Reflections of Personality and Loneliness on Coping Styles With Stress in Individuals Engaged in Recreational Sport Activities

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Abstract

This study aims to examine the reflections of personality traits and loneliness on coping styles among individuals engaged in recreational sports activities. The sample consisted of 408 participants (207 females, 201 males) who completed the Ten-Item Personality Inventory, UCLA Loneliness Scale, and Coping with Stress Scale. Correlation and regression analyses revealed that loneliness was significantly predicted by specific coping styles, particularly the helpless and self-confident approaches. A strong positive relationship was found between the helpless approach and loneliness, while a moderate negative relationship emerged between the self-confident approach and loneliness. Seeking social support also showed a weak but significant positive correlation with loneliness. Among the personality traits, extraversion, emotional stability, and conscientiousness were positively associated with effective coping. The findings underscore the pivotal role of psychological resources and individual differences in managing stress and reducing loneliness in recreational sport contexts. The study suggests that enhancing self-efficacy and promoting active coping strategies can contribute to improved psychological well-being among recreationally active individuals.

Keywords: Loneliness, personality traits, self-efficacy, sports activity, ways of dealing with stress

INTRODUCTION

The transition from an agrarian society to an industrial one, accompanied by the resulting increase in population and competition, has led to extended working hours and significant changes in social life patterns. In particular, urbanization, the rise of apartment living, employment difficulties caused by industrialization, and concerns related to job placement have deeply affected human relationships. In this fast-paced lifestyle, individuals have increasingly less time to devote to themselves and their social environment. This situation has led to a rise in feelings of loneliness, weakened interpersonal relationships, and, consequently, the emergence of various psychological problems (Duy, 2003; Lasch, 2024).

Loneliness is defined as a psychological strain accompanied by the lack of satisfying interpersonal bonds and the inability of individuals to find the closeness and satisfaction they expect in social relationships (Heinrich & Gullone, 2006). It has been emphasized that this emotion is not merely related to the quantity of relationships but more significantly to their quality; the extent to which individuals are satisfied with their relationships and how they evaluate them plays a key role in the development of loneliness (Duy, 2003). Moreover, it has been found that having strong and supportive social ties has a protective effect against suicidal

tendencies; individuals with high communication skills with family and friends report fewer suicidal thoughts compared to those with lower such skills (Park et al., 2006)

Studies have revealed that there are two fundamental types of loneliness: social loneliness and emotional loneliness. Social loneliness arises when an individual becomes disconnected from a social network formed with peers who share similar worldviews and interests. This condition can be defined as the lack of social relationships or not being part of a community in which one feels a sense of belonging. It has been stated that individuals experiencing this type of loneliness may develop feelings of exclusion or rejection by their peer group, often accompanied by emotions such as boredom (Şişman & Turan, 2004, as cited in Sawir et al., 2008).

Loneliness is not merely a physical state of being alone, but rather a negative emotional state caused by the mismatch between expected and actual social relationships (Durak & Batıgün, 2008; Yıldırım, 2000). Furthermore, studies show that approximately 25% of individuals experiencing depression and suicidal ideation also report intense feelings of loneliness (Stravynski & Boyer, 2001).

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) defined the process of coping with stress as the constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts made by an individual to manage demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding one's personal resources. This definition distinguishes between intentional and effortful responses and involuntary or automatic reactions in the stress-coping process. According to this perspective, coping includes only the conscious and goal-directed responses of the individual.

Hartney (2008) viewed coping with stress as a lifelong process and emphasized that it plays a critical role in preserving health, improving quality of life, and contributing to professional development. Monat et al. (1991) stated that coping encompasses various methods developed by individuals to deal with threat, harm, or challenge situations when their habitual responses prove insufficient.

Personality is defined as a consistent and integrated pattern in an individual's way of thinking, feeling, and behaving, which distinguishes them from others (Burger & Shelton, 2011). In psychological literature, personality is considered a fundamental structure that shapes both the individual's internal experiences and their relationships with the external environment (McCrae & Costa, 1997). This structure plays a decisive role across various life domains,

ranging from coping with stress to social interactions, decision-making processes, and adaptive behaviors (John, Naumann, & Soto, 2008).

One of the most widely accepted models in personality research is the Five-Factor Model developed by McCrae and Costa (1999). According to this model, personality consists of five core dimensions: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability (neuroticism), and openness to experience. These dimensions provide important insights into how individuals react to environmental stimuli and how they cope with stressful situations.

Personality includes not only innate characteristics but also learned behavioral patterns shaped by life experiences (Cervone & Pervin, 2022). Therefore, social and physical activities such as participation in recreational sports interact with personality traits. For instance, extraverted individuals are more inclined to engage in group activities, while introverted individuals may prefer sports that can be performed alone (Allen, Greenlees, & Jones, 2013).

The concept of recreation is defined as the creative expression of an individual's personality through activities such as physical exercise, games, and art. At the same time, it is not limited to physical movement but also encompasses voluntary activities that address emotional needs and provide satisfaction during leisure time (Tekin et al., 2009). In the literature, the term "recreation" is derived from the Latin word *recreatio*, meaning reconstruction or renewal. In Turkish, it is commonly used to denote leisure time activities. Conceptually, recreation refers to activities that individuals willingly engage in during their free time, characterized as relaxing and entertaining (Kocaekşi, 2012).

Furthermore, recreation is also considered a way of life that is not work-related, inherently meaningful, and contributes to a fulfilling and satisfying life by meeting various fundamental needs of the individual (Karaküçük, 2005).

The information provided in the literature clearly highlights the importance of coping with loneliness as part of emotional well-being. In order to deal with loneliness, depression, and related negative outcomes, various strategies have been developed. One frequently emphasized method among these is participation in sports activities. Engaging in sports during leisure time plays a significant role in reducing feelings of loneliness, supporting psychological health, developing personality traits, and coping with daily stress. Moreover, sports are considered an effective tool for promoting socialization among individuals (Baltaş & Baltaş, 1995; Müftüoğlu, 2003). In this context, participation in recreational sports activities can both reflect the personality traits of individuals and contribute to their personality development.

Based on the relevant literature, this study aims to explore the state of loneliness and the reflections of personality traits on coping strategies among individuals who engage in sports activities during their leisure time.

METHOD

Research group

In this study, the survey model one of the quantitative research designs—was employed. The survey model is a research method that aims to understand and describe an existing phenomenon either in the present or in the past as it naturally occurs (Karasar, 2020).

Population and Sample

The population of the study consists of individuals residing in Turkey who participated in recreational sport activities in the year 2025. The accessible population was composed of individuals engaging in recreational sports across various districts of Istanbul. A purposive sampling method was used in the research.

Purposive sampling allows for the selection of individuals, cases, or objects that meet predetermined criteria, enabling the in-depth examination of situations containing significant and diverse information (Büyüköztürk et al., 2021).

The study group consists of a total of 276 individuals who engaged in sport activities in Istanbul in 2025: female (n = 151), male (n = 125), participants involved in sports for 0–6 months (n = 55), 6 months–1 year (n = 81), 1–3 years (n = 69), and 3 years or more (n = 71). The demographic characteristics of the participants are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of participants' socio-demographic characteristics

		n	%
Gender	Female	151	54,7%
	Man	125	45,3%
Age Group	18-29	126	45,7%
	29-39	73	26,4%
	39 and above	77	27,9%
Marital Status	Married	102	37,0%
	Single	174	63,0%
Educational Background	High school	72	26,1%
	Bachelor's degree	159	57,6%

	Master's degree	45	16,3%
Duration of Sport Activity	0-6 months	55	19,9%
	6 months- 1 year	81	29,3%
	1-3 years	69	25,0%
	3 years and above	71	25,7%

The findings presented in Table 1 show that 54.7% of the 276 participants were female and 45.3% were male, indicating a slightly higher participation of females. Regarding age, 45.7% of participants were between 18 and 29 years old, 26.4% between 29 and 39, and 27.9% were 39 years and older—indicating that young adults formed the majority of the sample. In terms of marital status, 63.0% were single while 37.0% were married, suggesting that singles were significantly more represented. The majority of the participants had a bachelor's degree (57.6%), followed by high school graduates (26.1%) and master's degree holders (16.3%), implying a generally high level of education among participants. As for the duration of sports participation, the distribution was relatively balanced: 19.9% had participated for 0–6 months, 29.3% for 6 months to 1 year, 25.0% for 1–3 years, and 25.7% for more than 3 years. These results suggest a well-balanced sample in terms of newcomers and long-term participants in recreational sports.

Data collection tools

The data were collected using a Personal Information Form, the "UCLA Loneliness Scale," the "Ten-Item Personality Inventory," and the "Coping with Stress Scale." The data collection was conducted by the researcher through a cross-sectional method. Prior to data collection, participants were informed about the study and only those who volunteered were included.

Personal Information Form

Designed to collect socio-demographic information about the participants (e.g., gender, age, marital status, education level, and duration of sport participation). The form did not include any items that could violate personal rights or directly access sensitive information.

UCLA Loneliness Scale

Developed by Russell, Peplau, and Cutrona (1980) and adapted into Turkish by Demir (1989), the scale consists of 20 items: 10 positively worded and 10 negatively worded. It was designed to measure individuals' general levels of loneliness. Each item is rated on a 4-point

Likert scale: "I never experience this" (1), "I rarely experience this" (2), "I sometimes experience this" (3), and "I often experience this" (4). Higher scores indicate higher levels of loneliness. The total possible score ranges from 20 to 80, with scores above 44 indicating a higher degree of loneliness (Russell et al., 1980). The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of the original scale was reported as 0.94. In the current study, the reliability coefficient was found to be 0.83

Personality Inventory

The Ten-Item Personality Inventory developed by Gosling et al. (2003) and adapted into Turkish culture by Atak (2013) was used to assess personality traits. The scale includes 10 items distributed across five dimensions: openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and emotional stability. Each dimension contains two items. Sample items include: "I see myself as someone who is extraverted and/or enthusiastic," and "I see myself as someone who is conventional and/or uncreative." Items are rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "1 – Strongly disagree" to "5 – Strongly agree." Cronbach's alpha values from prior validation studies were reported as follows: Openness to Experience α = 0.83, Agreeableness α = 0.81, Emotional Stability α = 0.83, Conscientiousness: α = 0.84, Extraversion: α = 0.86, In the current study, the internal consistency coefficients were, penness to Experience α = 0.74, Agreeableness α = 0.83, Emotional Stability α = 0.84, Conscientiousness: α = 0.84, Extraversion α = 0.79.

Coping with Stress Strategies Inventory (CSSI)

Originally developed by Edwards & Endler (1989), the Coping with Stress Scale aims to identify the types of coping strategies individuals use in response to stressful situations. The Turkish adaptation of the scale was carried out by Şahin and Durak (1995), who reduced the original 66 items to 30. The adapted version is a 4-point Likert scale with the following response options: 0% (Not at all appropriate), 30% (Slightly appropriate), 70% (Quite appropriate), and 100% (Very appropriate). The scale consists of five subdimensions, Optimistic Approach, Self-Confident Approach, Helpless Approach, Submissive Approach, Seeking Social Support. The inventory does not yield a total score. Instead, higher mean scores on the self-confident, optimistic, and social support subscales indicate effective coping styles, whereas higher scores on the helpless and submissive subscales indicate ineffective coping styles. In prior reliability studies, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were reported as follows, Optimistic Approach α between .49 and .68, Self-Confident Approach: α between .62 and .80, Helpless Approach α between .64 and .73, Submissive Approach: α between .47 and .72, Seeking Social Support: α

between .45 and .47. In this study, internal consistency coefficients were, Optimistic Approach α = .82, Self-Confident Approach α = .82, Helpless Approach α = .70, Submissive Approach α = .88, Seeking Social Support α = .86.

Research Ethics

The necessary ethical approval for this study was obtained from the Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Committee of Siirt University with the decision numbered 9286, dated 11/06/2025.

Data analysis

The data obtained from the research were transferred to a computer and organized using Microsoft Excel. Subsequently, analyses were conducted using the SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) version 29.0 software. Before initiating the analyses, the normality of the numerical data was assessed through skewness and kurtosis values, as well as through histogram and Q-Q plot graphs. Based on the results, it was concluded that the data followed a normal distribution.

Categorical variables were presented using frequency and percentage values, while numerical variables—meeting the assumption of normality—were summarized with means and standard deviations. The Pearson Correlation Test was used to examine the relationships between two numerical variables. The effects of independent variables on the dependent variable were analyzed using multiple regression analysis. For all tests, a significance level of $p < .05$ was considered statistically significant.

FINDINGS

Table 2. Descriptive statistics for the scales and their subdimensions used in the study

	Mean ± SD	Range	Cronbach's α	Skewness	Kurtosis
Coping with Stress Scale					
Optimistic Approach	14,78±3,73	7-20	0,820	-0,424	-0,998
Self-Confident Approach	20,16±3,26	11-24	0,823	-0,483	-0,611
Helpless Approach	18,63±4,45	8-31	0,700	0,263	-0,110
Submissive Approach	14,86±5,19	6-24	0,884	0,091	-1,336
Seeking Social Support	10,39±3,72	4-16	0,861	-0,124	-1,361
Personality Inventory	28,45±5,09	12-40	0,796	-0,373	0,667
Total Score	5,54±1,59	2-8	0,866	-0,403	-0,375
Extraversion	5,52±1,46	2-8	0,843	-0,268	-0,239
Emotional Stability	5,80±1,60	2-8	0,746	-0,402	-0,669
Openness to Experience	5,58±1,65	2-8	0,857	-0,195	-0,757

Conscientiousness	6,00±1,60	2-8	0,832	-0,367	-0,651
Agreeableness	39,29±9,61	24-69	0,838	0,483	-0,225

SD = Standard Deviation; α = Cronbach's Alpha

As seen in Table 2, the Personality Inventory had a mean score of 28.45 (SD = 5.09), ranging from 12 to 40. The UCLA Loneliness Scale had a mean score of 39.29 (SD = 9.61), ranging from 24 to 69. According to Tavakol and Dennick (2011), Cronbach's alpha values between .80 and 1.00 are interpreted as indicating a high level of reliability, while values between .60 and .80 indicate adequate reliability. Based on this classification, the reliability coefficients for the Coping with Stress Scale, Personality Inventory, and UCLA Loneliness Scale are considered adequate to high. Additionally, Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) stated that data can be considered normally distributed when skewness and kurtosis values fall between -1.5 and +1.5. The values presented in the table confirm that the data for all three instruments meet the assumption of normal distribution.

Table 3. Correlation analysis between coping styles, personality traits, and loneliness

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Optimistic Approach	*rh*	1											
	p												
2-Self-Confident Approach	*rh*	,085	1										
	p	,160											
3- Helpless Approach	*rh*	-,107	-,200**	1									
	p	,077	<,001										
4- Submissive Approach	*rh*	-,072	,069	,231**	1								
	p	,232	,253	<,001									
5- Seeking Social Support	*rh*	-,161**	,098	,207**	,159**	1							
	p	,007	,103	<,001	,008								
6- Personality Inventory Total	*rh*	-,076	-,014	-,051	,067	,046	1						
	p	,206	,818	,402	,265	,444							
7- Extraversion	*rh*	-,203**	-,119*	,051	,042	-,007	,695**	1					
	p	<,001	,048	,397	,482	,910	<,001						
8- Emotional Stability	*rh*	-,070	-,048	-,033	,022	,132*	,661**	,425**	1				
	p	,244	,431	,584	,717	,028	<,001	<,001					
9- Openness to Experience	*rh*	-,040	,062	-,045	,105	,024	,612**	,244**	,222**	1			
	p	,506	,309	,454	,081	,694	<,001	<,001	<,001				
10- Conscientiousness	*rh*	,125*	-,007	,037	,014	,038	,670**	,264**	,316**	,356**	1		
	p	,038	,910	,544	,815	,532	<,001	<,001	<,001	<,001			
11- Agreeableness	*rh*	-,064	,063	-,174**	,032	-,030	,578**	,309**	,217**	,130*	,194**	1	
	p	,287	,295	,004	,598	,621	<,001	<,001	<,001	,031	,001		

| 12- UCLA | *rh* | -,153[*] | -,317[**] | ,518[**] | ,068 | ,197[**] | -,054 | ,111 | -,090 | -,015 | -,075 | -,108 | 1 |
| Loneliness Scale | p | ,011 | <,001 | <,001 | ,260 | <,001 | ,370 | ,065 | ,135 | ,808 | ,211 | ,072 | |

*p < .05, **p < .001; Pearson Correlation Coefficients (r)

When Table 3 is examined, it presents a general overview of the relationships among the scales used in the study. Firstly, there are statistically significant but weak negative correlations between the Optimistic Approach and both Extraversion (r = –.203, p < .001) and the UCLA Loneliness Scale (r = –.153, p = .011); that is, individuals with higher levels of optimism tend to be more extraverted and feel less lonely. There is also a significant and negative correlation between the Self-Confident Approach and loneliness (r = –.317, p < .001); as self-confidence increases, feelings of loneliness decrease. In contrast, a positive and relatively strong correlation was observed between the Helpless Approach and the UCLA Loneliness Scale (r = .518, p < .001), indicating that individuals who adopt a helpless coping style tend to report substantially higher levels of loneliness. No significant relationship was found between the Submissive Approach and loneliness. Seeking Social Support, on the other hand, showed a low but significant positive correlation with loneliness (r = .197, p < .001), which may suggest that in some contexts, the act of seeking support might itself be associated with increased loneliness. Regarding the five dimensions of the Personality Inventory (presumably based on the Big Five Model or a similar framework), significant and high correlations were found between the overall personality score and Extraversion (r = .695, p < .001), Emotional Stability (r = .661, p < .001), Openness to Experience (r = .612, p < .001), Conscientiousness (r = .670, p < .001), and Agreeableness (r = .578, p < .001). Moreover, these personality dimensions also showed moderate and mostly positive intercorrelations—for instance, between Conscientiousness and Emotional Stability (r = .316, p < .001). In short, the table demonstrates that loneliness is most significantly related to the Helpless Approach (strong and positive), followed by the Self-Confident Approach (moderate and negative), and to a lesser extent, the Optimistic Approach and Seeking Social Support (both weak). The Big Five personality traits also display strong and consistent correlations with each other and their corresponding subscales. The correlations in the table underscore the important role that coping styles and personality traits play in shaping feelings of loneliness.

Table 4. Multiple regression analysis of the effects of helpless approach, self-confident approach, seeking social support, and optimistic approach on loneliness

	$\hat{\beta}$	SE $\hat{\beta}$	Beta	t	p
(Constant)	34,938	4,467		7,822	<,001
Helpless Approach	,948	,112	,439	8,437	<,001
Self-Confident Approach	-,692	,151	-,235	-4,579	<,001
Seeking Social Support	,306	,134	,119	2,290	,023
Optimistic Approach	-,172	,130	-,067	-1,320	,188
	R^2	Adj. R^2	F	p	
	,335	,326	34,195	<,001	

Dependent Variable: UCLA Loneliness Scale

When the effects of the helpless approach, self-confident approach, seeking social support, and optimistic approach on loneliness were examined through multiple regression analysis, the results are presented in Table 4. The effect of the variables included in the model on loneliness was found to be statistically significant (F = 34.195; p < .001), and the model explained 33% of the variance in loneliness (Adjusted R^2 = .326).

When the variables in the model were examined individually, the helpless approach (β = 0.948, t = 8.437, p < .001) and seeking social support (β = 0.306, t = 2.290, p = .023) were found to have significant positive effects, while the self-confident approach (β = –0.692, t = –4.579, p < .001) had a significant negative effect on loneliness. These findings indicate that individuals who adopt a helpless coping style tend to experience higher levels of loneliness, while those with greater self-confidence are likely to feel less lonely. Moreover, although seeking social support is often considered a positive coping mechanism, in this study, it showed a positive association with loneliness, suggesting that in certain contexts, the act of seeking support might be linked with a heightened sense of social disconnection or unmet relational expectations. On the other hand, the optimistic approach did not have a statistically significant effect on loneliness (β = –0.172, t = –1.320, p = .188).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The aim of this study was to examine the personality traits, levels of loneliness, and the reflections of these variables on coping styles among individuals who participate in recreational sports activities. The results of the multiple regression analysis showed that loneliness could be explained by 33% (Adj. R^2 = .326), and that the variables of helpless approach, self-confident approach, and seeking social support significantly predicted loneliness.

The findings obtained in this study are consistent with existing literature. In their study, Serçek and Serçek (2015) evaluated the impact of university students' participation in recreational activities during their leisure time on their levels of socialization. The research revealed that, despite individual differences, recreational activities foster integration and socialization. Page and Tucker (1994) compared the psychosocial problems and frequency of exercise among young people with different levels of physical activity and found that those who did not exercise regularly experienced higher levels of loneliness, shyness, and hopelessness. Similarly, another study by Page and Hammermeister (1995) found a negative correlation between exercise frequency and both shyness and loneliness, suggesting that students who exercised regularly experienced these negative emotions less frequently.

Studies examining the relationship between sports branches and personality traits have shown that individuals who are involved in team sports tend to be more extraverted, cooperative in social relationships, and assertive. In contrast, those engaged in individual sports were found to be more introverted, more focused on independence, and inclined to prove their success individually (Kuru,2000). Assuming that personality traits affect loneliness, it can be speculated that individuals participating in individual sports may experience higher levels of loneliness. However, a comparative study by Özçelik et al. (2014) found no statistically significant differences in loneliness levels according to the type of sport. This may be attributed to the level at which the sport is practiced.

Among the variables, the helpless approach was found to be the strongest positive predictor of loneliness (β = 0.948, p < .001), indicating that passive and uncontrollable coping styles exacerbate loneliness. Heinrich and Gullone (2006) noted a direct link between loneliness and passive coping styles, while Cacioppo and Hawkley (2009) emphasized the intertwining of social isolation with psychological problems. Supporting our findings, low levels of self-efficacy were found to be associated with loneliness and introversion (Yıldız & Duy, 2014). Furthermore, a study by Uzuner and Karagün (2014) revealed that individuals who regularly

engage in recreational physical activity experience significantly lower levels of loneliness. This suggests that when helpless coping is combined with physical inactivity and social isolation, loneliness may become more severe.

The self-confident approach was found to be a significant negative predictor of loneliness ($\beta = -0.692$, $p < .001$). This indicates that individuals' belief in their problem-solving abilities enhances their effective coping capacity in stressful situations and reduces feelings of loneliness. Bandura (1997) highlighted the central role of self-efficacy in guiding human behavior. Similarly, Kapıkıran and Acun-Kapıkıran (2016) noted that optimistic individuals tend to use more active coping strategies and exhibit higher levels of psychological resilience. In line with this, a study by Güner, Demir, and Erdem (2022) found a significant and negative relationship between academic self-efficacy and loneliness among university students. The results showed that as self-efficacy increases, loneliness decreases.

Another noteworthy finding of this study was the positive relationship between seeking social support and loneliness ($\beta = 0.306$, $p = .023$). Although spirituality is often viewed as a component of psychological well-being (Rokach, 2004), in some individuals, as observed in this study, it may lead to introspection, personal questioning, and a spiritual search, which can co-occur with loneliness. Gültekin and Yıldız (2023) observed a significant relationship between spiritual sensitivity and loneliness among adults.

In the current model, seeking social support and optimistic approach were not found to be significant predictors. This suggests that their effects on loneliness might be indirect and context-dependent. The quality, reliability, and accessibility of social support are all crucial in determining its impact on loneliness (Thoits, 2011). Güloğlu and Karaırmak (2010) demonstrated that self-esteem had a stronger effect on loneliness than perceived social support. Within the context of recreational activities, it is plausible to argue that opportunities for social interaction provide not only a platform for "seeking support" but also fulfill functions of "belonging" and "socializing" (Tolukan, Yıldız, & Etlioğlu, 2024).

Moreover, the protective role of recreational activities in reducing loneliness and coping with stress is also supported by previous studies. Siyahtaş, Güler, and Duran (2025) found that university students who regularly participated in recreational physical activities reported lower levels of loneliness and higher levels of psychological well-being. Aslan and İmamoğlu (2020) found that recreational leisure strategies among students with sports education varied by demographic factors such as income and age, implying that sports activities can create diversity

in the dynamics of loneliness and stress management. Bedir et al. (2016) revealed that belief in one's ability to cope with stress during leisure time was directly related to individual characteristics.

These findings indicate that recreational sports contribute significantly to reducing loneliness, increasing social connectedness, and enhancing coping skills.

In conclusion, this study examined the relationships among personality traits, levels of loneliness, and coping styles in individuals participating in recreational sports activities. The findings reveal that among the coping styles, the helpless approach was the most influential variable on loneliness, showing a strong and positive association. In contrast, the self-confident approach emerged as a protective factor that negatively predicted loneliness. Furthermore, the level of spiritual development was also found to be significantly and positively associated with loneliness.

Overall, the study's findings suggest that the cognitive and behavioral strategies individuals use to cope with stressful life events directly influence the severity and persistence of their loneliness. In this context, internal psychological resources (such as self-efficacy, spirituality, and self-esteem) may exert an indirect yet strong effect on social relationships.

Ultimately, identifying the variables that influence coping with loneliness in relation to personality can be valuable in designing intervention programs aimed at helping individuals restructure their social relationships, strengthen their support systems, and enhance psychological resilience.

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