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The Athens Journal of Sports



(ATINER)

Volume 6, Issue 1, March 2019

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ISSN NUMBER: 2241-7915 - DOI: 10.30958/ajspo

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The current issue is the first of the sixth volume of the *Athens Journal of Sports*, published by the Sports Unit of the Athens Institute for Education and Research (ATINER) under the auspices of the Panhellenic Association of Sports Economists and Managers (PASEM).

Gregory T. Papanikos, President
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Taiwanese Residents' Perceived Social, Economic, Recreational and Political Benefits for Hosting the 2017 Universiade Games

By Steve Chen^{*}, Yun-kuang Lee[†], Chieh Der Dongfang[‡],
Cao-Yen Chen⁺ & Tsung-Chih Chiu[°]

Hosting mega sporting events has been viewed as a great method to provide the host city and nation publicity, recognition, pride, and even economic benefits. This study aims to investigate the perceptions of Taiwanese residents on the social, economic, recreational, and political impact for hosting 2017 World University Games. The researchers used a self-created 7-point Likert survey to collect 1,021 responses from February to April of 2017. The survey covered four main constructs: (1) National and Cultural Spirit and Hospitality, (2) Financial and Recreational Factor, (3) Negative Social Consequences, and (4) Support for the Events and Political Concern. The results of the study showed the perceived positive benefits also outweighed the negative concerns associated with the events. Participants' game attending willingness was best predicted by the rating of "national and cultural spirit and hospitality." However, the notion of using this sporting event as a tool to bring peace and to ease the political tension between China and Taiwan was not observed. Finally, recommendations for promoting future large sporting events in Taiwan were offered. Strategies included targeting young individuals under 30 years of age, as well as emphasizing the potential growth of tourism and recreational benefits.

Keywords: *Mega Events, Universiade Games, Taiwan, Benefits.*

Introduction

In 1971, the Chinese government (People's Republic of China) replaced the Taiwanese national government as the official representative to the United Nations (UN). Since that time, Taiwan has lost many international partners and its legitimate political identity on the global stage. During the last forty-some years, Taiwan experienced a unique form of political oppression from the Chinese government under its "one China" policy. Taiwan could not join any official international organizations (i.e., World Health Organization, UNESCO, etc.), sign free trade treaties, or establish foreign diplomacy with other nations as an independent country, because the UN only recognize the People's Republic of China as the solo legitimate representation of "Chinese government". Despite the

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political oppression by the Chinese government and isolation from allies, Taiwan still survives and operates as an independent sovereignty, and has become quite wealthy (No. 22 ranking in GDP per capita among the world nations). The Taiwanese government has made numerous attempts to become an official member of the UN, World Health Organization, and other major international political organizations. Unfortunately, the effort often falls short, because the Chinese government consistently uses its political and economic influence to block Taiwan's entry into these entities. As of today, Taiwan still remains an "illegitimate" country, which is not recognized by many of the UN affiliated nations.

Taiwan has used various means to gain international support to recognize its existence and legitimacy. Apparently, a fast track for earning the international recognition is through participation in international sporting events. Sage et al. (2018) mentioned a nation's ruling elite often unites its citizens and impresses citizens of other nations through success in international sporting competitions or hosting mega sporting events. Throughout history, we witnessed Nazi Germany (i.e., 1936 Olympic Games), the former Soviet Unions, its Iron Bloc allies, and China (i.e., early Ping-Pong diplomacy and 2008 Beijing Olympics) using sports as a vehicle for propaganda and promotional tools for nationalism (Sage et al. 2018, Wood 2016). After many years of negotiations and struggles, Taiwan was granted participation in international sports and organizations under the name of Chinese Taipei by the International Olympic Committee. Within the last 10 years, Taiwan has hosted three international sporting events (2009 World Games, 2010 Deaflympics, and 2017 Summer Universiade Games) to further advance its international identity. Hosting the 2017 Summer Universiade Games has been considered the epic moment for showcasing Taiwan's democracy, wealth, and competitiveness to all nations (Taipei City Government 2011, Huang 2017).

Benefits, Impacts, and Concerns Associated with Mega Sporting Events

Past research has indicated that hosting mega sporting events such as the Olympics and the FIFA World Championship is a great way to promote national pride and international image (Leeds et al. 2018, Sage et al. 2018, Wood 2006). Although there is no concrete single definition of mega sporting events, whether they occur regularly or infrequently, they generally command a high level of public interest and media attention (Leeds et al. 2018). In addition, these events can attract numerous participants and spectators to visit the host country or city. The success of Beijing Games is a great example of how China utilized the games to earn recognition and spotlight (Chung and Chang 2011). Hosting mega-sporting events provide the host city and nation opportunities to increase publicity and enhance awareness (Jeong and Faulkner 1996, Ritchie et al. 2010). Ritchie and Lyons' study (1990) on the 1988 Calgary Winter Olympics found more than 50% of respondents held positive perceptions about the city hosting the event. More than a third of the respondents also believed that the event helped boost local tourism and economy.

According to Grix (2012), the German government employed a deliberate long-term strategy by instrumentalizing the 2006 FIFA World Cup to promote the country's image or 'brand'. The coordinated effort attempted to create a "feel good" sensation around that tournament that targeted all German fans. The results from the study of Florek et al. (2008) demonstrated the success of the German government's strategy. The interview response of the visiting New Zealand fans showed a significant improvement of the host country's image because of the respondents' direct experience. They perceived Germany as a less expensive, friendlier and multi-cultural country. In another subsequent study, although the British government seemed to be far less concerned about enhancing its international image through its 2012 Olympics, it still focused on the potential economic and social impact which justified its investment for this mega-event (Grix and Houlihan 2014).

Many studies have been conducted to examine the legacy, benefits, and issues of hosting mega sporting events. Preus' study (2007) used the bottom-up approach to identify the event legacy through the evaluation of 'soft' and 'hard' event-related changes in a host city. The identified long-term changes, so called as "event-structures" include meaningful changes in infrastructure, knowledge, image, emotions, networks, and culture. These changes (benefits and costs) through the transformation of the host city are the real legacy of a mega sporting event. While examining the social dimensions of Olympic tourism development, Ritchie et al. (2010) recognized five perceived factors associated with residents' view of the London Olympic Games. They are 'positive social impacts', 'positive economic impacts', and 'three negative impacts' mainly related to traffic congestion, parking issues, and potential increases in the cost of living. In general, the local residents were supportive of hosting the event; however, this supportive feeling is mediated by the perceived socio-cultural and economic impact, but not necessarily the environmental impact (Prayag et al. 2013). The residents were highly sensitive to the impact such as excessive spending and mobility problems. Without surprises, the most significant and important predictors of residents' willingness to host the event in the future are associated with "cultural interest and consolidation" and "excessive spending and mobility problems" (Balduck et al. 2011).

The economic benefits of mega sporting events have been a well-studied topic and traditionally presented in the form of economic impact studies (Atlanta Sport Council 2007, Baade et al. 2008, Baker 2015, Berr 2015, Chen et al. 2010, China Economic Review 2010, Press Trust of India 2010, Schrock 2013, Smith 2010). Interestingly, a lot of controversies had surrounded the conclusions of those economic impact studies due to the criticism of their accuracy and inappropriate methodologies. Numerous studies suggested that hosting these sporting events may even further boost tourism and stimulate the local economy (Cheung et al. 2016, Kim and Petrick 2005, Kim et al. 2006, Madden 2002, Candrea and Ispas 2005). Based on the findings of many past studies, it is not difficult to understand why the rising Chinese and Brazilian governments are eager to host the Olympic Games. Sports supporters' perceptions for the events often go beyond just the pure sports experience. Although the intangible social impact for hosting the events

were often hard to measure (Kim and Petrick 2005), some scholars are favoring the link between mega sporting events and tourism destination promotion (Candrea and Ispas 2005). Other scholars have rejected the notion of economic stimulation brought by the mega sporting events. They indicated the political and economic benefits of these mega events are exaggerated and minuscule (Kasimati 2003, Szymanski 2011). According to Kim and Petrick (2005), more people tend to emphasize the economic benefits associated with the mega-event and care less about the social and cultural implications that these events may bring. The primary reason is because the social benefits are often intangible and difficult to measure.

Despite many of the aforementioned benefits, hosting mega international sporting events (i.e., the Olympic games, the FIFA Championships, and other continental games) can still generate numerous negative criticisms and concerns due to issues such as excessive spending on infrastructure and facility construction, traffic congestion (lack of mobility and parking), pollution, overpopulation, and potential increases in the cost of living (Balduck et al. 2011, Riet 2014, Ritchie et. al. 2010, Tang 2016). Furthermore, officials usually do not like to address any of the negative social impacts associated with the event, since it may defeat the purpose of hosting it (Ritchie et al. 2010).

A unique impact that sporting events and activities may bring to a country or a community is promotion of peace and social unity (The Olympic Museum 2011). As early as the 2000s, scholars had already proposed the idea of fostering world peace through the establishment of global physical education, sports studies, and sport activities (Osada 2000). Former Secretary General of United Nations, Kofi Annan specifically encouraged the campaigns such as Sport-for-development (SFD) and Sport-for-development and peace (SDP) to resolve international conflicts, combat poverty, and improve international community relations (Cunningham 2015). In Klonova's article (2012), she demonstrated the Ukraine government using the 2012 European Football Championship as a platform to create and transform a peaceful national brand and image. Sporting events are viewed as the most effective vehicle to promote dialogue, integration, and peaceful understanding among disparate groups, even when other forms of negotiation have not been successful (Schulenkorf et al. 2011). As Rosenberg (2018) has pointed out, various types of the war conflicts and political tensions were the center of the discussions before the Olympic Games, but when events took place, we often witnessed people ending protests and conflicts to celebrate these festivities. The unification of North and South Korea jointly participating in the 2018 Sochi Winter Olympics can be viewed as the epic illustration of peace via sports (Kim 2018).

About the World University Games

The Universiade Games, also known as the World University Games, is an international sporting and cultural festival that is organized by the International University Sport Federation (FISU). The term, "Universiade" is a combination of the words "University" and "Olympiad." This event is also considered as a huge

cultural festivity that aims to attract young adults and college-age audiences. According to the official website of FISU (International University Sports Federation, n.d.), the games take place every two years in different host cities. It is the second largest multi-sports competition only behind the Olympic Games. The Summer Universiade Games consists of 11 compulsory sports and up to 3 more optional sports chosen by the host country. The Summer Games allow worldwide student-athletes to celebrate with the host city in a true spirit of friendship and sportsmanship in 12 days. Both of the last two Universiade Games prior to 2017 had more than 10,000 participants from more than 140 countries (Gawanju2015 2015). Many volunteers are also students who are generally of the same age as the athletes. The events were broadcasted by more than 100 television stations. The study of Bagautdinova et al. (2015) was a special project that focuses on economic, social and environmental impact brought by the 2013 Kazan Universiade Games (XXVII World Summer Universiade Games). Apparently, the conclusions of that study presented some contradictory effects on development of the city and the surrounding region. Several indicators associated with the environmental development were worsened; however, positive effects were found in increasing the number of residents involved in sports, and the growth of patriotism. Tyler (2015) examined the long-term costs and benefits of the 1991 Sheffield Universiade Games. He found the city experienced continuing economic impact from visitors, and additional investments in sport and leisure facilities subsequently benefited more than 16,000 regular sports participants. It was suggested that concerns related to media management, event planning, and political leadership are important lessons to learn in order to host successful Universiade Games.

The past Taiwanese literature related to the Summer Universiade Games often focused on themes such as management of facilities, strategies for event preparation, marketing and promotions for the events, enhancement of participatory athletes' performance, and use of volunteers (Chen and Chen 2013, Cheng and Chang 2009, Chiu et al. 2014, Hsu 2007, Huang 2015, Hung and Chang 2015, Lee and Hsieh 2015, Lin 2006, Peng 2012, Tseng et al. 2012). A couple of studies have focused on top sport administrators' perceptions on important values and primary factors for conducting a mega sporting event in Taiwan (Chen 2007, Mo 2016). The highly valued benefits were listed in rank order as follows: (1) political and social benefits (49.63%), (2) economic benefits (20.93%), (3) environmental development and infrastructure (20.76%), and (4) safety and legal concerns (8.67%). The political environment and political operation were the most vital factor that dictated the success of the event. According to the telemarketing survey of Chen, Lin, and Hung (2015), 45.5% of the interviewees ($n=1,073$) did not receive information regarding Taipei City hosting the 2017 Universiade Games; however, 77.6% of them supported Taipei City in hosting the event. In general, men are more likely to support the 2017 Universiade Games than women and the age group 18-19 years of age supported it the most.

Chinese Taipei' Past Experience in Hosting Events

In 2009, the City of Kaohsiung hosted the World Games. It was the highest level of international sporting events that Taiwan had ever sponsored up to that time. During the ten-day time frame, the total event attendance of World Games Exposition reached 0.91M (Joloveho 2009). The article of Chen, Dick, McNabb, and Tseng, (2010) is a rare piece that addresses the financial and economic aspect of the Kaohsiung World Games, the first International Olympic Committee sanctioned sporting events that took place in Taiwan. Approximately, 30,000-50,000 foreign tourists visited Kaohsiung during the 2009 World Games. The ticket sales for the competitions had exceeded \$2-million United States Dollars (USDs) (Sun 2010). Information of the economic impact studies for sporting events in Taiwan are hard to find, because the island nation rarely hosts these events.

Purpose and Significance of the Study

Past studies in Taiwan related to Universiade Games often focused on athletic performance, facility management, recruitment of volunteers, and marketing aspects of the games. The political concerns also seemed to dominate the potential chances and success for Taiwan to host any international sporting competitions. When the City of Taipei decided to bid for hosting the 2017 Universiade Games, it probably believed that hosting this event would catapult Taiwan's political image. In addition, building many sport facilities and infrastructure would increase tourism, stimulate economic growth, and promote citizens' participation in recreational activities and sports. However, certain identified issues and concerns may suggest the organizing committee was way too optimistic about the potential benefits of hosting this event. Some suggested hosting the event actually escalated the political tension between Taiwan and China, since China did not recognize Taiwan as a true nation (Chen C.C. 2017, Wang 2017). In addition, the local fans' game-attending willingness was low in a pre-game survey. Around three months prior to the opening ceremony, 70% did not expect to attend (Yu 2017). Others even questioned the need for spending so much money to host the Universiade Games.

For a rare opportunity, this study investigated the perceptions of young Taiwanese residents on the social, financial, and political impact of hosting the 2017 Universiade Games prior to the event. The researchers attempted to address and examine how young voters and college-age spectators perceived the impact of the highest level of mega sporting event that would take place in Taiwan. More specifically, what types of political, economic and social benefits were perceived to impact the city for hosting the 2017 Universiade Games? Would hosting this special mega sporting event help Taiwan improve its international image and soften the political tension between Taiwan and China? In addition, the researchers also focused on the level of local residents' support for the games and the influence of the event on local residents' leisure and recreational life.

Methodology

Participants and Procedure

In order to examine young Taiwanese residents' perceptions about hosting the 2017 Summer Universiade Games, the authors conducted a series of field surveys from mid-February to late April of 2017 in five different major cities (Taipei, New Taipei, Kaohsiung, Tainan, and Changhua) in Taiwan. The authors adopted the convenience sampling method to collect 1,021 respondents' responses (546 males, 53.5%; 463 females: 45.3%) in public areas such as parks, basketball courts, bus and train stations, libraries and six different university campuses. Data were collected on seven selected days within the aforementioned timeframe. Each survey session of the day lasted about five hours. With the help of the four volunteering interviewers, we randomly approached 1,200 individuals and invited them to voluntarily complete the survey after being given the instructions and their rights for participation. All the volunteering survey administrators (student volunteers) went through a training on research ethical conduct prior to physically administer the survey to participants.

The researchers specifically targeted the college-age respondents based on two rationales. First, the Games were genuinely promoted to target young adults and university students. The slogan of the event, "For You, For Youth", clearly illustrated this promotional approach. And secondly, the researchers were interested in knowing the young generation's views on the political implication of this mega sporting event that may impact the future relationship between China and Taiwan. Of those 1,021 responses, only about 15% were completed by the individuals who were older than 24-year-old. However, all the respondents were at least 18 years old. About 36.5% of the respondents claim to be the residents of Taipei City.

Instrumentation

The research framework and survey contents were developed based on the concepts and works provided by Balduck et al. (2011), Baker (2015), Candrea and Ispas (2005), Chen et al. (2015), Florek et al. (2008), Hsu (2007), Prayag et al. (2013), Ritchie et al. (2010), and Swan (2012). The researchers created a 25-item survey questionnaire to solicit the opinions of young citizens of host city (Taipei) and country (Taiwan) about the social, economic, recreational, and political impact that the 2017 Summer Universiade Games might bring to the society. Among 21 of those 25 items, the participants rated their level of agreement to the statements by using a seven-point Likert-scale (ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). Those 21 Likert-scale items covered issues related to general perceptions about the events social and cultural factor; (nine items), political factor (three items), economic factor (three items), promotion of recreation and health (three items), and willingness for supporting the events (two items). In addition, three demographic questions were included to identify a participant's gender, age, willingness for attending the events, and residency. After the content of the survey

questionnaire were finalized, the researchers obtain the approval from the Institutional Review Board of all involved institutions (both in Taiwan and United States) before starting the data collection process. The original survey items were composed in English. The primary author translated the contents of the survey into Chinese and allowed it to be reviewed by a panel of Taiwanese sport management faculty ($n = 4$) to further address the content validity. A pilot test was conducted in mid-January of 2017 with 40 Taiwanese college students completing the test-and re-test trial for the instrument. The reliability test yielded a very strong result of internal consistency among the participants' Likert-scale responses ($n = 1,021$; Cronbach $\alpha = .915$). Readers can further find the four main constructs (factors) of all 21 Likert-scale items based on the factor analysis in the "Results" section of the paper (see Table 1).

Results

About 61.5% of participants expressed their willingness to purchase tickets and attend the 2017 Summer Universiade Games. The results of the factor analysis yielded an extremely high value of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure (0.920), and good correlation among all items, which indicated the validity of our survey instrument was strong. Four specific constructs (factors) were identified, which included: (1) national and cultural spirit and hospitality, (2) economic and recreational factor, (3) negative social consequences, and (4) support for the events and political concerns. Table 1 listed the ratings of identified factors and their sub-categorical items. In general, the participants gave the highest ratings on the financial and recreational benefits brought by the 2017 Summer Universiade Games among other factors ($M = 5.38$). They also agreed that local residents would welcome the events and visitors with a high spirit and open arms. This notion could be reflected by the moderately high value in "National and Cultural Spirit and Hospitality" ($M = 5.03$). Although the participants were concerned about the amount of trashes produced due to the events and large crowd ($M = 5.61$), the overall perceptions of negative social impact associated with the events were slightly lower than the two aforementioned factors ($M = 4.96$). The participants seem to hold a neutral position on the issue of whether the 2017 Universiade Games helps ease the political tension between Chinese and Taiwanese government ($M = 3.98$).

Table 1. *Factors of Perceived Impact Brought by the 2017 Summer Universiade (KMO: .920; loading: 62.971%)*

Factor and items (% of Variance)	Mean
(1) National and Cultural Spirit and Hospitality (18.767)	5.03
The 2017 Universiade will enhance local residents' spirit of hospitality.	5.04
The 2017 Universiade will draw local residents more friendly to the foreign visitors	5.21
The 2017 Universiade will bring the community together through cultural activities.	4.88
Local residents will be proud to host the 2017 Universiade.	5.24
The 2017 Universiade will promote the local residents' nationalism.	4.78
(2) Financial and Recreational Factor (18.143)	5.38
The 2017 Universiade will help enhance local tourism.	5.70
The 2017 Universiade will help local residents increase opportunities for sales and trading.	5.44
The 2017 Universiade will promote employment opportunities.	4.78
The local residents will gain profits due to the increase of tourists.	5.46
The facilities used for the 2017 Universiade will be well utilized by the local residents to engage physical activities	5.29
Watching the 2017 Universiade will inspire local residents' interest and passion for sport activities.	5.30
(3) Negative Social Consequences (14.007)	4.96
Prices of every product for living costs will rise due to the event.	4.33
Rental cost around the stadium or arena will be rise.	4.76
A lot of trashes will be created due to the events and large crowd.	5.61
The 2017 Universiade will disrupt the lives of the locals in terms of peace and tranquility.	4.95
The 2017 Universiade will cause serious traffic congestion.	5.12
(4) Support for the Events and Political Concern (12.054)	4.21
I will be interested in attending the Universiade event physically.	4.83
I will be interested in purchasing the Universiade licensed merchandises or souvenirs.	3.83
The 2017 Universiade will help ease the political tension between Chinese and Taiwanese government.	3.98

Based on the results of the stepwise regression analysis, both “National spirit and hospitality” and “Economic and recreational factor” are good predictors of participants' overall “support for the events and political concern.” “National spirit and hospitality” is a stronger predictor among the two according to the two models illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2. Predictors of Overall Support for the Events and Political Concern

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	.632	.151		4.184**
	National and Cultural Spirit and Hospitality	.712	.029	.611	24.337**
2	(Constant)	-.042	.178		-.238
	National and Cultural Spirit and Hospitality	.500	.042	.429	11.863**
	Financial and Recreational Factor	.323	.047	.247	6.832**

Dependent Variable: Support for the Events and Political Concern

** $P < .01$

The participants' perceptions on various identified factors showed significant variations based on their certain demographic characteristics. For examples, individuals who were willing to attend the game physically had a significant higher rating on "National spirit and hospitality," "Economic & recreational factor", and "Support for the events and political concern" ($p < .05$). Those who did not wish to attend the events had a lower rating among all three factors. In general, male participants showed a significant higher rating on "Support for the events and political concern" than those of female respondents ($p < .05$). Despite the number being relatively small, participants who were 25 and older showed a lower rating on "Economic and recreational factor" and "Support for the events and political concern" ($p < .05$).

The researchers also followed and monitored the news releases and reports concerning the 2017 Summer Universiade Games from early June to late October of 2017, a period that lasted from two-month prior and two-month after the events. It was surprising and encouraging to see the 2017 Universiade Games had record-high ticket sales and total attendance. Eighty-seven percent of tickets were sold prior to the events (Taipei2017 2017). About three months prior to the opening ceremony of the 2017 Summer Universiade Games, the mayor and many officials were anxiously worried about the low turnout of the attendance. A report provided by Taipei City Council indicated only about 33% of survey participants might be willing to attend the event physically. As some scholars and reporters had predicted, hosting the 2017 Universiade Games indeed stirred up some controversies and political tension. Many legislators criticized publicly about the use of Chinese Taipei as the official name of Taiwan (Chen C.H. 2017, Wang 2017). Additional concerns were about whether Taipei had spent too much to get ready for the events (Lee 2016, Lee 2017). The Chinese government was not very friendly about letting Taiwan host the 2017 Summer Universiade Games. It set numerous conditions on allowing the torch to pass the mainland (Now News 2016). When the opening ceremony took place, China eventually boycotted the event by restricting all its team-sports members to compete in Taipei. A political demonstration also took place that caused a two-hour delay of the opening ceremony.

Discussion and Conclusions

This study found over 61.5% of the young participants showed interest in physically attending the games. On average 2.61 friends or family members would accompany these respondents. Male respondents showed a greater interest in attending the games than females ($p < .05$). This finding drastically differed from the previous informal survey done by the city council that found less than 33% of people willing to attend the games. In fact, some scholars were quite positive that the 2017 Universiade Games would set a record-high number of participants and had a strong attendance according to the growing trend of events and past success reported by South Korea (2015 Gwangju Games) (Chen et al. 2015, Chen C. L. 2017).

For this reason, the City of Taipei certainly anticipates another record-high number of participatory countries and student-athletes in 2017. With more than 30,000 foreign visitors attending the Summer Universiade Games, it would certainly promote tourism and stimulate local economy. However, the political conflict between Taiwan and China is the issue that might considerably affect the outcome of the events. Nevertheless, the report of record-setting attendance contradicted the pessimistic thoughts and worries about the low turnout at the event.

The events ultimately received huge support from the local residents, and many foreign visitors and athletes passionately expressed their love and appreciation for the hosting country and events that dramatically changed the Taiwanese people's perspective toward their hosting role as well.

According to the participants' responses, they agreed several benefits potentially brought by the 2017 Summer Universiade Games. These benefits are common examples that mega sporting events often claim to bring according to many past literature (Bagautdinova et al. 2015, Balduck et al. 2011, Ritchie and Lyons 1990, Tyler 2015, Wood 2006). The participants' game attending interest was also at a moderate level ($M = 4.83$ on a 7-point scale). They also agreed that local residents would be proud to host the event as well ($M = 5.24$). The rating of two specific factors, "national and cultural spirit and hospitality" and "financial and recreational factor," were slightly higher than the rating of "negative social consequences." This finding implied ratings of positively-perceived benefits outweigh the negative consequences. In general, the participants expressed their welcome to the foreign visitors and athletes and were proud to host the 2017 Universiade Games. In fact, past literature revealed that most international sporting events were likely to be positively supported and well attended by the residents of host city and country (Ritchie and Lyons 1990, Chen et al. 2015). Thus, the researchers concluded the participants' responses accurately predicted the public's apparent approval and support toward the Universiade Games after comparing the findings with the news reports afterward. Participants also perceived that the games would generate a sense of national pride, cultural awareness, and spirit for offering hospitality. These elements are commonly identified as the intangible benefits for the hosting countries or cities while operating sporting events (Burton and O'Reilly 2009, Kubo 2014, Swan 2012,

Wood 2006). All the aforementioned discussions probably help explain why the willingness of game attendance was best predicted by the participants' rating of "national pride and spirit of hospitality."

Although, the participants still recognized some of the general negative consequences suggested by many studies such as, rise in the cost of living and rental costs and increase of large, crowd, noise, and traffic congestion (Kim and Petrick 2005, Leeds et al. 2018); overall, the ratings of those issues were at relatively moderate level. The researchers suspected that the young participants were probably over-optimistic about the issues of crowding and traffic congestion or they just got used to that type of living condition in the metro area.

The results of the study also reflected relatively strong rating of the "economic and recreational benefits" ($M = 5.38$). However, older participants (age 45 and above) showed a lower rating in this factor and game attending interest ($p < .01$) as well. The researchers were surprised that the benefits of creating a sense of national pride and enhancing international exposure did not outweigh any perceived economic benefits. Studies often showed the economic gains via direct spending via visitors and induced tourism are the most visible and heavily anticipated positive impact for hosting international sporting events (Florek et al. 2008, Kim et al. 2006, Leeds et al. 2018, Ritchie et al. 2010).

Although tracking the economic impact generated by the mega sporting events is usually a challenging and time-consuming task, event administrators and officials often do not hesitate to brag about their event success by quoting revenues and impact figures, because they are a key tangible benefit that people can grasp and understand. Economists had warned the danger of over-trusting the results of economic impact studies for several past Olympic Games (Chen W.C. 2017). Evidently, most Olympics Games outside of the United States had reported huge revenue losses and left great amount of debts for the local or central government (Tang 2017). According to the financial reports of last five Universiade Games, none of the host countries reported any loss of money (see Table 3). Through the researchers really questioned the integrity of these financial figures, it was not surprised to see why officials were so optimistic about the economic benefits that the Universiade Games could bring (Chinese Taipei University Sports Federation 2015).

Table 3. *The Financial Reports of Last Five Universiade Games Prior to 2017*

Game	Income	Expenses
2007 Bangkok	\$49.2M (EU): \$38.91 from the government	\$49.2M: \$35.46M on game operation
2009 Belgrade	N/A	\$42.0M (Euro)
2011 Shenzen	No data available	No data available
2013 Kazan	\$959117000	\$604293000
2015 Gwangju	\$242.1M (EU)	\$242.1M (EU)

Despite the economic impact of the sporting events often being inflated and over-promising, scholars still remind us to consider all the intangibles (i.e., cultural and social impact) closely while weighing host city's benefits for mega sporting events (Burton and O'Reilly 2009). The participants tended to agree that local

residents' interest and passion for sporting activities would be inspired by the 2017 Summer Universiade Games. In fact, we had witnessed the officials addressing the view of using sporting events to propel Taiwan's global visibility (Cheng 2017). The nation also has planned several large domestic and small regional international sporting events for the next three years and expects to rack up some tourism incomes (Cheng 2017). However, there were still scholars who believed the 2017 Summer Universiade Games would create more debts than actual economic profits for Taipei City (Buzz Orange 2015). Numerous studies revealed that mega sporting events often brought memorable and positive legacies to the host cities and countries (Grix 2012, Preu 2007). For this reason, governments often do not hesitate to take the initiative to engage in organizing and executing those types of events. Several news reports suggested the effort and support given by the Taipei City had paid off. The President of the International University Sport Federation even praised that the 2017 Summer Universiade Games were the most successful summer games ever (Cheng 2017). Numerous articles highlighted the high levels of satisfaction and recognition for the 2017 Summer Universiade Games by foreign visitors and athletes (Chen C.C. 2017, Cheng 2017, Tso 2017). Officials also claimed the events had made Taiwan "visible" in the global world.

A unique contribution of this study is examining the political impact created by the 2017 Summer Universiade Games for the host country. Many pictures showed that foreign athletes carried Taiwan's national flags to the closing ceremony to support Taiwan as an "autonomous" nation. Reporters of *The Nikkei Asian Review* and *The New York Times* captured the image of thousands of Taiwanese audiences in "Republic of China" afro wigs cheering the arrival of team Chinese Taipei. Chris Horton of the *New York Times* further explained why reporting on Taiwan is not easy, due to its sensitive political conflict with China and its unique international identity (Chen C.H. 2017). Although the notion of sports as a great tool for unifying everyone and bringing peace was well received (Schulenkorf et al. 2011), the participants did not optimistically believe the Universiade Games would help ease the political tension between Chinese and Taiwanese government. Evidently, the passive boycott from certain Chinese representatives and protests of retired police and soldiers in Taipei clearly demonstrated that people used the sporting events as a means to launch political causes. Three months prior to the opening ceremony of the Universiade Games, Taiwanese congressmen debated fiercely about why there was the need to use the name of Chinese Taipei instead of Taiwan (Wang 2017).

We witnessed a drastic different political strategy utilized by the Chinese Government from the one embraced by North and South Korea towards the 2018 Winter Olympics. The Pyngchong Winter Olympics was a highly anticipated event, as the world all waited to see how North Korea would react to the event (Wolff 2015). Surprisingly, North and South Korea joined hands and used this special mega sporting event as a platform to negotiate peace treaties and execute collaborative activities (i.e., sending a unified team to compete for ice hockey). The 2018 Pyngchong Winter Games became a catalyst that helped two nations work toward unification. History has shown us that there were a lot of political and environmental disasters that might explode during the Olympic Games, in reality

the shows still went on and things for the most part turned out better than people had expected (Rosenberg 2018). Although there was no contentious conflict that occurred during the 2017 Summer Universiade Games, the relationship between Taiwan and China did not develop further as seen in the 2018 Winter Olympics demonstrated by both sides of Korea.

Finally, the researchers would like to offer a few recommendations for planning and hosting future international sporting events. Those strategies include: (1) targeting young individuals under the age of 30, since they are the most likely to be the core attendees for the sporting events, (2) emphasizing the potential growth of tourism and recreational benefits to gain more governmental support, and (3) launching social media campaigns to highlight the cultural activities and multicultural elements. A big limitation of the study is that the survey was disseminated prior to the games. Due to employment in another country, the primary researcher did not get the chance to conduct another post-event survey to track how residents' sentiments changed after the games. Fortunately, the researchers could still examine the accuracy and predictability of participants' pre-event perceptions by comparing the results with several post-event news reports. Hopefully, Taiwan will be able to land more opportunities to host international sporting events, so more studies can be conducted and repeated to reaffirm the various benefits mentioned by the study. It will also be interesting to study how China would react politically, if Taiwan gets more opportunities to showcase itself in a global scene.

Acknowledgement

The researchers would like to show their appreciation to Ms. Karen Doran for editing our manuscript and Dr. Penny Tai for assisting in data collections.

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Recreation, Sport and an Aging Population

By Steven Carney & Hal Walker†*

America is getting older. The first of the Baby Boom Generation (those born from 1945 to 1964) – 76 million strong – reached the age of retirement in 2011. This mass of people, combined with longer lives and lower birth rates, is changing the demographics of the United States and impacting our society. Between now and 2029, the population over age 65 will increase from 13% of the population to 20%, growing at a rate 7 times faster than the rest of the population. This will not be a temporary shift. Long range estimates are for the percentage of the total population over the age of 65 to remain above 20% for the next 50 years. Dire forecasts are already being heard for the long-term sustainability of Social Security and Medicare and the impact on economic growth and businesses from the retirement of skilled workers. Beyond the workplace and healthcare, this shift will require sport organizations – both recreational and professional – to adjust in order to meet the needs and desires of this formidable market.

Keywords: *Sport, Recreation, Aging, Fans, Participation*

Introduction

Every day 10,000 baby boomers retire. That will be true for another 19 years. Those who are 50 and older significantly out-earn those who are younger, and have overwhelmingly more accumulated spendable wealth beyond income than their younger counterparts. As they continue to age, they will also have increasingly more time to spend on sports interests — interests they say will never die. (Luker, 2012, para. 13).

This quote, from a survey of age and fan interest in sport, points to the need for sport organizations to focus on their key customers and the changing demographics in the United States. Too often these organizations try to appeal to the 18 to 35 demographic and neglect older populations. As Luker (2012) has noted above, both recreational and professional sport organizations cannot ignore the needs of older consumers. Important for understanding this segment is the continuing aging of America, as well as research related to age and sport participants and spectators.

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Review of Literature

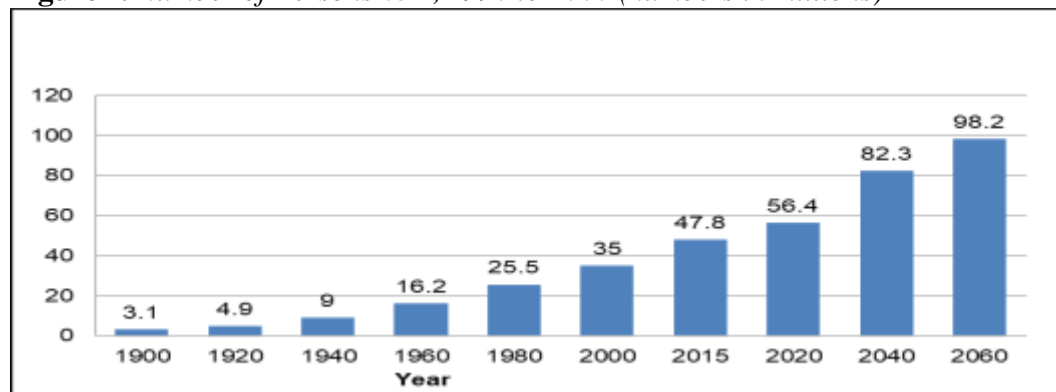
The Aging of America

The United States has over 320 million citizens (Colby and Ortman 2014). As the population has increased, there has also been an increase in the number of people over the age of 65. But we are not just seeing an increase in the size of the population over 65, the percentage of the population over age 65 is also increasing. In 2000, individuals over the age of 65 measured 35 million – about 11% of the total. In 2005, that number increased to 36.6 million and 12%. In 2015 the number of Americans over the age of 65 was 47.8 million, and made up almost 15% of the total (see Figure 1).

Much of this increase is attributed to the Baby Boom generation; a 20-year increase in the population between 1945 and 1964. The size of the US Baby Boom generation reached 72.5 million in 1964, and increased to 78.8 million by 1999 (because of immigration to the US). As this generation has aged, structures in the US have had to adjust to the demand for services; elementary schools, high schools, colleges, the workforce, and now retirement. Boomers began to turn 65 in 2010, and the tail end of this generation will not turn 65 until 2029. The size of the US population over the age of 65 in 2030 is projected to be 73 million, and will comprise 20.3% of the total population (Colby and Ortman 2014).

These changes in age distribution caused by the Baby Boom generation are not a short-term adjustment to the demographics of the United States. Long-term projections of the US population show the changes taking place in the percentage of the population will be permanent, and the percentage of the population over the age of 65 will remain above 20% for the foreseeable future. Some projections estimate the percentage of the population over the age of 65 may reach 25% by 2060 (Colby and Ortman 2014).

Figure 1. *Number of Persons 65+, 1990 to 2060 (numbers in millions)*



Source: Colby and Ortman (2014).

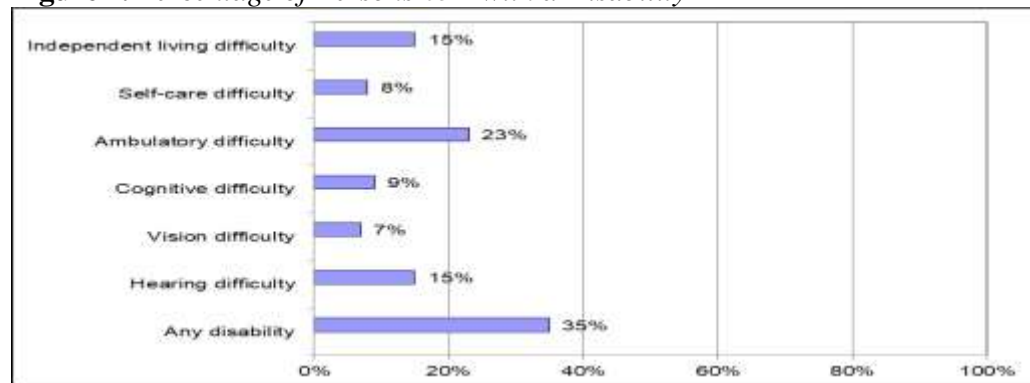
As the population has aged, Americans have continued to lead active lives. Many people take advantage of the time available in retirement to volunteer, travel, or pursue educational opportunities, entertainment options or recreational activities (Czaja and Sharit 2009). With the long-term projections in the size of the

population over the age of 65, services for older Americans will need to adjust to the increased demand and the limitations of older consumers. For instance, research shows that 35% of people over the age of 65 have some level of disability, including 23% with ambulatory difficulty, 15% with hearing difficulty, and 9% with vision difficulty (see Figure 2). Recreational sport and professional sport organizations should understand the needs of this market segment.

Recreational Sport Participation and an Aging Population

Even if an individual does not suffer from a disability, there are notable declines that impact performance; in visual and auditory acuity, in reaction times, in motor skills and agility, and in focus (Czaja and Sharit 2009). While these may limit the ability of an older athlete to compete against athletes in their prime, Masters-level competitions allow competitive athletes to compete against each other in defined age brackets. Some road races include age-graded competitions, which compares athlete times to top performances in their age group. With improvements in training, nutrition and recovery, competitive athletes have been able to maintain high-level conditioning longer than previously thought possible. Meb Keflezighi won the 2014 Boston Marathon at 38 years of age against world-class athletes 10 to 20 years his junior. In 2004, 73 year-old Ed Whitlock ran 2:54:48 for a marathon; an age-graded performance that would equal an athlete in his prime running 2:04:48. At 81, Whitlock's VO2 Max was measured at 54, which is a good score for a college student (Longman 2016). While some of these performances can be attributed to improvements in training, Pollock et al. (1987) found that Masters track athletes that maintained their training showed no significant changes in aerobic capacity over a 10-year period.

Figure 2. *Percentage of Persons 65+ with a Disability*



Source: U.S. Census Bureau (2015).

Not everyone remains competitive as they age, and it is hard to maintain high-level training. The good news is that, even for people that participate in recreational sports and activities, there are positive benefits gained from engaging in regular physical activity. These benefits include; 1) higher high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol levels (the “good” cholesterol), 2) improved weight control, 3) increased bone density, 4) increased muscle mass, and 5) greater

feelings of psychological well-being (Baker et al. 2009). Physical activity also helps to fight the onset of diseases that were previously thought to be related to aging – such as diabetes, high blood pressure and colon cancer. Other symptoms of aging, like the loss of bone density and muscle mass, are now seen as the result of physical inactivity, not aging (Atkinson 2009). The message of these benefits of physical activity is getting out, too. Ory et al. (2003) found that 98% of adults over the age of 50 recognized the importance of physical activity. Unfortunately, knowledge has not led to action.

Even though most adults know that physical activity has many positive benefits, 41% of individuals between the ages of 50 and 65 are inactive, and 52.6% over the age of 65 engage in no aerobic or strength-training activities (Kruger et al. 2007). The *Healthy People 2010* report, developed by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, established recommendations for regular aerobic and strength-training activities. Regular aerobic activity was defined as either 1) light- to moderate-intensity activity for at least 30 minutes per day on at least 5 days per week, or 2) vigorous-intensity activity for at least 20 minutes per day on at least 3 days per week. Regular strength-training activity was defined as engaging in muscular strength or endurance activities on 2 or more days per week. Of the respondents, 26.1% participated in regular aerobic training, 13.7% participated in regular strength training, and only 8.2% participated in both the recommended aerobic and strength-training activities.

These results seem to conflict with results of the Physical Activity Council's *2017 Participation Report* (though it does use different categories). First of all, participation rates were segmented by generations, from the Baby Boomers to Generation Z, instead of age. Next, five categories of activities were developed; 1) Inactive, 2) Low/Medium Calorie activities, 3) Casual & Low/Medium Calorie activities, 4) Active & High Calorie, and 5) Active to a Healthy Level (see Table 1). Each category was linked to specific activities. Since all Baby Boomers are older than 50, then the difference between the inactive populations in these studies is almost 20%. This difference is further complicated by the fact that the Inactive category in the *2017 Participation Report* included not only adults who engaged in no leisure activities, but also walking, birdwatching, fishing and other low calorie activities.

Table 1. *Participation Rates Segmented by Generation*

	Inactive	Low/Med Calorie	Casual & Low/Med Calorie	Active & High Calorie	Active to a Healthy Level
Gen Z (2000+)	17.6%	13.8%	20.6%	19.4%	28.6%
Millennials (1980-1999)	24.6%	15.0%	13.5%	10.7%	36.4%
Gen X (1965-1979)	27.2%	18.4%	8.0%	9.6%	36.8%
Boomers (1945-1964)	33.7%	27.8%	4.8%	6.1%	27.6%

Source: Physical Activity Council Report (2017)

Low/Med Calorie activities were defined as stretching, walking for fitness, bowling and table tennis. Casual & Low/Med Calorie activities included yoga, free weights, Tai Chi, and golf. Casual participants identified they were active 1 to 50 times a year. Active and High Calorie activities included high intensity training, cardio kickboxing, spinning and other fitness classes, and participants indicated they were active 51 to 150 times a year. Active to a Healthy Level sports were activities that were aerobic in nature, like running and swimming, but also included competitive sports. Individuals participated in these activities more than 150 times in a year.

In this study, inactive and low/medium calorie activities increased as individuals aged, and casual and active & high calorie activities decreased. This could be because the inactive and low calorie activities included such lifetime activities as birdwatching, walking and golf. The medium to high activities may differ because of the high impact sports and classes in those categories. Finally, while the active to a healthy level activities did include some competitive and team sports, it also included some lifetime activities like running, swimming and tennis.

It is important to note that even light exercise is beneficial. Lorpinski et al. (2015) found that adults 65+ that engaged in light levels of activity (300 minutes a week) resulted in lower BMI scores, waist circumference and insulin resistance. They also had less of a risk of chronic diseases. This study confirms the belief that it is better to do something than nothing, but it should be noted here that the cutoff used in this study to gain benefits was 60 minutes a day, 5 days a week.

The 2017 Participation Report also included a more traditional breakdown of sport activities by generation. In most of the sport categories, participation decreased as age increased (see Table 2). The one category where the Boomers (50+) generation was active at a higher level than Gen Z was Fitness Sports. This seems reasonable, as older Americans emphasize maintaining fitness, while Gen Z respondents also indicated high levels of participation in Individual Sports (48.2%), Team Sports (58.8%) Outdoor Sports (61.8%) and Fitness Sports (50.8%) – which would mean they are participating in more than one activity.

Table 2. Activity Category Segmented by Generation

	Individual Sports	Racquet Sports	Team Sports	Outdoor Sports	Winter Sports	Water Sports	Fitness Sports
Gen Z (2000+)	48.2%	18.8%	58.8%	61.8%	13.1%	17.5%	50.6%
Millennials (1980-99)	43.6%	20.2%	31.8%	57.4%	12.2%	20.3%	66.7%
Gen X (1965-79)	36.9%	13.4%	17.9%	51.4%	7.0%	14.8%	66.2%
Boomers (1945-64)	24.1%	7.1%	6.4%	38.6%	2.9%	9.2%	60.0%

Source: Physical Activity Council Report (2017).

Most of the research on participation in sport shows a decrease in participation as we age. Does this decrease in participation result from limitations as a result of aging, or from a lack of interest in sport? Atkinson (2009) noted that

athletic participation is only one way to engage in sport. We can also participate in sport as spectators and fans. In discussing this decrease in participation in baseball, Krizek (2002) stated that “as I grew older and curtailed my active participation in baseball, my relationship with the game as a fan changed” (p. 404). Next we will consider research related to age and sport fans and spectators.

Sport Spectatorship and an Aging Population

If fans do reduce active participation in sports and increase participation as fans and spectators, we should see some indication of this in studies of sports fans and age. The Gallup Sports Poll has tracked the percentage of the population that identify themselves as sports fans since the year 2000. Results have ranged from 57% to 66%, but have generally been consistently between 59% and 61%. These results can also be tracked by age group. In the 2015 poll, the percentage of people that identified themselves as sports fans decreased from just above 60% in the 18-29 and 20-49 age groups, to 55% for the 50-65 age group and 57% for the 65+ age group (Jones 2015). While these statistics seem to show a decrease in the percentage of sport fans as people age, studies of fan age related to specific sports seem to differ.

First, Gillies (2015) found a difference between the average age of fans of the NBA (37), NFL (47) and MLB (53). If you look at the age and percentage of league fans, you can see the difference (see Table 3). While baseball has the greatest percentage of fans 50+, the percentage of younger fans is very similar to other sports. The 28% of fans between the ages of 18 and 34 is not far behind NASCAR (29.4%) or the NHL (29.6%), and once fans enter the 35 to 49 age group the percentage is in line with other sports. The exception here is Major League Soccer (MLS), which has a greater percentage of fans in the 18 to 34 age group than the other two age groups.

Table 3. *Age and Percentage of League Fans*

	MLB	MLS	NASCAR	NFL	NHL	NBA
Age 18-34	28.0%	37.8%	29.4%	31.9%	29.6%	33.4%
Age 35-49	28.8%	31.8%	30.0%	28.9%	29.1%	32.1%
Age 50+	43.1%	30.4%	40.6%	39.2%	41.3%	34.4%

Source: Fan demographics among North American sport leagues (2010).

What makes baseball more attractive to older adults? In a study of baseball fans older than 60, Krizek (2002) found six reasons for the appeal of baseball to older fans; 1) the imperfect nature of baseball, 2) the connectedness of fandom, 3) baseball as a social outlet, 4) the slower pace of the game, 5) the difference between fan and spectator, and 6) the aural (vs. visual) experience. Some of these themes that attract older fans may differ from other sports, but the study of cohorts of fans as they age may provide sport marketers with information necessary to appeal to these fans.

Luker (2012) has examined the impact of sports fans 50 and older and has identified several reasons for sport organizations to take a closer look at this demographic. One of the most telling answers was when he asked this question:

“As you get older, do you think your enjoyment of sports will increase or decrease?” For all age groups, at least 59% said that their interest would stay the same or increase, and 33% of respondents over the age of 65 said they expected their interest in sports to increase.

Another justification for developing a strategy for older fans is that it is easier to keep current customers than attract new ones. Gibson et al. (2002) examined long-term fans of the Florida Gators to find characteristics that set Gators apart from Gator fans. The authors found that four of the six characteristics of serious leisure related to life stages; 1) long-term career, 2) significant personal effort, 3) durable self-benefits, and 4) identification. Long-term career was identified as the impact of different life events on fandom; e.g. getting married, having children, and aging. As their life changed, so did their fan behaviours. Significant personal effort relates to the cost of being a lifelong fan; not just money, but the time and commitment necessary. Durable self-benefits included family time, social interactions and friendships that were enhanced through shared experiences, and identification included apparel, merchandise and activities that established their identity as a fan of the Gators. The generational and life stage aspects of sport participants and fans provide some important lessons for these organizations and opportunities for additional study.

Recommendations for Future Research

Recreation and sport organizations need to realize that the population in the United States 65+ is increasing faster than any other segment. There will be a need to make accommodations for this growing segment, in particular with regard to the growing number of individuals with disabilities. If 35% of adults over the age of 65 have a physical limitation (ambulatory, visual or hearing) (Czaja and Sharit 2009), there will be a greater demand for accommodations for those disabilities in recreation and sport programs. Do these organizations have a plan for meeting the needs of these individuals?

Recreational Sport Participation and Age

One of the most important statistics from this research is that 98% of adults 50+ know they need to participate in some type of physical activity (Ory et al. 2003). Do individuals who are inactive know the recommended levels of aerobic, strength-training and flexibility? Do active individuals know the recommended levels of aerobic, strength-training and flexibility? Are they aware of the benefits of light fitness activities? What will motivate individuals 50+ and 65+ to begin a fitness and wellness program? What will motivate them to continue those activities?

If 60% of adults 65+ participate in Fitness Sports, 38% participate in Outdoor Sports, and 24% participate in Individual Sports (PAC Participation Report 2017), do the recreational sport programs offered match the current participation rates and population percentage of adults 65+? Recreational sport organizations should

develop a holistic strategy that incorporates participants in different age cohorts (Generation Z, Millennials, Gen X, Baby Boomers).

Sport Spectatorship and Age

While sport organizations identify methods to increase the percentage of fans in the 18-34 age group, they should also emphasize the satisfaction of current fans 50+, with the time, interest and disposable income to (Luker 2012). Have sport organizations developed a holistic strategy that incorporates fans in different age cohorts (Generation Z, Gen X, Millennials, Baby Boomers) at different stages of their life? Is there a method to examine how each cohort moves through life stages and meet their needs at each stage?

New research should identify the needs of fans at different life stages. If 35% of people over the age of 65 have some level of disability (U.S. Census Bureau 2015), and the number of individuals over the age of 65 is increasing at a greater percentage than the rest of the population, then sport organizations will need to provide greater accommodations for their older fans. Have sport organizations measured the number of fans with physical limitations? Do they have a plan to meet the needs of the increasing percentage of adults 65+?

Combined Recreational Sport Participation and Sport Spectatorship

If engaging sport fans throughout their lifespan is important for sport organizations, there should also be an investigation of the relationship between the decrease in sport participation as individuals age (PAC Participation Report 2017) and the increase in sport fans (Fan demographics among 2010). While there has been research to investigate the interest in sports, there is no research to examine continuing interest in recreational sport or physical activity.

Conclusions

Age has been a variable in the study of physical activity, recreational sport participation and sport spectatorship. Much of the research has examined differences in age groups, changes related to aging, and characteristics of generational cohorts. While there has been much research that examined physical and recreational activity, there is an opportunity to apply these results to recreational and sport organization.

Recreation programs should continue to promote the benefits of low levels of activity. Kruger et al. (2007) only considered benefits of meeting Healthy People 2010 recommendations. The 2017 Participation Report included low calorie activities (walking, bird watching and fishing) in the Inactive category. Lorpimizi et al. (2015) found that adults 65+ that engaged in light levels of activity (300 minutes a week) resulted in lower BMI scores, waist circumference and insulin resistance. They also had less of a risk of chronic diseases. Develop recreational programs to meet the needs of each of these groups at their current level of fitness,

with the goal of working towards the recommended levels of fitness in Healthy People 2010.

Recreational sport organizations should develop life stage recreational programs. If 60% of adults 65+ participate in Fitness Sports, 38% participate in Outdoor Sports, and 24% participate in Individual Sports (PAC Participation Report 2017), program offerings should reflect these levels. Organizations should also consider accommodations for individuals with disabilities, and be aware of generational differences that may impact participation.

Some sports have identified aging of fans as an issue, but there seems to be more concern and adjustments that cater to younger fans (Gillies 2015). According to McHugh et al. (2016), there is an analysis of the trends of Generation Y/Millennials (born 1985-2000) and Generation Z (born after 2000), and even the globalization of sport, but there was no mention of the aging population and considerations of this fan segment.

“The world is aging; as athletes, we are aging; as fans and spectators, we are aging” (Atkinson 2009: 18). As the size and percentage of the population over the age of 65 increases, recreation and sport organizations need to adjust their services, communication channels, and marketing methods to meet the needs of this segment.

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The Elite of “Kalos Kagathos” in Poland

*By Małgorzata Tomecka**

“Kalos kai agathos”, which means beautiful and good, is associated with the idea of a man who involves beauty, strength, goodness, wisdom, truth, and the right ethical attitude in daily routine. The origin of awarding the “Kalos Kagathos” medal in Poland goes back to the 1980s. The idea originated in difficult times for Poland and for sport, and the distinction initially was supposed to add faith and optimism into the belief that it is possible to connect sport and life. From 1985 to the present day the chapter house of this prestigious and elite distinction has awarded the medal to 71 outstanding and exceptional personalities. It is necessary to underline that, over the 34 years, out of hundreds of nominees, in each of the ten editions, only seven “magnificent” awards were made. Among these sportsmen are Olympians and world, European, and Polish champions of different age categories and of different sport events who, beside sport, are connected with the world of science, culture, and social service. The medal is awarded to those who have achieved at least the level of mastery in sport at the country-wide scale, and, having finished their competitor’s career, have reached an outstanding position and respect in their professional career. “Kalos Kagathos” are mainly the “People of the Medal”—individuals of a multidimensional personality, shaped on the foundation of socially important values. This is elite that can be an example and creator of the axionormative world for future generations.

Keywords: Capital, Elite, Kalos Kagathos, Prestige, Symbolism, Tradition

Introduction

“Decent future life requires a decent and versatile personality”¹

More and more often, universal and timeless values, also those located in sport seem to lose with the common cultural ideal of personality of the so-called “civilization of death” (Pope John Paul II). The notion of anomy is also commonly familiar to those who are observing a progressive disappearance of traditional values in the contemporary world and are deeply concerned about it. However, it is the elites who decide about the value of a society and, at present, besides political elites, there is an increase in meaning of a newly shaped type of elite, namely the elites who represent different sport events (Sztumski 2014). Without delving deeply into the complexities of defining character, it can be accepted that the “elite” are exceptional individuals who are particularly appreciated for their extraordinary features and performance in different areas of life. The history of awarding the *Kalos Kagathos* medal in Poland begins in the 1980s, at a time that

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¹Doktór K (2002) *Humanistyczne problemy sportu wyczynowego*. In Dziubiński Z (ed.) *Antropologia sportu*. Warszawa: SOS RP, p. 168.

was difficult both for Poland and for sport. From 1984 until now the chamber of this elite and prestigious distinction has awarded medals to 71 outstanding and exceptional personalities. Among these sportsmen are Olympians and world, European, and Polish champions of different age categories and of different sport events. Beyond sport, the laureates have been connected mainly with the world of science, culture, and social service. The people honoured with the medal achieved at least the level of sport mastery at a country-wide scale, and after having finished their competitive careers they reached high positions and recognition in their professional careers. Thus, “the outstanding in sport occurred to be equally outstanding in their performances beyond the final line” (Lipiec 2014: 108). For 34 years, in each of the ten editions, the chamber has bestowed seven “magnificent” awards, out of hundreds of nominees. The laureates of *Kalos Kagathos* in Poland are not only examples of double careers and double successes; they are also individual and collective holders of social capital. This is “human capital because it is embodied in people” (Schultz 1976: 48 cit. after Domański 1993: 19) and understood as a “provision of knowledge, skills, health, [and] vital energy contained in the society” (Domański 1993: 19). The exceptionality of the distinction is associated also with a symbolism of timeless values, which are lasting and universal as well as socially appreciated. The originator, Pierre Bourdieu, acknowledged this symbolic capital to be more important than basic capital, which he labelled as economic, cultural, and social. Symbolic capital holds symbolic authority, is assigned to a specific position in society, and is expressed in prestige, reputation, and fame (Bourdieu and Wacquant 2001). *Kalos Kagathos* are first and foremost “People of the Medal” - elite individuals of multidimensional personality - who can be examples and creators of the axionormative world for future generations. The aim of the present work is to examine the characteristics of the Old Greek ideal of versatility and its place in the contemporary world. In this context the article refers to a unique distinction of *Kalos Kagathos* in Poland and the “People of the Medal”, whose personalities and achievements themselves defend the prestige involved and the elite affiliation. This is also a community that can be regarded as an example of contemporary *kalokagathi*, as well as individual and collective social capital.

Methodology

The paper is qualitative in nature. The basic source materials are non-direct interviews with the originator of the idea of the medal, with selected members of the chapter house of the distinction as well as with some of the awarded laureates, conducted from September 2017 to July 2018. Other sources stem from available literature on the specific subject as well as commonly known and generally available sources on the chosen problems.

Findings

Traditions of Kalokagathia

Every language is a subject of cognition, and its usage often requires consideration and, as with this work, scientific reflection. Although the word *kalos* in ancient Greek expressed beauty and *agathos* meant goodness, the meanings of the notions were not the same for all Greeks. The heroes of Homer (2008), particularly those shown in *Iliad*, are teachers of the good and beautiful life, and they are also figures² to whom not only the notions of *kalos* and *agathos* but also the knightly *ethos* is referred. *Iliad* is an epos telling mostly about bravery, devotion, and gallantry of the knightly elite, where each of the knights is presented together with his noble ancestors³. The origin of the term “*kalos*” can regard the notion of decency and the man named *Kallias*⁴, about whom Herodotus (2005) wrote that he deserves to be frequently mentioned. However, a man himself can be *Agathoi*⁵—dignified by activities visible through the virtue of *arete*, which is explained as perfection and which, in Socrates, determines spiritual beauty. Thus, it seems in part that for the ancient Greeks, beauty was linked to or even identified with goodness, because “what was beautiful was good at the same time, and there was no such goodness that would not be beauty” (cited after Karolak, 2015). Literally, *kalos kai agathos* simply means “beautiful and good”, but these two adjectives alone do not determine the Greek ideal of *kalokagathia*, which involves “the unity of virtues of mind, heart and body” (Lipiec 1988: 7). A *kalos kagathos* versatile man is also complemented by such virtues as valour, generosity, wisdom, honour, honesty, spiritual perfection, physical fitness, and a proper, ethical attitude in daily routine. *Kalokagathis* cannot be spoken about without reference to Plato, in the thought of whom, twenty-five centuries ago, the ideal of versatile perfection in shaping both the body and spirit was born. These words sound particularly accurate: “There is no body that has in itself as much of godlike element as wings. And the godlike element[s] are beauty, goodness, and reason and all the like things. That is the food for the feathers of soul which grow the fastest out of it, and

²Homer’s knights, though they fought with different intentions as e.g. Achilles (revenge) and Hector (reverence and honour), appeared to be generous and honourable. The example of Achilles’ cruelty is that of profanation after having cast insults over the corpse of Hector. However, on the other hand, Achilles is aware of his tragic fate and is able to show compassion and generosity. Hector, by contrast, seems to be the opposite of Achilles, and though he is equally courageous, he is less irritable than Achilles, he does not burn with hatred, and he understands that in a fight one may have to lose. In spite of the fact that the brave and unrestrained Achilles is the main hero, it is Hector who compels greater admiration, in view of his ability to devotion and his sense of duty. In Homer (2008), *Iliad*, Kraków: Greg.

³Homer stresses the background of ancestors, among whom there are also gods.

⁴The enemy of titans, a member of a wealthy and eminent clan of Athenian aristocracy, who not only strove zealously for freedom of his native land but also won in the Pythian Games and in Olympia. In Herodot (2005), *Dzieje*, Wrocław-Warszawa-Kraków: Zakład Narodowy im. Ossolińskich, pp. 480,482.

⁵*Agathos* can be an adjective but it can also be a noun. However, *agathos* is a term including many other notions of the ancient Greeks, such as e.g. good, generous, wise, just, strong, brave, or also useful. <https://agathoi.wordpress.com/key-homeric-terms> (18.10.2018).

which waste away and disappear because of moral laxity" (Plato 1993: 36). In *Symposium*, the famous dialogue of Plato, the word *Agathon* refers to the host's name and his goodness and wealth. It can be interpreted that wealthy people who were good were *kalokagathos*. However, this wealth can be understood as personal virtues, involving sport talents. Both in Plato and in the conception of Greek people, the system of education and proper upbringing involves philosophy as a study of all subjects, gymnastics for the body, and art which is music, understood as intellectual culture for the soul (Morrou 1965: 117). It is necessary to note that in Plato's dialogues there are numerous references to places where the body was exercised (*Palestra*) and where philosophers held discourses with young men. It can be assumed that Aristocles (the real name of Plato) was the first *Kalos Kagathos* man, who not only practiced in poetry, painting, and music but also won sport games (Lipoński 2012). It is worth mentioning that the pattern to follow and a personification of harmony of body and spirit in the Greek education was the Homeric Achilles as well as Hippocrates, known as the father of medicine, who was also an athlete in his youth (Lipoński 2012). However, the ideal of *kalokagathia*, which combined truth, goodness, and beauty, has never been fully realized (Lipiec 1988), and even if it embodied itself, this was only for a short while in view of contradictions within different directions of development (Morrou 1965). Moreover, the ancient Athenian education was rather more artistic and sport-centred than literary or intellectual. Although physical education and intellectual education were disunited by an "unrelenting hostility", the *kalos kagathos* man of those times was undoubtedly a "sporty man", and his education did not exclude moral contents that would be shaped just through sport (Morrou 1965: 83). However, we know that "moral behaviors in sport are mostly determined by the state of morality of the society as a whole and they reflect its moral easing, and (...) the results of moral education for sport and through sport depend mainly on moral education in the global sense" (Krawczyk 2000: 53).

The ideal of versatile perfection became a foundation of lasting values, which the Greek agonistics incorporated into general human culture (Biliński 1956). An integral component of the classical ancient civilization constituted games, and as its symbol they perished along with that civilization. However, the disappearing Olympiads of that epoch were to predict the games of the future, which would belong to and celebrate not only the Hellenes, Romans, or Europeans but all humanity (Krawczuk 1988). *Kalokagathia* was the philosophical base of modern Olympism, and the creative continuator of the idea of harmony between body and spirit was Baron Pierre de Coubertin. His intention was, among others, to make the modern Olympic Games similar to the ancient games, which had always symbolized peace, which were characterized by fortitude and beauty, and which were able to still all war conflicts (Zuchora 1976). Krzysztof Zuchora, who has been propagating the Olympic message for years, writes that Coubertin's Olympism "referred to the ancient philosophy preaching invariably the appreciation of truth, goodness and beauty, justice and valor" (Zuchora 2013: 6). The ideals of the ancient Hellas became the foundation of European culture and always accompanied the Olympic Games, and the idea of Olympic sport was to unify (Lipiec 1988). Is the Greek idea of the versatile man possible today? The

answer lies in the distinctions described here in reference to the “*kalos kagathos*” people.

The Idea of Kalos Kagathos in Poland

The idea of the award was born in a time that was difficult both for Poland and for sport. The beginning of the 1980s was a time of negative emotions related to the introduction of martial law in Poland (1981) and undignified events in the world of sport. It is worth mentioning for example the boycotting of the Olympic Games in Moscow (1980) and Los Angeles (1984) and the retreat from Coubertin’s idea of amateurship, which allowed the first professional sportsmen to compete in Olympiads (1984). Experts claim that this era began the process, continuing until now, which can be described in the words of Kazimierz Doktór, “from Olympic games to games of business” (Doktór 2014: 244). The highest competitors in performance sports more and more often had to make choices between continuation of their sport careers or achieving their educational objectives and professional qualifications at the same time. With the professionalization and commercialization in sport, having been in progress since the 1980s, the crisis of Olympism and other threats produced numerous discussions about the shape and image of contemporary sport.

The originator of the award that promotes people who skilfully combine sport and non-sport achievements was then the editor-in-chief of *Tempo* magazine in Cracow, Ryszard Niemiec. Together with the rector of Jagiellonian University, Józef Gierowski, they worked out the conception of the distinction, which was to show that in Poland there is no place for sport which does not give any opportunities of development in other areas of life. Moreover, it is possible for outstanding sportsmen to achieve success not only in sport but also in other aspects of life. Besides this, an important message was the signal that sport does not break characters but on the contrary is a school for life beyond sport. Professor Gierowski made the decision by himself, without involving the patronage of Jagiellonian University. Following this, a few questions appeared. Do we have such people in the country? And if so, how should their professional achievements be evaluated? For example, are they to be professional politicians or media celebrities? Eventually it was specified that the award would honour outstanding sportsmen who were representatives of solid but not necessarily brilliant professional careers and people who exemplified a proper attitude in their daily lives.

Although the idea of referring to the Greek Olympic ideal crystallized in autumn 1984, the unique event for conferring the distinction for the first time took place one year later. The *Kalos Kagathos* came to be recognized with a replica of “*Gloria Victis*”, an initiative originated in 1986 by its first chairman, Ryszard Parulski (1938–2017), who was a fencer, a multiple world champion in three categories, an Olympic Games medallist, and a lawyer. The Latin phrase *Gloria Victis* (“glory to the vanquished”), as intended by the foundation, can be explained as “glory to those sportsmen who failed in life”. Up to that time they had been acting as former sportsmen whose sport careers had not jump-started careers in other dimensions of life beyond sport (Tomecka 2009).

Symbolism of the Distinction

In spite of the fact that the “etymological roots of the award stick in money and exchange”, it is not only an economic transaction, a purchase or payment and it should not be bargained over or negotiated (English 2013). The distinction of *Kalos Kagathos* is an award of a symbolic character exclusively; it is a cultural value and a symbol of universal and timeless values, which are expressed in the symbolism of the disc itself. Sport belongs to the area of symbolic culture, and the characteristic of symbolic behaviours is their additional meaning and additional perceived value, understood by people of a particular cultural circle (Krawczyk 2006). The laureates are representatives of symbolic capital related to awards, which has become particularly meaningful due to globalization of cultural and media industries (English 2013). The ceremonies of awarding the medal are rituals of symbolic exchange, requiring an acceptance of the award regulations and also showing respect to these extraordinary events by the participants. An outstanding artist from Cracow, Jerzy Nowakowski, recognized already in the beginning of the 1980s and frequently awarded for his creativity in numerous artistic media, was engaged to design the medal. He recalls that taking up this commission was an honour for him, but he also felt responsible for.

The symbolism of the “medal after medals” (Figure 1) refers to the ideals of ancient Greece as well as those selected by the chapter house outstanding former sportsmen, who have achieved success in other areas following their competitive sport careers. On the left part of the front, in the rim of the laurel wreath, medals of sport events are highlighted. On the right there is a round medal that presents a Greek goddess with a laurel leaf on her head, and this is a reference to the idea of beauty and Greek art. The inscription reads “*Kalos Kagathos*”, which is related to the ancient idea of mind and body balance. On the reverse side, on the right, in the rim, as on the front, there are medals of sport events, surrounded by a laurel wreath. On the left, there is a round medal that presents an Olympic torch being passed to a mature person who achieves post-sport success after having been successful in achieving medals in sport. The garment on the outstretched hand symbolizes the dignity of the awarded. It is worth noting that Jerzy Nowakowski’s medal received the third prize in the national contest entitled “Sport in Art” in 1986, which was organized by the Polish Olympic Committee and the Museum of Sport in Warsaw (Nowakowski and Nowakowska 2004). Furthermore, one of the medals is kept in the museum in Olympia (Greece), which is an iconic place where ancient Olympiads were held. This is undoubtedly an honour and a meaningful recognition for our Polish, prestigious award, and a symbol as well for the elite of *Kalos Kagathos*.

Figure 1. *The 2 Sides of Medal*

Front of the Medal

Reverse of the Medal



Source: Jerzy Nowakowski's private collection.

Prestige of the Award and of the "People of the Medal"

The expert on the subject presented in this work, Henryk Domański, duly notes that "there are as many types of prestige, as many people playing different roles and involved in relations inclining us to make evaluations" (Domański 1999: 36). The phenomenon of prestige is that "one can have it, neither having big money nor property" (Domański 1999: 34), and in this context the words of Allain de Botton are appropriate: "the person who holds an important position can be spoken of as 'somebody', and his opposition is called 'nobody' (Botton 2004: 13, 24). Four types of prestige are listed most often: institutionalized, personal, positional, and situational. Personal prestige is a value most often present in human thinking and behaviours, related to personal virtues, and these are personal features manifested in direct relationships. Positional prestige is influenced by personality in a global dimension, and its indication in sociological research is the prestige of the performed occupation. Social position is evaluated on the basis of the level of education, occupation, property ownership, and wealth. Brevity and elusiveness, on the other hand, are characteristics of situational prestige. Each of these types of prestige can undergo institutionalization; thus, institutionalized prestige is determined by the way in which it is manifested to others. Institutions of prestige are not disappearing, but they are changing and expressed in different forms (Domański 1999).

The medal is associated with the prestigious academic institution of Jagiellonian University, the oldest university in Poland and one of the oldest in Europe, which has represented distinction since its beginning. For over 650 years, thanks to its outstanding scholars, Jagiellonian University has produced "outstanding men" of our nation, among them famous graduates such as Nicolaus Copernicus (the world-famous astronomer), Karol Wojtyła (Pope John Paul II), Jan Sobieski (the king of Poland), and Wisława Szymborska (Nobel Prize laureate in literature). Prestige is also incontestable for the *Collegium Maius* and *Collegium Novum* of

Jagiellonian University, which bestow the award. A special and equally honourable role was performed by institutionalized members of the chapter house of the first edition: the Academic Sports Association⁶, *Tempo*⁷ sports daily (which simultaneously took over the media affairs), and the Chief Committee for Physical Culture and Sport⁸. Since 1987 the medal has been collaboratively handled by Jagiellonian University, the editorial board of *Tempo*, the Polish Olympic Committee,⁹ and the Polish Olympic Academy¹⁰. In the 2009 edition, the newspaper *Przegląd Sportowy*¹¹ [*Sport Review*] substituted for the daily *Tempo* in the chapter house, and it continues to handle the media affairs. A few medal bestowals have also been covered by Polish television, and the last editions were shown by the Polsat private TV station.

Kalos Kagathos are mainly "People of the Medal" as well as jurors of the award who perform their task with solemnity and dignity. They are eminent people and instances of all types of prestige in chairpersons of the chapter house: rectors of Jagiellonian University such as Józef Gierowski, Aleksander Koj, Andrzej Pelczar, Franciszek Ziejka, Karol Musioł, and Wojciech Nowak, the current rector. The composition of the chapter house has also included chairmen of the Polish Olympic Committee. Starting from the first edition of the medal they were: Marian Renke, Bolesław Kapitan, Aleksander Kwaśniewski (president of the Republic of Poland, 1995–2005), Andrzej Szalewicz, Stanisław Stefan Paszczyk, Piotr Nurowski, and Andrzej Kraśnicki (current chairman of the Polish Olympic Committee, beginning in 2010). The members of the chapter house who have fulfilled their functions the longest are: Ryszard Niemiec, the originator of the idea and laureate of the distinction in 2003; Józef Lipiec (Jagiellonian University), co-founder and long-time chairman of the Polish Olympic Academy; and Aleksander Krawczuk (Jagiellonian University). A member of the chapter house of the early editions of the medal was one of the later laureates (1994) and the one who gave the name to the distinction: Wojciech Lipoński. One of the members of the chapter house was also Anna Pawlak, and the one who fulfilled the duties of secretary was the editor Jerzy Wicherek. Zbigniew Porada is also a member of the chapter house. In the last editions of the medal there were also the laureate of the first edition of 1984, Wojciech Zabłocki, as well as the recently deceased and frequently titled Polish sportswoman and laureate of the distinction of 1994, Irena Szewińska.

⁶The Academic Sport Association (Polish: AZS) was founded in 1909, and what is crucial from the point of view of the historical political conditions is that this apolitical association has survived all economic changes and has been functioning up to now.

⁷Polish sport daily newspaper founded in Cracow in 1948.

⁸The organ of Polish state administration related to the communist period in Poland. Political conditions of those times had no negative impact upon the origin of the idea of *Kalos Kagathos*. The attention given to this prestigious distinction in those times can be perceived today as a natural, adequate, and socially desirable activity.

⁹Founded on the 12th Oct., 1919; up to 1924 called the Polish Committee of the Olympic Games.

¹⁰Originated on the 11th of Oct., 1984 as a social organ of the Polish Olympic Committee. It groups the top Polish scholars, publicists, and activists—outstanding experts on Olympism.

¹¹The oldest Polish sport daily newspaper, founded as a weekly in May, 1921 in Cracow. Until today the newspaper has organized a prestigious, national plebiscite for the best sportsman of the year.

Listed below are the laureates starting from the first edition in 1985 until the last one in 2017, followed by identification of their achievements. Each of the medallists deserves a separate report, but space limitations preclude more extensive biographical information. Information is limited to the practiced event, participation in the Olympic Games, and professional activity. I present one example of a laureate of each of the nine editions more broadly.

Kalos Kagathos 1984

Jerzy Chromik (1931–1987): athlete, Olympian, mining engineer. Stefan Dziedzic (1927–2006): skier, MSc in economics. Witalis Ludwiczak (1910–1988): hockey player, Olympian, professor of law sciences. Zbigniew Resich (1915–1989): basketball player, professor of law sciences. Marian Suski (1905–1993): fencer, Olympian, professor of technical sciences. Marian Śliwiński (1919–1985): athlete, welder. Wojciech Zabłocki (1930–): fencer, multiple champion and Polish championship medallist, first Polish junior world champion (1953), medallist (two silver and one bronze medal) and multiple participant of the Olympic games, five-time champion and five-time world championships medallist, member of the head board of the Polish Fencing Federation and Polish Olympic Committee, chairman of the Polish Olympic Academy (1993–2000), vice president of the Polish President's Council for Physical Culture, outstanding Polish architect, professor of technical sciences.

Kalos Kagathos 1987

Izabela Cywińska (1935–): basketball player, theatre and film director. Roman Ciesielski (1924–2004): basketball player, professor of technical sciences. Jerzy Jurowicz (1920–1989): football player, zincographer (printer). Jerzy Olszowski (1920–2000): tennis player, building engineer. Witold Henryk Paryski (1909–2000): alpinist, physician. Jan Karol Kostrzewski (1915–2005): rower, three-time Polish champion, officer of the Polish Home Army during World War II, participant in the Warsaw Uprising, chairman of the International Association of Epidemiologists, minister of health and social care, president of the Polish Academy of Sciences, professor of medical sciences.

Kalos Kagathos 1989

Adam Brodecki (1949–2010): figure skater, Olympian, physician. Czesław Centkiewicz (1904–1996): athlete, electrical engineer. Władysław Hasior (1928–1999): athlete, one of the most outstanding sculptors of the world. Tadeusz Koszarowski (1915–2002): basketball player, professor of medical sciences. Adam Papée (1895–1990): fencer, Olympian, Doctor of Law. Kazimierz Wejchert (1912–1993): volleyball player, professor of technical sciences. Zdobysław Stawczyk (1923–2005): athlete, multiple Polish champion, champion and medallist of the academic world championships, Olympian, rector of the Academy of Physical Education in Poznań, professor of sciences on physical culture.

Kalos Kagathos 1993

Wanda Rutkiewicz (1943–1992): alpinist, one of the most outstanding Polish women of the world in Himalaism, electronic engineer. Zbigniew Garnuszewski (1917–1998): athlete, associate professor in medicine. Zbigniew Lewandowski (1930–): athlete, Doctor of Medical Sciences. Jan Nawrocki (1913–2000): fencer, Olympian, veterinary doctor. Edward Popiołek (1939–): glider and airplane pilot, professor of technical sciences. Leszek Rostwo-Suski (1930–2007): fencer, Olympian, professor of chemical sciences. Marek Walczewski (1937–2009): fencer, outstanding theatre and film actor. Leszek Balcerowicz (1947–): athlete, Polish junior champion, Master of Business Administration from Saint John's University (New York), member of the Economic Sciences Committee of the Polish Academy of Sciences, vice president of the Council of Ministers in Poland, finance minister, president of the National Bank of Poland, professor in economic sciences.

Kalos Kagathos 1994

Waldemar Baszanowski (1935–2011): best Polish weightlifter of the 20th century, Olympian, Master of Physical Education. Marian Dudziak (1941–): athlete, Olympian, professor of technical sciences. Wojciech Lipoński (1942–): athlete, Olympian, professor of humanities. Czesław Marchewczyk (1912–2003): hockey player, construction engineer. Jerzy Młynarczyk (1931–2017): basketball player, Olympian, professor of law sciences. Zbigniew Pietrzykowski (1934–2014): boxer, food industry technician. Irena Szewińska (1946–2018): the most titled and outstanding athlete in the history of Polish sport (sprint running, long jump), 24 Polish championship medals, three-time gold medallist of the junior European games, two-time champion and vice champion of the Universiade, seven-time Olympic medallist (three gold medals, 2 silver medals, 2 bronze medals), ten-time European championship medallist (including 2 hall gold medals), two-time champion and multiple champion of the world championships, chairman of Polish Athletic Association, vice president of Polish Olympic Committee, member of the International Olympic Committee, Master of Economics.

Kalos Kagathos 2001

Janusz Czerwiński (1936–): handball player, coach of the representation of Poland, Iceland and Greece, professor of sciences of physical culture. Michał Joachimowski (1950–2014): athlete, Olympian, solicitor. Bogusław Nowak (1952–): speedway rider, Master of Physical Education. Jacek Pietrzyk (1944–): basketball player, professor of medical sciences. Wilibald Winkler (1933–2010): basketball player, associate professor of technical sciences. Sobiesław Zasada (1930–): racing driver, chairman of the Supervisory Council of Zasada Group, one of the bigger capital groups in Poland, Master of Economics. Zbigniew Boniek (1956–): among the hundred best football players in the history of football,

according to FIFA, two-time Polish champion and outstanding representative of Poland, winner of the European Cup final and the Cup Winners' Cup as well as the European Super Cup winner, world championships bronze medallist, businessman, current chairman of the Polish Football Association, member of the Executive Committee of UEFA, Master of Physical Education.

Kalos Kagathos 2003

Andrzej Bachleda-Curuś (1947–): skier, Olympian, trainer. Maria Kwaśniewska-Maleszewska (1913–2007): athlete, Olympian, activist of the Polish and international Olympic movement. Ryszard Niemiec (1939–): basketball player, journalist, editor-in-chief of Cracovian newspapers. Zenon Ważny (1929–2017): athlete, Olympian, professor of sciences of physical culture. Maksymilian Więcek (1920–2006): hockey player, Olympian, Doctor of Pharmaceutic Sciences. Marian Zieliński (1929–2005): weightlifter, Olympian, officer of the Polish Army. Michał Kleiber (1946–): tennis player, member of the European and Austrian Academy of Sciences and Arts, president of the European Community on Computational Methods in Applied Sciences, minister of science, chairman of the Polish Academy of Sciences, professor of technical sciences.

Kalos Kagathos 2009

Jacek Bierkowski (1948–): fencer, Master of Energy Engineering. Barbara Grocholska-Kurkowiak (1927–): skier, Olympian, poet. Teresa Kodelska-Łaszek (1929–): skier, Olympian, professor of economic sciences. Andrzej Łędzki (1945–): basketball player, professor of technical sciences. Helena Oszast (1926–2014): basketball player, Doctor of Sciences of Physical Culture. Bohdan Tomaszewski (1921–2015): tennis player, legend and symbol of sport journalism, outstanding commentator called a “poet of microphone”. Mieczysław Nowicki (1951–): cyclist, one of the best Polish cyclists of the 1970s, four-time Polish champion, Olympic medallist and runner-up, world championships medallist, vice president of the Polish Cycling Federation, member of the board of the Polish Olympic Committee, director of the “Solidarity” cycling race and Olympians, undersecretary of state at the Ministry of National Education, chairman of the Physical Culture and Sport Office, businessman, local government official.

Kalos Kagathos 2013

Zbigniew Czajkowski (1921–): fencer, one of the most famous and most deserved trainers of fencing worldwide, physician. Barbara Gorgoń-Flont (1936–): Olympian, teacher of physical education and arts. Marian Machowski (1932–): football player, Doctor Engineer of Mining. Janusz Różycki (1938–): fencer, Olympian, painter-artist. Adam Smelczyński (1930–): clay pigeon shooting, officer of the Polish Army, Doctor of Medical Sciences. Danuta Straszyńska-Kossek (1942–): athlete, Olympian, Doctor of Physical Culture Sciences. Jerzy Twardokens (1931–): fencer, Olympian, professor at the University of Nevada in

Reno (USA). Kajetan Hądzelek (1930–): basketball player, Polish representative, bronze medallist of university games, vice president of the Polish Olympic Committee, member of the Polish Olympic Academy, chairman of the Pierre de Coubertin's Committee in Poland Foundation, Olympic Education Centre Foundation chairman, member and secretary of the Physical Culture Sciences Committee of the Polish Academy of Sciences, member of the Fair Play International Committee Council, Doctor of Sciences of Physical Culture, associate professor at the Academy of Physical Education in Warsaw.

Kalos Kagathos 2017

Iwona Bielska (1952–): volleyball player, outstanding theatre and film actress. Czesław Lang (1955–): cyclist, originator and organizer of Tour de Pologne racing, manager of sport, businessman. Edward Mleczko (1948–): athlete (long runs), four-time champion and a multiple medallist of Polish championships, finalist of the European Cup, vice-rector of the Academy of Physical Education in Cracow, professor of sciences of physical culture. Antoni Piechniczek (1942–): football player, coach of the representations of Poland, Tunisia, and the United Arab Emirates, senator, Master of Physical Education. Grażyna Rabsztyń (1952–): athlete, Olympian, Master of Economics. Aleksander Ronikier (1942–): basketball player, professor of sciences of physical culture. Zbigniew Pacelt (1951–): swimmer and pentathlete, multiple Polish champion and Polish record holder in swimming, Polish runner-up and two-time world champion in pentathlon, Olympian, secretary of state in the Ministry of Sport and Tourism, vice president of the Physical Culture and Sport Office, long-time vice president of the Polish Modern Pentathlon Federation, member of the Polish Olympic Committee Board, Master of Physical Education.

Short Overview

Firstly, it is necessary to mark that among the 71 distinguished people there are 11 *Kalos Kagathos* women, which is a little over 15% of all the laureates. The most numerous groups comprise representatives of individual sports (51), Olympic Games participants (34), and winter sports representatives (10). In sport categories, there are athletes (17), basketball players (12), fencers (10), football players (3), hockey players (3), tennis players (3), and skiers (3). There are also "heavy athletes": one boxer and two weightlifters. There are two representatives each for volleyball, alpinism, cycling, and hockey, as well as one representative each for handball, shooting (tramp), speedway, rowing, swimming, modern pentathlon, motor racing, luge, skating, and sport aviation. It is necessary to notice the lack of representatives of such Olympic events as field hockey, horse riding, gymnastics, wrestling, and judo. In regard to post-sport accomplishments, the most numerous group of medallists are representatives of the world of science, including 24 professors of great prestige. The areas of greatest representation are medical sciences (health and physical culture sciences) (23) and technical sciences (15).

The average age of the awardees at the time of their award is 66 years, which testifies that they have to represent a proper, ethical attitude over a lifetime.

Discussion

“Beautiful and good” was in ancient times the reflection of generous and ethical conduct. On the other hand, the possibilities for being generous and good depended on a noble background. The Athenian aristocracy eagerly associated this expression with themselves and made the achievement of it an ambition for others to reach. Today, it is no longer one’s social position that determines the merit of an individual’s life but the position achieved in his or her own endeavours. The concept of being versatile, not only a sportsman but also a human, is in the contemporary world more than desirable. With unaffected consideration, I observe the phenomena of narrow specialization in various areas of life, and that is why the idea of versatility and a multidimensional social personality has become an important field of my investigations. The Polish *Kalos Kagathos* medal might imply a distinction that extends beyond the national scope. Thus, the medal of *Kalos Kagathos* can have international implications. Due to timeless and universal values, of which the medal is a symbol, it can become the object of aspiration for ex-sportsmen of all continents.

Conclusions

It is decisively more difficult for contemporary people to face the requirements of versatility, mainly due to the high level of expectations put to them; this means that they are expected to have specialized knowledge and skills in several fields of life, especially in professional life. Simultaneously, discussions have revived that refer to a narrow specialization in the contemporary sport movement and, also, a fear about shaping a man/sportsman in only one dimension. Concern on this subject was expressed by Józef Lipiec (among others), who underlined that “sport universalism is also a demand for versatility” (Lipiec 2007: 73), and *kalokagathia* in today’s world can and is to be embodied in a particular man (Lipiec 1988). Originally, the distinction with the *Kalos Kagathos* medal was to give hope and optimism to the idea that it is possible to connect sport with life. Moreover, the laureates, both in sport and in life, are people of struggle, people with a champion’s mentality, who can win in a beautiful way but also cope with failures in a dignified manner (Lipiec 2017: 77). In retrospect, the *Kalos Kagathos* award has become not only a local phenomenon but also an element of the system of national distribution of symbolic capital¹². Unfortunately, the idea of the

¹²The subject discussed in the present work was presented at the International Conference in Mińsk (Belarus, 2018) on the subject “Values, Traditions and Innovation of Contemporary Sport” as well as in Athens at the 18th Annual International Conference on Sports (2018), the subject of which was Economic, Management, Marketing & Social Aspects, Athens Institute for Education and Research.

distinction has not so far achieved a deserved social resonance in Poland, mostly due to the lack of greater attention from the media, which are heavily commercialized. Lastly, I would like to focus attention upon the fact that there are no perfect people, but it is possible to be a versatile man and to aim at the ideal of *Kalos Kagathos*.

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Athletes and Non-Athletes' Life Satisfaction

By Nikolay Ivantchev* & Stanislava Stoyanova†

It is expected athletes to be more satisfied with their life than non-athletes, because sport plays an important role for health, life satisfaction and well-being, as sports activities give satisfaction because being recreational. Life satisfaction was studied in Bulgarian athletes and non-athletes as overall life satisfaction by means of the Satisfaction with Life-Scale and as satisfaction with different life domains measured by several single items. The results indicated that there were not any significant differences in general life satisfaction between the participants practicing sport regularly and the participants who did not practice any sport. However, the athletes were more satisfied with their health status, their relationships with their friends, and their performance than the non-athletes. For all the participants, general life satisfaction correlated significantly and positively with satisfaction with different life domains – own financial situation, own achievements, personal growth, familial financial situation, own health status, own performance, relationships with friends, relationships with family, and relationships with colleagues. As some other authors have also found, the results on the Satisfaction with Life-Scale correlate positively with some other measures of life satisfaction.

Keywords: Athletes, Domain-specific Satisfaction, Overall Life Satisfaction

Introduction

The previous scientific findings that are presented in the theoretical part of this paper suppose the existence of some differences between athletes and non-athletes' life satisfaction – as overall life satisfaction or as satisfaction with different life domains, that is why the main research question is to study if there is a difference between athletes and non-athletes' life satisfaction. Another research question is to establish if satisfaction with different life domains is related to overall life satisfaction for both athletes and non-athletes. Some social-demographic differences in life satisfaction have also been reviewed and studied in this paper as they are related to different sub-categories of the athletes and non-athletes.

The theoretical part of this paper presents a definition of life satisfaction, its significance for health and well-being, and the rationale for stating the existence of some socio-demographic differences in athletes and non-athletes' life satisfaction. The research part presents the instruments that are used to study the different types of life satisfaction – overall and domain-specific life satisfaction, as well as the participants in the study are described – both the athletes and the non-athletes. The main research findings are compared with some previous studies on life

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satisfaction. It is important life satisfaction to be studied as a consequence of sports practice and daily routine.

Physical activity and sports practice can contribute to enhancement of self-esteem (Bondy 2009) that is related to psychological and social well-being (Mann et al. 2004, Pavot and Diener 1993, Pavot and Diener 2009, Pavot and Diener 2015). Well-being has its favourable effects on health (Diener 2013, Diener and Ryan 2009, Diener and Scollon 2014, Diener and Seligman 2004), social relationships (Diener 2009, Diener 2013, Diener and Scollon 2014), and productivity (Diener 2013). Life satisfaction also correlates positively with mental health (Pavot and Diener 1993, Pavot and Diener 2009, Pavot and Diener 2015).

Well-being concerns cognitive and affective estimation of own present life or life in long-term perspective (Diener and Scollon 2014, Diener and Seligman 2004, Kesebir and Diener 2008), i.e. cognitive estimation of life satisfaction and affective estimation of moods and emotions (Kesebir and Diener 2008). Well-being includes frequent positive affects (happiness, prevalence of positive mood), low levels of negative affect, overall life satisfaction (Diener et al. 1985, Diener and Seligman 2018, Emmons and Diener 1985, Kesebir and Diener 2008, Myers and Diener 1995), and satisfaction with important life spheres (work, health, family life, etc.) (Kesebir and Diener 2008). Overall life satisfaction is related to satisfaction with health status, and satisfaction with family status (Vinson and Ericson 2012). These findings give some reasons to expect the correlations between overall life satisfaction and domain-specific satisfaction in both athletes and non-athletes.

Life satisfaction follows from estimation of own life in long-term perspective (Ivanova 2014, Keyes et al. 2002). Life satisfaction is among the indicators of well-being (Prasoon and Chaturvedi 2016). Life satisfaction is the cognitive dimension of subjective well-being (Diener 2009), a cognitive component of subjective well-being (Garvanova 2013), a cognitive process of estimation of own life quality, according to some selected criteria (Diener et al. 1985), positive favourable estimation of own life conditions, of life quality, corresponding to some standards and expectations (Prasoon and Chaturvedi 2016). Social comparison with other people who are under more unfavourable conditions increases own life satisfaction, especially income comparison (Diener and Biswas-Diener 2009).

Literature Review

Some socio-demographic differences have been found in life satisfaction, as revealed in the following sections of this paper. Concerning the income differences in life satisfaction, it has been found that low incomes are related to low life satisfaction, and high incomes are related to higher life satisfaction (Diener and Ryan 2009, Diener et al. 1993, Oishi and Diener 2014a, Myers and Diener 1995, Myers and Diener 2018, Oishi and Diener 2014b), including in Bulgarians (Garvanova 2011, Zankova 2015, Zografova and Stoyanova 2018), and in Turks living in Bulgaria (Zografova and Stoyanova 2018). In the countries with higher

incomes, well-being is less due to the income, but well-being is more due to the positive social relationships and work satisfaction (Diener and Seligman 2004).

It has been found that Bulgarian rangers-sportsmen considered their interpersonal relationships; relationships with their colleagues, and psycho-climate at workplace as very important for occupational attractiveness (Ivantchev and Stoyanova 2016), so athletes may be more satisfied with their relationships than non-athletes. Moreover, Bulgarian military staff had higher life satisfaction than administrative workers (Hristova 2015), and unemployed people had low subjective well-being (Diener and Ryan 2009). These facts give more reasons to expect higher life satisfaction in athletes compared with non-athletes.

It has been found that Bulgarians with shorter work experience were less satisfied with their life than Bulgarians with longer work experience – between 6 and 12 years (Hristova 2015) that suggests that longer sports practice may be related to higher life satisfaction.

The scientific findings regarding age differences in life satisfaction are controversial. One study reports that Bulgarian emerging adults are more satisfied with their life than Bulgarian adolescents (Abubakar et al. 2016). Another study considers Bulgarians below 20 years old to be the most satisfied with their life (Ivanova 2014). According to some other findings, Bulgarians from 30 to 39 years old are the most satisfied with their life (Hristova 2015). Bulgarian life satisfaction decreases with age advance (Eurostat Press Office 2015), as it is typical for poor countries (Diener and Ryan 2009). Some other authors consider that well-being (whose component is life satisfaction) increases with age advance (Keyes et al. 2002) or that subjective well-being is stable during human life (Lucas et al. 2004, Myers and Diener 1995, Myers and Diener 2018, Pavot and Diener 1993, Pavot and Diener 2009), but it diminishes before death (Myers and Diener 2018) or in cases of some negative life events such as unemployment (Lucas et al. 2004). In other cultures like Australia, it has been found that life satisfaction is not constant during human life, but it diminishes in middle-life and it increases in old people (Vinson and Ericson 2012).

The findings regarding gender differences in life satisfaction are also controversial. Several studies report gender similarities in life satisfaction (Diener and Ryan 2009, Myers and Diener 1995, Myers and Diener 2018, Vinson and Ericson 2012). The other findings reveal higher life satisfaction in women than in men, including in Bulgaria (Ivanova 2014, Stavrova et al. 2012), or higher life satisfaction in men than in women (Zuckerman et al. 2017), including in Bulgaria (Papazova 2010).

The positive trustful relationships with family members seem to increase life satisfaction compared to lonely people – single (Luhmann et al. 2013, Myers and Diener 1995, Vinson and Ericson 2012, Zankova 2015) or divorced/separated (Diener et al. 2000, Luhmann et al. 2013). Married people are more satisfied with their life than cohabitating people (Diener et al. 2000, Vinson and Ericson 2012), including in Bulgaria (Stavrova et al. 2012). People who are more satisfied with their life maintain more positive social relationships (Diener and Ryan 2009, Diener and Seligman 2004, Oishi et al. 2007) with their family (Diener and Seligman 2002, Diener and Seligman 2004, Diener et al. 2018), and friends

(Diener and Seligman 2002, Diener et al. 2018). People who are more satisfied with their life perform better in their work (Diener and Seligman 2004). These findings suggest the existence of correlations between overall life satisfaction and various types of domain-specific life satisfaction.

Bulgarian overall life satisfaction positively correlates with positive relationships, self-acceptance, personal growth, positive affect, and setting life goals (Silgidzhiyan et al. 2007). It has been found that athletes set mainly realistic goals for themselves (Stoyanova et al. 2016) that may implicate higher life satisfaction in athletes than in non-athletes.

The findings from the previous studies indicate low (Abubakar et al. 2016, Eurostat Press Office 2015, Garvanova 2015, Jang et al. 2017, Kööts-Ausmees and Realo 2016, Lischetzke et al. 2012, Minkov 2009, Novinite.com - Sofia News Agency 2015, Van de Vliert and Postmes 2014, White 2007) to medium (Kööts-Ausmees et al. 2013, Oishi et al. 1999, Sortheix and Lönnqvist 2014, van de Vliert and Janssen 2002) Bulgarian overall life satisfaction. Bulgarian domain-specific life satisfaction varies more than Bulgarian overall life satisfaction – Bulgarians have low satisfaction with their financial status (Novinite.com - Sofia News Agency 2015, Oishi et al. 1999), high work satisfaction (Novinite.com - Sofia News Agency 2015, Oishi et al. 1999, van de Vliert and Janssen 2002), high satisfaction with home life (Oishi et al. 1999), high satisfaction with own home (Novinite.com - Sofia News Agency 2015), and low satisfaction with personal relationships (Novinite.com - Sofia News Agency 2015).

Well-being increases when neuroticism decreases (Diener and Ryan 2009, Diener and Seligman 2002, Keyes et al. 2002). Life satisfaction negatively correlates with neuroticism (Pavot and Diener 1993, Pavot and Diener 2009). It has been found that athletes have a lower level of neuroticism (Allen and Laborde 2014, Dhesi and Bal 2012, Mackreth et al. 2010, Stoyanova et al. 2016, Velichovska et al. 2012) that is a reason for expecting higher life satisfaction in athletes compared with non-athletes.

Happier people more frequently practice sport (Diener et al. 2018). Practicing sport at least once a week is related to higher subjective well-being than practicing sport at least once a month or just several times a year (Marsh et al. 2010a). These findings give a reason to expect that athletes will be more satisfied with their life than non-athletes.

Volunteering activities and spending more hours in volunteering activities are related to higher well-being (Diener and Ryan 2009, Diener et al. 2018, Oishi et al. 2007, Vinson and Ericson 2012). Practicing sport voluntarily may also contribute to well-being and its component life satisfaction.

Happiness is related to success (Oishi et al. 2007) that is a reason to expect that successful athletes will have higher life satisfaction.

It is expected athletes to be more satisfied with their life than non-athletes, because sport plays an important role for health and well-being (Newman et al. 2010), subjective well-being increases with longer time of actual engagement in sport (Marsh et al. 2010b), practicing sport at least once a week is related to more subjective well-being than practicing sport more rarely (Marsh et al. 2010a), the probabilities of doing sport tend to increase for increasing levels of life satisfaction

(Marsh et al. 2010b), and sports activities give satisfaction because being recreational (Marsh et al. 2010b).

Methodology

Participants

The participants were selected purposefully on the basis of the criterion “practicing or non-practicing sport”. They participated voluntarily. The data were collected anonymously. A part of the participants were students in National Sports Academy “Vassil Levski” in Sofia, Bulgaria or in South-West University “Neofit Rilski” in Blagoevgrad, Bulgaria. The most participants ($N = 122$) filled in a paper-and-pencil questionnaire and the other 20 participants filled in the same questionnaire online.

The sample consisted of 142 participants. The female participants were 111 (78.2%), the male participants were 28 (19.7%), and 3 participants (2.1%) did not indicate their gender belonging. Their age varied from 19 to 62 years old. The mean age was 29.75 years, $SD = 9.22$ years.

Their monthly budget varied between 100 Leva (about 51 Euros) and 5000 Leva (about 2557 Euros). Their average monthly budget was 1127.71 Leva (about 577 Euros), $SD = 855.52$ Leva (about 437 Euros). The average number of family members was 4, $SD = 2$ family members.

The participants who practiced sport regularly were 62 (43.7%), and the participants who did not practice any sport were 49 (34.5%), while 31 participants (21.8%) did not answer if they practiced any sport. The athletes practiced different types of sport – aerobics, athletics, auto racing, basketball, boxing, cycling, dancing, fitness, football, gymnastics, handball, kangoo jumps, karate, kickboxing, orienteering, powerlifting, skiing, swimming, table tennis, Tae Bo, tennis, triathlon, volleyball, yoga, and zumba. See Table 1 for the frequency distribution of the athletes in the different types of sport that they practiced. The most frequently exercised types of sports by the studied athletes were fitness, dancing, and athletics.

The athletes practiced sport from 1 week to 1440 weeks (i.e. 30 years), and the mean time of sports practice was 375.9 weeks (7.8 years), $SD = 343.7$ weeks (7.2 years).

The participants spent on volunteering work in their community from 0 to 40 hours per week. The average period of volunteering activity was 2.65 hours per week, $SD = 4.99$ hours.

They lived mainly in urban areas – 126 of them (88.7%). The other 16 participants (11.3%) lived in rural areas.

Table 1. *Frequency Distribution of the Studied Athletes in the Different Types of Sport*

Types of sport	Frequency	Percentage of the athletes
aerobics	3	4.84
athletics	6	9.68
auto racing	1	1.61
basketball	1	1.61
boxing	1	1.61
cycling	3	4.84
dancing	9	14.52
fitness	10	16.13
football	4	6.45
gymnastics	1	1.61
handball	1	1.61
kangoo jumps	1	1.61
karate	3	4.84
kickboxing	1	1.61
orienteering	1	1.61
powerlifting	1	1.61
skiing	3	4.84
swimming	1	1.61
table tennis	1	1.61
Tae Bo	1	1.61
tennis	1	1.61
triathlon	1	1.61
volleyball	3	4.84
yoga	3	4.84
zoomba	1	1.61

Source: Authors.

Instrument

Life satisfaction was studied in Bulgarian athletes and non-athletes as overall life satisfaction by means of the Satisfaction with Life-Scale (SWLS, Diener et al. 1985) and satisfaction with different life domains measured by several single items suggested by Kris (2018) - You are satisfied with your health; You are satisfied with your relationship with family; You are satisfied with your relationship with friends; You are satisfied with your relationships with other people around (e.g., at work/at school); You are satisfied with what you can do; You are satisfied with your personal growth; You are satisfied with what you achieved in your life; You are satisfied with your financial situation; You are satisfied with your family financial situation. All the answers were given on a 9-point scale from 1 - doesn't describe me at all to 9 - describes me exactly. The answers on a 5-point scale and on a 7-point scale are compatible, without changing the psychometric properties of the scale (Jang et al. 2017), and the same was the case with the 9-point scale of answering.

The Satisfaction with Life-Scale has only one dimension, one factor, without sub-scales (Diener et al. 1985, van Beuningen 2012, Vera-Villarroel et al. 2012). Cronbach's alpha of the Satisfaction with Life-Scale in this Bulgarian sample was .802 and the mean inter-item correlation was 0.461. The internal consistency of the Satisfaction with Life-Scale was also high enough in the other countries and samples (Diener et al. 1985, Emmons and Diener 1985, Lischetzke et al. 2012, Pavot and Diener 1993, Pavot and Diener 2009, Pavot and Diener 2015, van Beuningen 2012). A similar coefficient of Cronbach's alpha of the Satisfaction with Life-Scale in other Bulgarian samples was reported in some other studies – $\alpha = .805$ (Ivanova 2014), $\alpha = .81$ (Zografova and Stoyanova 2018), $\alpha = .739$ (Zankova 2015), $\alpha = .82$ in 1995 and $\alpha = .78$ in 2005 (Garvanova 2013).

The low score means low life satisfaction (Diener et al. 1985). Life satisfaction measured through the Satisfaction with Life-Scale (SWLS; Diener et al. 1985) is not influenced by social desirability (Diener et al. 1985, Emmons and Diener 1985).

The socio-demographic data were also collected.

Data Analysis

Data were analysed by means of the software SPSS 20 applying descriptive statistics, Pearson correlation coefficients, Mann-Whitney test, and Independent Samples T test.

Results

The participants in the study were the most satisfied with their relationships with their family, then with their relationships with their friends, followed by satisfaction with what they could do, then satisfaction with their relationships with their colleagues, then satisfaction with their personal growth, then satisfaction with their achievements, then satisfaction with their health status, then satisfaction with their family financial situation, and lastly - satisfaction with their own financial situation – see Table 2.

Table 2. Means and Standard Deviations of the entire Participants' Domain – Specific Life Satisfaction

Type of domain-specific life satisfaction with	Means	Standard deviations
Relationships with family	7.50	1.93
Relationships with friends	7.44	1.78
Performance - what one could do	7.22	1.93
Relationships with colleagues	7.09	1.89
Personal growth	7.08	2.01
Achievements	6.82	1.97
Health	6.81	2.23
Family financial situation	5.93	2.21
Own financial situation	5.73	2.26

Source: Author.

The results regarding domain-specific life satisfaction revealed medium to high life satisfaction with all domains that were studied – see Table 2, where means were higher than the mid-scale value from one to nine.

The mean score on participants' overall life satisfaction was 29.51, $SD = 7.76$ that means medium life satisfaction tending towards high life satisfaction. The mean score on the non-athletes' overall life satisfaction was 29.14, $SD = 8.25$ that means medium life satisfaction tending towards high life satisfaction. The mean score on the athletes' overall life satisfaction was 30.45, $SD = 7.20$ that means medium life satisfaction tending towards high life satisfaction. There were not any significant differences in general life satisfaction between the participants practicing sport regularly ($N = 62$) and the participants who did not practice any sport – $N = 49$ ($t(109) = 0.891, p = .375$).

Table 3. Statistically Significant Differences between the Athletes and Non-Athletes' Domain – Specific Life Satisfaction

Type of domain-specific satisfaction with	Social group	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Health	Athletes	7.42	1.72	2.966	78 *	.004
	Non-athletes	6.15	2.56			
Relationships with friends	Athletes	7.92	1.45	2.308	108	.023
	Non-athletes	7.19	1.88			
Performance	Athletes	7.74	1.35	2.856	68 **	.006
	Non-athletes	6.64	2.37			

Note: * Levene's test for equality of variances = 11.657, $p_{\text{Levene}} = .001$;

** Levene's test for equality of variances = 13.846, $p_{\text{Levene}} < .001$.

Source: Author.

The participants practicing sport differed significantly from the participants who did not practice any sport on whether they were satisfied with their health status, their relationships with their friends, and their performance – what they could do – see Table 3. The athletes were more satisfied with their health status, their relationships with their friends, and their performance than the non-athletes.

The participants practicing sport differed significantly from the participants who did not practice any sport on the number of hours they spent on volunteering activities ($t(78) = 2.181, p = .032$). The athletes ($M = 3.06, SD = 3.73$) spent more hours per week on volunteering activities than the non-athletes did ($M = 1.38, SD = 2.79$).

There were not found any significant gender differences in life satisfaction (111 female participants and 28 male participants, Mann-Whitney $U = 1535.000, p = .920$).

Life satisfaction did not correlate significantly with age for all the participants, neither for the athletes and the non-athletes separately ($p > .05$).

Higher monthly budget correlated weakly, but positively and significantly with higher satisfaction with family financial situation ($r(103) = 0.243, p = .013$) for all the participants.

Table 4. Statistically Significant Correlations between Overall Life-Satisfaction and Domain – Specific Life Satisfaction for All the Participants, the Athletes, and the Non-Athletes

Domain-specific life - satisfaction	Overall life-satisfaction of		
	all the participants	non-athletes	athletes
Own financial situation	$r(133) = 0.435$, $p < .001$	<i>N. S.</i>	$r(60) = 0.504$, $p < .001$
Achievements	$r(133) = 0.391$, $p < .001$	<i>N. S.</i>	$r(60) = 0.442$, $p < .001$
Personal growth	$r(131) = 0.381$, $p < .001$	$r(45) = 0.320$, $p = .028$	$r(60) = 0.410$, $p = .001$
Familial financial situation	$r(132) = 0.329$, $p < .001$	<i>N. S.</i>	$r(59) = 0.350$, $p = .006$
Health	$r(133) = 0.312$, $p < .001$	$r(46) = 0.291$, $p = .045$	$r(60) = 0.261$, $p = .041$
Performance	$r(132) = 0.279$, $p = .001$	<i>N. S.</i>	<i>N. S.</i>
Relationships with friends	$r(133) = 0.248$, $p = .004$	$r(46) = 0.373$, $p = .009$	<i>N. S.</i>
Relationships with family	$r(133) = 0.247$, $p = .004$	$r(46) = 0.386$, $p = .007$	<i>N. S.</i>
Relationships with colleagues	$r(132) = 0.181$, $p = .037$	<i>N. S.</i>	<i>N. S.</i>

Note: *N. S.* means a non-significant Pearson correlation coefficient ($p > .05$);

Source: Author.

For all the participants, general life satisfaction correlated significantly and positively with satisfaction with different domains – own financial situation, own achievements, personal growth, familial financial situation, health status, and weaker with own performance, relationships with friends, relationships with family, and relationships with colleagues – see Table 4.

For the non-athletes, general life satisfaction correlated significantly and positively with satisfaction with different domains – relationships with family, relationships with friends, personal growth, and health status – see Table 4.

For the athletes, general life satisfaction correlated significantly and positively with satisfaction with different domains – own financial situation, own achievements, personal growth, familial financial situation, and health status – see Table 4.

Discussion

As some other authors (Pavot and Diener 1993, Pavot and Diener 2009) have also found, the results on the Satisfaction with Life-Scale (Diener et al. 1985) correlate positively with some other measures of life satisfaction – in this case with satisfaction with different life domains. Some other studies have also found that overall life satisfaction is related to satisfaction with health status, satisfaction with family status (Vinson and Ericson 2012), and personal growth (Silgidzhiyan et al. 2007).

This study reveals medium Bulgarian overall life satisfaction as the findings by some other authors indicate (Kööts-Ausmees et al. 2013, Oishi et al. 1999, Sortheix and Lönnqvist 2014, van de Vliert and Janssen 2002). This medium overall life satisfaction may be explained by higher satisfaction with relationships with family, friends and colleagues, because it has been found that people who are more satisfied with their life maintain more positive social relationships (Diener and Ryan 2009, Diener and Seligman 2004, Oishi et al. 2007, Silgidzhiyan et al. 2007) with their family (Diener and Seligman 2002, Diener and Seligman 2004, Diener et al. 2018), and friends (Diener and Seligman 2002, Diener et al. 2018). This medium overall life satisfaction may be also explained by higher satisfaction with what the participants can do, because it has been found that people who are more satisfied with their life perform better (Diener and Seligman 2004).

The results from this study confirm the findings that Bulgarians have low satisfaction with their financial status (Novinite.com - Sofia News Agency 2015, Oishi et al. 1999), but high work satisfaction (Novinite.com - Sofia News Agency 2015, Oishi et al. 1999, van de Vliert and Janssen 2002).

It has been found that the athletes were more satisfied with their health status, their relationships with their friends, and their performance than the non-athletes, but overall life satisfaction was similar for the athletes and the non-athletes. Higher athletes' satisfaction with health status may be explained by the fact that the sport plays an important role for health and well-being (Newman et al. 2010). Higher athletes' satisfaction with relationships with their friends is supported by the finding that the rangers-sportsmen considered their interpersonal relationships as very important for their occupation (Ivantchev and Stoyanova 2016). Higher athletes' satisfaction with their performance may be explained with the success that they achieve in sports training and competitions.

The finding that the athletes spent more hours per week on volunteering activities than the non-athletes could partially explain higher satisfaction with several life domains in the athletes, as it has been stated that spending more hours in volunteering activities is related to higher well-being (Diener and Ryan 2009, Diener et al. 2018, Oishi et al. 2007, Vinson and Ericson 2012).

Lower neuroticism in athletes (Allen and Laborde 2014, Dhesi and Bal 2012, Mackreth et al. 2010, Stoyanova et al. 2016, Velichovska et al. 2012) may also explain their higher satisfaction with several life domains, because life satisfaction negatively correlates with neuroticism (Pavot and Diener 1993, Pavot and Diener 2009).

There were not any significant gender differences in life satisfaction as some other studies have also found (Diener and Ryan 2009, Myers and Diener 1995, Myers and Diener 2018, Vinson and Ericson 2012). The lack of age differences in life satisfaction was also established by some other studies (Lucas et al. 2004, Myers and Diener 1995, Myers and Diener 2018, Pavot and Diener 1993, Pavot and Diener 2009).

Conclusions

This study revealed that the athletes did not differ from the non-athletes in their overall life satisfaction, but they differed significantly in their satisfaction with several life domains - health, relationships, and performance. General life satisfaction was related to satisfaction with health for all the participants, both the athletes and the non-athletes, that suggests the importance of health status for overall life satisfaction. Besides, physical activity and sport may contribute to higher athletes' satisfaction with their health status; because their real health conditions (both physical and mental health) improve with regular sports practice. There should be also some other factors that may explain higher athletes' satisfaction with their health such as awareness of the fact that own efforts contribute to improvement of health status.

General life satisfaction was related to satisfaction with relationships with friends for all the participants and for the non-athletes, but not for the athletes. The athletes maintain friendships with some other athletes who are also their competitors, and this fact may explain why the athletes' satisfaction with their relationships with friends did not contribute to athletes' overall life satisfaction.

General life satisfaction was related to satisfaction with own performance for all the participants, but not separately for the athletes or non-athletes. Successful performance in various activities (not only sport) may increase self-confidence and it seems to be an important factor contributing to overall life satisfaction.

These findings also suggest that some other factors should be studied to explain the differences in athletes and non-athletes' domain-specific life satisfaction, such as personality peculiarities, situational demands or socio-demographic diversity. Further studies may compare athletes and non-athletes' life satisfaction cross-culturally, including more participants from different social categories.

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