-Style	50	21.6
Female Wrestling	51	21.2
Total	236	100
Tenure		
1-7	50	21.2
8-14	114	48.3
15-21	64	27.2
22-28	8	3.3
Total	236	100
Per. of Total Income		
0-25	31	13.1
26-50	36	15.3
51-75	26	11
76-100	141	59.7
Blank	2	0.9
Total	236	100

2.2. INSTRUMENTS

Selecting the measurement is another significant task. Although there are other options, in this case questionnaire is the best because most studies in similar topics have used

questionnaires successfully and it is selected as the instrument of this dissertation. Five points Likert Scale (1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= neither disagree nor agree, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree) was used to measure the responses of the participants. The questionnaire of this research has 4 subsets which consist of 59 questions in total to measure institutionalization perceptions, professional commitment and motivation of participants.

2.2.1. Institutionalization Perception

Institutionalization perception was measured with 16 items of “Institutionalization Scale” which has been developed by Alpay et al. (2008). This part consists of three sub-dimensions which are objectiveness/fairness, transparency and formalization/professionalization. Each of these dimensions is represented by five, five and six items respectively. Original scale was developed to measure institutionalization effects on qualitative and quantitative firm performance and asked to managers who works within family-owned businesses. However, this dissertation aims to measure institutionalization perceptions of athletes so necessary adaptations are made. Adopted items are shown below:

1. Everyone’s performance is fairly assessed.
2. Objective criteria are used in personnel and athlete selection.
3. Employee selection is done based on positional requirements.
4. Consistent appraisal criteria are applied to everyone.
5. Every employee is paid fairly.
6. We have a medium to long term plan known to everyone.
7. Employees and athletes have clear understanding of organizational goals.
8. Individual departures do not jeopardize business operations.
9. We have productive meetings where everyone has an equal say.
10. In internal auditing, department heads and specialists participate to the assessment process.
11. Executive Committee of Federation is determined by broad participation and independent elections.

12. Meetings have planned agendas.
13. We have specific written codes of behavior for organizational processes.
14. We have a predefined system for decision-making.
15. We have job descriptions for every position.
16. We always keep record of the things discussed in our meetings.

2.2.2. Professional Commitment

Professional commitment was measured with 18 items of “Six-Factor Solution Scale” which has been developed by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993). This part has three sub-dimension which are affective, continuance and normative commitment and each dimension is represented by 6 items. Original scale has 6 factors to measure both professional and organizational commitment and data was collected from registered and student nurses. However, goal of this thesis is to measure only professional commitment of athletes so only professional commitment parts of original scale were used and they are adopted to ask athletes instead of nurses. These adopted items are shown below:

17. The sport which I do is important for my personal image.
18. I regret to start this sport.
19. I am proud of doing this sport.
20. I don't like to be an athlete.
21. I cannot identify myself with this sport.
22. Being an athlete thrills me.
23. I need to give away from myself to change my profession right now.
24. It is hard to change profession right now.
25. If I change my profession, lots of things will be upside down in my life.
26. The cost of changing profession right now is very high.
27. I don't feel any pressure to change my profession.
28. Changing my profession currently requires remarkable amount of self-sacrifices.
29. I believe that people who has athletic training, are felt responsible to stay in the sport for a while.
30. I don't feel any responsibilities to stay as an athlete.

31. I feel responsible to continue doing sport as an athlete.
32. I feel quitting sport is not right even it is advantageous for me right now.
33. If I quit the sport, I feel guilty.
34. I am doing this sport because I feel commitment for it.

2.2.3. Motivation

Motivation was measured with 18 items of Sport Motivation Scale-II (SMS-II) which has been developed by Pelletier et al. (2013). This part has six sub-dimension which are intrinsic regulation, integrated regulation, identified regulation, introjected regulation, external regulation and amotivated regulation. Each dimension has three items. These adopted items are shown below:

Stem: *I do this sport...*

35. Because it gives me pleasure to learn more about my sport.
36. Because it is very interesting to learn how I can improve.
37. Because I find it enjoyable to discover new performance strategies.
38. Because practicing sports reflects the essence of whom I am.
39. Because through sport, I am living in line with my deepest principles.
40. Because participating in sport is an integral part of my life.
41. Because it is one of the best ways I have chosen to develop other aspects of myself.
42. Because I have chosen this sport as a way to develop myself.
43. Because I found it is a good way to develop aspects of myself that I value.
44. Because I would feel bad about myself if I did not take the time to do it.
45. Because I feel better about myself when I do.
46. Because I would not feel worthwhile if I did not.
47. Because people I care about would be upset with me if I did not.
48. Because people around me reward me when I do.
49. Because I think others would disapprove of me if I did not.
50. I used to have good reasons for doing sports, but now I am asking myself if I should continue.

51. I don't know anymore; I have the impression that I am incapable of succeeding in this sport.

52. It is not clear to me anymore; I don't really think my place is in sport.

2.2.4. Control Variables

There are seven items as control variables which may impact on dependent and independent variables. The items of control variables are shown below:

53. How old are you?

54. What is your gender?

55. Which branch of sport do you do?

56. How long have you been participating in this sport?

57. Is this sport your only source of income or do you have a second profession?

58. What percentage of your total income is from this sport?

59. If most of your income comes from this sport, is your social security premium (SGK) paid regularly?

CHAPTER 3

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

3.1. EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

All of the main variables are multi-dimensional constructs. Furthermore, the measures used for these constructs are taken from previous studies in the literature. However, in each case, Exploratory Factor Analysis is conducted to understand whether the existing factor structures of these multi-dimensional latent constructs are also applicable to our study. SPSS 25.0 is used to conduct exploratory factor analysis. The method and findings are discussed below.

For the institutionalization perception construct, exploratory factor analysis is conducted with 16 items (Table 3.1, Table 3.2. and Table 3.3). The result was a two factor solution based on Eigenvalue > 1 criterion, extracting 62.2% of variance. Principal Components Analysis is performed with Varimax rotation. Five items (V2, V6, V8, V9, V16) were removed from the scale due to low communality and/or factor loadings. The remaining items and factor structure is reviewed and it was observed that the two factors are similar to two of the three factors proposed by Alpay et al. (2008). Thus, the two factors can be named as “Objectivity” and “Professionalism” consisted with that study.

Table 3.1KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.			,905
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square		1264,092
	df		55
	Sig.		,000

Table 3.2 Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
VAR00001	1,000	,692
VAR00003	1,000	,478
VAR00004	1,000	,593
VAR00005	1,000	,656
VAR00007	1,000	,601
VAR00010	1,000	,590
VAR00011	1,000	,601
VAR00012	1,000	,660
VAR00013	1,000	,641
VAR00014	1,000	,695
VAR00015	1,000	,636

Extraction Method: Principal
Component Analysis.

Table 3.3 Rotated Component Matrix

	Component	
	1	2
VAR00001	,107	,825
VAR00003	,227	,653
VAR00004	,386	,667
VAR00005	,285	,758
VAR00007	,698	,337
VAR00010	,736	,221
VAR00011	,716	,297
VAR00012	,801	,135
VAR00013	,751	,278
VAR00014	,795	,250
VAR00015	,767	,217

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.^a

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

For the professional commitment construct, exploratory factor analysis is conducted with 18 items (Table 3.4, Table 3.5, Table 3.6). The initial result was a five factor solution based on Eigenvalue > 1 criterion, extracting 60.3% of variance. However, since the scale used had been validated numerous time in the literature, the factor structure was carefully examined and several items with low communality and/or factor loadings were removed (V20, V21, V27, V29, V30). Then, the remaining items loaded on a three factor solution explaining 58.8% of variance. These three factors are in agreement with Meyer and Allen's three factor solution: affective, continuance and normative commitment.

Table 3.4 KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		,828
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1079,004
	df	78
	Sig.	,000

Table 3.5 Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
VAR00017	1,000	,432
VAR00018	1,000	,542
VAR00019	1,000	,788
VAR00022	1,000	,690
VAR00023	1,000	,561
VAR00024	1,000	,700
VAR00025	1,000	,577
VAR00026	1,000	,560
VAR00028	1,000	,364
VAR00031	1,000	,644
VAR00032	1,000	,487
VAR00033	1,000	,668
VAR00034	1,000	,631

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 3.6 Rotated Component Matrix

	Component		
	1	2	3
VAR00017	,206	,359	,510
VAR00018	-,005	,040	,735
VAR00019	,091	,280	,837
VAR00022	,236	,058	,795
VAR00023	,742	,074	-,068
VAR00024	,766	,252	,224
VAR00025	,701	,222	,191
VAR00026	,745	,036	,058
VAR00028	,494	,229	,260
VAR00031	,179	,776	,103
VAR00032	,142	,673	,119
VAR00033	,110	,808	,060
VAR00034	,190	,664	,393

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.^a

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

For the motivation construct, exploratory factor analysis is conducted with 18 items (Table 3.7, Table 3.8, Table 3.9). The initial result was a three factor solution based on Eigenvalue > 1 criterion, extracting 63.2% of variance. However, since the scale had been validated by different studies in the literature, the factor structure was re-examined. After

multiple attempts with four, five and six factor solutions, it was decided that five factor solution explained 72.6% of variance, fit the existing scale structure better than other options, and had sufficient communality levels for the individual items. According to this five factor structure, Intrinsic and Integrated Regulation items from the original scale loaded on a single factor. The remaining items had the same factor structure as the original scale. Nevertheless, for further analyses, the original six factor structure is used in this study because other analyses may reveal some distinction between Intrinsic and Integrated regulation.

Table 3.7 KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		,906
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2469,932
	df	153
	Sig.	,000

Table 3.8 Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
VAR00035	1,000	,710
VAR00036	1,000	,693
VAR00037	1,000	,811
VAR00038	1,000	,747
VAR00039	1,000	,666
VAR00040	1,000	,764
VAR00041	1,000	,728
VAR00042	1,000	,776
VAR00043	1,000	,784
VAR00044	1,000	,744
VAR00045	1,000	,774
VAR00046	1,000	,741
VAR00047	1,000	,660
VAR00048	1,000	,596
VAR00049	1,000	,747
VAR00050	1,000	,641
VAR00051	1,000	,763
VAR00052	1,000	,718

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 3.9 Rotated Component Matrix

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
VAR00035	,734	,304	,083	-,101	,249
VAR00036	,819	,140	,038	,019	,034
VAR00037	,868	,172	,084	-,122	,084
VAR00038	,793	,146	,072	-,200	,226
VAR00039	,737	,302	,077	-,141	,079
VAR00040	,646	,551	,107	-,086	,157
VAR00041	,585	,592	,131	-,095	,100
VAR00042	,414	,733	,233	-,033	,111
VAR00043	,490	,693	,159	-,005	,194
VAR00044	,348	,385	,109	-,242	,636
VAR00045	,505	,442	-,004	-,040	,567
VAR00046	,089	,003	,404	,001	,755
VAR00047	,316	,108	,738	,006	-,061
VAR00048	,090	,201	,694	,071	,249
VAR00049	-,116	,020	,819	,168	,185
VAR00050	-,259	,074	,117	,722	-,183
VAR00051	-,165	,055	,034	,855	-,036
VAR00052	,111	-,352	,109	,749	,089

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.^a

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

3.2. RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

After conducting exploratory factor analysis and making necessary modifications, scales for each of the constructs and their sub-dimensions are tested for reliability using Cronbach's alpha calculation with SPSS 25.0. As the following tables (Table 3.10-Table 3.12) indicate, all of the constructs and their sub-dimensions have an acceptable level of internal consistency.

Table 3.10 Reliability Analysis Results for Institutionalization Perceptions

Reliability Statistics	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Objectivity	.772	4
Professionalism	.900	7
Institutionalization Perception- Total	.899	11

Table 3.11 Reliability Analysis Results for Professional Commitment

Reliability Statistics	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Affective	.747	4
Continuance	.774	5
Normative	.772	4
Professional Commitment- Total	.840	13

Table 3.12 Reliability Analysis Results for Motivation

Reliability Statistics	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Intrinsic	.862	3
Integrated	.859	3
Identified	.881	3
Introjected	.722	3
External	.697	3
Amotivated	.711	3
Motivation- Total	.828	3

Correlation Analysis

After exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis, correlation analysis was conducted where the bivariate correlations of the sub-dimensions of each construct were calculated. According to the following correlation table, dimensions within each construct (such as; objectivity and professionalization for institutionalization perception) are significantly correlated with each other.

Furthermore, there appear to be some significant relationships among the sub-dimensions of different constructs, providing some initial support for hypotheses. For example, professionalism significantly correlated with affective commitment.

Table 3.13 Correlation Analysis

	obj	pro	aff	con	nor	int	inte g	ide	intr o	ext	amo t	inst	com	mot
objectivity	1	,599**	-.005	0.025	-.073	-.060	-.029	-.080	0.049	,165*	0.100	,900**	-.023	-.013
professionalism	,599**	1	,188**	0.069	,132*	,133*	,199**	,165*	,238**	,211**	-.061	,888**	,163*	,239**
affective	-.005	,188**	1	,372**	,452**	,639**	,655**	,574**	,478**	,237**	,263**	0.099	,758**	,670**
continuance	0.025	0.069	,372**	1	,438**	,446**	,402**	,374**	,507**	,438**	-.025	0.052	,781**	,514**
normative	-.073	,132*	,452**	,438**	1	,563**	,591**	,527**	,600**	,326**	,236**	0.030	,811**	,669**
intrinsic	-.060	,133*	,639**	,446**	,563**	1	,807**	,701**	,544**	,227**	,228**	0.038	,697**	,819**
integrated	-.029	,199**	,655**	,402**	,591**	,807**	1	,756**	,584**	,251**	,287**	0.092	,696**	,863**
identified	-.080	,165*	,574**	,374**	,527**	,701**	,756**	1	,594**	,346**	,182**	0.044	,623**	,834**
introjected	0.049	,238**	,478**	,507**	,600**	,544**	,584**	,594**	1	,422**	,193**	,158*	,676**	,779**
external	,165*	,211**	,237**	,438**	,326**	,227**	,251**	,346**	,422**	1	,167*	,209**	,430**	,496**
amotivated	0.100	-.061	-.263**	-.025	-.236**	-.228**	-.287**	-.182**	-.193**	,167*	1	0.024	-.219**	-.437**
institutional	,900**	,888**	0.099	0.052	0.030	0.038	0.092	0.044	,158*	,209**	0.024	1	0.075	0.122
commitment	-.023	,163*	,758**	,781**	,811**	,697**	,696**	,623**	,676**	,430**	,219**	0.075	1	,785**
motivation	-.013	,239**	,670**	,514**	,669**	,819**	,863**	,834**	,779**	,496**	,437**	0.122	,785**	1

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

3.3. REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Multiple regression analysis is conducted to test the hypotheses of this study. The findings are presented in the tables below. As mentioned in previous sections, the three main variables in this study are multi-dimensional constructs, established in existing literature and also supported by the results of the exploratory factor analysis in this research. For

example, in many studies of organizational or professional commitment, the different dimensions of commitment frequently produce distinct results. Thus, the different dimensions of the main constructs are used as variables separately in this multiple regression analysis to test the hypotheses.

For Hypothesis 1, the regression analysis examines the relationships between the two dimensions of Institutionalization Perception (Objectivity and Professionalism) and the three dimensions of Professional Commitment (Affective, Continuance, Normative). The results are summarized in Table 3.14, Table 3.15 and Table 3.16. Each of the three regression equations produce modest but statistically significant R-squared. For Continuance Commitment, the only statistically significant contribution comes from a control variable (percentage of income), and the main variables do not have a significant effect. For Affective Commitment and Normative Commitment, both of the independent variables are significant. While the effect of Professionalism on Affective and Normative Commitment is in the expected direction (positive), the effect of Objectivity on both of the dependent variables are in the opposite direction (negative). Thus, in this analysis, Hypothesis 1 finds partial support.

Table 3.14 Regression Analysis for Affective Commitment

Model Summary- Dependent Variable=Affective Commitment					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	F	Sig.
1	0.197	0.039	0.018	1.847	0.105
Predictors: percent_income, tenure, branch, gender, age					
2	0.342	0.117	0.090	4.281	0.000
Predictors: percent_income, tenure, branch, gender, age, objectivity, professionalism					
Coefficients	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
Age	0.294	2.039	0.043	0.188	5.333
Gender	0.010	0.109	0.914	0.497	2.012
Branch	-0.055	-0.671	0.503	0.584	1.712
Tenure	-0.088	-0.581	0.562	0.171	5.848
% Income	0.115	1.803	0.073	0.962	1.039
Objectivity	-0.188	-2.345	0.020	0.610	1.641
Professionalism	0.365	4.461	0.000	0.584	1.714

Table 3.15 Regression Analysis for Continuance Commitment

Model Summary- Dependent Variable=Continuance Commitment					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	F	Sig.
1	0.273	0.074	0.054	3.666	.003
Predictors: percent_income, tenure, branch, gender, age					
2	.281	0.079	0.050	2.769	0.009
Predictors: percent_income, tenure, branch, gender, age, objectivity, professionalism					
Coefficients	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
Age	-0.164	-1.111	0.268	0.188	5.333
Gender	0.001	0.011	0.992	0.497	2.012
Branch	-0.075	-0.892	0.373	0.584	1.712
Tenure	0.119	0.774	0.440	0.171	5.848
% Income	0.238	3.654	0.000	0.962	1.039
Objectivity	-0.045	-0.556	0.579	0.610	1.641
Professionalism	0.088	1.058	0.291	0.584	1.714

Table 3.16 Regression Analysis for Normative Commitment

Model Summary- Dependent Variable=Normative Commitment					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	F	Sig.
1	.213	0.045	0.024	2.169	0.058
Predictors: percent_income, tenure, branch, gender, age					
2	0.307	0.094	0.066	3.367	0.002
Predictors: percent_income, tenure, branch, gender, age, objectivity, professionalism					
Coefficients	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
Age	0.161	1.101	0.272	0.188	5.333
Gender	0.107	1.194	0.234	0.497	2.012
Branch	-0.047	-0.564	0.573	0.584	1.712
Tenure	-0.138	-0.898	0.370	0.171	5.848
% Income	0.128	1.986	0.048	0.962	1.039
Objectivity	-0.237	-2.917	0.004	0.610	1.641
Professionalism	0.271	3.269	0.001	0.584	1.714

For Hypothesis 2, the regression analysis examines the relationships between the two dimensions of Institutionalization Perception (Objectivity and Professionalism) and the six dimensions of Motivation (Intrinsic Regulation, Integrated Regulation, Identified Regulation, Introjected Regulation, External Regulation, Amotivated Regulation). The results are summarized in Table 3.17, Table 3.18, Table 3.19, Table 3.20, Table 3.21 and Table 3.22. As with the first regression analysis, the models produce statistically significant R-squared, and the independent variables have significant effect. For Intrinsic

Regulation and Integrated Regulation, both independent variables are significant, however the positive effect of Professionalism is more pronounced at .01 level, whereas the negative effect of Objectivity is only significant at .05 level. For Identified Regulation, both independent variables are significant at .01. For Introjected Regulation and External Regulation, only Professionalism is significant. For Amotivated Regulation, both independent variables are significant at .05 level. Note that the effects of the independent variables on Amotivated Regulation are in the opposite direction from the other five dimensions of motivation, as can be expected. Overall, Hypothesis 2 also finds partial support.

Table 3.17 Regression Analysis for Intrinsic Motivation

Model Summary- Dependent Variable=Intrinsic Motivation					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	F	Sig.
1	0.288	0.083	0.063	4.119	0.001
Predictors: percent_income, tenure, branch, gender, age					
2	.352	0.124	0.097	4.555	.000
Predictors: percent_income, tenure, branch, gender, age, objectivity, professionalism					
Coefficients	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
Age	0.127	0.883	0.378	0.188	5.333
Gender	0.233	2.632	0.009	0.497	2.012
Branch	0.064	0.788	0.431	0.584	1.712
Tenure	-0.022	-0.145	0.885	0.171	5.848
% Income	0.199	3.128	0.002	0.962	1.039
Objectivity	-0.204	-2.555	0.011	0.61	1.641
Professionalism	0.254	3.114	0.002	0.584	1.714

Table 3.18 Regression Analysis for Integrated Motivation

Model Summary- Dependent Variable= Integrated Motivation					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	F	Sig.
1	.307	0.094	0.074	4.745	0.000
Predictors: percent_income, tenure, branch, gender, age					
2	.402	0.161	0.135	6.209	0.000
Predictors: percent_income, tenure, branch, gender, age, objectivity, professionalism					
Coefficients	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
Age	0.189	1.344	0.180	0.188	5.333
Gender	0.197	2.283	0.023	0.497	2.012
Branch	0.071	0.885	0.377	0.584	1.712
Tenure	-0.009	-0.061	0.952	0.171	5.848
% Income	0.246	3.963	0.000	0.962	1.039
Objectivity	-0.182	-2.331	0.021	0.610	1.641
Professionalism	0.339	4.247	0.000	0.584	1.714

Table 3.19 Regression Analysis for Identified Motivation

Model Summary- Dependent Variable=Identified Motivation					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	F	Sig.
1	0.219	0.048	0.027	2.295	0.046
Predictors: percent_income, tenure, branch, gender, age					
2	.341	0.117	0.089	4.258	.000 ^c
Predictors: percent_income, tenure, branch, gender, age, objectivity, professionalism					
Coefficients	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
Age	0.241	1.672	0.096	0.188	5.333
Gender	0.104	1.170	0.243	0.497	2.012
Branch	-0.029	-0.356	0.723	0.584	1.712
Tenure	-0.181	-1.197	0.233	0.171	5.848
% Income	0.134	2.107	0.036	0.962	1.039
Objectivity	-0.264	-3.295	0.001	0.610	1.641
Professionalism	0.329	4.023	0.000	0.584	1.714

Table 3.20 Regression Analysis for Introjected Motivation

Model Summary- Dependent Variable=Introjected Motivation					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	F	Sig.
1	0.252	0.063	0.043	3.088	.010
Predictors: percent_income, tenure, branch, gender, age					
2	.379	0.144	0.117	5.416	0.000
Predictors: percent_income, tenure, branch, gender, age, objectivity, professionalism					
Coefficients	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
Age	0.365	2.571	0.011	0.188	5.333
Gender	-0.014	-0.162	0.872	0.497	2.012
Branch	-0.108	-1.335	0.183	0.584	1.712
Tenure	-0.259	-1.740	0.083	0.171	5.848
% Income	0.197	3.136	0.002	0.962	1.039
Objectivity	-0.150	-1.902	0.058	0.610	1.641
Professionalism	0.364	4.513	0.000	0.584	1.714

Table 3.21 Regression Analysis for External Motivation

Model Summary- Dependent Variable=External Motivation					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	F	Sig.
1	0.186	0.035	0.013	1.637	.151
Predictors: percent_income, tenure, branch, gender, age					
2	.278	0.077	0.048	2.696	0.011
Predictors: percent_income, tenure, branch, gender, age, objectivity, professionalism					
Coefficients	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
Age	-0.026	-0.177	0.859	0.188	5.333
Gender	-0.161	-1.776	0.077	0.497	2.012
Branch	-0.223	-2.669	0.008	0.584	1.712
Tenure	-0.035	-0.229	0.819	0.171	5.848
% Income	0.018	0.277	0.782	0.962	1.039
Objectivity	0.011	0.131	0.896	0.610	1.641
Professionalism	0.212	2.540	0.012	0.584	1.714

Table 3.22 Regression Analysis for Amotivated

Model Summary- Dependent Variable=Amotivated					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	F	Sig.
1	0.223	0.050	0.029	2.397	0.038
Predictors: percent_income, tenure, branch, gender, age					
2	0.282	0.080	0.051	2.793	.008
Predictors: percent_income, tenure, branch, gender, age, objectivity, professionalism					
Coefficients	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
Age	0.127	0.859	0.391	0.188	5.333
Gender	-0.019	-0.207	0.836	0.497	2.012
Branch	-0.125	-1.495	0.136	0.584	1.712
Tenure	-0.251	-1.628	0.105	0.171	5.848
% Income	-0.103	-1.583	0.115	0.962	1.039
Objectivity	0.178	2.173	0.031	0.610	1.641
Professionalism	-0.215	-2.568	0.011	0.584	1.714

Overall, the regression analysis reveals that both dimensions of Institutional Perception have a significant effect on the various dimensions of the two outcome variables Professional Commitment and Motivation. Whereas the effect of Professionalism Perception is positive as hypothesized, the effect of Objectivity Perception is significant but negative. The possible explanations for this finding are presented in the discussion section. Another notable, though foreseeable, finding is that the control item “Income from this sport as percentage of total income” also has a significant effect on the two groups of outcome variables. For Professional Commitment, percentage of income has a significant effect on Continuance Commitment dimension. This is in line with previous findings in literature. For Motivation, percentage of income has a significant effect on four of the six dimensions (Intrinsic, Integrated, Identified, and Introjected Regulation).

In conclusion, Table 3.23 shows the summary and results of hypotheses.

Table 3.23 Summary of Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Results
H1. Athletes’ institutionalization perceptions have a positive relationship with their professional commitment.	Partially Supported
H1a. Objectivity has a positive relationship with affective commitment.	Not Supported

H1b. Professionalism has a positive relationship with affective commitment.	Supported
H1c. Transparency has a positive relationship with affective commitment.	Dismissed
H1d. Objectivity has a positive relationship with continuance commitment.	Not Supported
H1e. Professionalism has a positive relationship with continuance commitment.	Not Supported
H1f. Transparency has a positive relationship with continuance commitment	Dismissed
H1g. Objectivity has a positive relationship with normative commitment.	Not Supported
H1h. Professionalism has a positive relationship with normative commitment.	Supported
H1i. Transparency has a positive relationship with normative commitment.	Dismissed
Hypothesis 2: Athletes' institutionalization perceptions have a positive relationship with their motivation.	Partially Supported
H2a. Objectivity has a positive relationship with intrinsic motivation.	Not Supported
H2b. Professionalism has a positive relationship with intrinsic motivation.	Supported
H2c. Transparency has a positive relationship with intrinsic motivation.	Dismissed
H2d. Objectivity has a positive relationship with integrated motivation.	Not Supported
H2e. Professionalism has a positive relationship with integrated motivation.	Supported
H2f. Transparency has a positive relationship with integrated motivation.	Dismissed
H2g. Objectivity has a positive relationship with identified motivation.	Not Supported
H2h. Professionalism has a positive relationship with identified motivation.	Supported
H2i. Transparency has a positive relationship with identified motivation.	Dismissed
H2j. Objectivity has a positive relationship with introjected motivation.	Not Supported
H2k. Professionalism has a positive relationship with introjected motivation.	Supported
H2l. Transparency has a positive relationship with introjected motivation.	Dismissed
H2m. Objectivity has a positive relationship with external motivation.	Not Supported
H2n. Professionalism has a positive relationship with external motivation.	Supported

H2o. Transparency has a positive relationship with external motivation.	Dismissed
H2p. Objectivity has a negative relationship with amotivation.	Not Supported
H2q. Professionalism has a negative relationship with amotivation.	Supported
H2r. Transparency has a negative relationship with amotivation.	Dismissed

3.4. OTHER FINDINGS

In addition to the above analyses to verify the construct measurement scales and to test the hypotheses, there are a few other significant findings to report. In this study, three main variable groups representing three major constructs were used to develop the hypotheses. However, based on literature and common judgement, the study also includes some demographic variables that can be expected to co-vary with the main variables. As stated in the regression analysis section, these demographic variables are included as control variables in the multiple regression equations. Additionally, the demographic information was used to form groups to conduct Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and T-tests with all of the main variables.

In this analysis, for each of the five demographic variables, two or more categories are formed. Then, these groups are compared in terms of their similarity with respect to the major variables of the study. The demographic variables and their respective categories are:

- Gender: Female / Male
- Age: 18-23 / 24-29 / 30-35 / 36-40 (30-35 and 36-40 categories were merged because of small N value in 36-40 group)
- Tenure in this sport (years): 1-7 / 8-14 / 15-21 / 22-28
- Branch of wrestling: Greco-Roman / Freestyle / Women's

- Income from this sport as percentage of total income (percent): 0-25 / 26-50 / 51-75 / 76-100

The significant findings from this analysis are summarized below. Results that are not statistically significant are not included. As observed in Table 3.24, Female and Male respondents differ across several variables. In each of these cases, the female respondents have a higher group mean than the male respondents.

Table 3.24 T-Test Results for Gender

	Gender	Female	Male
	N	51	185
Professionalism Perception	Group mean	3,527	3,166
	Mean difference	0,361	
	Sig.	0,010	
Normative Commitment	Group mean	4,132	3,839
	Mean difference	0,293	
	Sig.	0,029	
Intrinsic Regulation	Group mean	4,458	4,054
	Mean difference	0,403	
	Sig.	0,002	
Integrated Regulation	Group mean	4,353	4,067
	Mean difference	0,286	
	Sig.	0,032	
Identified Regulation	Group mean	4,327	4,050
	Mean difference	0,276	
	Sig.	0,031	

Table 3.25 shows the significant findings of ANOVA analysis and related post-hoc tests. It can be seen that for each of the demographic variables, there are statistically significant results regarding one or more of the main variables. In the ANOVA based on age groups, Professionalism Perception has a significant F-value indicating a difference among groups. Specifically, the youngest age group in the sample (18-23) has higher Professionalism Perception than the other groups. Similarly, ANOVA Results for Tenure Groups show that the 1-7 years group has higher perceptions of both Objectivity and Professionalism than other groups at a significant level.

ANOVA study based on branch also reveals a difference across groups in Professionalism Perception. Specifically, Women's wrestling group has higher Professionalism perception than the Freestyle wrestling group.

Finally, ANOVA study based on categories of Percentage of Income suggests significant links between this variable and Continuance Commitment, and between this variable and three dimensions of motivation. Particularly, the lowest share (0-25%) and highest share (75-100%) groups are significantly different from each other in terms of Continuance Commitment, as well as Intrinsic, Integrated, and Introjected Regulation motivation dimensions. The relationship among these variables was also reported in the regression analysis section.

Table 3.25 ANOVA Results

ANOVA Results for Age Group

Professionalism Perception Sig.=0,000	Groups compared	18-23 vs 24-29	18-23 vs 30-40
	Mean difference	0,518	0,555
	Sig.	0,000	0,004

ANOVA Results for Tenure Group

Objectivity Perception Sig.=0,000	Groups compared	1-7 vs 8-14	1-7 vs 15-21	1-7 vs 22-28
	Mean difference	0,720	0,576	1,148
	Sig.	0,000	0,004	0,001
Professionalism Perception Sig.=0,000	Groups compared	1-7 vs 8-14	1-7 vs 15-21	1-7 vs 22-28
	Mean difference	0,598	0,811	0,997
	Sig.	0,000	0,000	0,035

ANOVA Results for Branch

Professionalism Perception Sig.=0,008	Groups compared	Women's vs Freestyle
	Mean difference	0,518
	Sig.	0,000

ANOVA Results for Percentage Income Group

Continuance Commitment Sig.=0,003	Groups compared	0-25 vs 76-100
	Mean difference	-0,556
	Sig.	0,005
Intrinsic Regulation Sig.=0,014	Groups compared	0-25 vs 76-100
	Mean difference	-0,479
	Sig.	0,019
Integrated Regulation Sig.=0,003	Groups compared	0-25 vs 76-100
	Mean difference	-0,601
	Sig.	0,020
Introjected Regulation Sig.=0,040	Groups compared	0-25 vs 76-100
	Mean difference	-0,453
	Sig.	0,021

DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

This study investigates the relationships between athletes' institutionalization perceptions and their professional commitment and motivation. This dissertation can be seen as a pioneer because there are no other studies within literature to investigate athletes' institutionalization perceptions unfortunately. Researching rare subject is a hard work to do and in that case, with the difficulties of studying institutionalization (complication to find essential scale, dissidences on definitions and subjectivity), it becomes a real challenge to complete. However, institutionalization is a vital subject especially for developing countries like Turkey and thus desire to finish this dissertation never stopped.

Institutionalization perception is the independent variable, professional commitment and motivation are both dependent variables of this study. Control variables consists of 7 items which measure characteristics of participants. Three different scale was used for each subjects and total number of the items is 59. Institutionalization scale has been created by Alpay et al. (2008) and it has 16 items with 3 factors. However, after exploratory factor analyses 5 items were removed and factor numbers reduced to two. Professional commitment scale has been developed by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993). It has 18 items with 3 factors. After exploratory factor and communality analyses, 5 items were removed while 3 factors remain same. Motivation was measured with 18 items of Sport Motivation Scale-II (SMS-II) which has been developed by Pelletier et al. (2013). This scale remains same completely. The questionnaire was filled by 236 wrestlers who are affiliated with Turkish Wrestling Federation.

Discussions of The Results

Both Hypothesis-1 and Hypothesis-2 are partially supported which means athletes' institutionalization perceptions have limited effects on their professional commitment and motivation. There are some remarkable results after analyses. Even objectivity is significant for most of dependent variables (except continuance, introjected and external)

it has negative effect on professional commitment and motivation. Moreover, even there is a correlation (.599) between objectivity and professionalism, there is a reverse effect on dependent variables. It is intriguing because it was expected that both of them have positive effects on professional commitment and motivation.

There might be some reasons for this result. First of all, athletes might want to be favored by others. Sport is a serious subject and it needs devotion and suitable life style. Thus, it is possible that they are looking for favoritism or special treatment for return of their effort. Secondly, except the competitions, there are no evaluation between athletes. Therefore, athletes might not want to be evaluated according to principle of equality and again looking for favoritism. Another reason might be the culture they raised within. It is important that what objectivity means in the culture. Somehow objectivity might have a negative meaning for that culture or it could be perceived as sign of weaknesses. As law of nature, there is nothing for weaks and athletes might think that objectivity is kind of a share for weak and thus it might have negative effects on professional commitment and motivation. Moreover, athletes might think that implementation of objectivity is grueling in real life and thus they might be against it completely.

On the other hand, professionalism is significant for most of dependent variables (except continuance commitment) and has positive effect on professional commitment and motivation as expected. Originally one of the starting points of this dissertation is desire to be governed by formal and professional structure and it is satisfying that it has same result. First of all, professionalism isn't ambiguous as objectivity and it can be observed more easily. Secondly, lack of professionalism can be perceived more clearly which let athletes feel that absence. Moreover, most of athletes want to work with people who are professional on their jobs if they want to reach their best version of themselves and it can be a strong impulse to want professionals.

Especially nowadays, professionalism or being a professional on specific branch or line of business is very popular. Former job descriptions were less-detailed and works were more comprehensive. A specific job used to need less employees while it requires more employees for the same job nowadays. It is same for sport industry too. For example, sport teams needed less number of employees who could do more than one job, to be

ready for competition. However, present-day teams need too many professionals beside trainers such as; conditioner, doctor, physical therapist, masseur, analyst, psychologist etc. Therefore, professionalism may be the most implemented component of institutionalization in sport industry and management, and athletes are aware of this fact.

Limitations and Future Studies

Even it was a great period of time to research on that subjects, because of the time limitation, it could not have been carried out in a broad perspective. More research could have done for literature review part especially focus on sport studies. The data were collected only from wrestlers, predominantly from men. For future studies, it will be better to collect data from different sport branches while paying attention the equality of men and women because it is not certain that a sample consists of only wrestlers represents whole sport community.

The questionnaire method is one of the most common and convenient tools for studies. There are numerous similar-field studies which have used the questionnaire method efficiently. However, for this research, interview method could have been used because it could be more explanatory for sample and could have received more accurate data. Moreover, the questionnaire was distributed via internet which is another limitation for study. There is always possibility to interaction between participants and questionnaire via internet is harder to control in this sense. In future studies, it would be better to collect data face to face not via internet.

In conclusion, this dissertation intends to investigate and discover whether there is a relation among institutionalization perceptions, professional commitment and motivation. The result shows that, there are partial relations between them but it needs further investigations. Most significant result is objectivity has negative impact on professional commitment and motivation while it is correlated with professionalism which has positive impact on them as expected.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A QUESTIONNAIRE (TURKISH)

<p>Sevgili Sporcu Arkadaşlarım, Kadir Has Üniversitesi Tezli MBA programı öğrencisiyim. Tez çalışmamı tamamlamak için, bu sayfada bulunan anketin yeterli sayıda sporcu tarafından doldurulması gerekiyor. Doldurmaya başlayacağınız bu anket 4 bölümden oluşmaktadır. Kısa bir zamanınızı ayırıp bu anketi doldurmanız, yüksek lisans tez çalışmamda bana çok yardımcı olacak. Sizler gibi sporcu bir kardeşiniz olarak hepimize şimdiden teşekkür ederim. Kansu İldem Eylül 2018</p>						
No		Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
1.	Herkesin performansı eşit değerlendirilir					
2.	Sporcu seçiminde ve personel alımında objektif kriterlere her zaman uyulur.					
3.	Her işe işin gerektirdiği türde insan alındığına inanıyorum.					
4.	Başarı kriterinin herkes için eşit uygulandığını düşünüyorum.					
5.	Her zaman adil ücretlendirme yapılır.					
6.	Geleceği biçimlendiren ve herkesin bildiği orta ve uzun vadeli bir planımız var.					
7.	Hedeflerin ne olduğu konusunda çalışanlar ve sporcular arasında şeffaflığın mevcut olduğuna inanıyorum.					
8.	İşlerin işleyişi ve devamı bireylerin ayrılmasıyla tehlikeye girmez.					
9.	Toplantılarda herkese söz hakkı verilir.					
10.	Yapılacak denetimler					

	sırasında ilgili birimin yetkilileri ve uzmanlar da görev alır.					
11.	Federasyon yönetimi geniş katılımlı ve bağımsız seçimlerle belirlenir.					
12.	Toplantılar her zaman planlıdır ve gündem önceden kararlaştırılmıştır.					
13.	İç işleyişi düzenleyen belirli yazılı kurallarımız var.					
14.	Karar alınmasını gerektiren durumlarda takip edilen bir sistem vardır.					
15.	Her pozisyon için görev tanımları bulunur.					
16.	Toplantılarımızda her zaman tutanak tutulur.					
17.	Yaptığım spor kişisel imajım için önemlidir.					
18.	Bu spora başladığım için pişmanım.					
19.	Bu sporu yapmaktan gurur duyuyorum.					
20.	Sporcu olmayı sevmiyorum.					
21.	Bu sporla kendimi özdeşleştirmiyorum.					
22.	Sporcu olmak bana heyecan veriyor.					
23.	Şu anda bu mesleği değiştirmek için kendimden çok şey vermem gerekir.					
24.	Şu anda meslek değiştirmek benim için zor olur.					
25.	Eğer mesleğimi değiştirirsem hayatımda çok şey altüst olur.					

26.	Şu anda mesleğimi değiştirmenin benim için maliyeti yüksektir.					
27.	Mesleğimi değiştirmemi gerektiren hiçbir baskı unsuru yoktur.					
28.	Şu anda mesleğimi değiştirmek hatırı sayılır derecede kişisel fedakârlık gerektirir.					
29.	Bir sporda eğitim almış kişilerin o sporda makul bir süre kalma sorumluluğu duymaları gerektiğine inanıyorum.					
30.	Sporcu olarak kalmak için hiçbir yükümlülük hissetmiyorum.					
31.	Sporculuğa devam etme sorumluluğu hissediyorum.					
32.	Benim için avantajlı olsa da şu anda sporu bırakmanın doğru olacağını hissetmiyorum.					
33.	Sporu bırakırsam kendimi suçlu hissederim.					
34.	Bu sporu yapıyorum çünkü ona karşı bağlılık hissediyorum.					
Bu sporu yapıyorum...						
35.	Çünkü sporum hakkında daha çok öğrenmek bana keyif veriyor.					
36.	Çünkü nasıl gelişeceğimi öğrenmek çok ilginç geliyor.					
37.	Çünkü yeni performans stratejilerini keşfetmeyi eğlenceli buluyorum.					

38.	Çünkü spor yapmak benim kim olduğumun özünü yansıtıyor.					
39.	Çünkü spor yoluyla en derin ilkelerimin doğrultusunda yaşıyorum.					
40.	Çünkü spor yapmak hayatımın ayrılmaz bir parçası.					
41.	Çünkü diğer yönlerimi geliştirmek için seçtiğim en iyi yollardan bir tanesi.					
42.	Çünkü bu sporu kendimi geliştirmenin bir yolu olarak seçtim.					
43.	Çünkü değer verdiğim diğer yönlerimi geliştirmek için iyi bir yol.					
44.	Çünkü yapmak için zaman ayırmazsam kendimi kötü hissederim.					
45.	Çünkü yaparsam kendimi daha iyi hissederim.					
46.	Çünkü eğer yapmazsam kendimi değersiz hissederim.					
47.	Çünkü eğer yapmazsam değer verdiğim insanlar üzülürler.					
48.	Çünkü çevremdeki insanlar yaptığımda beni ödüllendirirler.					
49.	Çünkü eğer yapmazsam diğerleri beni onaylamazlar.					
50.	Eskiden spor yapmak için iyi nedenlerim vardı, ama şimdi kendime devam					

	etmeli miyim diye soruyorum.					
51.	Bu sporda başarılı olamayacağım izlenimine sahibim.					
52.	Artık bu sporda gerçekten bir yerim olduğunu açıkça göremiyorum.					
53.	Yaşınız?					
54.	Cinsiyetiniz?					
55.	Yapmış olduğunuz branş nedir?					
56.	Kaç yıldır bu sporla ilgileniyorsunuz?					
57.	Ana gelirinizi bu spordan mı sağlıyorsunuz yoksa başka bir mesleğiniz var mı?					
58.	Gelirinizin tahminen yüzde kaçını bu spordan sağlıyorsunuz?					
59.	Gelirinizin çoğunu bu spordan sağlıyorsanız, SGK primleriniz ödeniyor mu?					

APPENDIX B QUESTIONNAIRE (ENGLISH)

<p>Dear Friends, I am a student of MBA program at Kadir Has University. In order to complete my dissertation study, this questionnaire have to filled by sufficient number of athletes. This questionnaire has four sections. Filling the questionnaire will make a great help me to finish my Master Thesis. I thank you as an athlete like you. Kansu İldem September 2018</p>						
No.		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	Everyone's performance is fairly assessed					
2.	Objective criteria are used in personnel and athlete selection					
3.	Employee selection is done based on positional requirements					
4.	Consistent appraisal criteria are applied to everyone					
5.	Every employee is paid fairly					
6.	We have a medium to long term plan known to everyone					
7.	Employees and athletes have clear understanding of organizational goals					
8.	Individual departures do not jeopardize business operations					
9.	We have productive meetings where everyone has an equal say					
10.	In internal auditing, department heads and specialists participate to the assessment process					
11.	Executive Committee of Federation is determined by broad participation and independent elections.					
12.	Meetings have planned agendas					
13.	We have specific written codes of behavior for organizational processes					
14.	We have a predefined system for decision-making					
15.	We have job descriptions for every position					
16.	We always keep record of the things discussed in our meetings					
17.	The sport which I do is important for my personal image.					
18.	I regret to start this sport.					
19.	I am proud of doing this sport.					

20.	I don't like to be an athlete.					
21.	I cannot identify myself with this sport.					
22.	Being an athlete thrills me.					
23.	I need to give away from myself to change my profession right now.					
24.	It is hard to change profession right now.					
25.	If I change my profession, lots of things will be upside down in my life.					
26.	The cost of changing profession right now is very high.					
27.	I don't feel any pressure to change my profession.					
28.	Changing my profession currently requires remarkable amount of self-sacrifices.					
29.	I believe that people who has athletic training, are felt responsible to stay in the sport for a while.					
30.	I don't feel any responsibilities to stay as an athlete.					
31.	I feel responsible to continue doing sport as an athlete.					
32.	I feel quitting sport is not right even it is advantageous for me right now.					
33.	If I quit the sport, I feel guilty.					
34.	I am doing this sport because I feel commitment for it.					
Stem: I do this sport...						
35.	Because it gives me pleasure to learn more about my sport.					
36.	Because it is very interesting to learn how I can improve.					
37.	Because I find it enjoyable to discover new performance strategies.					
38.	Because practicing sports reflects the essence of whom I am.					
39.	Because through sport, I am living in line with my deepest principles.					
40.	Because participating in sport is an integral part of my life.					
41.	Because it is one of the best ways I have chosen to develop other aspects of myself.					
42.	Because I have chosen this sport as a way to develop myself.					

43.	Because I found it is a good way to develop aspects of myself that I value.					
44.	Because I would feel bad about myself if I did not take the time to do it.					
45.	Because I feel better about myself when I do.					
46.	Because I would not feel worthwhile if I did not.					
47.	Because people I care about would be upset with me if I did not.					
48.	Because people around me reward me when I do.					
49.	Because I think others would disapprove of me if I did not.					
50.	I used to have good reasons for doing sports, but now I am asking myself if I should continue.					
51.	I don't know anymore; I have the impression that I am incapable of succeeding in this sport.					
52.	It is not clear to me anymore; I don't really think my place is in sport.					
53.	How old are you?					
54.	What is your gender?					
55.	Which branch of sport do you do?					
56.	How long have you been participating in this sport?					
57.	Is this sport your only source of income or do you have a second profession?					
58.	What percentage of your total income is from this sport?					
59.	If most of your income comes from this sport, is your social security premium (SGK) paid regularly?					

CURRICULUM VITAE

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