Thematic Article

Inquiry into the Correlations between Sports Activity and Value Preference among Students in the Northern Great Plain Region as Regards the Role of Everyday Physical Education

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Abstract

The vision of society can be influenced by the values young people hold regarding their way of life and physical well-being. Today, we are experiencing a crisis of these value preferences (Perényi, 2010). The aim of our study is to examine the effect of transferred sports values on the lifestyles of physically active and inactive students in light of the role of everyday physical education. In our research, 1521 students of the University of Debrecen and Nyíregyháza filled out the online questionnaire. Two-variable analyses and a multivariate principal component analysis were used, and the data were processed using SPSS. Regarding the relationship between sports activity and value orientation, the students included in the sample mostly focused on the “open” or post-material value dimension representing individual autonomy. This is in agreement with previous research data (Kovács, 2013; Perényi, 2010). Since this is a complex mechanism of action, we are unable to show causal relationships in our analysis. However, with regard to our research sample, it can be said that in the period since the introduction of everyday physical education, it has not yet had a demonstrable role in the physical activity and value system of students. Thus, promotion of an active lifestyle will, in the future, be critical in the lives of everyone. It will also prove essential in shaping the physical condition and mental well-being of the future’s society, not to mention it will help save the national economy. The first step in this process is the actual participating in physical education.

Keywords: higher education, value orientation, sports activity, everyday physical education

Introduction

WHO (2018) assessments identify physical inactivity as the fourth most common risk factor for disease development in the world (Pratt et al., 2014; Ádám et al., 2018). In his research, Ács et al. (2011) points out the fact that diseases and their complications resulting from a sedentary lifestyle (cardiovascular disease, diabetes type 2, osteoporosis) are a great burden not only to the individual but also to the national economy of Hungary. Based on this problem, the 2011 CXC Act on Hungarian public education, everyday physical education was introduced into law, and the introduction of this ascending order began in elementary-secondary education in the 2012/13 academic year, in higher education in the 2016/17 academic year. In this period, sporting activities are crucial for young people, as habits formed here morph into adult lifestyle habits. According to the research results of Perényi (2010a, 2010b, 2010c, 2014), the “value socialization” of young university students is heavily impacted by sporting. For, sporting itself contains a unique set of values.

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The value-bearing role of sport

Sport may be suitable for acquiring the basics of physical culture, provided the person chooses of his/her own volition to participate, and has a positive outlook on taking part in physical activity. This can affect an individual’s health awareness, leisure habits and even his or her entire life (Rétsági, 2015; Csányi et al., 2015). Sport provides a way toward social integration by helping the individual acquire values and norms (Gombocz, 2010). Izzo (2010) says “sport is the value of life” because we learn to respect the rules of society and the people living there as well. The first positive experiences of sporting can be so significant that they can even surpass any disadvantages brought about by an individual’s gender or socio-cultural background. This could lead to the development of lifelong learning (Kirk 2005). A comprehensive analysis of the value systems associated with sporting habits can shed light on existing gaps and provide an opportunity to outline an active quality of life program aimed at achieving a healthy lifestyle. From the point of view of our research, this emerging program (the first step of which is everyday physical education in school) can have an impact on and improve the health awareness of students and teachers and the commitment of the population to physical activity.

It is important to mention the fact that young university students are one of the key tools for the survival of our society, so that encouraging them to live a healthy, sporty lifestyle can be a key factor in the continuation of our society.

Previous Hungarian sports value orientation research results

Perényi examined the effect of sport on value preferences in the Youth 2000–2008 research series. According to Perényi (2010a; 2010b), four value preferences can be formulated in the lives of young people. Traditional (home, social responsibility, religiosity), material (wealth, beauty, money, power,), non-material (family security, inner harmony, love, peace), and open life (creativity, friendship, variation, an interesting life, leisure). According to the author, the framework of sports (institutional or non-institutional) was not authoritative in terms of any value preference (Perényi, 2010b). Creativity, freedom, true friendship and interesting life are significantly more important in the lives of athletes than in non-athletes (Perényi, 2008). In conclusion, she stated that young Hungarians see their future in post-modern, self-fulfilling values that dictate their leisure activities. As this generation avoids sports that require endurance and hard work, it considers it important to broaden the repertoire of leisure sports (Perényi, 2010c).

In her study, Kovács (2013) examined the relationship between the form and frequency of physical activity, value preferences, and vision in the lives of students in Debrecen. According to her results, the importance of post-material values increases with the frequency of sports. The frequency of sports was mainly decisive in terms of self-fulfilling values. With ever increasingly regular exercise, confidence in the future is positively affected serving as a protective factor during hard times. At the same time, belonging to a sports club and association had an equally negative effect on the post-material and religious, as well as the intellectual value preferences.

Overall, the different research results (Mosonyi et al., 2013; Müller, 2018; Pfau et al., 2019; Kovács et al., 2019), mainly emphasize the personality-developing, positive effect of sports, as different abilities and skills also develop when an individual is at play. In general, athletes become more future-oriented, purpose-driven, and more optimistic through sports (Moravecz, 2019), so athletes often hold leadership positions, achieving better academic and non-academic performance. (Taliaferro et al. 2010, Pikó et al., 2010, Moravecz et al., K. E., 2019, Moravecz et al., 2019).

Previous research has shown that in a consumer society where material values are at the forefront, public opinion is associated with a lower level of health awareness (Pikó, 2000; Pikó et al., 2004), which hinders the adoption of an active lifestyle. In this study, this connection is also examined, in addition to the idea that the value system emphasizing individual autonomy, in contrast to the materialist value system, increases the chances of a more health-conscious lifestyle.

Research design and methods

My research analyzes the implementation of the education policy intervention, which is unique in Europe; the implementation of everyday physical education does not examine where implementation takes place, but rather the living space of young people moving on to higher education. The study is based on a comparison of the opinions of first-year students (who participated in everyday physical education) and the
opinions of older students (who did not participate in everyday physical education) at the Universities of Debrecen and Nyíregyháza. The research examines socio-cultural and socio-demographic factors, and interprets the data along the variables of grades, gender, type of settlement, and parents’ educational attainment. Emphasis should be placed on the fact that the role of everyday physical education can only be explored by involving an intermediary factor, as the students surveyed are not currently participating in the program. According to my assumption, this mediating factor is the current sport. Correlating to this I attempted to map the role of the mentioned program by order of values held by students of the Northern Great Plain region. Since the field I studied (the role of everyday physical education) could not be examined in this respect, in this age group, (no research was done on the subject even around its implementation) I worked with my own questionnaire.

Research questions and hypothesis

Taking these researches as a starting point, our main questions are:
– Is there a difference in the lifestyle-related value preferences of physically active and inactive students when looking at the time that has elapsed since the introduction of everyday physical education?
– If there are differences, will these differences persist along different demographic variables?

According to my hypothesis, the more favorable sports activity indicators are also influenced by the personal value system: the students who follow the “open” (Perényi, 2010a, 2010b; 2014) individual autonomous value system are less likely to have a health-conscious lifestyle.

The relevance of our study compared to previous sports value orientation research is that in the period since the introduction of everyday physical education, a new generation arrived in higher education in 2016, which may have been part of the new implementation process in public education. This age group has not yet been studied in this regard.

Data collection

The students I study represent two higher education institutions subject to dropout in the disadvantaged region of the Northern Great Plain (Polónyi 2018). In this regional area, it has already been shown at the secondary school level that both the family background index and the academic performance show the lowest level in the country (Kovács K. E. 2020). The first wave took place between May 2018 and February 2019, and the second between September and November 2019. To interview students, we used an online questionnaire that was programmed using the EvaSys system. Students from two universities, the University of Debrecen and the University of Nyíregyháza, were invited to complete the questionnaire. Using the Neptun mail system, links to the questionnaire were shared by the dean’s offices. These surveys were completed anonymously. A total of 1521 respondents filled out the questionnaire (after data cleansing). As the proportion of students in the institutions does not faithfully reflect the reality, we can only give a snapshot of the current state of higher education typical of this region.

Methods

Sample and weighting: The sample differs from the characteristics of the basic population in several respects, so we approximated the proportions of the main characteristics of the sample to the actual conditions by weighting. In step 1: the weights of the University of Debrecen and the University of Nyíregyháza were prepared separately. In step 2: the proportion of students of the two universities was adjusted to the real situation. The so-called “total weighted sample” is thus “representative” of the main educational structure (students, department, level of education, and faculties / institutions) of the two institutions’ students involved in the study.
Results

Main features of the research sample

The socio-demographic composition of the students participating in the research does not differ significantly by gender according to the two institutions involved, according to the type of settlement of the place of residence and according to the subjective financial situation. At the same time, the 18-23 years olds are over-represented among the students of the University of Debrecen, while a higher proportion of students aged 30 and over are among the students of the University of Nyíregyháza. In line with this, we find a higher proportion of students at the latter institution who completed their final exam before 2011. Regarding the education of the parents, it can be seen that the proportion of students whose at least one parent has a degree is higher among the students of the University of Debrecen. According to the wealth quarters, there is also a small difference between the two groups of students: the students of the University of Nyíregyháza are in a slightly more favorable financial situation (Table 1).

Table 1. The main socio-demographic characteristics of the students in the sample according to institutions (%), N=1521

| Age Group | University of Debrecen | University of Nyíregyháza | Chi² | sig. |
|-----------|------------------------|--------------------------|------|-----|
| 18–23     | 64%                    | 41%                      | 65,414 | 0,000 |
| 24–29     | 24%                    | 24%                      |      |     |
| 30–39     | 6%                     | 17%                      |      |     |
| at least 40 | 6%                  | 18%                      |      |     |
| Year of final exam |                  |                          | 68,729 | 0,000 |
| before 2011 | 17%                | 44%                      |      |     |
| between 2012–2015 | 30%             | 23%                      |      |     |
| between 2016–2018 | 53%            | 33%                      |      |     |
| Qualification of parents |              |                          | 35,178 | 0,000 |
| maximum 8 years of primary school | 2%            | 5%                       |      |     |
| trade     | 15%                    | 27%                      |      |     |
| final exam | 34%                  | 37%                      |      |     |
| degree    | 49%                    | 31%                      |      |     |
| Property Quarters |              |                          | 10,912 | 0,012 |
| Q1        | 26%                    | 20%                      |      |     |
| Q2        | 24%                    | 22%                      |      |     |
| Q3        | 24%                    | 35%                      |      |     |
| Q4        | 26%                    | 23%                      |      |     |
| TOTAL     | 100%                   | 100%                     | –    | –   |

Characterization of students’ sports activity

In addition to the socio-demographic and educational background variables presented earlier, I will examine the responses to the questionnaire in other ways. On the one hand, I consider which group of respondents participated in the daily high school physical education program; on the other hand, I examine the current activities in the field of sports. Afterward, I use respondents’ attitudes toward different values in my analysis.

Considering the start of everyday physical education, our target was the graduate classes of 2016-2019. Nearly half of our sample, 51 percent, indicated that they graduated in 2016, 2017, 2018, or 2019 (Table 2).
Table 2. Respondents’ graduation dates and cross-sections of their participation in everyday physical education (all, %)

| Year of final exam          | Involvement in everyday physical education during high school years |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------|
|                             | yes | no | no answer | all |
| Before 2011                 | 10% | 10%| <1%        | 20% |
| Between 2012–2015           | 10% | 20%| <1%        | 29% |
| Between 2016–2018           | 40% | 10%| <1%        | 50% |
| No answer                   | -   | <1%|            | <1% |
| Total                       | 59% | 40%| 1%         | 100%|

Overall, 60% of respondents were seen to have taken everyday physical education classes introduced in 2012.

An important and unavoidable background variable for the sample is which group of respondents engages in a sport and, if so, at what level. I assume that those who live more active lives will also have more positive, supportive attitudes about everyday physical education. It cannot be said from this research that this is also a causal connection, but it is worth checking for co-operation.

Twenty-four percent of students in the study indicated that they were not used to playing sports, 17 percent were competing, and 59 percent were playing sports merely as a hobby. Among those who play sports, individual sports were the most popular: nearly three-quarters (73%) of all involved students play individual sports and a quarter of them play team sports. Among the athletes, the participants in national competitions dominate (35%), their share also being significant in the county championships (26%) and local competitions (27%) (Table 3).

Table 3. Current sports activity of students (%)

| What type of sport he/she plays | At what level he/she plays sports |
|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|
|                                | total | individual sport | team sport | international | national championships, cups | county championships | Local competitions |
| Competes in sports             | 17%   | 73%              | 26%        | 12%           | 35%                          | 26%                   | 27%                |
| Plays sports as a hobby        | 59%   | -                | -          | -             | -                            | -                     | -                  |
| Does not do sports             | 24%   | -                | -          | -             | -                            | -                     | -                  |

In terms of sports activity, significant and characteristic differences can be observed between the different socio-demographic and study-differentiated groups of students. Among inactive students, women (30%), those aged 30-39 (38%), those living in villages (29%) and those without a high school diploma (62 and 31%) are over-represented, as well as those with subjectively difficult financial circumstances. The proportion of non-sports students in correspondence (31%), pedagogy (43%), social sciences (90%) and humanities (34%) is also high. Competitive sports are most prevalent among men (22%), those up to the age of 23 (22%), those with a graduate parent (22%), those in a very good financial position (28%), students in science and sports (38% and 50%), those studying sports-related subjects (54%) and those studying pedagogy (29%). The fact that wealth, age and type of settlement have less impact, while cultural capital and gender significantly influence whether or not someone plays sports suggests that activity is more related to gender-specific cultural patterns (Table 4).
The question arises as to whether everyday physical education in high school has anything to do with sports activity. This issue is especially important, as one of the reasons for the introduction of the program was that the school provides a suitable area for the development of positive patterns and attitudes related to sports (Révész & Csányi, 2015). According to my research, the program does not yet have convincing results for my sample during this time period. The relationship between participation in physical education and sports activity is somewhat contradictory (Figure 1). On the one hand, there is no difference between the students in the program and those not in the program, in terms of the proportion of those who do not play sports: a 23-24 percentile in both subgroups. At the same time, there are twice as many participants in the program currently competing in sports and, in this context, a smaller proportion of them actually do sports as a hobby. That is, if there is any kind of co-occurrence, it is best captured at the level of activity.
What are the reasons for not playing sports? Each socio-demographic group is characterized by a different reason why they do not play sports. Men are more likely to say they are not interested in sports or just don’t have the opportunity to play. Women tend to stress that they have neither the time nor the money for sports. Older students tended to highlight a lack of time, younger ones a lack of interest and money. According to the survey data, the impact of the urban slope also seems to affect interest in sport. The influence of parents’ education shows a surprising result, as those from more educated (especially graduate) families stated that they had no money for sports (although obviously this group of students is in the most favorable financial situation). What the issue really comes down to is a choice of values. From the point of view of the subjective financial situation, the proportion of those who refer to the most unfavorable situation is relatively low (Table 5). It is certainly a deterrent mechanism: it is inconvenient to have to declare a lack of money, so they prefer to refer to some other reason (in our case, that they are not interested in the sport).

Table 5. Why doesn’t he/she play sports? – Among those who do not play sports, according to socio-demographic background characteristics (%)

| SEX          | not interested | no time | no possibilities | no money | health reasons | other |
|--------------|----------------|---------|------------------|----------|----------------|-------|
| male         | 55%            | 64%     | 35%              | 15%      | *              | *     |
| female       | 28%            | 84%     | 21%              | 32%      | *              | *     |

| AGE GROUP    | not interested | no time | no possibilities | no money | health reasons | other |
|--------------|----------------|---------|------------------|----------|----------------|-------|
| 18-23        | 33%            | 75%     | *                | 30%      | 22%            | *     |
| 24-29        | 44%            | 84%     | *                | 41%      | 4%             | *     |
| 30-39        | 22%            | 95%     | *                | 7%       | 2%             | *     |
| at least 40  | 16%            | 97%     | *                | 18%      | 35%            | *     |

| TYPE OF SETTLEMENT | not interested | no time | no possibilities | no money | health reasons | other |
|--------------------|----------------|---------|------------------|----------|----------------|-------|
| capital            |                | *       | *                | *        |                |       |
| county seat        | 22%            | *       | *                | *        |                |       |
| small town         | 36%            | *       | *                | *        |                |       |
| village            | 41%            | *       | *                | *        |                |       |

| EDUCATION OF PARENTS | not interested | no time | no possibilities | no money | health reasons | other |
|----------------------|----------------|---------|------------------|----------|----------------|-------|
| Max. 8 years of primary school | 52%            | *       | *                | 6%       | *              |       |
| trade                | 23%            | *       | *                | 16%      | *              |       |
| final exam           | 33%            | *       | *                | 26%      | *              |       |
| degree               | 36%            | *       | *                | 40%      | *              |       |

| SUBJECTIVE FINANCIAL SITUATION | not interested | no time | no possibilities | no money | health reasons | other |
|--------------------------------|----------------|---------|------------------|----------|----------------|-------|
| very good, no financial problem | 40%            | *       | *                | 8%       | *              |       |
| good, can be subsumed           | 36%            | *       | *                | 27%      | *              |       |
| hardly can be subsumed          | 19%            | *       | *                | 60%      | *              |       |
| bad                             | 46%            | *       | *                | 26%      | *              |       |
| TOTAL                           | 33%            | 80%     | 24%              | 28%      | 17%            | 14%   |
Value dimensions, value groups

In my questionnaire, I attempted to use a short set of questions to measure what values respondents considered important or less important. On the Likert scale, I listed a total of eight different values: family safety, inner harmony, public life, nurturing traditions, religious beliefs, friendship, material possessions, and freedom. The answers could be given on a five-point scale (1 – not at all important; 5 – very important).

Based on the answers, the assessment of the eight values can be divided into three groups. The majority of the students in the sample consider family safety, personal inner harmony, freedom and friendship to be the most important values (their average on a hundred-point scale ranges from 85 to 95 points). The relative majority also attributes material assets, public life and the nurturing of traditions to important values, but their significance is secondary to the former (averages range from 54 to 67 points). Religious faith proved to be the least accepted and rather an even more rejected value for many (41 points on average) (Table 6).

### Table 6. How important are the following values? (% and average)

| Value                      | Not at all | To a very small extent | To small extent | To a large extent | Fully | No answer | Average | Average on scale of 100 |
|----------------------------|------------|------------------------|-----------------|-------------------|-------|-----------|---------|------------------------|
| Security of the family     | <1%        | <1%                    | 4%              | 19%               | 77%   | <1%       | 4,72    | 93                     |
| Internal harmony           | 1%         | 1%                     | 7%              | 35%               | 57%   | <1%       | 4,48    | 87                     |
| Freedom                    | <1%        | 2%                     | 6%              | 42%               | 50%   | <1%       | 4,39    | 85                     |
| Friendship                 | 1%         | 1%                     | 7%              | 41%               | 50%   | <1%       | 4,39    | 85                     |
| Financial goods            | 1%         | 5%                     | 32%             | 49%               | 13%   | <1%       | 4,39    | 85                     |
| Public life                | 4%         | 12%                    | 31%             | 38%               | 15%   | 1%        | 3,50    | 63                     |
| Nurturing traditions       | 7%         | 16%                    | 40%             | 29%               | 8%    | <1%       | 3,16    | 54                     |
| Religion                   | 28%        | 20%                    | 24%             | 16%               | 12%   | <1%       | 2,65    | 41                     |

Using multidimensional scaling, I examined whether there was any closer relationship between each value. The stress indicator of the analysis shows how well the model fits. This value is 0.07, which is low enough to take into account the result. The self-map is shown in the figure below (Figure 2).

### Figure 2. Multidimensional scaling of values (Stress=0.07337 RSQ=0.986)

The vertical axis, in my interpretation, shows the materiality of values: in the negative field we find intangible values (such as religious belief); in the positive field we find material values (such as material goods). The horizontal axis separates values according to whether they are community (such as nurturing traditions) or individual (such as inner harmony). The former can be read in the negative field, the latter in the positive field. The value map helps me in the sense that it identifies which value dimensions are worth separating from each other. Three such dimensions can be identified and quantified using a principal component analysis.
The first value dimension shows the material value preference. I included two variables in the main component: the importance of public life and the importance of material goods. The retention rate of the main component is 59%. Thus, students who achieve high values on the principal component consider material values to be important to them, and those who achieve low values are irrelevant to them. The second value dimension contains the traditional value preference: the variables involved were the cultivation of religious faith and traditions. The proportion of information retained is the highest for this principal component (68%), i.e. this principal component best expresses the content of the original variables. Finally, the third value dimension expresses the “open” (Perényi, 2010a; 2010b) or post-material value preference related to individual autonomy. The proportion of information retained is relatively low (52%), but is still well within acceptable range. The principal component displays the importance of the values of inner harmony, friendship, and freedom. Of the three main components, only the “Security of the family” value was left out, though I could have inserted it into the main component expressing individual autonomy. The main argument in favor of omission was the following: almost all respondents could identify with this value, so there is no significant (statistical) standard deviation (Table 7).

Table 7. Value dimensions – parameters of principal component analysis

| Value dimensions       | Values       | Communality | Proportion of information retained | Average* |
|------------------------|--------------|-------------|-----------------------------------|----------|
| Material values        | Public life  | .587        | 59%                               | 65       |
|                        | Financial goods | .587      |                                    |          |
| Traditional values     | Religion     | .685        | 68%                               | 48       |
|                        | Nurturing traditions | .685    |                                    |          |
| Individual autonomy    | Internal harmony | .572   | 52%                               | 85       |
|                        | Friendship    | .492        |                                    |          |
|                        | Freedom       | .496        |                                    |          |

* Projected on a 100-degree scale

Projecting the averages of the individual principal components on a 100-degree scale, it can be seen that the students included in the sample can best identify with the value dimension representing individual autonomy (85 points). The second (a value dimension that is also important to the majority) is the importance of material goods (65 points), and the third is that of traditional values. The 48-point average of the latter also suggests that relatively high heterogeneity is also associated with this value dimension. The individual value dimensions are not completely independent of each other, as indicated by the significance and magnitude of the correlation between them. The strongest relationship is between individual autonomy and material values ($r = .346$, sig = 0.000) which can be considered as weak to moderate in strength. The association between individual autonomy and traditional values ($r = .204$, sig = 0.000) and between traditional values and material values ($r = .203$, sig = 0.000) is rather weak but still significant.

There is little substantial difference between the individual socio-demographic and study groups of students in terms of judging each value dimension. Although the results show several differences in the statistical sense, I can only highlight a significant difference in one or two cases. For example, the acceptance of material values is higher among students living in the capital. Older students tend to embrace traditional values. Values related to individual autonomy are considered important in all student groups on a similar scale. Typically, parental education has no significant effect on the structure of values considered important. There is no meaningful relationship between value dimensions and participation in everyday physical education, and current sport activity.

Using the three value dimensions, I separated six groups of attitudes. The goal was to delineate groups of students who considered one value dimension to be different from the others. However, cluster analysis failed to create sharply distinct groups, so I sorted the cases in a “traditional” way. For some of the groups, the distinguishing point was that one value dimension was considered to be above average and the other two value dimensions were considered to be below average. The first group thus includes those who are “more materialistic”, i.e. material values are considered important above average (group average: 79 points), the other values are considered important below average (traditional values 25, individual autonomy 79 points). The second group
includes ‘more traditionalists’ (the group averages are 54, 62 and 76 respectively) and the third group is ‘more autonomous’ (53, 21, 96 points). The fourth group is made up of students who accept all three value dimensions above average (“combiners” 83, 69, 96) and the fifth are those who accept none (“rejectors” points 51, 23 and 72). Finally, I included in the sixth group those students whose opinions did not differ significantly from the average in any of the attitude groups (“average” points 70, 54, 91). Thus, the first three of the six groups represent a kind of ideal type, distinguishing them from those who consider one dimension to be much more emphasized than the others.

Table 8. Value groups according to the main socio-demographic background characteristics of students (%)

|                  | Rather materialists | Rather traditionalists | Rather autonomous | Alloys | Rejectors | Average | Chi² | sig  |
|------------------|---------------------|------------------------|-------------------|--------|-----------|---------|------|------|
| SEX              | 44,493              | 0,000                  |                   |        |           |         |      |      |
| male             | 7%                  | 15%                    | 12%               | 14%    | 23%       | 28%     |      |      |
| female           | 4%                  | 19%                    | 6%                | 19%    | 17%       | 35%     |      |      |
| AGE GROUP        | 81,536              | 0,000                  |                   |        |           |         |      |      |
| 18-23            | 6%                  | 17%                    | 9%                | 16%    | 20%       | 33%     |      |      |
| 24-29            | 3%                  | 9%                     | 10%               | 19%    | 24%       | 36%     |      |      |
| 30-39            | 3%                  | 33%                    | 5%                | 22%    | 9%        | 29%     |      |      |
| at least 40      | 8%                  | 35%                    | 4%                | 15%    | 12%       | 27%     |      |      |
| TYPE OF SETTLEMENT | 41,697              | 0,000                  |                   |        |           |         |      |      |
| capital          | 19%                 | 8%                     | 12%               | 15%    | 12%       | 35%     |      |      |
| county seat      | 4%                  | 15%                    | 11%               | 15%    | 22%       | 34%     |      |      |
| small town       | 7%                  | 17%                    | 7%                | 19%    | 18%       | 32%     |      |      |
| village          | 4%                  | 24%                    | 6%                | 17%    | 18%       | 30%     |      |      |
| EDUCATION OF PARENTS | 50,354              | 0,000                  |                   |        |           |         |      |      |
| max. 8 years of primary school | 21%          | 20%                    | 4%                | 24%    | 24%       | 7%      |      |      |
| trade            | 3%                  | 28%                    | 9%                | 15%    | 17%       | 28%     |      |      |
| final exam       | 6%                  | 18%                    | 8%                | 17%    | 17%       | 35%     |      |      |
| degree           | 6%                  | 14%                    | 8%                | 16%    | 22%       | 34%     |      |      |
| TOTAL            | 6%                  | 17%                    | 8%                | 16%    | 19%       | 32%     |      |      |

Materialists make up 6 percent of the sample, traditionalists make up 17 percent of the sample, and the autonomous make up 8 percent of those surveyed. The aggregators give out 16 percent of the students surveyed, 19 percent of the rejectors, and 32 percent of the average (an additional two percent of respondents could not be classified anywhere due to a lack of response). Each type of ideal shows significant over- or under-representation in only a few socio-demographic groups. The proportion of students in the capital with parents with no more than a primary education is higher. The more traditionalists are over-represented among those at least 30 years old, living in the villages, coming from a skilled worker’s parental home. Those who prioritize individual autonomy are above average in the proportion of men. While the group of alloys is over-represented among the wealthiest, rejectors are more representative of the wealthiest (Table 8).

Discussion

Overall, our results are in line with Bauer’s (2002) finding that the family plays a key role in the impairment of the post-regime change generation, as almost all respondents were able to identify with this value regardless of their level of physical activity. The same finding differs from the results of Perényi’s (2008) study, in which the inactive showed significantly higher values when deciding on the importance of “family security”. Presumably, our test values point to the increasing safety search of the age group, independent of sports activity.
Significant differences in sport activity can be observed based on individual socio-demographic aspects. Among non-sports students, women (30%), those aged 30-39 (38%), those living in villages (29%) and those without a high school diploma (62% and 31%) are over-represented, as well as those who are in subjectively difficult material circumstances. Competitive sports are most associated with men (22%), those up to 23 years old (22%), those with a graduate parent (22%), and those in a very good financial position (28%). The wealth situation has no significant relationship with sports activity. Fábri (2002) emphasizes that lifestyle changes rather than financial situation have a decisive effect on the frequency of sports at this age. Regarding the relationship between sports activity and value orientation, the students included in the sample can best identify with the “open” or post-material value dimension representing individual autonomy. This is in agreement with previous research data (Kovács, 2013; Perényi, 2010). The second is the importance of material goods, and the third is the importance of traditional values. There is no significant difference in the acceptance of post-material values between certain socio-demographic and study groups of students. Most of the differences are due to the importance of material values. Those who have participated in daily physical education consider material values to be somewhat more important than those who have not. Although the difference is small, there is a significant difference in the values that represent the post-material dimension – those who participated consider this value dimension to be somewhat more important. The importance of the values does not differ in terms of whether the respondents play sports and, if so, the level at which they play their own sport. We can talk about a complex mechanism of action in the study of value orientations, which warns us to be careful when drawing the final conclusions, as we cannot prove causal relationships in our analysis. However, with regard to our research sample, it can be said that it has not yet had a demonstrable role in the physical activity and value system of students since the introduction of everyday physical education (Moravecz, 2021).

Conclusions

The interpretation of the results is not trivial. An explanation may be given if I assume that there are (at least) two paths to achieving good physical and mental well-being. One argues that it is worth pursuing an active, sporty lifestyle, and the other argues that it is more worthwhile to pay attention to an inactive lifestyle (such as how to eat). The latter – based on individual energy investment – is the easier way, which is why the effect of age is strong: the older one gets the harder it is to get involved in sports, but the better it is to pay attention to their lifestyle. The social costs and difficulties of this journey are also lower – a non-athlete does not have to get out of the narrow social environment by playing sports in a low-status environment. The active path, the investment of health capital, on the other hand, builds on the fact that exercise and regular sports are very important for physical and mental well-being; whose financial costs are more likely to be born by those of higher status; and is more in line with the leisure activity structure of the more disadvantaged sections of society. On the other hand, there is a good chance of embarking on this path only if there is a sense of purpose, willpower, and a desire for self-realization — which personality traits are most likely related partly to the acceptance of material and partly to individual values of autonomy. If this explanation is true, everyday physical education may play a role in routing. However, we can only indirectly deduce everything from the above models, as well as the fact that it is easy to imagine that the passive path is really just self-deception, there is no real individual action behind it, only faith. However, answering these questions will be the task of a future research.

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