早稲田大学審査学位論文

博士（スポーツ科学）

Sport Participation and Spectatorship Legacy of the 2002 FIFA World Cup Korea/Japan
2002FIFA ワールドカップ韓国/日本のスポーツ参加及び観戦に関するレガシー

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Abstract

Mass sport participation as a legacy of sports mega-events has been discussed by scholars for decades. However, little is known about its effect in eastern Asian countries, especially Japan and South Korea, two major hosts of such events. Therefore, this study examines the causal connection between the 2002 Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) World Cup Korea/Japan and subsequent football participation in the host countries. Together with participation effect, sport spectatorship behavioural outcomes, one of the two pillars of sport consumer behaviours (Funk et al., 2016), were examined as well. This study is the first to use a cross-cultural analysis and one of the few that combine the psychological constructs of *inspiration* and *nostalgia* to determine if they translate into behavioural changes in sport participation and spectatorship. Additionally, the study identifies the effect of the World Cup on parental influence on children's sport involvement. The results reveal that both inspiration and nostalgia evoked by the World Cup positively influenced participation, spectatorship, as well as parental influence, but the difference in spectatorship patterns during the World Cup and nationality was not significant.

Dedicated to My wife, Kwija, Kim

Once again, which we have already given up,

the summer regained its strength;

It shines as if condensed into shorter days,

It boasts of glowing cloudless suns.

This is how a person may at the end of his striving,

Since he is disappointed, already withdrawn,

Once again suddenly trust the waves,

daring to leap the remnants of his life.

Whether he is wasting himself on a love,

whether he is preparing for a late work,

in his deeds rings out, in his lusts

autumn clear and deep his knowledge of the end.

End of August by Hermann Hesse

Vita

August 30, 1973 ..... Born – Seoul, Korea

1994 ~ 2000 ..... B.A. Business Administration, Konkuk University, Seoul, Korea

2004 ~ 2005 ..... M.A. Sport Management, University of San Francisco, USA

2006 ~ 2009 ..... Sports Marketing Manager, MBC ESPN STAR SPORTS, Seoul, Korea

2009 ~ 2014 .....Head of Sport Marketing & Event, Pernod Ricard Korea, Seoul, Korea

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Publications

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Field of Study

Sport Business and Marketing

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Chapter 1 Introduction

2002 FIFA World Cup Korea/Japan

The 2002 Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) World Cup, jointly hosted by South Korea and Japan, was the first time in the event's history that it was held in more than one country, or in Asia. The two countries were the leading sports mega-event hosts in Asia, such as for the Summer Olympics (Tokyo, 1964; Seoul, 1988), the Winter Olympics (Sapporo, 1972, Nagano, 1998; Pyeongchang, 2018), the Asian Games (1958 and 1994 in Japan; 1986, 2002, and 2014 in South Korea), and several major single-sport events, such as the World Athletics Championships (Tokyo, 1991, Osaka, 2007; Daegu, 2011) as well as Formula 1 Grands Prix on numerous occasions. Despite their strong track records as hosts for other sports, the two countries remained on the periphery of international football until the late 20th century (Manzenreiter & Horne, 2002). Since its debut at the World Cup in 1954, South Korea qualified for the tournament five times out of 12, yet never advanced to the round of 16 until the 2002 World Cup, when it reached the fourth place on home soil (Lee, 2002). Meanwhile, Japan first qualified in 1998, and first reached the round of 16 in 2002, again at home; it had a relatively shorter history of representation in the FIFA competition, compared to its involvement with other sports mega-events such as hosting the 1964 Summer Olympics and 1972 Winter Olympics (Chappelet, 2008; Matsuoka & Arai, 2017). Although the two countries have different historical associations with the FIFA World Cup, and they initially bid separately, they finally ended up as the first co-hosts of the FIFA World Cup, which was also the first in the 21st century.

Political Dynamics of Co-Hosting the 2002 World Cup

Given the complicated historical and political dynamics between South Korea and Japan, and the related unresolved issues since the early 20th century, FIFA's co-hosting decision in 1996 came on the heels of fierce and high levels of eagerness to acquire the title of the first Asian country to host the World Cup. Consequently, key stakeholders including FIFA and the two potential bidders faced a challenging situation, in which neither South Korea nor Japan wanted to co-host, or let the other have hosting rights alone. Eventually, persuaded by FIFA's unceasing requests, the two had no choice but to compromise, and gave up pursuing their independent bids. This unprecedented, improvised emergency measure taken by FIFA to nurture these two regional sporting rivals was seen as a last resort to satisfy the key stakeholders of the global business of football (Manzenreiter & Horne, 2002; McLaughlin, 2001). Notwithstanding the international political dynamics within governing bodies, sponsors, and media, once the co-hosting decision was taken, the two countries enthusiastically tried to leverage this opportunity in all sectors to build international recognition and reinforce nationalism (Manzenreiter & Horne, 2002; McLaughlin, 2001). The game of football became more than just a game.

Impact of the 2002 FIFA World Cup

Although the political rhetoric of pursuing harmony and regional economic interests was used to promote the first FIFA tournament to be co-hosted by two countries, the reality was somewhat different (Sugden & Tomlinson, 2002). For example, 17 out of 20 stadiums were newly built, seven in Japan and 10 in South Korea, at a cost of more than USD 4.7 billion (Baade & Matheson, 2004; Kim & Petrick, 2005). In addition, at 20, this was the highest number of venues used in a FIFA World Cup since 1990 (Alm et al., 2012). Alm et al. (2012) further pointed out that it usually took nine to 12 stadiums to play all the required matches during the FIFA World Cup finals between 1990 to 2012: group stage, last 16, quarterfinals, final four, consolation final for third place, and the final. Given the number of

newly built stadiums across the two countries in 2002, the number of matches played per stadium was estimated to be almost halved compared to if the tournament had been held in a single country. Profitability from this 'co-hosting effect' seemingly declined by as much as 50% in commercial areas such as ticket sales revenue, number of travellers, merchandising sales, and so on, compared to previous tournaments. Therefore, the net economic impact for both the host countries was not believed to have been a top priority. Instead, the political impact, such as the feel-good factor and national pride, was emphasised (Manzenreiter & Horne, 2002). Horne and Manzenreiter (2004b, p. 199) stated that one reason why South Korea and Japan were keen to market rather than sell the event was the long, unresolved history between the two countries—the Japanese annexation of Korea in 1910, the colonisation of the Korean peninsula during World War II, and the post-World War II political struggle—and described how 'bilateral struggles over the official name order, ticket price policies, visa issuing, currency exchange, and stadia construction in parts resembled competitive hosting rather than cooperative hosting'.

Despite the excessive allocation of public resources and the struggles between the host countries, according to Horne and Manzenreiter (2004a), the 2002 FIFA World Cup had an enormous impact on both Japan and South Korea. First, the popularity of football in East Asia grew through the sports mega-event. Second, each country used this opportunity to reinforce nationalism by emphasising the concept of 'we' and 'our country'. Finally, through co-hosting, the bilateral relationship between South Korea and Japan, especially at the civil and cultural level, improved. Additionally, various impact studies on the 2002 World Cup analysed tourism (Kim & Chalip, 2004; Lee et al., 2005); residents' perceptions (Kim & Petrick, 2005); the social impact (Hae-joang, 2004; Takahashi, 2011); the economic impact (Lee & Taylor, 2005); the bilateral relationship (Heere et al., 2012; Sakaedani, 2005); and regional development (Horne, 2004; Manzenreiter, 2008). However, there is a paucity of

research on the participation legacy of the FIFA World Cup 2002 in both South Korea and Japan.

Sport Participation Legacy of Sports Mega-Events

Scholars have examined the process by which sports mega-events have successfully enhanced mass participation in sports in host countries. This phenomenon is called an event's *sport participation legacy* (Aizawa et al., 2018; Chalip et al., 2017; Charlton, 2010; Cleland et al., 2020; Sousa-Mast et al., 2013; Kokolakakis et al., 2019; Macrae, 2017; Taks et al., 2018). Further, there is an inherent assumption in this process that hosting mega-events such as the Olympics or the World Cup inspires people to take up a sport or raise the frequency of participation for health benefits or recreational purposes. This is commonly referred to as the *trickle-down* or *demonstration effect* (Weed et al., 2015). Although this relationship has not been clearly defined, especially in terms of legacy delivery (Byers et al., 2019), it has long been a topic of interest among sport management scholars. However, there is little evidence that sports mega-events per se have a direct causal relationship with sport participation in the host country (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006; Weed et al., 2015).

Despite limited evidence, a few scholars specialising in sport participation legacy have emphasised that properly leveraging the resources associated with hosting mega-events before, during, and after the event would enhance sport participation (Chalip et al., 2017; Weed et al., 2015). According to Byers et al. (2019), most studies have focused on the participation outcome itself, such as increased participation in sports or physical activities. However, they suggested that it should include holistic perspectives so that a legacy can be understood as a process rather than as an immediate measurable outcome. Policymakers, sports marketers, and researchers should consider possible unexpected negative legacies as well, such as conflicts between diverse social, economic, and racial groups, and that the result

may be zero-sum if the fulfilment of one stakeholder's interests may jeopardise another's (Byers et al., 2019).

Sports Mega-Events in South Korea and Japan

Despite much research and a variety of scholarly opinions on sport participation legacy, whether solely concentrated on participation or as a sub-discipline of the study of the legacy of sports mega-events, most of the data, sources, and opinions stem from western experiences. Limited academic considerations have been given to the sport participation legacy in association with sports mega-events and its impact in host nations in the east, especially South Korea and Japan (Annear et al., 2019; Thomson et al., 2019), since they are two of the biggest mega-event hosts in Asia, which includes giga-, mega-, and major-level sporting events based on the criteria by Müller (2015). Sports mega-events held in East Asia in recent years include the FIFA World Cup, the Summer and Winter Olympic Games, the Universiade, and the Asian Games (Whitson & Horne, 2006; Won & Chiu, 2020). One of the reasons mega-events in Japan and South Korea have not received much academic attention might be that hosting these events was primarily viewed as a politically motivated top-down process involving policymakers and governments at national levels (Dolles & Söderman, 2008; Horton, 2012); whereas, mass sports participation seemed to either be considered separately by key stakeholders and policy makers, or believed to be less prioritised than political and economic concerns. For instance, the 2020 Tokyo Olympics planning despite the Great East Japan Earthquake in 2011 (Kameda, 2013), and Seoul's interest in bidding for the 2032 Summer Olympics with North Korea (McCurry, 2019). In both cases, there is little evidence that the central governments' decision-making processes included either stakeholders from the respective municipalities or wider public opinion bringing about idea initiating mass sport participation as an outcome of sports mega-events. Contrasting these scenarios with cities in the western hemisphere, the cities withdrew bids for mega-events after

strong opposition from residents, who questioned the benefits of such large-scale events. For instance, Budapest, Rome, and Hamburg all withdrew from bidding for the 2024 Summer Olympics for such reasons (Thompson et al., 2019). For the past decades, sport mega-events both in Korea and Japan were regarded as an entity politically motivated by the central governments, as opposed to sport participation which is less emphasized and not leveraged into sports mega-events.

Research Proposal

This study investigated the participation legacy of sports mega-events in an East Asian context to determine whether positive behavioural changes are reported in the participation of residents in host nations. It focused on empirically examining the participation legacy impact of the 2002 FIFA World Cup, co-hosted by South Korea and Japan, allowing for cross-cultural analysis. This study further focused on how sports mega-events are related to sport spectatorship in hosting nations. Although sport spectatorship has not drawn as much academic attention as sport participation in sports mega-events legacy studies, but rather developed independently as a subject of study, especially in the professionalised sport industry (Wang & Matsuoka, 2012), sport spectatorship and participation are considered the two main pillars of sport consumer behaviours (Funk et al., 2016; McDonald et al., 2002). Although the main purpose of this study is to identify the participation legacy of sports mega-events, weighing these two consumption patterns alike could help achieve a better understanding of how sport consumption behaviours are changed by mega events comprehensively. Since the objectives of my research is to find out the causal relationship between two variables deductively in measurement of a particular phenomenon by using statistical analysis on behaviour changes before and after the sports mega-event rather than thoughts or feelings of people, I chose quantitative approach in terms of collecting data (Gratton & Jones, 2004).

This is the first attempt to gauge the participation and spectatorship legacy of sports mega-events through a cross-cultural approach and sheds light on how a sports mega-event is consumed in the eastern hemisphere, where little research has been conducted on sporting events' legacy despite several decades of hosting experience. Thus, this study identifies the legacy in terms of the impact on sport participation and spectatorship, through the changes in social structures following a sports mega-event.

The remainder of this paper is organised as follows. First, I focus on frameworks associated with sports mega-events. Specifically, I draw on three current theoretical frameworks relevant to sport participation as an event legacy: the trickle-down effect, and the psychological constructs of inspiration and nostalgia as motivational factors. Second, I identify the methodology and assumptions relevant to the present study to highlight how sport participation and spectatorship operate and are understood in the mega-event context. Finally, results, conclusion, academic and practical implications, and future research directions are discussed.

Chapter 2 Literature Review and Theoretical Frameworks

Football in South Korea and Japan

Quantitative Aspects of Football in Korea and Japan

By publishing sport white papers, which report the results of a wide range of sport activity surveys, to promote sports and a healthy lifestyle, both South Korea and Japan have been tracking their nations' overall sport participation and spectatorship data since 1991 and 2002, respectively (Sasakawa Sports Foundation, 2017; Korea Institute of Sport Science, 1995–2018). Further, sport governing bodies such as the JFA (Japan Football Association) and J. League (Japanese professional football league), or KFA (Korea Football Association) and K League (South Korean professional football league) have been tracking each country's football participation and spectatorship data for the same purpose (Japan Football Association, 2020; J.League, 2020; Korea Football Association, 2020; K League, 2020).

Such secondary data about tracking sport behaviour changes published by each country might be unsuitable to verify the causal connection between sports mega-events and sport participation or spectatorship, as the data are not specifically designed to examine the relationship between a specific cause (i.e. the 2002 FIFA World Cup) and the effect (i.e. football participation as an outcome after the event). Rather, as these documents pursue overall trends in participation and spectatorship for various sports, it is appropriate for the study to examine how football participation and spectatorship trends changed before and after the 2002 FIFA World Cup in each country.

Registered football athletes (all ages)

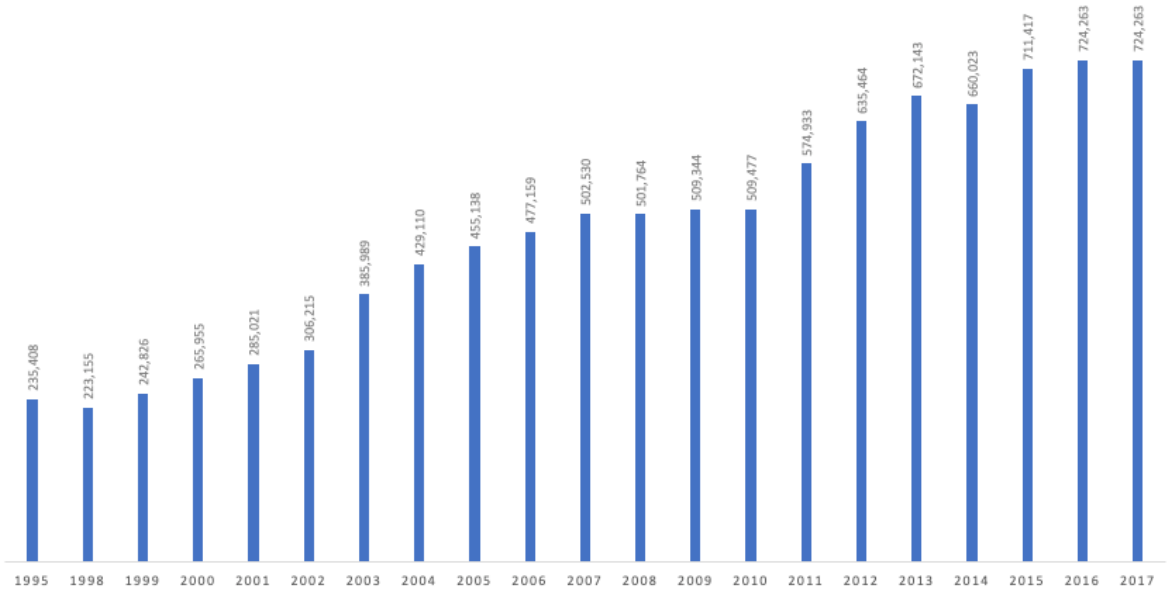
Registered football athletes may range from elementary school athletes to adult professionals. In South Korea, only elite athletes are counted among the 'athlete' category, which means only registered athletes are eligible to participate in any regional or national-

level championship competitions (i.e. elite level). In other words, registered athletes in South Korea refers to those pursuing careers as elite athletes. Recreational participants or private club or community members are not included in this category. However, in Japan, registered athletes include both elite and recreational-level participants, which means that there is no specific classification to separate elite athletes from non-elite athletes with regard to their eligibility to participate in regional or national-level championship competitions.

The numbers of registered football athletes in both South Korea and Japan show positive growth since the 2002 FIFA World Cup (see Figure 2.1 for South Korea and Figure 2.2 for Japan). In Japan, the CAGR (Compounded Average Growth Rate) over 30 years from 1979 to 2019 was about 2.7%. Although the number of registered football athletes decreased both from 1995 to 2002 and from 2014 to 2019, from 2002 to 2014, the number increased. The CAGR from 1995 to 2019 was about 0.3%. Similarly, there was some fluctuation from 2002 until 2018 in the number of athletes registered in South Korea; on average it showed a positive increase of 3.92% in CAGR from 1995 to 2018, higher than Japan.

Figure 2.1

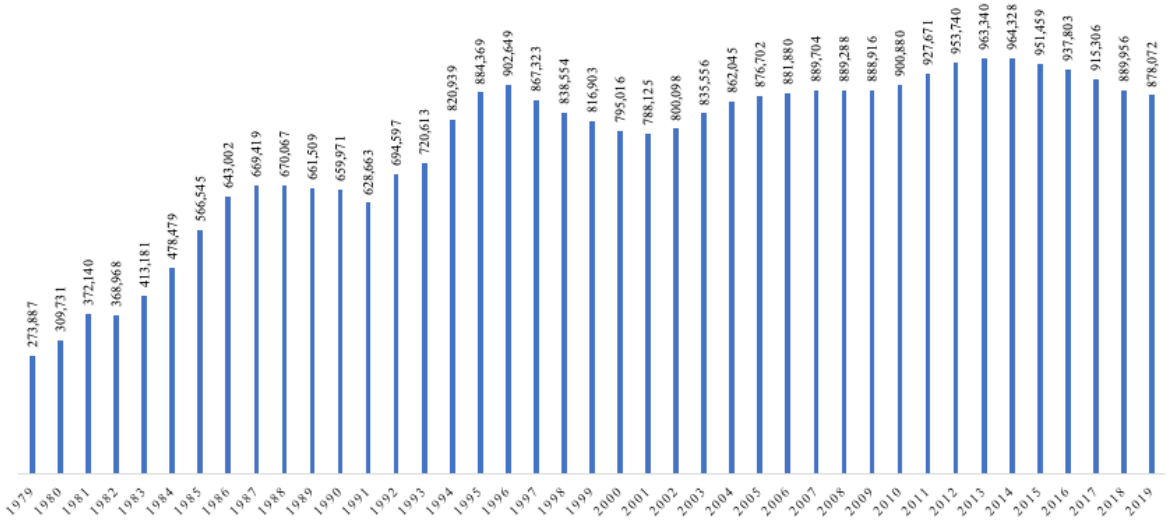
Registered Football Athletes in South Korea



Note. Data sourced from Sport Indicators in Korea from 1995 to 2001 (Korea Institute of Sport Science, 1995–2001) and Sport White Paper from 2002 to 2017 (Korea Institute of Sport Science, 2002–2018).

Figure 2.2

Registered Football Athletes in Japan



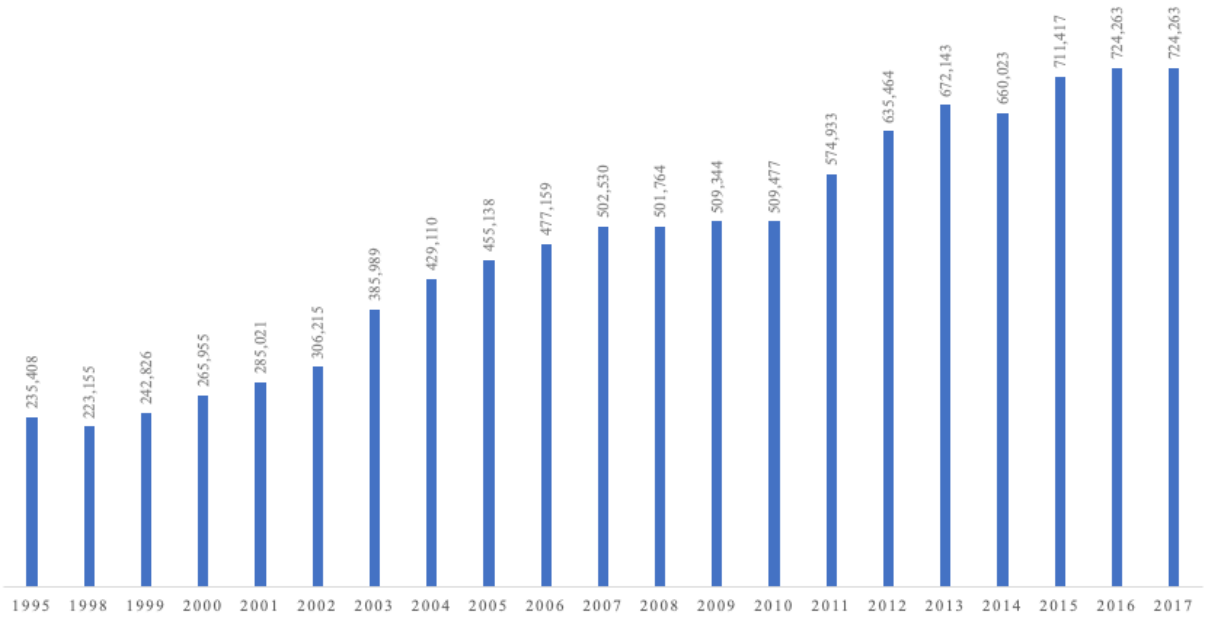
Note. Data sourced from Japan Football Association Official Website (http://www.jfa.jp/about_jfa/organization/databox/player.html#year1)

Amateur Adults Football Club Membership

As adult amateur football participation data from Japan were not available when the research was conducted, the study investigated South Korean adult amateur recreational football participation data only, especially amateur club membership (Korea Institute of Sport Science, 1995–2018). Adult amateur club participation in South Korea steadily increased from 1995 to 2017 with a CAGR of 5.8% (see Figure 2.3).

Figure 2.3

Amateur Adults Football Club Membership in South Korea



Note. Data sourced from Sport Indicators in Korea from 1995 to 2001 (Korea Institute of Sport Science 1995–2001) and Sport White Paper from 2002 to 2017 (Korea Institute of Sport Science 2002–2018).

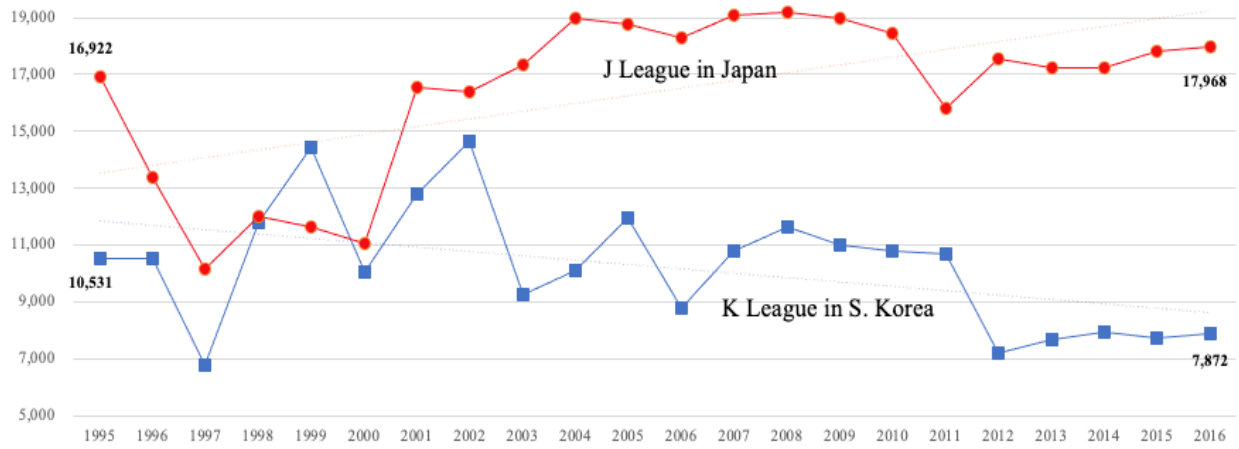
Football Spectatorship Data

According to each country's top-level professional football club governing body (i.e. J.League in Japan and K League in South Korea), the Japanese professional first division league experienced an increase in its average attendance per game from 1995 to 2016 with a

CAGR of 0.3%; however, -1 .4% decrease was seen in the K League (J.League, 2020; K League, 2020; see Figure 2.4)

Figure 2.4

Average Number of Attendance Per Game (K League South Korea vs. J.League in Japan)



Note. Regular season match attendance numbers were taken into account.

Qualitative Aspects of Football in South Korea and Japan

South Korea

In January 2019, after violence and sexual harassment among elite athletes including coaches became a serious social problem, South Korea's Minister for Culture, Sports, and Tourism Doh Jong-Hwan announced at a press conference that such incidents resulted from the winning-at-all-costs policy, and to eradicate it in the elite athlete community, sport would no longer be used to boost national pride and international prestige, thus drastically shifting the existing paradigm of sport in South Korea (Lee, 2019).

This anecdote reflects how sport had been exploited by political powers for decades after modern sport was first introduced to Korea. Sport was used as a politically motivated

promotional vehicle for nationalistic ideology to foster internal cohesiveness against outer foreign forces in the early 20th century, or to justify political regimes, especially the military regimes from the early 1960s to early 1990s. This historical background has played a significant role in forming sport behaviours, such as sport participation and spectatorship, influencing attitude, motivation, and behaviour outcomes of people individually and collectively, in Korea.

Modern sports including the game of association football were first introduced to Korea in the late 19th century by Western countries, along with their culture, ideas, and institutions (Jong-Young, 2002). Modern sport in this context means, as Elias and Dunning (2008), and Guttmann (1986) defined, professionalised, rationalised, and institutionalised physical activities with a contests format, which originated as leisure pursuits. This period roughly overlapped with the beginning of Japanese colonial rule in 1910, when the Treaty of Annexation between Korea and Japan was signed. Japan colonised the Korean peninsula from 1910 to 1945. As citizens of a colonised country unable to exercise sovereignty, Koreans longed for independence with a strong nationalistic sentiment, and sport acted as a means for expressing Koreans' anti-Japanese feelings (Lee, 2016). This was Korea's first encounter with modern sport. Due to this historical and social context, where sport acted as an agent, expressing nationalistic patriotism was valued as a top social function of sport, whereas sport's function as a playful and recreational leisure activity was less emphasised. Under Japanese colonial rule, the governing body of association football, Chosun Football Association (now Korea Football Association) was established. Further, two Korean footballers participated in the Olympic Games for the first time, at the 1936 Berlin Summer games, albeit as colonised citizens representing Japan. Although one of the football clubs based in Korea won the All Japan Championship, which was the Olympic team selection

contest and most of the winning club's members were supposed to join the Olympic football team at the time, only these two Koreans were allowed (Jong-Young, 2002).

Once World War II ended in 1945, Korea was liberated from Japanese rule, and subsequently divided. South Korea became an independent country with a democratic government. During this period, although it was mainly due to the influence of America as an occupation force, sport gained its leisure and recreational value, especially in elementary school education (Kwak, 1990).

However, this shift was short-lived due to the military coup in 1961. Under the first military regime, public sport policy to encourage mass participation was initially developed, promoted, and implemented in line with government-driven initiatives such as enacting the Sport Promotion Law (Son & Shin, 2008). However, the government was excessively obsessed with elite sport and its success to justify the regime's existence, raise the national profile and image, and inspire patriotism (Lee & Kim, 1999; Joo et al., 2003). This caused public sport's leisure and recreational value to be neglected and ignored, creating an imbalance in development in favour of elite-oriented sport over mass sport participation (Cho, 2007).

When the first military regime collapsed after the assassination of President Park Jung-Hee, another military group took over in a coup d'état in the spring of 1980. The 1980s military regime continued with the former military regime's main agenda but in a more evolved way. It became actively involved with sport by not only focusing on elite athletes' success in international competitions but also by hosting sport mega-events (the 1988 Seoul Olympic Games and the 1986 Asian Games) to showcase the nation's economic success, which was heavily driven by state intervention, to the world, and receive international recognition (Cho, 2007; Lim & Huh, 2009; Park, 2016). Furthermore, this military regime launched professional sport leagues, such as the professional football league Super League in

1983. This measure was not determined by the economic and social situations of each sport, such as mass participation level, physical infrastructure, demand from the bottom, and commercial value, but rather from the desire to politically control and manage South Korean society (Chae, 2000; Lee, 1997; Park & Chu, 2005; Park & Kim, 2004).

Thereafter, for 40 years from the 1960s, while the importance of mass sport participation and its leisure and recreational value was emphasised elsewhere in the world, sport in South Korea, led by military governments, operated mainly for the regimes' integration of society, justification of the regimes, and raising international status. Thus, mass sport participation was not prioritised until the new millennium.

It was only in the early 2000s, after the 2002 FIFA World Cup and several Olympic Games (2008, 2012, and 2016) and with South Korea's increasingly successful performance at sport mega-events, that mass sport participation in the true sense evolved and captured public attention. During this period, more people joined amateur clubs in various sports. Lee and Kang (2004) argue that despite past governments' focus on elite sport and its success at international events, both tangible and intangible assets such as the human resources and physical infrastructure they prepared over the past decades significantly contributed to the current public sport environment, as a result increasing mass participation in sport and the quality of leisure activities. However, few studies have been conducted on the effectiveness of governments' investment in elite athletes and whether their success contributed to mass sport participation in South Korea.

Japan

Similar to the trajectory of the introduction of modern sports to Korea, they were introduced into Japan in the latter half of the 19th century from the West as well (Atsuo, 2004). However, the way sports were organised, developed, provided for, and diffused there somewhat differed from Korea (Abe et al., 1992).

Moreover, as opposed to Korea, where most sports were used even in their early days of introduction as means to instil national consciousness and patriotism against outer foreign forces, especially after Japan's annexation of the Korean peninsula, sport in Japan was used to reinforce the country's inner strength to expand its economic, military, and political influence in Asia, primarily in educational institutions (Abe et al., 1992; Atsuo, 2004). The purpose of education in association with sport from the educators' perspective was to build a strong and balanced body through athleticism, which they believed would encourage nationalism and national identity, and eventually help achieve modernisation.

According to Atsuo (2004), this developmental pattern emphasising ideology, values, and body habitus incorporated into sport during the early days would later come to frame the educational perception of all sports in Japan. Baseball is a typical example of a sport that deeply permeated Japanese society through educational institutions, playing a critical role in defining modern Japan's national identity as well as forming a unique sporting culture (Horne, 1999). However, the game of association football in Japan had a slightly different pathway in how it was developed and diffused in society. Compared to other sports, football was not a regular subject in the school physical education curriculum, but rather originally developed in teacher training (Horne 1999). Somewhat marginalised, football ironically was categorised as 'outdoor play' and viewed as a recreational activity without being given educational importance until the first half of the 20th century (Atsuo, 2004).

Only after Japan's defeat in World War II did football first emerge as a part of the official school curriculum (Atsuo, 2004). During this period, new values, albeit under the influence of the US occupation forces, were integrated via sport into society, such as a democratic attitude, freedom, and autonomy (Nakazawa, 2011). In the late 1950s, football became part of the sports domain and started to be promoted at the national level (Sugiyama et al., 2017). One of the most notable turning points in Japanese football was the 1964 Tokyo

Olympic Games, as football gradually received more attention not only from those involved with school education but also the public before and after the sports mega-event. The systematic development of football both at the elite and grassroots levels had begun during this period. Another remarkable change in Japanese sporting culture was that the value of sports, especially in educational institutions, was redefined, aiming to incorporate more enjoyable and leisure activities under the central government's policy of promoting 'sport for all' enacted in the late 1970s (Atsuo, 2004). However, football remained outside public interest as a mass spectator sport and an entertainment spectacle as compared to baseball.

Until the 1990s, when Japan's spectator sports market, mainly driven by professional sports, was dominated by baseball, sumo (Japanese traditional wrestling), and several racing sports, football was played at an amateur level for many years and excluded from professionalisation (Hirose, 2004). Sugiyama et al. (2017) suggested that with football remaining at an amateur level for a long time since the 1960s, opportunities to strengthen international competitiveness lessened, reducing Japanese football's chances to incubate star players. Before the 2002 FIFA World Cup, the Japanese national team had never qualified for the FIFA World Cup finals until the 1998 World Cup in France. Sugiyama et al. (2017) also argued that the absence of star players or international sporting success in football negatively influenced mass participation.

From the early 1990s, a systematic approach to professionalise and commercialise the game of football was initiated by carefully researching the potential market, defining the characteristics of the future professional football league, and leveraging the existing football culture that had developed over the past decades. After several years of system design including feasibility and the potential of a professionalised football league, the Japanese professional football league (J.League) was finally launched in 1993. In summary, the launching of J.League was believed to be the outcome of the concentrated efforts made by

both sport and government together to achieve the following goals: upgrade the presence of Japanese football through professionalisation, boost mass participation through commodification, and maximise the value of the league as an entertainment spectacle through commercialisation. The 2002 FIFA World Cup was the catalyst to embrace all these goals for the future of football in Japan.

Theorising Sport Participation Legacy

Sport participation legacy as a sub-discipline in sports mega-event research has commonly been referred to as the 'demonstration effect' through which people are inspired by elite sports, athletes, or events to actively participate in sport themselves (Weed et al., 2015). The trickle-down effect traces its roots to economic literature and presents a framework to analyse economic and social issues such as inequalities of growth and wealth in capital markets. As wealth trickles down from the top (i.e., the haves) to the bottom (i.e., the have nots), either as a result of investments or a state policy of redistribution, the economy theoretically brings about a more significant opportunity for all (Aghion & Bolton, 1997).

In sport management literature, the term 'trickle-down effect' is frequently used interchangeably with 'demonstration effect' (Haut & Gaum, 2018; Hogan & Norton, 2000; Wicker & Sotiriadou, 2013). Scholars in sport management have stated that participation is an internally motivated behaviour stimulated by external forces that serve as frameworks for interpreting one's experience of elite sports, athletes, and events. As demonstrated by Weed et al. (2015), many researchers have applied the trickle-down effect to sporting contexts, primarily in two categories:

Mass Participation as Enhanced by Sports Mega-Events

Hosting sports mega-events positively raised both amateur and elite sport participation in the host countries, and it influenced their intention to participate themselves. Chen and

Henry (2016) identified the positive causal relationship between 2012 London Olympics and mass participation in non-hosting region. For example, Cleland et al. (2020) examined the impact of Glasgow Commonwealth Games 2014 on sport participation and physical activity in the host community. Frawley and Cush (2011) suggested mass rugby participation increased due to the effect of 2003 Rugby World Cup event. Kokolakakis et al. (2019) analysed the short-term sports participation legacy of the London 2012 Olympics and Paralympic Games. Misener et al. (2015) suggested the trickle-down effects of single sport events in Canada. Pappous (2011) examined the relationship between grassroot sport participation and Athens 2014 Olympic Games. Potwarka and Leatherdale (2016) suggested the trickle-down effect of Vancouver 2010 Olympics in Canada. Potwarka et al. (2018) suggested the inspiration effect of 2015 Pan Am Track Cycling Games on residents' sport participation. Ramchandani et al. (2015) identified the participation outcomes of sporting events in Britain. Veal et al. (2012) proposed the sport participation legacy of sports mega-events in Australia including 2000 Sydney Olympics. Weed et al. (2015) analysed the demonstration effect of 2012 London Olympic Games, and lastly, Wicker and Sotiriadou (2013) examined the mass sport participation effect of the 2006 Melbourne Commonwealth Games in Australia.

Mass Participation as Enhanced by Elite Athletes or Their Sporting Successes

This reason is also referred to as the *role-model effect*. Many studies have been conducted researching this effect. For example, Hogan and Norton (2000) examined the trickle-down effect caused by sporting success in Australia. Feddersen et al. (2009) proposed the term the "Boris Becker effect" or the effect of star elite tennis players on amateur tennis participation in Germany. Dunn (2016) found that elite female footballers acted as role models to raise both elite and grassroots' participation in Britain. Mutter and Pawlowski (2014) suggested that the performance of the German national football team at the World Cup

positively influenced amateur mass football participation. Frick and Wicker (2016) demonstrated longitudinally that elite success in World Cup football raised the levels of amateur football club membership in Germany. Hanstad and Skille (2010) suggested that the Norwegian biathlon team's success raised mass participation in Norway in this sport. Haut and Gaum (2018) arrived at similar conclusions regarding table-tennis in Germany, France, and Austria.

Issues and Implications of Current Research on Trickle-Down Effects

As studies on participation legacy and the trickle-down effect in sports literature increase, trickle-down theorists have begun to explore the range of the effects and how participation outcomes from mega-events should be defined and classified to allow for specific measurements (Weed et al., 2015). This has led to the exploration of the trickle-down effect pertaining to 'when', 'where', and 'how' individuals or groups in the host country are affected by mega-events (Veal et al., 2012). Examining the legacy of the 2012 London Summer Olympic Games, Weed et al. (2015) argued that an individual's participation as inspired by sports mega-events can be explained through four behavioural patterns: trying a new sport, increasing the frequency of participation, re-starting participation after a long pause, and/or switching to a new sport.

However, while some extant literature prominently promotes the concept of sport participation legacy and the benefits and efficacy of mega-events, Grix et al. (2017), Stewart and Rayner (2016), and Tomlinson (2014) explicitly articulated the relationship between the concept of legacy and sports mega-events, identified the semantic and ontological fuzziness of the legacy, and suggested that the concept of legacy does not materialise and instead is mainly used rhetorically to justify public spending, as the cost for hosting mega-events has skyrocketed and includes building non-sporting infrastructure. Thus, how to conceptualise sports mega-events' participation legacy as a trickle-down effect remains uncertain.

Another issue with the trickle-down theory from a sport participation legacy perspective is how to measure it. The need for and the importance of measurement criteria has been stated but progress has been slow. Veal et al. (2012), in their study of sports mega-events in Australia, pointed out that although an increasing number of studies have shown a trickle-down effect in a wide variety of mega-event contexts, most used secondary data and significant findings were not generated. They thus concluded that without strictly designed causality criteria for measuring a trickle-down effect, sport participation legacy is a speculation.

Annear et al.'s (2019) systematic review of sports mega-events and physical activity revealed that more than 300 articles have been published focused on participation and/or physical activity associated with hosting mega-events since 2000. However, due to the lack of appropriate survey tools, data quality, and limited usage of relevant theories effectively, they stated that the majority of the research did not investigate the relationship adequately and produce conclusive outcomes, therefore raising fundamental questions about any actual trickle-down effect. Similarly, Potwarka et al. (2018) showed in their attempt to model the demonstration effect of a sports mega-event in Canada that despite mounting empirical studies supporting the trickle-down effect, most used secondary data or lacked a causal mechanism approach. Furthermore, they proposed that when sports mega-events are characterised by behavioural changes, the psychological constructs—the *cognitive* and *affective* characteristics of residents' experiences of the events—are especially important. Therefore, although focusing on participation outcomes empirically and quantitatively measures the trickle-down effect, integrating psychological constructs into the causality between sport participation and sports mega-events is more effective when the demonstration effect is included (Potwarka et al., 2018).

Another notable work on the relationship between sports mega-events and participation is Aizawa et al.'s (2018) article on the long-term participation impact of the 1964 Tokyo Summer Olympics. It is one of the few studies based in an East Asian context. In their cohort analysis, they borrowed Stokols' (1992) social ecological model as their theoretical framework to identify the trickle-down effect of sports mega-events, as discussed in detail in the next section. Although the data were from annual physical activity surveys and not specifically designed to identify the participation impact on a specific occasion, they provide us with valuable insights into the role played by a sports mega-event in enhancing sports participation in an East Asian sporting context.

Inspiration and Nostalgia as Psychological Constructs

Inspiration and nostalgia are psychological constructs that are widely recognised to have transformative effects on consumer behaviours (Davalos & Merchant, 2015; Thrash & Elliot, 2003). These two constructs, often viewed as motivation states with behavioural outcomes, are primarily 'evoked' by external environments through emotional processing rather than induced by wilful acts through cognitive mental processing (Cho et al., 2017; Thrash & Elliot, 2003).

Inspiration

The terms *inspire* or being *inspired* are commonly used to describe being enhanced emotionally or spiritually by someone or something, and subsequently generating creative ideas or insights while not being able to explain logically how and what led to those emotional states or behavioural outcomes (Thrash & Elliot, 2003). Thrash and Elliot (2003) viewed inspiration as a motivational construct leading to behavioural outcomes, and empirically validated the construct, indicating that it is characterised by evocation, motivation, and transcendence. In other words, they concluded that inspiration is a positive

motivational state triggered by external environments, either someone or something, and that is targeted toward specific behaviours. In sport, scholars in sport management use the term inspiration as a motivational driver, to explain the degree to which sports mega-events get people to be more actively involved in physical activities or sport participation (Mutter & Pawlowski, 2014; Ramchandani et al., 2014; Weed et al., 2015).

Nostalgia

An individual's past memories often motivate him or her to take a certain course of action. This decision-making process (e.g., the motive for buying) is influenced by emotional characteristics, such as a longing for the past (Boym, 2008) and is associated with an emotional state commonly referred to as nostalgia. According to scholars (Boym, 2008; Sedikides et al., 2008), the etymological origin of the word *nostalgia,* composed of *nostos* (return) and *algos* (pain), can be traced to the ancient Greek epic poem *Odýsseia* (Homer, 2015). However, it was only in the 17th century that the term was first used in medical disciplines to describe a disease (Boym, 2008). Nostalgia was then regarded as a psychiatric disorder and later, it was labeled as a repressive compulsive disorder. Sedikides et al. (2008) found that since the late 20th century, research on nostalgia has focused on two aspects. The first is homesickness, considered as a psychological disease that needs medical treatment. The other is nostalgia as a basic human emotion that anyone can experience—a sentimental longing for one's past. In recent studies in modern psychology, the latter is believed to have some motivating potential (Rutherford & Shaw, 2011; Sedikides et al., 2008). With the progress in science and technology over the centuries, the scope and specificity in the use of nostalgia has changed vastly. Its meaning as an ailment has transformed into an individual's longing for the past, with nostalgia playing an intermediary role in assimilating a past memory into present life (Boym, 2008). Given this historical and contextual background of nostalgia, Boym (2008) suggested that contemporary pop culture has created a nostalgia

industry that brings the past back to life, making everything real to exploit it commercially. This commercial value of nostalgia was also supported by scholars in marketing management, who suggested that nostalgia creates emotions, which in turn lead to the formation of preferences and influence the buying motive in consumption behavior (Marchegiani & Phau, 2011; Pascal et al., 2002; Rutherford & Shaw, 2011; Sierra & McQuitty, 2007).

The Role of Nostalgia in the Context of sports mega-events

Sports mega-events are often viewed as a *lieu de mémoire* (Niehaus, 2011; Takahashi, 2011; Traganou, 2011), a phrase originally coined by the French historian Pierre Nora (1996), roughly translating to "realms of memory." Nora (1996) states that, "A *lieu de mémoire* is any significant entity, whether material or non-material in nature, which by dint of human will or the work of times has become a symbolic element of the memorial heritage of any community*"* (p. xvii). Through this concept, the author described the symbolic significance of past collective memory, which is responsible for forming attitude and constructing identity using the accumulated individual memories.

Takahashi (2011) employed the concept of *lieux de mémoire* in the context of sports mega events, demonstrating that memories of sports mega-events (e.g., the 2002 World Cup) influence behavioral changes by reconstructing the local and national identity of the host-countries. Accordingly, an individual's accrued experience of sports mega-events extends from a specific place (i.e., stadiums where football matches were held) to intangible "entities" (i.e., national pride, satisfaction as football fans, cheering on the streets, mingling with people, and the thrill of victory or agony of defeat). These eventually become collective memory through "collective enjoyment" and "shared experiences," which lead to changes in attitude, identity, or behavior in the host country (Hong, 2013; Lee et al., 2007; Weed, 2006). Hae-joang (2004) supported this view, describing that the 2002 FIFA World Cup presented

an opportunity to produce a collective national identity in both countries, through the experience of euphoria evoked by being together. The author concluded stating that the memory of the event remains lodged in the individuals' minds, and brings about changes in their lives even after the euphoria subsides and is forgotten; memory as a form of energy has the ability to transform a different time and space into a basis for social change.

Sports mega-events have a notable social and psychological significance. They are perceived metaphorically as places of collective memory. Furthermore, the effect of nostalgia evoked by sports mega-events is seen across both the places of collective memory as well as in the motivational forces of individual memory. Thus, sports mega-events generate collective memory, which eventually lead to behavioral changes, re-connecting cognitive and emotional states related to the past individual memory (Cho et al., 2020). As such, nostalgia is considered as a core sentiment among the motivational drivers of sports mega-events. One-off and month-long sports mega-events (whether they recur annually or every four years), provide memorable moments for individuals in host nations through a variety of tangible and intangible entities, ranging from promotional merchandise to multibillion-dollar facilities (Niehaus, 2011). However, the dynamics of collective past memories on consumers behavior, has not received adequate attention in the literature on sport spectatorship.

Nostalgia in Sport

In sports, nostalgia acts as an important communication channel with consumers, mainly found in the fields of tourism and retro marketing. In sport tourism, nostalgia has often been integrated into building the image and raising awareness of specific destinations or tourist attractions (Christou et al., 2018). The association of past memory with a readily formed image of the destination, motivates tourists to visit specific places again (Chalip & Costa, 2005; Fairley & Gammon, 2005; Zouni et al., 2020). The importance of triggering motives for future travel, derived from past memories has been gaining attention, ever since

the tourism industry became important for economic growth in many countries (Hingham & Hall, 2005). The goal from the commercial point of view, is to bring as many tourists as possible to specific destinations or events, specifically targeting those who have previously visited or are revisiting the destination (Zouni et al., 2020). To realize this, tourism stakeholders are making substantial efforts to create an attractive destination image, expecting it to productively associate with tourists' future intention to revisit the destination (Chalip & Costa, 2005; Chang et al., 2019; Ulvnes & Solberg, 2016). Therefore, the tourism industry markets images that stimulate tourists to revisit specific locations or attractions, using the various tangible and intangible assets of the destination, such as physical attributes, location, logo, artefacts, etc. (Fairley et al., 2018; Fairley & Gammon, 2005; Kim, 2018). Moreover, in the field of tourism management, Christou et al. (2018) recently proposed that although nostalgia, as a motive for travel, has the potential to make people revisit a certain destination, tourism stakeholders actively operationalize this emotional state by not letting nostalgia act on its own. Instead, they construct deliberate nostalgic settings to enhance tourists' revisit intentions effectively.

Similarly, the sport consumer marketing industry considers nostalgic feelings among consumers as a key retaining strategy (Brown, 1999; Cattaneo & Guerini, 2012; Marchegiani & Phau, 2011; Pascal et al., 2002). Commonly referred to as *retro marketing,* this strategy is used by professional sport teams, leagues, and media houses. They incorporate elements from the past into their marketing strategies, involving images, merchandising, venues, promotions, and advertising, to communicate with fans, suggesting that nostalgic feelings evoked by objects or past experiences generate a positive influence on consumer responses (Scola & Gordon, 2018). For example, the recent television (TV) documentary miniseries, *The Last Dance*, on Netflix, an over-the-top (OTT) service platform, featured one of the most popular NBA (National Basketball Association) teams in the United States (US), the Chicago

Bulls. We believe that it was a good example of how the media exploited nostalgia in their corporate strategy to increase their ratings and licensing revenues. It is apparent that both tourism and consumer behavior domains use nostalgia as a core element of their marketing communication, acknowledging it as an effective means of influencing consumer behavior (Pascal et al., 2002). In both domains, nostalgia is seen to have cognitive and affective states, evoked by external stimuli. This generates strong positive responses, leading to behavioral changes (Cattaneo & Guerini, 2012; Fairley & Gammon, 2005, Marchegiani & Phau, 2011; Scola & Gordon, 2018).

The Conceptualization of Nostalgia in Leisure Activity and Sport

Owing to the intrinsic characteristics of nostalgia, in its engagement with various external stimuli within an individual's cognitive and affective mental processing, sport tourism disciplines have started to identify the antecedents of nostalgia empirically. They analyze the manner, time, and circumstance under which nostalgia is evoked. The empirical approach conceptualizes nostalgia and establishes a foundation for its understanding in the context of sport tourism (Cho et al., 2014).

In an attempt to evaluate nostalgia empirically, Cho et al. (2019) developed a leisure nostalgia scale (LNS) by integrating Fairley & Gammon's (2005) conceptualization of nostalgia in sport tourism. The LNS was categorized based on the following antecedents most relevant to engendering nostalgic feeling: *experience, environment, socialization, personal identity, and group identity* (Cho et al., 2019; Cho et al., 2020). When an LNS was applied to and implemented across research on sport and leisure, it was found that nostalgia, as a multidimensional psychological construct, has motivational effects on an individual's behavioral changes (Cho et al., 2019; Cho et al., 2020). Based on the principle of stimulus and responses in human behavior (Mehrabian & Russel 1974), Cho et al. (2019) concluded

that nostalgia evoked by external stimuli, such as experience, environment, socialization, and personal and group identity, influences an individual's future behavioral reaction.

Nostalgia as an experience. It is assumed that an individual's past experience with sports teams and players, and their event experience as spectators, including cheering for teams, players, or coaches can cause nostalgia, as evoked by sports mega-events.

Nostalgia as an environment. Nostalgia as a leisure environment accounts for an individual's psychological attachment to physical and emotional objects, such as places, facilities, equipment, and atmosphere (i.e., weather).

Nostalgia as socialization. The third component of nostalgia is socialization. In other words, nostalgia can be evoked by relationship-building experiences, when people interact with others during sports mega-events (i.e., they make new friends, share information with friends, or cheer for their teams together).

Nostalgia as a personal identity. This component assumes that the experience of following sport events, players, coaches, or teams generates self-identity for a fan. This eventually evokes nostalgia, in association with past memory.

Nostalgia as group identity. The last component of nostalgia is group identity, wherein people sharing the same norms and values achieve a sense of belonging. This bonding, often called the "band of brothers' or sisters' effect" generates collective memory, which, in turn, influences group nostalgic sentiment. However, in the context of international sports mega-events, the authors conceptualize this element as a national identity by expanding the scope of the meaning of "group."

Inspiration vs. Nostalgia

Inspiration and nostalgia are opposing psychological constructs in some ways. Hinsch et al. (2020) suggested that inspiration mainly involves breaking out of existing mental maps whereas nostalgia rebuilds dormant or neglected mental maps. In other words, the former

focuses on the future to create something while the latter focuses on the past by remembering something (Cho et al., 2019; Thrash et al. 2017). Similarly, Rutherford and Shaw (2011) showed that the original usage of nostalgia had negative connotations such as homesickness, melancholy, or depression, but its meaning over time changed to a general longing for the past with positive connotations (Davis, 1979). Nostalgia is defined as 'a yearning to return to or relive a past period' (Fairley & Gammon, 2005, p. 183). Significantly, just as inspiration is evoked through emotions (Thrash & Elliot, 2004), nostalgia is evoked by external stimuli (i.e. objects, people, or events) involving motivational states, which then influences behaviour (Ford et al., 2018; Wartiovaara et al., 2019). In an attempt to develop a scale for nostalgia in leisure contexts, Cho et al. (2019) suggested that nostalgia can be broken down into five factors: leisure experience, environment, socialisation, personal identity, and group identity. Thus, the commonality between inspiration and nostalgia, especially in leisure and marketing contexts, is that both are motivating factors for specific behaviours and play a crucial role as external stimuli. However, inspiration's influence on behavioural outcomes is proximal (closer in time) while nostalgia's is distal (further away in time) (Böttger et al., 2017; Cho et al., 2019). In other words, inspiration is posited to have two component processes—being inspired *by* an evocative object, and being inspired *to* do something—and these two processes maintain continuity between antecedents and consequences (Böttger et al., 2017; Hinsch et al., 2020; Thrash & Elliot, 2003, 2004). In contrast, with many variables covering a period of time between the antecedents and consequences, an experience that evokes nostalgia or nostalgia as a motivational state can be discontinuous and have different behavioural outcomes (Cho et al., 2019; Fairley & Gammon, 2005).

Conceptualisation of Inspiration in Trickle-Down Effects

As two of the key conceptual frameworks of the study, *inspiration* and *trickle-down effect,* seem similar and have been used interchangeably in the literature on the sport

participation legacy of sports mega-events, it is necessary to separate the two concepts for this study. They are similar in terms of their influential force to motivate people to behave in a specific way in sport participation. However, I separate inspiration from trickle-down effect in this study for two reasons. First, inspiration is an emotional state in which one is motivated by any stimulus not only relevant to sport but also non-sport items (Thrash & Elliot, 2003). Meanwhile, the trickle-down effect can be described as a process within which people start to play or participate in sports or physical activities influenced by mega-events, sports stars, or the sporting success of their preferred team or league or nations (Weed et al., 2015). Second, based on the sequential order in which each occurs, inspiration can be described as an antecedent of a specific behaviour or action, and trickle-down effect as a consequence of outer stimulus. If we use the term inspiration to signify the meaning of trickle-down, as Ramchandani and Coleman (2012) proposed, the hybrid term *inspirational effect* would be appropriate. Thus, in the present study, I separated the two terms to clarify the meaning of each based on their role in the causal relationship between mega-events and participation.

Sport Spectatorship as Sport Consumer Behaviour

Figuratively speaking, sport as a leisure activity can be viewed as a set of fraternal twins, meaning modern sport has developed with two distinctive behavioural patterns: participant sport and spectator sport (Shamir & Ruskin, 1984). In other words, each has different qualities when it comes to its actualisation: motives, attitudes, and determinants (Dawson & Downward, 2002; Lera-Lopez & Rapun-Garate, 2011; McDonald et al., 2002). Stone (1971) suggested that since participatory sport and spectator sport are different in nature, these two activities have different antecedents and consequences, especially motivational factors. However, scholars such as Zillmann et al. (1989), and Kenyon and McPherson (1973) proposed that there is a relationship between participation and spectator

behaviour interacting with each other, such that the former can play the role of the antecedent for the latter, and vice-versa.

Elias and Dunning (2008) in their research on the socio-historical development of sport as a leisure activity suggested these two intrinsic ambivalences of sport: '…from these earlier days, the term sport was never confined to participant sport alone: it always included contests undertaken for the enjoyment of spectators, and the principal physical exertion could be that of animals as well as humans' (p. 8). However, when sports became marketable products or services by generating profits and through professionalisation (Elias & Dunning, 2008; Guttman, 1986) these two behavioural patterns were merged under the concept of the market, and became segments of specific consumption. From the early 1990s, this distinction became the industrial norm in the two broad segments of the sport market and developed separately as independent industry segments and market practices based on different socioeconomic characteristics of suppliers and consumers, corporate involvement, and media habits and attitudes (Burnett et al., 1993). Henderson (2009) recently conceptualised these two activities in the sport management context: as each behaviour is constituted at the two opposite ends of the spectrum of sport as active leisure, spectator sport can be referred to as "organised entertainment" while participant sports can refer to participants' "physical exertion" in leisure activities (p. 59). Furthermore, Funk et al. (2016) proposed, when defining sport as a driver for consumer behaviours, for both participatory sport and spectator sport, that using sport consumer segments and relevant consumer experiences could help identify motivational and behavioural components, which can differ based on segmentation.

Sports mega-events in the 21st century, as Horne (2007) suggested, have been regarded the most commercially motivated sport spectacles supported by global sponsors, media, local governments, and international governing bodies, which closely and strongly influence sport consumption behaviours such as participation and spectatorship. Therefore,

drawing on the categorisation of sport based on relevant literature above, our study posited that the legacy of sports mega-events includes not only participation effects but also spectatorship ones. Although sport event legacy in the context of mega-events focuses only on participation in host countries, considering that the inherent features of sport include both participatory and spectator aspects, it obviously makes sense to examine the effects of sports mega-events on both participation and spectatorship, to provide sports marketers or policymakers with a better understanding of how sports mega-events comprehensively change host countries' behavioural patterns of sport consumption. Therefore, the hypothetical models of this study were divided into two parts, based on these two sport behavioural outcomes of sports mega-events: Study 1 examines participation outcomes, and Study 2 spectatorship outcomes.

Chapter 3 Study 1

Hypothetical Model

Based on the literature review and theoretical frameworks above, this study argues that the inspiration evoked by the FIFA 2002 World Cup positively influences nostalgia, the host country's football participation, and parental encouragement for their children's football participation (hereafter referred to as parental influence). Additionally, the present study examined another variable as an outcome of sports mega-events, football spectatorship. Spectatorship in this context means individuals' way of consuming football contents such as watching it on TV or the internet or watching football match(es) in stadiums. Shamir and Ruskin (1984) conceptualised spectatorship patterns as active and passive spectatorship: *active spectatorship* is consuming sport content directly by attending an event at a stadium, whereas *passive spectatorship* is consuming sport content indirectly through various media such as TV or radio (we modified the range of media to include contemporary technology such as the internet and mobile devices as well).

Hypothetical Assumption

The hypothetical model for this study describes the relationships among the two multidimensional variables of inspiration and nostalgia (i.e. inspiration is composed of intensity and frequency, and nostalgia is composed of the sub-dimensions of experience, environment, socialisation, personal identity, and national identity), as well as three outcome variables (i.e. immediate football participation, present football participation, and parental influence).

While the model is useful to explain how inspiration affects immediate and present football participation, nostalgia, and parental influence, the present study did not examine how nostalgia affects immediate football participation because the time difference between

the time occurrence of nostalgia and immediate football participation cannot be rationalised in the empirical social science domain. The nostalgic feelings that the present study tried to measure as a consequence of the 2002 FIFA World Cup were believed to arise long after the event, based on the aforementioned definition of nostalgia, whereas when it comes to immediate participation, the present study is trying to measure something occurring immediately after an event ends, something that immediately follows and is inspired by it.

Scant research seems to have been conducted to define and conceptualise either when inspiration exactly occurs after its antecedent or when nostalgia exactly occurs after its antecedent. However, I can infer this sequential order from existing research on inspiration and nostalgia, enough to make my assumption reliable. Harding (2012) suggested in his study of anecdotal evidence of the most prominent figures of all time in world history, that most great works of art, such as poems, novels, or music compositions, were created by those inspired by some sort of supernatural powers or creative ideas, and that most of the work was done 'right after' they were inspired. The origin of nostalgia, on the other hand, comes from the Greek root composed of *nostos* (return) and *algos* (pain), which can be traced back to Homer's (2015) ancient Greek epic poem *Odýsseia*, whose main character, Odysseus, makes a long journey following his side's victory in the Trojan War. The voyage sailing back to his native land is interspersed with a series of adventures; it is, thus, a mythical metaphor for the human desire to return home not only physically, but also emotionally and spiritually.

Psychological Distance Between Stimulus and Reaction

When I apply this somewhat anecdotal approach to the social science domain for empirical research purposes, I can conceptualise that inspiration has a proximal intrinsic value whereas nostalgia has distal intrinsic value (Böttger et al., 2017; Cho et al., 2019; Hinsch et al., 2020; Thrash et al., 2017). This means that inspiration involves a relatively shorter psychological distance between stimulus and reaction than nostalgia (Böttger et al., 2017).

Therefore, in this study, it is safe to conceptualise from the time differences between the trigger point of inspiration and nostalgia, that inspiration is followed by nostalgia. Accordingly, I can assume the logical sequential order of the relationships among other constructs such as immediate football participation, present football participation, and parental influence.

I conceptualise the distance between the inspirational motive and its behavioural outcome as *immediate sport participation*, meaning that the inspiration evoked by the sports mega-event caused an immediate temporary influence on football participation at the time. Likewise, I conceptualise the distance between the nostalgic motive or immediate sport participation, and its behavioural outcome, as *present sport participation,* meaning that nostalgia evoked by a sports mega-event or previous sport participation leads to participation that continues into the present through certain variables' interventions, such as the memory of the experience, environment, socialisation, and national or personal identities.

Summarising the sequential order of the relationship among the constructs this study identifies, the logical flow will be as follows: *2002 FIFA World Cup* $\rightarrow$ *inspiration* $\rightarrow$ *immediate football participation* $\rightarrow$ *present football participation* or *nostalgia* $\rightarrow$ *parental influence.* Inspiration will be the exogenous construct and the other four target constructs will be endogenous variables, which interplay with each other as mediators. Thus, I present the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1.1: Inspiration has a positive influence on immediate football participation in host countries.

Hypothesis 1.2: Inspiration has a positive influence on present football participation in host countries.

Hypothesis 1.3: Inspiration has a positive influence on nostalgia in host countries.

Hypothesis 1.4: Nostalgia has a positive influence on present football participation in host countries.

Hypothesis 1.5: Immediate football participation has a positive influence on present football participation in host countries.

Hypothesis 1.6: Immediate football participation has a positive influence on nostalgia.

Sport Participation as a Trickle-Down Outcome of Sports Mega-Events

According to Weed et al. (2015), there are four common types of sport participation outcomes from the trickle-down effect of sports mega-events: an increase in participation frequency, starting a new sport, re-starting a sport after a lapsed period, and switching sports.

Given the global popularity of football, I focus this research on increased participation frequency. As Elias and Dunning (2008) outlined, association football, originating in England, has one of the longest histories of organised sports. It has developed and evolved throughout modern history, and is a global phenomenon in that almost everyone has played football at least once, even informally. It is therefore unreasonable to attempt to determine the outcomes of all four of Weed et al.'s (2015) outcomes, such as switching sports. Instead, this study adds a crucial variable in the Asian context, that of parental influence on the football participation of their children. From a consumer socialisation perspective, Funk et al. (2016) suggested that families play an important role in children's decision-making processes, especially ones related to participation in a sport. Thus, most children are introduced to a sport during their preschool or elementary school years by a parent (Babkes &Weiss, 1999). For example, a father's influence on children's socialisation into football is particularly prominent in Europe (Carvalho et al., 2015). Furthermore, the importance of family is more visible and intense in East Asia than in many other regions (Bomhoff & Gu, 2012). Therefore, a parent's involvement in children's sport participation is an important variable in examining the participation legacy of sports mega-events. Therefore, I hypothesise the following:

Hypothesis 1.7: Inspiration has a positive influence on parental influence in host countries.

Hypothesis 1.8: Nostalgia has a positive influence on parental influence in host countries.

Hypothesis 1.9: Immediate football participation has a positive influence on parental influence in host countries.

Hypothesis 1.10: Present football participation has a positive influence on parental influence in host countries.

Since the proposed hypothetical path modelling is based on a time sequential order and such variables may influence each other within the model, I predict that, a) present football participation can be triggered by inspiration through nostalgia or immediate football participation, and b) parental influence can also be triggered by various ways through nostalgia and immediate football participation. Thus, I further hypothesise the following:

Hypothesis 1.11: Nostalgia and/or immediate football participation mediate the relationship between inspiration and present football participation.

Hypothesis 1.12: *Immediate football participation, nostalgia, and/or present football participation mediate the relationship between inspiration and parental influence.*

Additionally, since one of the objectives of this study is to conduct a cross-cultural analysis between South Korea and Japan to identify the co-hosting countries' behavioural changes, I examine the moderating effect for group comparison based on, a) how active spectatorship (on-site) of the 2002 FIFA World Cup differs from passive spectatorship (television or online) according to Shamir and Ruskin's (1984) spectatorship classification; and b) the cultural differences between South Korean residents and Japanese residents (Byon et al., 2014). Therefore, I propose the following additional hypotheses:

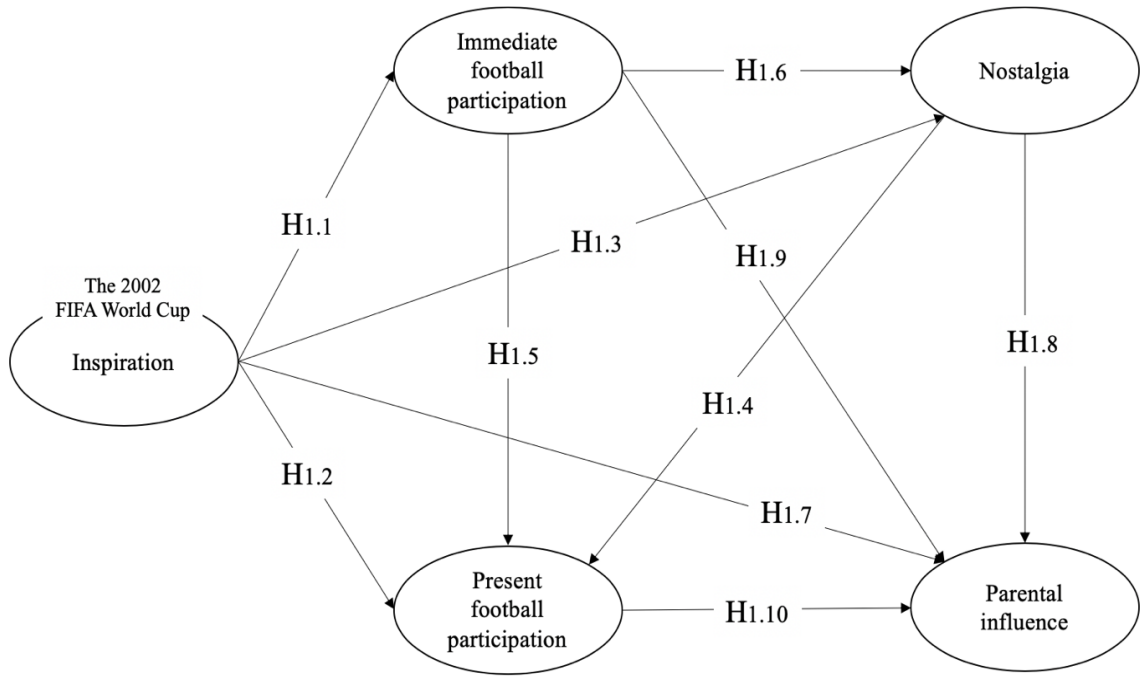
Hypothesis 1.13: Stadium experience (active spectatorship) influences the hypothesised path model.

Hypothesis 1.14: Nationality influences the hypothesised path model.

Figure 3.1 illustrates the hypothetical path model among the variables adopted in this study. This illustrates the hypothetical path model among the variables in this study. Inspiration is an exogenous variable here, while nostalgia, immediate football participation, present football participation, and parental influence are endogenous variables. H1.1 to H1.10 represent direct effects. H1.11 and H1.12 represent mediating effects. H1.13 represents the moderating effect of active vs. passive spectatorship, and H1.14 the moderating effect of nationality.

Figure 3.1

Hypothetical Path Model



H1.11 ~ H1.12 Mediating effect
H1.13 Moderating effect (Active vs. passive spectatorship)
H1.14 Moderating effect (Nationality)

Research Design and Methods

Samples and Measures

For the present study's questionnaire survey, I recruited online panel companies specialising in consumer research in both South Korea and Japan. These are significantly high-level research companies with a good reputation and degree of credibility for their work on extensive and diversified panels in each country. Further, regarding anonymity and informed consent, at the beginning of the questionnaire survey, it was explained that the individual respondents would not be identified, and it was possible to refuse to answer, as the respondents decided whether or not to participate in the survey. Regarding research ethics approval from an institutional body, the present study did not necessarily have to obtain approval from the institute I am affiliated with because my survey questionnaires met the following conditions under the ethical research policy set out by my institute: the respondents cannot be identified by any means; there was no physical or mental intervention or invasion of the subject.

An online questionnaire was administered to 829 participants from both countries (412 Japanese and 417 South Korean). The present study only focuses on male participation since data on female football participation was limited in 2002, especially from South Korea. This was primarily because female football participation at a mass level was still at a nascent stage then, although its popularity was growing. Respondents were asked to measure key constructs on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Although the 2002 World Cup was a landmark sports mega-event, believed to be well remembered by individuals in those countries (Beige & Axhausen, 2008), two types of screening questions were administered to eliminate possible recall problems before the survey, leaving us with 829 eligible respondents such as the present interests in football and three recall tests of the 2002 FIFA Worl Cup (i.e., hosting countries, a winner and the final result of South Korea and

Japan). Also recall aids in the form of 2002 World Cup trivia were placed at the beginning of the survey (Krosnick et al., 2009).

The translation checks for the scales were conducted to minimize discrepancies between the original English version, and the translated Korean and Japanese. The authors first translated the English items into Korean and Japanese. Two Korean and two Japanese bilingual researchers then checked accuracy of the translated scales. Furthermore, two bilingual researchers of Korean and Japanese checked difference in meaning between the Korean and the Japanese scales. As results, although a few minor changes were recommended, they all demonstrated that there was no major difference in meaning between two versions of the assigned scales. The authors thus revised several vocabulary terms.

Descriptions of the items for all constructs in the hypothetical model are in Table 3.1 and Appendix A. All respondents were adult males, that is, older than 19 in June 2002, and presently married with children. The sample was limited to adults as the present study focused on adult sport participation, and how their spectatorship patterns were influenced by sports mega-events and in turn influenced their encouragement of their children's sport involvement. Further, participants played football at least once a year from June 1996 to May 2002, representing the dates from the public announcement of the co-hosting decision to the finals. Table 3.2 summarises the sample's characteristics. Notably, as of 2019, in both Japan and South Korea, males aged 45–49, accounted for 4% of the population, the highest proportion in each country's demographic structure.

Table 3.1

Key Constructs and Scales

Constructs	Description	Original source for adaptation	Remarks
Inspiration	2 subdimensions with 8 indicators: intensity and frequency	Thrash and Elliot, 2003	Inspired-by & inspire-to are also included
Nostalgia	5 subdimensions with 22 indicators: mega-events experience, environment, socialisation, personal identity, and national identity	Cho et al., 2019	Modified for sports mega-events contexts
Immediate football participation	2 indicators: duration and frequency right after the 2002 World Cup	Shamir and Ruskin, 1984	Modified for single-sport contexts
Present football participation	2 indicators: duration and frequency at present	Shamir and Ruskin, 1984	Modified for single-sport contexts
Parental influence	3 indicators: advocacy, involvement, and role model	Babkes and Weiss, 1999	Modified for grassroots sport participation contexts

Table 3.2

Descriptive Statistics of Sample Characteristics

Variable	Description	Frequency (%) Total	Frequency (%) Japan	Frequency (%) South Korea
Gender	Male	829	412	417
Age	*M*	36	45	44
	SD	6.952	7.986	5.040
	Min	36	36	36
	Max	78	78	58
Age range	30s	143 (17.2%)	57 (13.8%)	86 (20.6%)
	40s	468 (56.5%)	201 (48.8%)	267 (64.0%)
	50s	175 (21.1%)	111 (10.4%)	64 (15.3%)
	60s~	43 (5.2%)	43 (10.4%)	0 (0%)
Spectatorship pattern	Active (on-site) spectatorship	234 (28.2%)	110 (13.8%)	124 (29.7%)
	Passive (TV) spectatorship	595 (71.8%)	302 (73.3%)	293 (70.3%)
Football club membership	Yes	344 (41.5%)	227 (55.1%)	117 (28.1%)
	No	485 (58.5%)	185 (44.9%)	300 (71.9%)

Note. M = mean. *SD* = standard deviation.

Data Analysis

Partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) was used to analyse the hypothesised model using Smart PLS 3.0. PLS-SEM is commonly used for a causal modelling approach to maximise the variance associated with endogenous constructs (Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2016). Different from the covariance-based structural equation modelling (CB-SEM) based on a maximum likelihood estimation method, PLS-SEM is commonly employed when the research objective is prediction and theory development rather than theory testing and confirmation (Hair et al., 2012; Richter et al., 2016). Therefore, PLS-SEM has become widely used in marketing and business research given its flexibility in terms of almost unlimited assumptions on the model specification and higher statistical power (Hair et al., 2012; Sosik et al., 2009). Given the exploratory nature of the hypothesised model rather than the confirmation of an established theory, the PLS-SEM approach is suitable for finding the connections or relationships among variables (Tenenhaus et al., 2005).

Measurement Evaluation

Table 3.3 shows that respondents in both samples collectively show higher levels of mean scores for inspiration on each item at *frequency* and *intensity*, both of which exceed 5 or are close to 6 on the 7-point scale. Before assessing the measurement model, as a prerequisite stage for evaluating the structural model, it is important as a first step to verify the measurement specifications, whether the relationship between a construct and its indicators is a formative or reflective measurement model, since different assessment protocols are applied to each model (Hair et al., 2016; Hair et al., 2017; Latan et al., 2017). Hair et al. (2016) summarised how to handle this issue, explaining that when developing constructs, if the direction of the arrows in the relationship goes from the construct to the indicators—the indicators cause the construct in the measurement model—then this type of model is referred

to as a *reflective* measurement model, whereas if the arrows goes the other way, from the indicators to the construct—the indicators are caused by the construct—it is referred to as a *formative* measurement model (Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001). Although statistics scholarship separates these differences conceptually in empirical evidence, according to Hair et al. (2016), there are no clear-cut definitions of the two measurement assessment models since constructs are not inherently reflective or formative.

Drawing on Hair et al. (2016)'s criteria of statistical direction for defining measurement models, all measurements in this study were defined as reflective since all the indicators' items are caused by each construct—inspiration, immediate and present football participation, and parental influence—except nostalgia. In nostalgia, for example, each indicator under the five different subdimensions seemed to be a series of triggers that cause nostalgia, indicating that each causal indicator forms the constructs (Cho et al., 2019; Hair et al., 2016), and thus nostalgia constructs were assessed by a formative measurement model. From traditional PLS-SEM perspectives on deciding the measurement model in the social sciences, it is commonly accepted to check the causal relationship between the constructs and its indicators (Hair et al., 2016). Therefore, the nostalgia construct in this study was examined with the formative measurement model. However, different criteria were suggested by scholarship, such as whether the construct explains the indicators, or the construct is a combination of the indicators (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982), or if items in the construct are mutually interchangeable (Jarvis et al., 2003). Due to this controversy about defining the measurement model, I faced an issue while defining the measurement model for the nostalgia construct. In order to avoid the ambiguity of the measurement model evaluation, the present study alternatively considered both approaches in terms of assessing the nostalgia scale in its measurement model. Therefore, I first examined the nostalgia construct via a reflective measurement approach, followed by a formative one, while testing the measurement model.

Figure 3.2 and 3.3 display both the causality (cause → effect) between the indicators and the constructs in the measurement models in PLS-SEM design.

For the reflective measurement models, internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability [CR]), convergent validity (indicator reliability and average variance extracted [AVE]), and discriminant validity were tested. For the formative measurement model, especially the nostalgia construct, convergent validity, and collinearity between indicators and outer weights were tested. Internal consistency reliability need not be analysed in formative models since it is not necessary for formative indicators to covary (Hair et al., 2016).

Table 3.3

Internal Consistency Reliability and Convergent Validity Analysis

Latent Variable	Indicators	*M*	*SD*	Loadings	α	CR	AVE
Inspiration	IF1	6.209	1.075	.866	.937	.948	.696
	IF2	6.074	1.129	.877			
	IF3	6.21	1.023	.844			
	IF4	5.299	1.397	.72			
	II1	6.142	1.063	.875			
	II2	6.087	1.12	.881			
	II3	6.139	1.053	.862			
	II4	5.279	1.423	.731			
Nostalgia	NX1	5.873	1.123	.703	.964	.967	.571
	NX2	5.795	1.18	.777			
	NX3	5.474	1.239	.776			
	NE1	5.907	1.113	.752			
	NE2	5.174	1.575	.701			
	NE3	4.655	1.665	.66			
	NS1	5.478	1.349	.744			
	NS2	5.567	1.234	.784			
	NS3	5.129	1.492	.726			
	NS4	5.211	1.396	.748			
	NS5	5.428	1.356	.752			
	NP1	5.79	1.171	.717			
	NP2	5.639	1.236	.773			
	NP3	5.679	1.213	.747			
	NP4	5.607	1.235	.772			
	NP5	5.673	1.207	.751			
	NN1	5.253	1.392	.777			
	NN2	5.476	1.391	.756			
	NN3	5.89	1.138	.796			
	NN4	5.813	1.188	.791			
	NN5	5.834	1.184	.8			
	NN6	5.726	1.259	.798			
Immediate football participation	IPT	5.03	1.675	.967	.932	.967	.937
	IPF	4.918	1.73	.968			
Present football participation	PPT	3.872	2.025	.932	.825	.919	.851
	PPF	4.023	1.964	.912			
Parental influence	PIA	4.645	1.854	.87	.732	.85	.657
	PII	5.11	1.79	.867			
	PIR	5.649	1.29	.679			

Note. M = mean. *SD* = standard deviation. α = Cronbach's alpha. CR = composite reliability. AVE = average variance extracted. α and CR greater than .7 indicate high internal consistency reliability. AVE greater than .5 indicates convergent validity.

Figure 3.2

Reflective Measurement Model

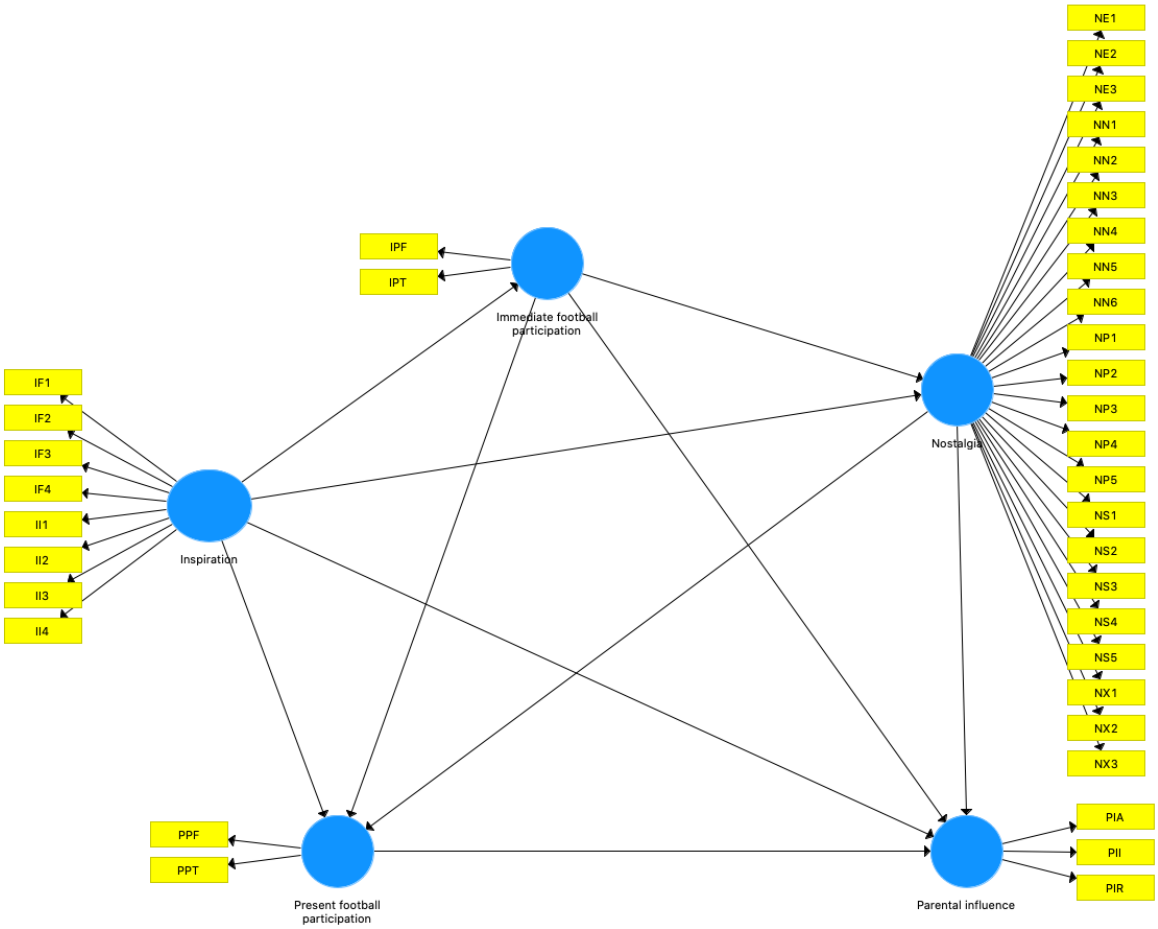
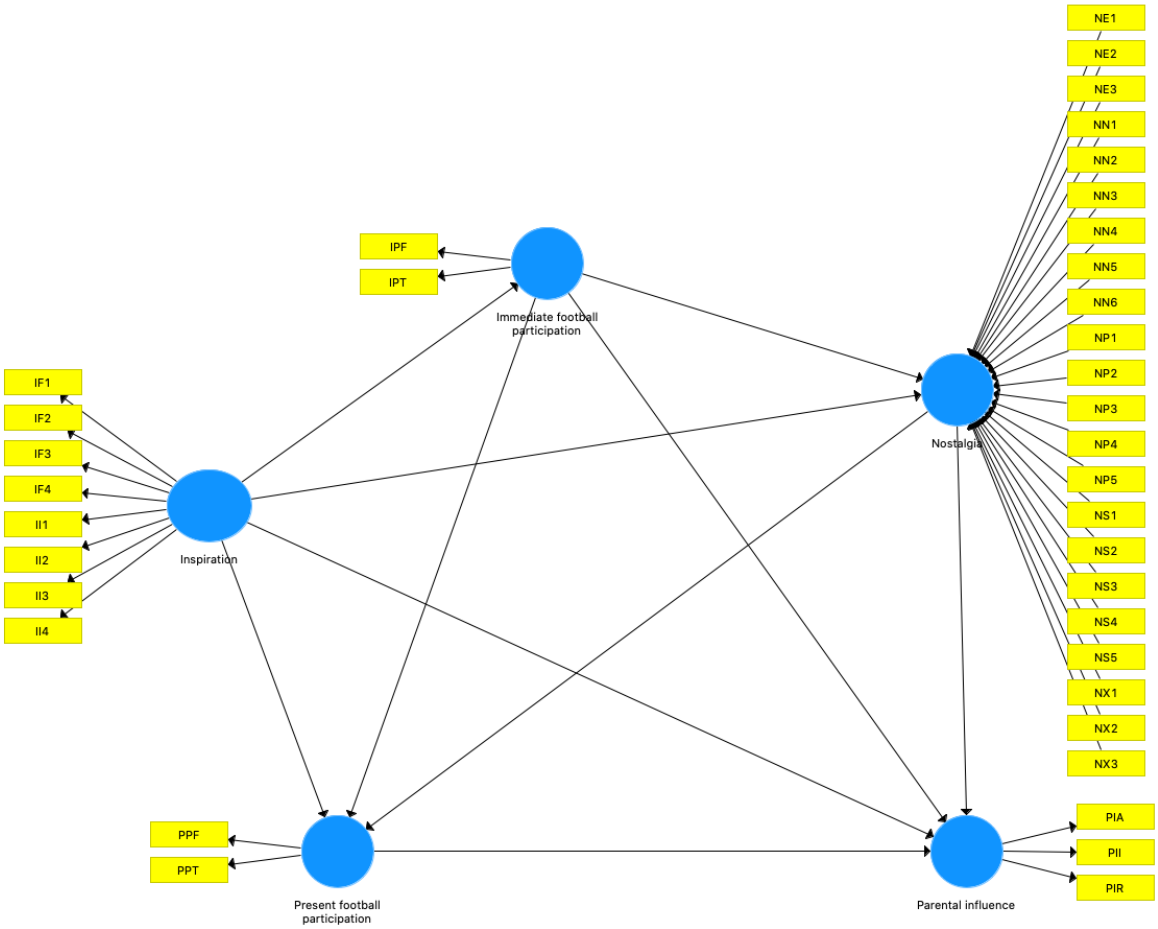


Figure 3.3

Mixed Measurement Model



Results

Reflective Measurement Model

From the reflective measurement perspective, first, I tested the reliability and validity of the constructs. As shown in Table 3.3, the results of the outer loadings were above or close to the threshold value of .7, which suggests that all indicators are reliable. Further, all the values of both Cronbach's alpha and the composite reliability exceeded the commonly recommended .7 threshold, which confirms higher internal consistency reliability. All the constructs showed AVE values above .5, which indicates convergent validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). In order to analyse the discriminant validity, as a next step, I tested cross-loadings, the Fornell-Larcker criterion, and the heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT). As shown in Table 3.4, the square roots of the AVE were higher than the constructs' highest correlation with any other construct in the model, which satisfied the Fornell-Larcker criterion (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Further, HTMT values, as seen in Table 3.4, indicated that all constructs were lower than the most conservative threshold value of .85 (Hair et al., 2016). Lastly, the indicator's outer loadings on the assigned construct are higher than all its cross-loadings with other constructs (see Appendix B). Thus, all constructs indicate discriminant validity.

Table 3.4

Discriminant Validity Assessment

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
1. Inspiration	**.834**				
2. Nostalgia	.751 [.788]	**.755**			
3. Immediate football participation	.485 [.499]	.537 [.565]	**.968**		
4. Present football participation	.35 [.372]	.417 [.462]	.634 [.719]	**.922**	
5. Parental influence	.407 [.473]	.323 [.382]	.324 [.385]	.454 [.582]	**.81**

Note. AVE = average variance extracted. HTMT = heterotrait-monotrait ratio. The numbers on the diagonal in bold are the square roots of AVE; the off-diagonal numbers are the latent variable correlations; the numbers in square brackets represent HTMT. AVE greater than .5 indicates convergent validity; HTMT less than .85 indicates discriminant validity.

Mixed Measurement Model (Formative and Reflective)

For evaluating the mixed measurement model, with both formative and reflective measurements, it is only required to establish the measures' convergent validity, test the indicators' collinearity, and analyse the indicators' relative and absolute contributions with their significance (Hair et al., 2016). Given the nature of the mixed measurement model, that nostalgia was a formatively measured construct while the other constructs remained reflective, I focused only on the formative indicator's outer weights instead of internal consistency assessment such as composite reliability and AVE, which are required for the reflective measurement model (Hair et al., 2016). Additionally, reflective constructs in this model were reassessed based on reflective measurement protocols. As shown in Table 3.5, all the reflective constructs were above the critical value of .5 for AVE, and above the critical threshold of .7 for Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability values. Additionally, all the outer loadings of the reflective constructs were above the recommended threshold of .7, which supported the measures' convergent validity and internal consistency reliability. In terms of the discriminant validity, the cross-loadings in Appendix C showed the reflective constructs' discriminant validity as reflective indicator loadings are higher than all its cross-loadings with

other constructs. The Fornell-Larcker criterion in Table 3.6 showed that the constructs discriminate well. When formative constructs are in the measurement model, AVEs of formative constructs should not be compared with the correlations (Hair et al., 2016), therefore only the reflective constructs' square roots of AVEs were compared with all latent variable correlations.

Additionally, the HTMT ratio in Table 3.6 was less than .85, supporting the most conservative threshold criteria for discriminant validity (Henseler et al., 2015). The results of the reflective measures showed that all constructs and indicators are statistically reliable and valid. To evaluate the formative construct, I examined the formative construct's convergent validity by checking the formative indicators' variance inflation factor (VIF) value and the significance and relevance of the outer weights. As shown in Table 3.5, the collinearity of the nostalgia indicator's VIF value is lower than the threshold of 5.0, suggesting collinearity did not reach critical levels in the formative constructs. Furthermore, although most of the outer weights of the nostalgia construct were not significant, shown in Table 3.5, as the *p* values of only four indicator loadings (NX1, NX2, NE2, and NP3) were below .001, the corresponding outer loadings of nostalgia were higher than .5, which suggested all the indicators should be retained (Hair et al., 2016).

Given the results of the reflective measurement model and the mixed measurement model, all the constructs, whether formative or reflective, proposed satisfactory levels of quality. Therefore, it is statistically safe to proceed with the evaluation of the structural model.

Table 3.5

Mixed Measurement Model Analysis

Latent variables	Indicators	Loadings	Outer weights		Outer VIF	α	CR	AVE
			Original	*p*				
Inspiration	IF1	.866	.139	0	4.468	.937	.948	.696
	IF2	.877	.144	0	4.852			
	IF3	.844	.131	0	3.82			
	IF4	.72	.186	0	3.611			
	II1	.875	.14	0	5.166			
	II2	.881	.145	0	5.066			
	II3	.862	.139	0	4.289			
	II4	.731	.189	0	3.643			
Nostalgia	NX1	.703	.125	0	2.254	N/A	N/A	N/A
	NX2	.777	.011	0	2.659			
	NX3	.776	.127	.977	2.425			
	NE1	.752	-.001	.275	2.496			
	NE2	.701	.057	0	2.302			
	NE3	.66	.26	.972	2.172			
	NS1	.744	.028	.325	2.716			
	NS2	.784	.056	.825	2.569			
	NS3	.726	.09	.329	2.838			
	NS4	.748	.108	.047	2.782			
	NS5	.752	-.139	.592	2.711			
	NP1	.717	.105	.076	2.733			
	NP2	.773	-.007	.91	2.913			
	NP3	.747	.255	0	3.018			
	NP4	.772	.076	.178	3.063			
	NP5	.751	.164	.008	3.133			
	NN1	.777	-.002	.659	2.324			
	NN2	.756	.058	.346	2.688			
	NN3	.796	-.012	.129	2.867			
	NN4	.791	.061	.073	3.342			
	NN5	.8	-.116	.026	3.045			
	NN6	.798	-.031	.029	3.386			
Immediate football participation	IPT	.967	.514	.841	4.206	.932	.967	.937
	IPF	.968	.52	.016	4.206			
Present football participation	PPT	.932	.565	0	1.973	.825	.919	.851
	PPF	.912	.519	0	1.973			
Parental influence	PIA	.87	.461	0	1.956	.732	.85	.657
	PII	.867	.398	0	2.061			
	PIR	.679	.372	0	1.198			

Note. VIF = variance inflation factor

Table 3.6

Discriminant Validity Assessment (Mixed Measurement Model)

	1	2	3	4	5
1 Inspiration	**.833**				
2 Nostalgia	.742				
3 Immediate football participation	.49 [.499]	.561	**.968**		
4 Present football participation	.356 [.372]	.469	.634 [.372]	**.922**	
5 Parental influence	.411 [.473]	.382	.325 [.385]	.455 [.582]	**0.81**

Note. AVE = average variance extracted. HTMT = heterotrait-monotrait ratio. The numbers on the diagonal in bold are the square roots of AVE; the off-diagonal numbers are the latent variable correlations; the numbers in square brackets represent HTMT. AVE greater than .5 indicates convergent validity; HTMT less than .85 indicates discriminant validity.

Structural Model Evaluation (Direct Effects)

By assessing the measurement models, I confirmed that the construct measures were reliable and valid. As a next step, I examined the hypothesised model's predictive capabilities and the relationships among the constructs. Based on a bias-corrected and accelerated (BCa) bootstrap interval, and completely bootstrapping with 5,000 resamples, the direct effects of H1.1 to H1.10 were analysed without considering mediating and moderating effects. According to Henseler et al. (2015), this model exhibited ample goodness-of-fit (SRMR = .074). As shown in Figure 3.4, inner VIF values of all combinations of endogenous constructs and corresponding exogenous constructs are below .5, thus, collinearity among exogenous constructs is not a critical issue in this hypothetical model (Hair et al., 2016).

In terms of the coefficients of determination (R^2) evaluation representing the amount of explained variance of the endogenous constructs in the structural model (Hair et al., 2016), the R^2 values of the endogenous latent variables, present football participation (.411) and nostalgia (.603), were considered moderate while R^2 values of immediate football participation (.235) and parental influence (.281) were rather weak; however, all were statistically significant. Further, the effect size of Cohen's f^2 values for all combinations of

endogenous variables and corresponding variables showed in Table 3.7 that the influence of inspiration on immediate football participation (.307), inspiration on nostalgia (.793), immediate football participation on present football participation (.397), immediate football participation on nostalgia (.098), inspiration on parental influence (.074), and present football participation on parental influence (.132) fell within the range for medium and large effect size while the rest of the relationships had no effects (Cohen, 2013).

Figure 3.4

Inner VIF values

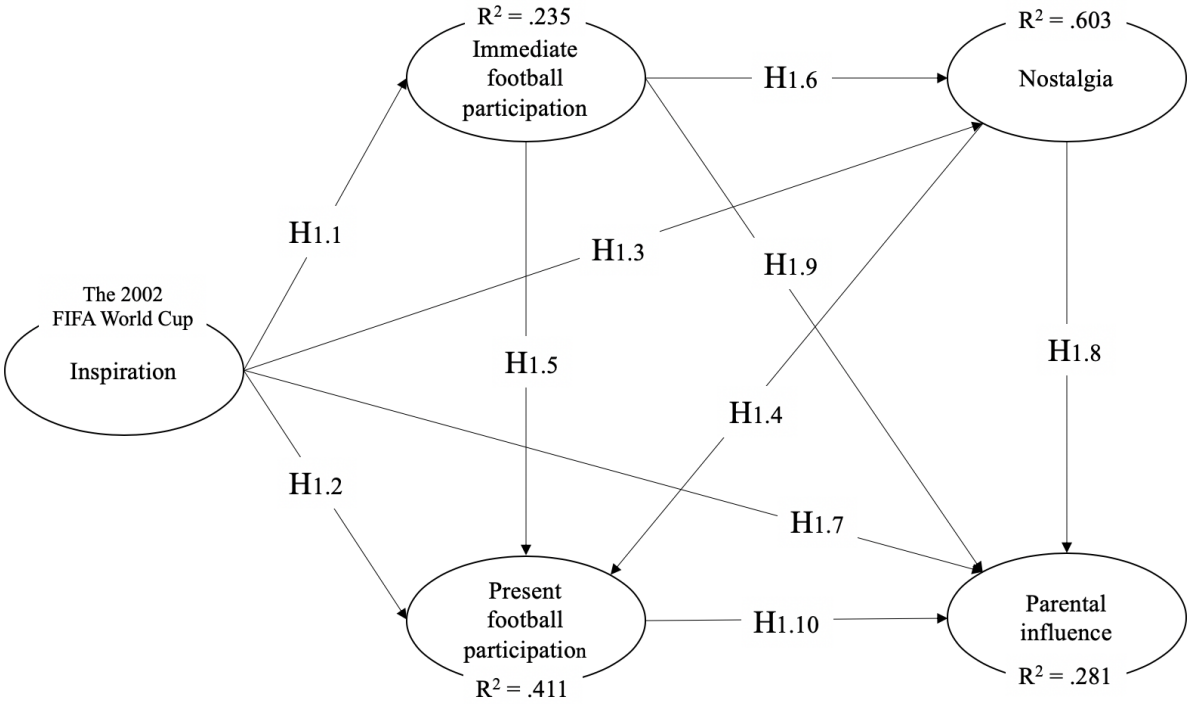


Table 3.7 showed that most of the proposed hypotheses were statistically confirmed except for three paths. The results suggested a positive and statistically significant effect of inspiration on immediate football participation (.485, $p < .001$, $f^2 = .307$), supporting H1.1. Inspiration did not have a positive and significant influence on present football participation, failing to support H1.2. However, the effects of inspiration both on nostalgia (.64, $p < .001$, f^2

= .793) and parental influence (.352, $p < .001$, $f^2 = .074$) were positive and statistically significant. Thus, H1.3 and H1.7 were supported. Nostalgia had a positive and statistically significant relationship with present football participation (.124, $p < .01$, $f^2 = .010$), supporting H1.4. Contrary to my expectations, the relationship between nostalgia and parental influence was not statistically significant, failing to support H1.8. I also confirmed that the effects of immediate football participation on nostalgia (.226, $p < .001$, $f^2 = .098$) and present football participation (.579, $p < 001$, $f^2 = .397$) were statistically significant whereas the effect of immediate football participation on parental influence was not statistically significant, thus H1.5 and H1.6 were supported, but H1.9 was not. Lastly, present football participation was positively and significantly associated with parental influence (.401, $p < .001$, $f^2 = .132$), supporting H1.10.

Table 3.7

Structural Model Results (Direct Effects)

Hypothesis	Hypothetical relationship	Path coefficient	*p*	Bias-corrected 95% confidence interval	f^2	Hypothesis supported
H1.1	Inspiration → Immediate football participation	.485	<.001	[0.419, 0.54]	.307	Yes
H1.2	Inspiration → Present football participation	-.023	.579	[-0.103, 0.061]	.000	No
H1.3	Inspiration → Nostalgia	.64	<.001	[0.578, 0.697]	.793	Yes
H1.4	Nostalgia → Present football participation	.124	.006	[0.037, 0.213]	.010	Yes
H1.5	Immediate football participation → Present football participation	.579	<.001	[0.518, 0.637]	.397	Yes
H1.6	Immediate football participation → Nostalgia	.226	<.001	[0.161, 0.291]	.098	Yes
H1.7	Inspiration → Parental influence	.352	<.001	[0.254, 0.453]	.074	Yes
H1.8	Nostalgia → Parental influence	-.076	.151	[-0.175, 0.031]	.003	No
H1.9	Immediate football participation → Parental influence	-.060	.228	[-0.159, 0.039]	.002	No
H1.10	Present football participation → Parental influence	.401	<.001	[0.323, 0.481]	.132	Yes

Note. $f^2 \geq 0.02$, $f^2 \geq 0.15$, and $f^2 \geq 0.35$ represent small, medium, and large effect sizes, respectively (Cohen, 2013).

Mediation Effects Analysis (Indirect Effects)

Next, I analysed the mediation effects by bootstrapping the sampling distribution of the indirect effect (Hair et al., 2016). To test the mediation effects (H1.11a to H1.12b in Table 3.8), the four endogenous latent variables (nostalgia, immediate football participation, present football participation, and parental influence) were examined for their path effects between inspiration and parental influence. As shown in Table 3.8, the indirect effects of *inspiration → immediate football participation → present football participation* (H1.11a) and *inspiration → nostalgia → present football participation* (H1.11b) were statistically significant (.281*** and .079**). Since the path coefficient from inspiration to present football participation was not statistically significant (–.023) (see Table 3.7), nostalgia and immediate football participation completely mediate the relationship between inspiration and present football participation. Thus, H1.11a and H1.11b were supported as full mediation effects (see Table 3.8).

Additionally, given that each path coefficient for *inspiration → immediate football participation → present football participation → parental influence* was statistically significant (.113***), immediate football participation and present football participation partially mediate the path from inspiration to parental influence; each respective path for *inspiration → immediate football participation* (.485***)*, immediate football participation → present football participation* (.579***)*,* and *present football participation → parental influence* (.401***) was statistically significant (see Table 3.7). Thus, H1.12a was supported as a partial mediation effect. Similarly, since the path coefficient for *inspiration → nostalgia → present football participation → parental influence* was statistically significant (.032*)*,* nostalgia and present football participation partially mediate the effect of inspiration on parental influence; each respective path for *inspiration → nostalgia* (.64***)*, nostalgia → present football participation* (.124**)*,* and *present football participation → parental*

influence (.401***) was statistically significant. Thus, H1.12b was supported as a partial mediation effect (see Table 3.8).

Table 3.8

Mediation Effects Analysis (Indirect Effect)

Hypothesis	Hypothetical relationships	Path coefficients	*p*	Bias-corrected 95% confidence interval	Hypothesis supported
H1.11a	Inspiration → Immediate football participation→ Present football participation	.281	<.001	[0.229,0.332]	Full mediation
H1.11b	Inspiration → Nostalgia → Present football participation	.079	.007	[0.024, 0.138]	Full mediation
H1.12a	Inspiration → Immediate football participation → Present football participation → Parental influence	.113	<.001	[0.083, 0.147]	Partial mediation
H1.12b	Inspiration → Nostalgia → Present football participation → Parental influence	.032	<.05	[0.01, 0.059]	Partial mediation

Group Comparison

Spectatorship Experience and Nationality Differences

To test group comparison (World Cup spectatorship experience and nationality), moderating variables were used to compare groups in the hypothesised path modelling (Hair et al., 2016; Sanchez, 2013). Given that data on spectatorship patterns during the 2002 World Cup and nationality were available (Table 3.2), I examined whether there were differences between on-site spectatorship and TV watching, and between Korean and Japanese spectators. Table 3.9 and 3.10 illustrate the moderation effects of spectatorship patterns and nationality. As shown in Table 3.9, among all path coefficients between active spectatorship and passive spectatorship data, only two paths, from inspiration to immediate football participation (.148, $p < .05$) and from immediate football participation to nostalgia (–.191, $p < .05$) show statistical differences. Regardless of nationality, among individuals who watched a game(s) during the 2002 World Cup event at the stadium, the more one was inspired by the game(s), the higher the participation in football immediately after the event. Furthermore, among individuals who watched the game(s) on television or other media, more had nostalgic feelings. However, although these two paths were statistically significant, the path coefficients were lower than .2, and the effects seemed to be weak. As shown in Table 3.10, among all path coefficients between the Korean and Japanese samples, two paths, those from inspiration to immediate football participation (.22, $p < .5$) and immediate football participation to nostalgia, showed significant statistical differences (–.209, $p < .5$). In other words, the more Koreans were inspired by the 2002 FIFA World Cup, the more they were involved with football participation right after the event. Additionally, the more the Japanese were involved with football participation immediately after the 2002 World Cup, the more nostalgic they felt compared to Koreans.

Table 3.9

Difference between Active Spectatorship and Passive Spectatorship

Path coefficient differences (H1.13)	Path Coefficients diff (AS - PS)	Path Coefficients (AS)	Path Coefficients (PS)	*p*	Hypothesis supported
Inspiration → Immediate football participation	**.148**	**.76**	**.612**	**.039**	**Yes**
Inspiration → Present football participation	-.078	.291	.368	.534	No
Inspiration → Nostalgia	.154	.036	-.118	.219	No
Nostalgia → Present football participation	.086	.448	.363	.347	No
Immediate football participation → Present football participation	-.107	.501	.608	.146	No
Immediate football participation → Nostalgia	**-.191**	**.066**	**.257**	**.01**	**Yes**
Inspiration → Parental influence	-.043	.44	.483	.638	No
Nostalgia → Parental influence	.184	.244	.061	.107	No
Immediate football participation → Parental influence	-.118	-.144	-.026	.24	No
Present football participation → Parental influence	.045	.009	-.037	.668	No

Note. AS = Active spectatorship, PS = Passive spectatorship

Table 3.10

Difference between South Korean and Japanese samples

Path coefficient differences (H1.14)	Path Coefficients-diff (KOR - JPN)	Path Coefficients (KOR)	Path Coefficients (JPN)	*p*	Hypothesis supported
Inspiration → Immediate football participation	**.22**	**.788**	**.568**	**<.001**	**Yes**
Inspiration → Present football participation	-.094	.24	.334	.341	No
Inspiration → Nostalgia	.078	.042	-.036	.44	No
Nostalgia → Present football participation	.148	.467	.319	.057	No
Immediate football participation → Present football participation	-.002	.573	.575	.977	No
Immediate football participation → Nostalgia	**-.209**	**.07**	**.279**	**<.001**	**Yes**
Inspiration → Parental influence	-.041	.464	.505	.56	No
Nostalgia → Parental influence	.073	.188	.115	.437	No
Immediate football participation → Parental influence	.024	.045	.021	.794	No
Present football participation → Parental influence	-.142	-.127	.014	.156	No

Note. KOR = Korean nationality, JPN = Japanese nationality

Discussion

The claim that sports mega-events inspire residents in host countries to be more active in sport is commonly used to justify hosting these events. Sport management scholars have only recently tried to identify the relationship between mega-events and inspiration (Ramchandani & Coleman, 2012; Ramchandani et al., 2014), using proper scales and relevant theoretical frameworks (Potwarka et al., 2018; Weed et al., 2015) focusing on whether individuals are inspired, and what participation outcomes are produced.

These studies have proposed that inspiration does have causal connections and that this relationship stimulates sport participation. In line with previous research, by examining the causal relationship between inspiration and sport participation, the present study supports the inspirational effect of mega events, especially on substantial behavioural changes in sport participation (Potwarka et al., 2018). However, a novel finding of this study, which has not been empirically examined to date, is that inspiration evoked by mega events has a limited lifespan and degree of influence in enhancing sport participation in a host country.

Nostalgia is also widely used, especially in leisure and marketing contexts, as a strong motivational force that can be utilised through either manipulated messages or unconscious encounters (Cho et al., 2019; Fairley & Gammon, 2005). However, in terms of mega-events, few studies have examined the causal connection between nostalgia and sport participation. Combining the two psychological constructs of inspiration and nostalgia, the present study empirically identifies the causal connection between sports mega-events and participation legacy, and how, when, and what behavioural changes result from sports mega-events. Additionally, leveraging the uniqueness of both a co-hosted World Cup event and its first appearance in Asia, the present study cross-culturally analyses the same sports mega-event for post-event sport participation effects by looking at spectatorship contexts in the respective host countries.

The present study indicates that in terms of adult football participation, trickle-down effects from the 2002 World Cup exist in both South Korea and Japan. This is in line with previous research undertaken by Weed et al. (2015) that the World Cup influences already active football participants. In examining how specific psychological constructs stimulate behavioural changes, I found that football participation, especially shortly after the World Cup, was increased through inspiration evoked by this sports mega-event (Potwarka et al., 2018; Ramchandani & Coleman, 2012; Ramchandani et al., 2014). However, this inspiration did not maintain its effect long enough to influence present football participation, confirming that inspiration as a motivational force positively changes sport participation behaviour but only as a temporary and proximal effect (Böttger et al., 2017). Current football participation is maintained by two motivational forces, nostalgia and football participation shortly after the World Cup, which in this context is four years after 2002. Nostalgia evoked by the World Cup experience itself, the environment, atmosphere, socialisation, and national identity all played a role in motivating current football participation.

Additionally, mega events motivate residents to encourage their children's football participation, which is stimulated by a combination of inspiration, nostalgia, and present football participation. This indicates that parental influence on sport participation is not decided by a single factor but multiple variables. Accordingly, sports mega-events play a crucial role in children's sport participation. Therefore, the present study verifies that a football participation legacy has been generated by the World Cup and continues with individuals' own present participation as well as their children's football participation.

Although this research does not show significant differences between the South Koreans and the Japanese in terms of participation, there are two separate paths: a) from inspiration to immediate football participation, and b) from immediate football participation to nostalgia. The South Korean samples have slightly higher values on path a) whereas the

Japanese samples have slightly higher values on path b). This means that for South Koreans, the more they were inspired by the World Cup, the greater their immediate football participation. On the other hand, the path to feel and experience nostalgia between the Korean samples and the Japanese sample was somewhat different; the Japanese samples were more through immediate football participation compared to South Korean samples. This may be attributed largely to the results of the World Cup. South Korea advanced to the semi-final for the first time since first appearing in the World Cup in 1954. Meanwhile Japan, which made its World Cup debut in 1998, only advanced to the round of 16. Therefore, the inspirational effect in South Korea is believed to have been more frequent and intense during the tournament, leading to wider immediate football participation later (Hae-joang, 2004; Cho et al., 2019).

The 2002 World Cup has widely influenced both host nations' sport participation regardless of the cultural backgrounds and sport histories (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2004a). The FIFA World Cup is indeed a global phenomenon in terms of its impact on participation in the sport by inspiring both participation during the event and participation afterward through evoked nostalgic feelings, which consequently leads to the next generation of football participation (Giulianotti, 2019).

Another unexpected result was that, in comparison with active spectatorship, passive spectatorship during the World Cup did not exhibit any significant differences. This may be because the variety of broadcast platforms allow for significant consumption of the event, regardless of physical attendance (Boyle, 2014). Furthermore, in Japan and South Korea, the event was largely driven by the central government and broadcasts were available across both countries, in homes and public places, such as outdoor squares and pubs (Horne, 2005). This indicates that the consumption of sports mega-events across diverse media platforms should be encouraged to generate a greater participation legacy.

Chapter 4 Study 2

Hypothetical Model

Based on the literature review and theoretical frameworks above, this study argues that inspiration evoked by the FIFA 2002 World Cup positively influences nostalgia, the host country's football spectatorship, and parental encouragement for their children's football participation (or parental influence). Therefore, as previously examined in Study 1, all the concepts, notions, definitions, and assumptions for Study 2 were posited the same as for Study 1. However, sport participation was replaced with sport spectatorship. In terms of the definition and measurement of sport spectatorship, I used Shamir and Ruskin (1984)'s scale of two modes of leisure behaviours, duration and frequency, same as the participation scale in Study 1. Thus, I present the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2.1. Inspiration has a positive influence on immediate football spectatorship in host countries.

Hypothesis 2.2. Inspiration has a positive influence on present football spectatorship in host countries.

Hypothesis 2.3. Inspiration has a positive influence on nostalgia in host countries.

Hypothesis 2.4. Nostalgia has a positive influence on present football spectatorship in host countries.

Hypothesis 2.5. Immediate football spectatorship has a positive influence on present football participation in host countries.

Hypothesis 2.6. Immediate football spectatorship has a positive influence on nostalgia.

Hypothesis 2.7. Inspiration has a positive influence on parental influence in host countries.

Hypothesis 2.8. Nostalgia has a positive influence on parental influence in host countries.

Hypothesis 2.9. Immediate football spectatorship has a positive influence on parental influence in host countries.

Hypothesis 2.10. Present football spectatorship has a positive influence on parental influence in host countries.

Hypothesis 2.11. Nostalgia and/or immediate spectatorship participation mediate the relationship between inspiration and present football spectatorship.

Hypothesis 2.12. Immediate football spectatorship, nostalgia, and/or present football spectatorship mediate the relationship between inspiration and parental influence.

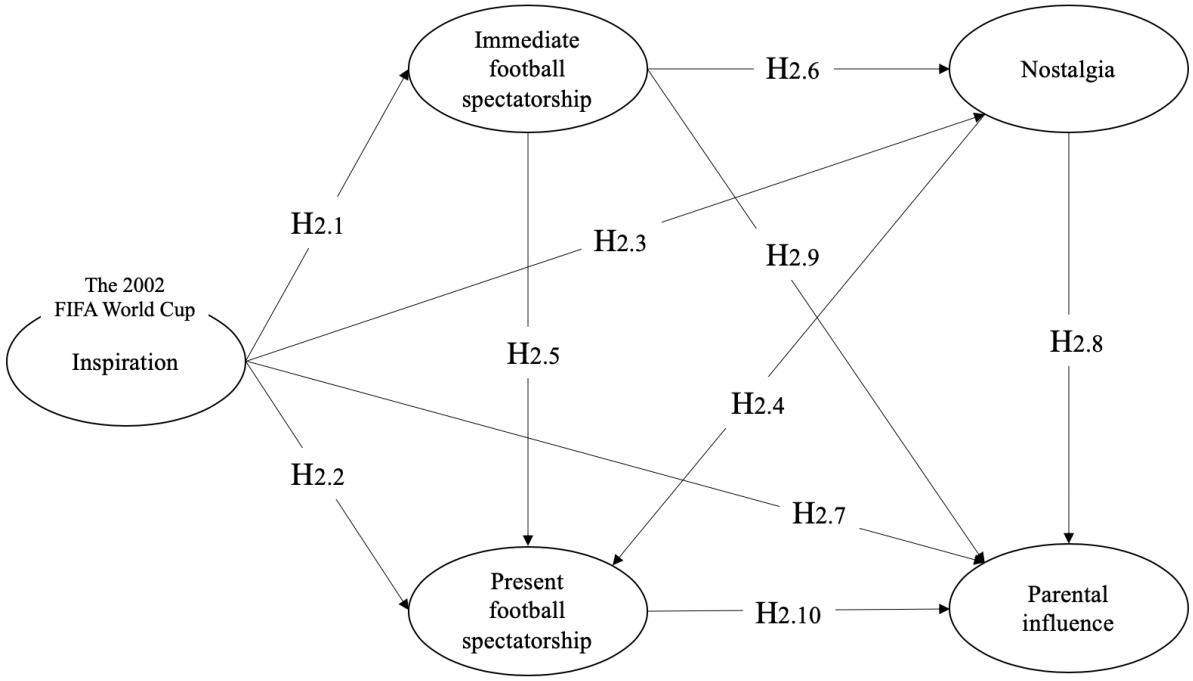
Hypothesis 2.13. Stadium experience (active spectatorship) influences the hypothesised path model.

Hypothesis 2.14. Nationality influences the hypothesised path model.

Figure 4.1 illustrates the hypothetical path model among variables adopted in this study: inspiration, nostalgia, immediate football spectatorship, present football spectatorship, and parental influence. This illustrates the hypothetical path model among the variables in this study. Inspiration is an exogenous variable here, while nostalgia, immediate football spectatorship, present football spectatorship, and parental influence are endogenous variables. H2.1 to H2.10 represents direct effects respectively. H2.11 and H2.12 represent mediating effects. H1.13 represents the moderating effect of active vs. passive spectatorship, and H1.14 the moderating effect of nationality. Also, as same as Study 1, Figure 4.2 and 4.3 display the causality between the indicators and the constructs in the measurement models in PLS-SEM design.

Figure 4.1

Hypothetical Path Model



H2.11 ~ H2.12 Mediating effect
H2.13 Moderating effect (On-site watch vs. other media)
H2.14 Moderating effect (Nationality)

Figure 4.2

Reflective Measurement Model

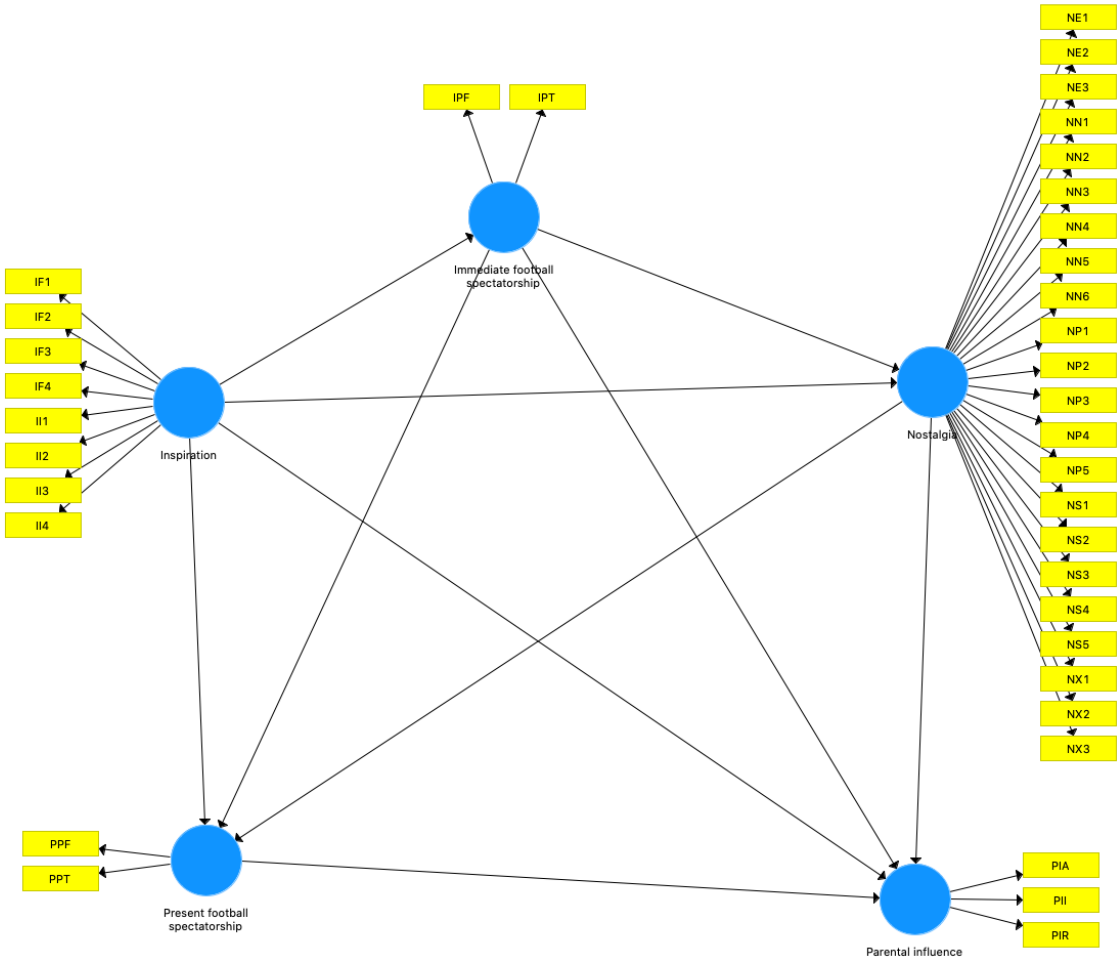
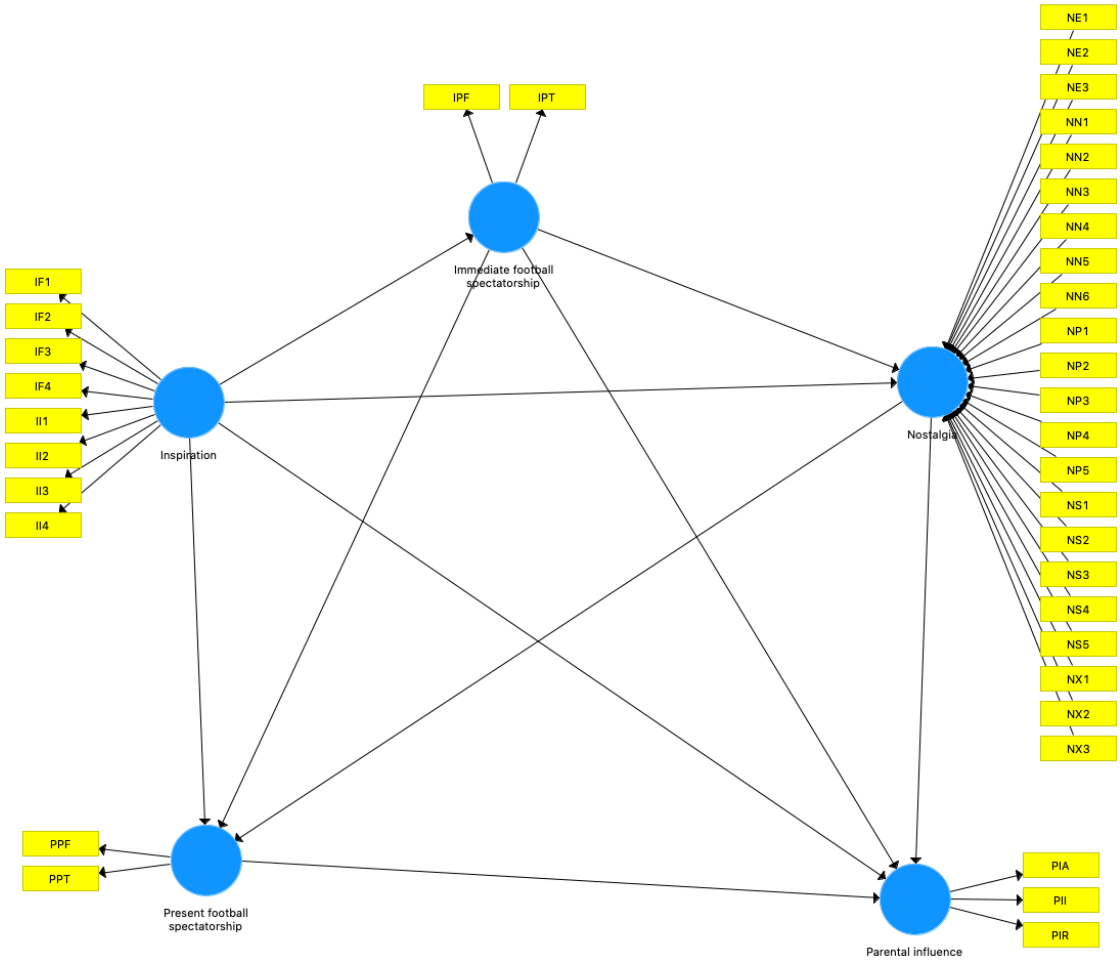


Figure 4.3

Mixed Model Measurement



Research Design and Methods

Samples and Measures

The same samples that were tested in Study 1 were used for Study 2. Descriptions of the items for all constructs in the hypothetical model are in Table 4.1 and Appendix A. For detailed sample characteristics, please refer to Table 3.2.

Table 4.1

Key Constructs and Scales

Constructs	Description	Original source for adaptation	Remarks
Inspiration	2 subdimensions with 8 indicators: intensity and frequency	Thrash and Elliot, 2003	Inspired-by & inspire-to are also included
Nostalgia	5 subdimensions with 22 indicators: mega-events experience, environment, socialisation, personal identity, and national identity	Cho et al., 2019	Modified for sports mega-events contexts
Immediate football participation	2 indicators: duration and frequency right after the 2002 World Cup	Shamir and Ruskin, 1984	Modified for single-sport contexts
Present football participation	2 indicators: duration and frequency at present	Shamir and Ruskin, 1984	Modified for single-sport contexts
Parental influence	3 indicators: advocacy, involvement, and role model	Babkes and Weiss, 1999	Modified for grassroots sport participation contexts

Data Analysis

As in Study 1, PLS-SEM was used to analyse the hypothesised model with Smart PLS 3.0.

Results

Reflective Measurement Model

From a reflective measurement perspective, first, I tested the reliability and validity of the constructs. As shown in Table 4.2, the results of the outer loadings were above or close to the threshold value of .7, suggesting that all indicators are reliable. Further, all the values of both Cronbach's alpha and the composite reliability exceeded the commonly recommended .7 threshold, confirming high internal consistency reliability. All the constructs showed AVE values above .5, indicating convergent validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Furthermore, as shown in Table 4.3., the values of the square roots of the AVE satisfied the Fornell-Larcker criterion, the HTMT values were below .85, and the indicator's outer loadings on the assigned construct were higher than all its cross-loadings with other constructs (see Appendix D), indicating discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 4.2

Internal Consistency Reliability and Convergent Validity Analysis

Latent variables	Indicators	M	SD	Loadings	a	CR	AVE
Inspiration	IF1	6.209	1.075	.875	.937	.949	.700
	IF2	6.074	1.129	.884			
	IF3	6.21	1.023	.854			
	IF4	5.299	1.397	.698			
	II1	6.142	1.063	.885			
	II2	6.087	1.12	.889			
	II3	6.139	1.053	.871			
	II4	5.279	1.423	.709			
Nostalgia	NX1	5.873	1.123	.71	.964	.967	.571
	NX2	5.795	1.18	.781			
	NX3	5.474	1.239	.775			
	NE1	5.907	1.113	.758			
	NE2	5.174	1.575	.692			
	NE3	4.655	1.665	.649			
	NS1	5.478	1.349	.739			
	NS2	5.567	1.234	.784			
	NS3	5.129	1.492	.717			
	NS4	5.211	1.396	.741			
	NS5	5.428	1.356	.747			
	NP1	5.79	1.171	.762			
	NP2	5.639	1.236	.797			
	NP3	5.679	1.213	.794			
	NP4	5.607	1.235	.802			
	NP5	5.673	1.207	.802			
	NN1	5.253	1.392	.711			
	NN2	5.476	1.391	.77			
	NN3	5.89	1.138	.752			
	NN4	5.813	1.188	.777			
	NN5	5.834	1.184	.757			
	NN6	5.726	1.259	.78			
Immediate football spectatorship	IST	5.03	1.675	.968	.928	.965	.933
	ISF	4.918	1.73	.964			
Present football spectatorship	PST	3.872	2.025	.922	.748	.886	.796
	PSF	4.023	1.964	.861			
Parental influence	PIA	4.645	1.854	.86	.732	.85	.657
	PII	5.11	1.79	.867			
	PIR	5.649	1.29	.692			

Note. M = mean. *SD* = standard deviation. α = Cronbach's alpha. CR = composite reliability. AVE = average variance extracted. α and CR greater than .7 indicate high internal consistency reliability. AVE greater than .5 indicates convergent validity.

Table 4.3

Discriminant Validity Assessment

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
1 Inspiration	**.837**				
2 Nostalgia	.755 [.788]	**.755**			
3 Immediate football spectatorship	.515 [.549]	.532 [.561]	**.966**		
4 Present football spectatorship	.468 [.551]	.472 [.547]	.69 [.804]	**.892**	
5 Parental influence	.396 [.473]	.322 [.382]	.304 [.365]	.427 [.576]	**.81**

Note. AVE = average variance extracted. HTMT = heterotrait-monotrait ratio. The numbers on the diagonal in bold are the square roots of AVE; the off-diagonal numbers are the latent variable correlations; the numbers in square brackets represent HTMT. AVE greater than .5 indicates convergent validity; HTMT less than .85 indicates discriminant validity.

Mixed Measurement Model (Formative and Reflective)

As shown in Table 4.5, all the reflective constructs were above the critical value of .5 in AVE, and above the critical threshold of .7 for Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability values. Additionally, all the outer loadings of reflective constructs were above the recommended threshold of .7, which supported the measures' convergent validity internal consistency reliability.

In terms of the discriminant validity, the cross-loadings in Appendix E showed the reflective constructs' discriminant validity as reflective indicator loadings are higher than all its cross-loadings with other constructs. The Fornell-Larcker criterion in Table 4.4 showed that the constructs discriminate well (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Additionally, the HTMT ratio in Table 4.4, supports the most conservative threshold criteria of discriminant validity (Henseler et al., 2015). The results of reflective measures showed that all constructs and indicators are statistically reliable and valid.

As shown in Table 4.5, the collinearity of the nostalgia indicator's VIF value is lower than the threshold of 5.0, suggesting collinearity did not reach critical levels in the formative constructs. Further, although most outer weights of the nostalgia construct were not

significant, as shown in Table 4.5, as the *p* value of only one indicator loading (NP3) was below .001, the corresponding outer loadings of nostalgia were higher than .5, which suggested that all the indicators should be retained (Hair et al., 2016). Given the results from the reflective measurement model and the mixed measurement model, all the constructs, whether formative or reflective, proposed satisfactory levels of quality. Therefore, it was statistically safe to proceed with the evaluation of the structural model.

Table 4.4

Discriminant Validity Assessment (Mixed Measurement Model)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5
1 Inspiration	**.836**				
2 Nostalgia	.771				
3 Immediate football spectatorship	.516 [.549]	.52	**.966**		
4 Present football spectatorship	.469 [.551]	.51	.51 [.804]	.892	
5 Parental influence	.398 [.473]	.379	.379 [.365]	.427 [.576]	.81

Note. AVE = average variance extracted. HTMT = heterotrait-monotrait ratio. The numbers on the diagonal in bold are the square roots of AVE; the off-diagonal numbers are the latent variable correlations; the numbers in square brackets represent HTMT. AVE greater than .5 indicates convergent validity; HTMT less than .85 indicates discriminant validity.

Table 4.5

Mixed Measurement Model Analysis

Latent variables	Indicators	Loadings	Outer weights		Outer VIF	α	CR	AVE
			Original	*p*				
Inspiration	IF1	.874	.146	0	4.468	.937	.949	.7
	IF2	.884	.149	0	4.852			
	IF3	.854	.14	0	3.82			
	IF4	.699	.16	0	3.611			
	II1	.884	.149	0	5.166			
	II2	.888	.151	0	5.066			
	II3	.871	.148	0	4.289			
	II4	.709	.16	0	3.643			
Nostalgia	NX1	.761	.159	.004	2.254	N/A	N/A	N/A
	NX2	.759	.018	.742	2.659			
	NX3	.79	.148	.007	2.425			
	NE1	.738	.064	.278	2.496			
	NE2	.608	-.014	.785	2.302			
	NE3	.634	.139	.007	2.172			
	NS1	.685	.073	.236	2.716			
	NS2	.735	.064	.277	2.569			
	NS3	.626	-.01	.869	2.838			
	NS4	.677	.029	.637	2.782			
	NS5	.652	-.053	.413	2.711			
	NP1	.816	.19	.001	2.733			
	NP2	.752	-.062	.3	2.913			
	NP3	.867	.276	0	3.018			
	NP4	.742	.03	.572	3.063			
	NP5	.844	.189	.003	3.133			
	NN1	.616	.001	.984	2.324			
	NN2	.689	.075	.209	2.688			
	NN3	.677	.039	.472	2.867			
	NN4	.708	.067	.249	3.342			
	NN5	.643	-.104	.088	3.045			
	NN6	.679	-.064	.263	3.386			
Immediate football spectatorship	IPT	.968	.532	0	3.999	.928	.965	.933
	IPF	.964	.504	0	3.999			
Present football spectatorship	PPT	.923	.637	0	1.554	.748	.886	.795
	PPF	.859	.479	0	1.554			
Parental influence	PIA	.855	.452	0	1.956	.732	.85	.656
	PII	.859	.386	0	2.061			
	PIR	.706	.4	0	1.198			

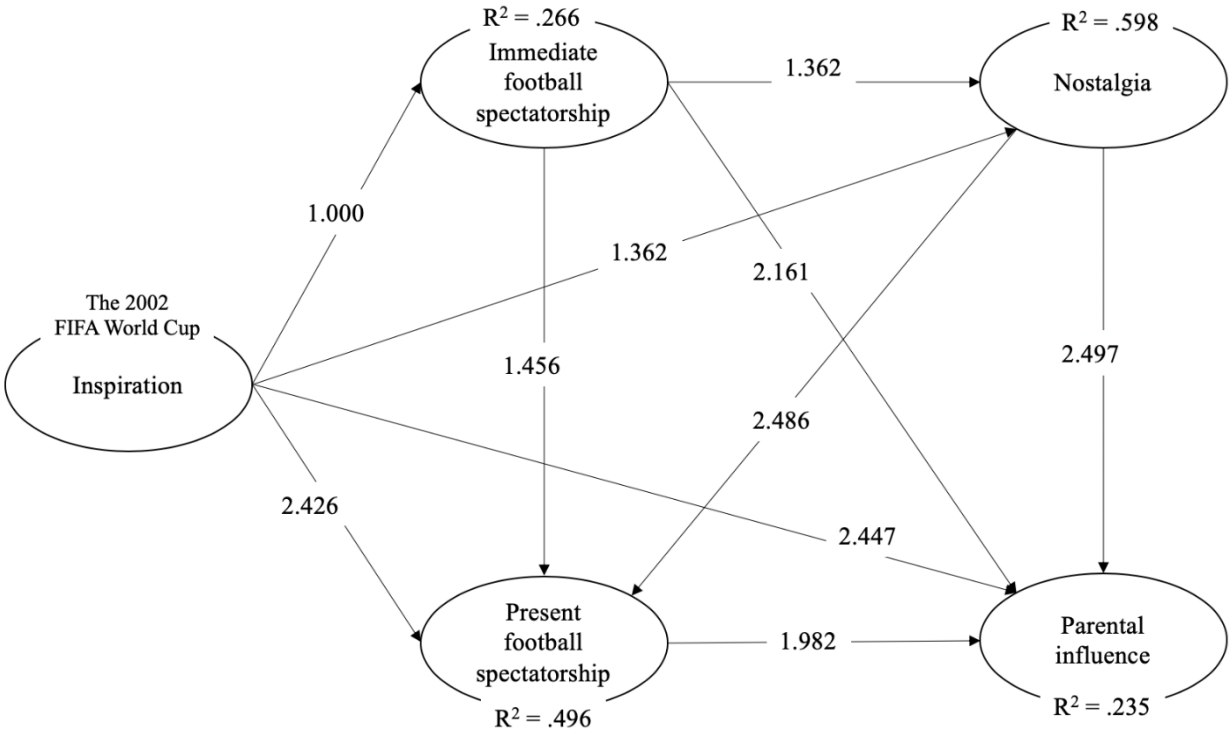
Note. M = mean. *SD* = standard deviation. α = Cronbach's alpha. CR = composite reliability. AVE = average variance extracted. α and CR greater than .7 indicate high internal consistency reliability. AVE greater than .5 indicates convergent validity.

Structural Model Evaluation (Direct Effects)

By assessing the measurement models, I confirmed that the construct measures were reliable and valid. As a next step, I examined the hypothesised model's predictive capabilities and the relationships among the constructs. Based on a bias-corrected and accelerated (BCa) bootstrap interval, and complete bootstrapping with 5,000 resamples, the direct effects of H2.1 to H2.10, without considering mediating and moderating effects, were analysed. According to Henseler et al. (2016), this model exhibited adequate goodness-of-fit (SRMR = .067). As shown in Figure 4.4, inner VIF values of all combinations of endogenous constructs and corresponding exogenous constructs are below .5, thus, collinearity among exogenous constructs is not a critical issue in this hypothetical model (Hair et al. 2016). In terms of the coefficients of determination (R^2) evaluation representing the amount of explained variance of the endogenous constructs in the structural model (Hair et al., 2016), the R^2 values of the endogenous latent variables in the hypothetical model, present football spectatorship (.496) and nostalgia (.598) were considered moderate, while the R^2 values of immediate football spectatorship (.266), and parental influence (.235) were rather weak; however, all were statistically significant. Further, the effect size of f^2 values for all combinations of endogenous variables and corresponding variables showed in Table 4.6 that the influence of inspiration on immediate football spectatorship and nostalgia, immediate football spectatorship on present football spectatorship and nostalgia, inspiration on parental influence, and present football spectatorship on parental influence, fell within the range for medium and large effect size, while the rest of the relationships had no effects (Cohen, 2013).

Figure 4.4

Inner VIF Value



As shown in Table 4.6, most of the proposed hypotheses regarding the direct effects were statistically confirmed except for three paths. The results suggested that inspiration had positive and statistically significant effects on all four latent endogenous variables. However, the effects of nostalgia, both on present football spectatorship and parental influence, were not statistically significant. Thus, H2.4 and H2.8 were not supported. The relationship between immediate football spectatorship and parental influence was not statistically significant, failing to support H2.9.

Table 4.6

Structural Model Results (Direct Effects)

Hypothesis	Hypothetical relationship	Path coefficient	*p*	Bias-corrected 95% confidence interval	f^2	Hypothesis supported
H2.1	Inspiration → Immediate football spectatorship	.515	<.001	[0.457, 0.570]	.362	Yes
H2.2	Inspiration → Present football spectatorship	.103	.016	[0.022, 0.191]	.009	Yes
H2.3	Inspiration → Nostalgia	.654	<.001	[0.597, 0.709]	.782	Yes
H2.4	Nostalgia → Present football spectatorship	.076	.080	[–0.011, 0.160]	.005	No
H2.5	Immediate football spectatorship → Present football spectatorship	.596	<.001	[0.531, 0.662]	.484	Yes
H2.6	Immediate football spectatorship → Nostalgia	.195	<.001	[0.129, 0.263]	.069	Yes
H2.7	Inspiration → Parental influence	.283	<.001	[0.182, 0.387]	.043	Yes
H2.8	Nostalgia → Parental influence	–.017	.739	[–0.121, 0.085]	.000	No
H2.9	Immediate football spectatorship → Parental influence	–.08	.121	[–0.180, 0.019]	.004	No
H2.10	Present football spectatorship → Parental influence	.358	<.001	[0.265, 0.447]	.084	Yes

Note. $f^2 \geq 0.02$, $f^2 \geq 0.15$, and $f^2 \geq 0.35$ represent small, medium, and large effect sizes, respectively (Cohen, 2013).

Mediation Effects Analysis (Indirect Effects)

Next, I analysed the mediating effects by bootstrapping the sampling distribution of the indirect effects (Hair et al., 2016). To test the mediating effects (H2.11a to H2.12b in Table 4.7), the four endogenous latent variables were examined for their path effects between inspiration and parental influence. The indirect effect of *inspiration → immediate football spectatorship → present football spectatorship (H2.11a)* was statistically significant; both relationships from inspiration to immediate football spectatorship, and from immediate football spectatorship to present football spectatorship were statistically significant, therefore H2.11a was supported as partially mediated. The relationship between inspiration and nostalgia was statistically significant whereas the further relationship between nostalgia and present football spectatorship was not significant. Therefore, no indirect effect was observed from *inspiration → nostalgia → present football spectatorship*; thus, H2.11b was not supported. Additionally, given that the indirect effect from *inspiration → immediate football spectatorship → present football spectatorship → parental influence* was significant, and the direct paths from inspiration to immediate football spectatorship, from immediate football spectatorship to present football spectatorship, and from present football spectatorship to parental influence were all statistically significant, H2.12a was supported as a partial mediation effect. Lastly, the paths from *inspiration → nostalgia → present football spectatorship → parental influence* were not significant, while one of the paths above, from nostalgia to present football participation was not statistically significant, and thus H2.12b was not supported.

Table 4.7

Analysis Effects Analysis (Indirect Effects)

Hypothesis	Hypothetical relationship	Path coefficient	*p*	Bias-corrected 95% confidence interval	Hypothesis supported
H2.11a	Inspiration → Immediate football spectatorship→ Present football spectatorship	.307	<.001	[.262, .359]	Partial mediation
H2.11b	Inspiration → Nostalgia → Present football spectatorship	.050	.089	[–.007, .106]	Not supported
H2.12a	Inspiration → Immediate football spectatorship → Present football spectatorship → Parental influence	.110	<.001	[.080, .145]	Partial mediation
H2.12b	Inspiration → Nostalgia → Present football spectatorship → Parental influence	.018	.089	[–.002, .039]	Not supported

Group Comparison

Spectatorship experience and nationality differences

To test group comparison (World Cup spectatorship experience and nationality), moderating variables were used to compare the groups in the hypothesised path modelling (Hair et al., 2016; Sanchez, 2013). Given that data on spectatorship patterns during the 2002 World Cup and nationality were available (Table 3.2), I examined whether there were differences between on-site spectatorship and TV watching, and between Korean and Japanese spectators. Table 4.8 and 4.9 illustrate the moderation effects of spectatorship patterns and nationality. As shown in Table 4.8, no path coefficients showed any significance between active spectatorship and passive spectatorship, thus H2.13 was not supported. In other words, in terms of the effect of the 2002 World Cup on later football spectatorship, whether individuals experienced it in the stadium or through media such as TV, no significant impacts were made on the host nations' residents' later football content consumption patterns, regardless of the immediately following or current spectatorship. In terms of differences in nationality, as shown in Table 4.9, two paths were statistically significant in differences between the Korean and the Japanese, one from inspiration to immediate football spectatorship (.161, $p < .05$) and the other from inspiration to nostalgia (.14, $p < .05$). This result was similar to Study 1 in that the more Koreans were inspired by the 2002 FIFA World Cup, the more they were involved and interested in football contents after the event. Additionally, the more Koreans were inspired by the 2002 World Cup, the more nostalgic they felt towards it. However, although these two paths were statistically significant, the path coefficients were lower than .2, thus, the effects seemed to be weak.

Table 4.8

Difference between Active Spectatorship and Passive Spectatorship

Path coefficient differences (H2.13)	Path Coefficients diff (*AS* - *PS*)	Path Coefficients (*AS*)	Path Coefficients (*PS*)	*p*	Hypothesis supported
Inspiration → Immediate football spectatorship	.113	.596	.483	.102	No
Inspiration → Present football spectatorship	.017	.124	.107	.885	No
Inspiration → Nostalgia	.073	.714	.641	.301	No
Nostalgia → Present football spectatorship	.133	.166	.032	.171	No
Immediate football spectatorship → Present football spectatorship	-.087	.529	.616	.261	No
Immediate football spectatorship → Nostalgia	-.076	.13	.205	.346	No
Inspiration → Parental influence	-.112	.191	.303	.38	No
Nostalgia → Parental influence	.138	.084	-.054	.247	No
Immediate football spectatorship → Parental influence	.174	.064	-.11	.103	No
Present football spectatorship → Parental influence	-.127	.243	.371	.209	No

Note. *AS* = Active spectatorship, *PS* = Passive spectatorship

Table 4.9

Difference between South Korean and Japanese samples

Path coefficient differences (H2.14)	Path Coefficients-diff (KOR - JPN)	Path Coefficients (KOR)	Path Coefficients (JPN)	*p*	Hypothesis supported
Inspiration → Immediate football spectatorship	**0.161**	**0.608**	**0.447**	**0.009**	**Yes**
Inspiration → Present football spectatorship	-0.037	0.054	0.09	0.685	No
Inspiration → Nostalgia	**0.14**	**0.758**	**0.618**	**0.018**	**Yes**
Nostalgia → Present football spectatorship	-0.125	0.042	0.167	0.16	No
Immediate football spectatorship → Present football spectatorship	0.048	0.634	0.586	0.474	No
Immediate football spectatorship → Nostalgia	-0.104	0.107	0.211	0.137	No
Inspiration → Parental influence	-0.086	0.199	0.285	0.425	No
Nostalgia → Parental influence	0.159	0.144	-0.015	0.138	No
Immediate football spectatorship → Parental influence	-0.007	-0.028	-0.022	0.953	No
Present football spectatorship → Parental influence	-0.066	0.274	0.34	0.504	No

Note. KOR = Korean nationality, JPN = Japanese nationality

Discussion

Similar to the results of Study 1, Study 2 suggested that the effects of the FIFA World Cup on raising football spectatorship in host nations after the event had a positive causal relationship. As the mega sports-event inspired residents of the host countries to be more active in sport participation, the 2002 FIFA World Cup also inspired both Japanese and South Korean residents to have a greater interest in football spectatorship after the events. Furthermore, the effect of inspiration on football spectatorship, although its effect was statistically significant but not significantly influential, might have been weaker without the intervention of immediate football spectatorship. This result proposed that inspiration as a psychological construct has a limited life cycle in terms of its effect on spectatorship. Football spectatorship consumption behaviour was influenced by immediate present spectatorship through present spectatorship. This flow was the same as the path of participation, in that once individuals were interested in football contents whether as participants or fans, the very experience right after the event lasted until the present time, forming their football consumption patterns. Moreover, the current sport spectatorship behaviours of people who had directly experienced mega sport-events obviously influenced their children's sport behaviours. This result was supported by Funk et al. (2016), that children's involvement in sport was influenced and formed by the previous sport experiences of parents.

Therefore, I can conclude from these two studies that sport consumption behaviours, such as football participation and spectatorship, induced by the 2002 World Cup through inspirational effects, were believed to be identical in terms of the effects of each behavioural outcome of the sports mega-event. If the range of the trickle-down effects can be expanded to sport spectatorship, the present study proposes that trickle-down effects of the 2002 FIFA World Cup did exist in both South Korea and Japan. At the same time, parental

encouragement for their children's involvement in playing football was also strongly influenced by the 2002 FIFA World Cup.

I did not find any differences between the South Koreans and the Japanese in terms of football spectatorship, though two paths in the hypothetical models suggested significant differences, from inspiration to immediate football spectatorship and from inspiration to nostalgia. Since the levels of significance of the two paths were weak, I can conclude that the effect of the 2002 FIFA World Cup on the two countries' football spectatorship applied to both countries, regardless of their cultural and social backgrounds. Furthermore, when it comes to the difference between active spectatorship and passive spectatorship of the World Cup, whether individuals watched the games at the stadium or media, no significant differences were found. This result is the same as the participation research in Study 1, that major-level international sporting events such as the FIFA World Cup became a global phenomenon, embracing all the people in the host country, and 'where' and 'how' you watch did not matter but 'what' you saw, for this once-in-a-lifetime experience.

Chapter 5 Conclusions

Comprehensive Summary

From a theoretical perspective, this research is the first to examine the sport participation and spectatorship impact of sports mega-events in the Asian context through a cross-cultural analysis. Inspiration as a psychological construct played a key role in establishing sport participation and spectatorship behaviours in host countries. The ultimate outcomes of inspiration evoked by the sports mega-event as behavioural motivation, were the immediate sport participation and spectatorship, serving as catalysts for later participation and spectatorship. Further, I confirmed that these sport consumption behaviours were handed down to the next generation. However, this study shows that nostalgia, one of the psychological constructs in the dynamics of the trickle-down effect, has a strong causal relationship only with sport participation; whereas, nostalgia has a limited effect on spectatorship behaviours. In conclusion, from a sport management perspective, I propose how to fill this gap between the participation and spectatorship effects that sports mega-events have in terms of their influence on sport consumption behaviours.

The two separate studies suggest that nostalgia itself has a causal connection with sport participation as an antecedent or driver within sports mega-event contexts while not significant impacts were made for increasing sport spectatorship. This relativity, otherwise defined as the duplicity of nostalgia, depends on the context "where" and "how" nostalgia is actualised. This contextual application of nostalgia is supported by the concept of *retro marketing*. In other words, in order for nostalgia to have a motivational force, especially in relation to spectator behaviours, synthetic elements should be added to make nostalgia work within consumer marketing territory.

Football and Football World Cup as Global Commodity

South Korea and Japan are the two of the biggest sport mega-event hosts in Asia, and for the first time in the event's history, two countries hosted the 2002 FIFA World Cup together. Although the two countries maintain their status as powerhouses not only in sports mega-event hosting experience but also in international sporting success across various sports among the democratic countries in Asia, the two nations have different historical and cultural backgrounds in terms of how sports were organised, developed, and diffused there. Sport was exploited by the political leadership to reinforce each side's cause in the early adoption period as the oppressor and the oppressed, which was later experienced by the public as regional rivalry in the pure sporting context or as a political quasi-war, mainly caused by unresolved historical issues between the two countries. Further, each country had different motives for the professionalisation and commercialisation of sports based on individual political, economic, and cultural circumstances. Football was no exception. South Korea emphasised the value of elite athletes and their international sporting successes whereas football as a professional sport was encouraged by political motivation to showcase the national identity and justify the governments' existence from the 1960s to 1990s. Football in Japan as a leisure pursuit and for educational purposes was emphasised since the 1960s, and thus its professionalisation was long marginalised by relegating it to the amateur sport category, until the 1990s. However, examining the process of how football was commercialised through professionalisation in Japanese society reveals how it became the most successfully designed and executed professional sport phenomena in modern Japanese history, disseminated into the public both for its entertainment value and generating a fan base, as well as motivating people to participate themselves as active football followers, especially overtaking its biggest competitor, baseball. Consequently, based on the sporting context of football, it is believed that the way each country perceived, understood, and consumed the game of football is almost heterogeneous.

With this entirely different background for football in each country, the present study empirically analysed the difference in football participation and spectatorship changes between South Korea and Japan as an outcome of the 2002 World Cup. The assumption behind the study was that football consumption behaviours, such as participation and spectatorship patterns in each country, would be influenced differently by the 2002 FIFA World Cup, and consequently the event's sport legacy would differ in each host nation. However, surprisingly contrary to my expectation, I found no significant (i.e. not statistical but semantical) difference in how each country responded to the 2002 World Cup both with regard to football participation and spectatorship behaviour changes.

This finding ironically supports the view of the globalisation of football as a cultural phenomenon in terms of how football has been experienced by people, who play and watch for their own purpose, whether as a physical or entertainment activity, individually or collectively (Close & Askew, 2004). As Giulianotti (2019) points out, football in the context of international sporting events has been truly globalised since the end of the 20th century due to the development of media technology (mediatisation), transnational commercial entities' involvement in the game of football such as global sponsors (commercialisation), and the expansion of shared knowledge through a networked society via internet and mobile technology (shared knowledge). Close and Askew (2004) further argued that football's growing popularity worldwide is the main driver for the globalisation of football. Just as the game of football was introduced to South Korea and Japan in the 19th century, so was the more organised, commodified, and globalised form of football, the FIFA World Cup event, introduced in both countries at the beginning of new millennium.

However, this time it was introduced as part of the evolution process of football as a cultural phenomenon, which is the product of popular, bottom-up, and democratic involvement of people who love football (Close & Askew, 2004), as opposed to that of

exclusive, top-down, and nationalistic intervention. Moreover, those who led football to its status as a global cultural phenomenon have more diversified and different backgrounds, with heterogeneous values from post-modernised processes redefining the game of football in the globalised sport context (Giulianotti, 2019). The process of the experience of sports as commodified entities manifests as two types of behaviours in contemporary society: participation and spectatorship (Funk et al., 2016). From a sport consumer marketing perspective, therefore, various values that have been imposed on football through football events, the FIFA World Cup in this case, emerged freely as sport behaviours such as participation and spectatorship, regardless of geographical limitation, historical background, and cultural psychology. Considering how the football World Cup as a commodity and an experience is embedded inter-regionally as well as internationally (Horne, 2004), the influence of the 2002 FIFA World Cup on sport participation and spectatorship in each host country indeed has transnational significance, transcending social, historical, and cultural backgrounds, considering not much difference in their sport behaviours was found in the present study.

For future research, when research subjects are to identify the co-hosting effects of sports mega-events especially focusing on their sport participation and spectatorship outcomes in co-hosting countries, a cross-cultural approach might not be suitable. Rather, it may be more appropriate to view them as one unit or sample, emphasising other demographical criteria such as age, gender, income, and regional, not national, criteria for contextual frameworks.

Practical Implications

Retro marketing is a marketing technique using nostalgia. Scola and Gordon (2018) said that in the sport marketing domain, nostalgia or the nostalgic feelings of fans, are commonly utilised as a core concept for developing a “retro marketing” framework, in that

professional sport teams and leagues incorporate retro elements into their marketing strategy, involving images, merchandising, venues, promotional activities, and advertising, to communicate with fans. Pascal et al. (2002) also suggest that nostalgic feelings evoked by objects or past experiences generate a positive influence on consumer responses.

In retro marketing, the nostalgic feeling acts as a source for marketers to exploit in order to communicate their message to consumers; however, as Cattaneo and Guerini (2012) proposed, nostalgia per se will not be able to directly influence consumers' decision-making process to the extent that it changes their response. Thus, updated features or a specifically designed message should be added to the products or services that marketers intend to communicate. Cattaneo and Guerini (2012) also stated that when marketers utilise nostalgia in their marketing message to communicate with consumers, they need to find an appropriate connection between arbitrarily designed retro elements and nostalgic responses to appeal sufficiently to consumers and change their behavioural intention through their cognitive and affective mental processes. For this reason, through the process of *contemporary re-interpretation* of the products or services that are to be marketed, retro marketing is fundamentally based on basic human emotion, which is nostalgia in this context, but its variation during the implementation of the marketing strategy should adapt to the time, space, and people among whom the message is circulated.

Retro marketing tells me how to effectively leverage nostalgia evoked by sports mega-events for increasing sport spectatorship. Scola and Gordon (2018) practically conceptualised retro marketing practices by categorising the elements that can be realistically marketed based on consumers' nostalgia; this provides useful insights on how sport marketers leverage their assets to connect with consumers.

According to Scola and Gordon (2018), the five practical areas of retro marketing in sport are as follows: *imagery, merchandising, venue, game-day promotion,* and *advertising.*

Imagery refers to the figuration of symbolic entities relevant to sport properties (teams, leagues, or events). Commercialised sport properties, such as professional teams or collegiate sport, have a wide variety of intangible assets that are utilised regularly; one of these is the uniforms that athletes or players wear on official game days. Adding a nostalgic touch to current uniforms (commonly called throwback uniforms), rather than designing new uniforms, is a good example of the use of imagery for retro marketing in sport. The second practical area of retro marketing in sport is merchandising. Merchandising has for long been an important revenue source in the sports industry, and nostalgia is commonly associated with merchandising items, such as retro jerseys, apparel, or memorabilia—all these attract more nostalgic fans. The third is physical space, often referred to as the venue or stadium. Stadiums are seen to contain memories of all the historic moments of the matches played there, which can be viewed as a perfect story-producing factory for communicating with fans. Hall-of-fame museums, as a part of stadiums, are one of the best practices that utilise nostalgia for retro marketing. The fourth area is game-day promotion. Match day is the day on which fans or players focus the most. The marketers follow them by providing various sources, campaigns, or information before, during, and after the match to make the fans more focused on games; during these games, nostalgic stimulus is one of the effective ways to communicate with fans using positive past memories. The stimuli include giveaways with retro designs or singing old pop songs with modified lyrics (e.g. “Sweet Caroline” at Fenway Park as the anthem of the Boston Red Sox). Finally, the advertising message can also be an effective marketing vehicle in which past memory is easily broken down as advertising; it is one of the most actively used and long-lasting marketing tools in not only sport, but also other commercial industries. Creating messages linked with a positive past memory often generates more exposure and attention among fans.

The scope for utilising the five practical areas proposed by Scola and Gordon (2018) as retro marketing in sport through sports mega-events' followers' nostalgic emotion is limited to a certain sporting environment of a specific locality; however, their work gives me valuable insights on how nostalgia evoked by sports mega-events can be leveraged to increase spectatorship experience after the event by filling the gap between the scales' validation and its applicability in the marketplace. As illustrated by Scola and Gordon (2018), most of the suggested categories of retro marketing practices have nostalgia elements that are significantly related to football spectatorship behavioural changes which is examined by: *experience, environment,* and *personal identity*.

In other words, all the items from retro marketing practices, once properly and strategically implemented, have the potential to positively influence sport spectatorship. For example, whereas items in the categories of *imagery*, *merchandising*, or *venue* can evoke nostalgic feeling from *experience* and *environment* elements among fans, *game-day promotion* items on match day can evoke nostalgia from the *personal identity* element*;* both of them can motivate fans to spectate more. Therefore, when the goal is to increase sport spectatorship after the sports mega-events, one of the most effective ways is to summon individuals' past memories by focusing on sources relevant to their overall "event" experiences and "themselves," rather than "peripheral" experiences and "others." Specific and target-oriented marketing action plans can be implemented as part of these retro marketing strategies by leveraging the elements that evoke nostalgia.

Limitations and Future Research

Some limitations of this study should be noted. First, although I examined the trickle-down effect of the FIFA World Cup based on psychological constructs of inspiration and nostalgia as motivational forces and whether these psychological states enhance football consumption behaviours in the host country, the relationships between external variables and

participation have not been fully identified on a longitudinal basis. Through an exploratory statistical approach in which causal connections among designated factors can be hypothesised within a structure, I have attempted to draw the conclusion that sport consumption and the involvement of the current participants' children in sport is closely related with inspiration and nostalgia evoked by a sports mega-event.

Second, lacking empirical and secondary data for female football participation, as of 2002, the samples focused on men and did not examine how female football participation was affected by the World Cup. However, with the growing popularity of women's football both at elite and mass levels, this offers immense scope for future research to explore the relationship through cross-gender studies, such as between female football participation and the women's World Cup, female participation and the men's World Cup, or men's participation and the women's World Cup.

Finally, when the survey design for this study was constructed, I had to assume that dwelling on questions about something that happened 18 years ago could unproblematically be termed nostalgia. Not only is the notion of nostalgia subjective in terms of its scale and scope, no specific terms about the duration of nostalgia were empirically examined either (Davis, 1977). Therefore, every empirical study will face the issue that nostalgia is always a relative category. A certain specific past memory of a sports mega-event that occurred 18 years ago should be safely regarded as nostalgia in some contexts; however, calling the memory of a football game that I watched with my friends two years ago nostalgia is something that needs to be explored. Because nostalgia's origins date back to a mythical era, its exact definition and categorisation, especially in the empirical scientific research arena, depend highly on the context and assumptions made. However, one should be careful not only about the misuse of the term, but also an overdose of it in retro marketing practices: excessive

and too frequent a use of past memories might cause consumers to react instead with "anostalgia."

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Appendix A

An Overview of Constructs and Questionnaire Items

Inspiration		
Frequency	IF1	I experience inspiration when I experience 2002 FIFA World Cup.
	IF2	Something I encounter or experience inspires me when I experience 2002 FIFA World Cup.
	IF3	I feel inspired when I experience 2002 FIFA World Cup.
	IF4	I am inspired to play football when I experience 2002 FIFA World Cup.
Intensity	II1	I experience inspiration when I experience 2002 FIFA World Cup.
	II2	Something I encounter or experience inspires me when I experience 2002 FIFA World Cup.
	II3	I feel inspired when I experience 2002 FIFA World Cup.
	II4	I am inspired to play football when I experience 2002 FIFA World Cup.
Nostalgia		
Experience	NX1	Remembering the 2002 FIFA World Cup spectatorship and viewership experience that I enjoyed
	NX2	My exciting the 2002 FIFA World Cup cheering experience
	NX3	Recharging myself through the 2002 FIFA World Cup
Environment	NE1	Memorable atmosphere during the 2002 FIFA World Cup
	NE2	Memorable places during the 2002 FIFA World Cup (stadium or places that I visited)
	NE3	The 2002 FIFA World Cup cheering equipment I used
Socialization	NS1	Friends participating in the 2002 FIFA World Cup activity with me
	NS2	Positive memories shared with others during the 2002 FIFA World Cup
	NS3	Memories of building friendships with others during the 2002 FIFA World Cup
	NS4	Memories of socializing with other during the 2002 FIFA World Cup
	NS5	Entertainments enjoyed with others during the 2002 FIFA World Cup
Personal identity	NP1	Identifying myself as a lover of the 2002 FIFA World Cup
	NP2	Pride in being a lover of the 2002 FIFA World Cup
	NP3	A feeling of satisfaction as a loyal participant of the 2002 FIFA World Cup
	NP4	Sense of accomplishment as the 2002 FIFA World Cup participant
	NP5	Being loyal to the 2002 FIFA World Cup
National identity	NN1	Unique characteristics of community who support our team together during the 2002 FIFA World Cup
	NN2	Group rituals of people who support our team together during the 2002 FIFA World Cup
	NN3	Shared memories which affected my national identity at the 2002 FIFA World Cup
	NN4	Pride of being a part of my country at the 2002 FIFA World Cup
	NN5	Experience of national bonding during the 2002 FIFA World Cup
	NN6	How important I was to the members of the country during the 2002 FIFA World Cup
Immediate football spectatorship		
Frequency	ISF	Right after the World Cup, I watched football more frequently than I normally do
Duration	IST	Right after the World Cup, I watched football more than used to be
Present football spectatorship		
Frequency	PSF	I watch football more frequently than I normally do
Duration	PST	I still watch football regularly
Parental influence		
Advocacy	PIA	I encourage or have encouraged my child to play soccer
Involvement	PII	I practice(ed) or play(ed) soccer with my child
Role model	PIR	I like physical activity and exercise

Appendix B

Cross Loadings – Reflective Measurement Model (Participation)

Label	Inspiration	Nostalgia	Immediate football participation	Present football Participation	Parental influence
IF1	**0.862**	0.61	0.341	0.201	0.277
IF2	**0.874**	0.637	0.345	0.211	0.288
IF3	**0.84**	0.605	0.289	0.171	0.25
IF4	**0.729**	0.564	0.563	0.511	0.49
II1	**0.871**	0.641	0.329	0.187	0.255
II2	**0.877**	0.646	0.354	0.213	0.276
II3	**0.859**	0.64	0.311	0.177	0.27
II4	**0.739**	0.574	0.576	0.519	0.494
NX1	0.508	**0.691**	0.336	0.251	0.282
NX2	0.49	**0.724**	0.371	0.298	0.258
NX3	0.588	**0.782**	0.419	0.352	0.302
NE1	0.456	**0.681**	0.363	0.25	0.204
NE2	0.491	**0.701**	0.457	0.389	0.228
NE3	0.593	**0.745**	0.475	0.436	0.33
NS1	0.627	**0.713**	0.44	0.313	0.265
NS2	0.668	**0.736**	0.416	0.336	0.241
NS3	0.515	**0.723**	0.455	0.393	0.251
NS4	0.57	**0.743**	0.445	0.396	0.267
NS5	0.478	**0.661**	0.383	0.308	0.236
NP1	0.56	**0.75**	0.353	0.282	0.295
NP2	0.584	**0.774**	0.443	0.337	0.242
NP3	0.647	**0.835**	0.429	0.345	0.319
NP4	0.611	**0.743**	0.395	0.308	0.218
NP5	0.678	**0.805**	0.416	0.32	0.292
NN1	0.454	**0.673**	0.421	0.348	0.2
NN2	0.432	**0.714**	0.423	0.331	0.226
NN3	0.475	**0.638**	0.35	0.194	0.166
NN4	0.54	**0.691**	0.382	0.236	0.179
NN5	0.586	**0.608**	0.326	0.194	0.155
NN6	0.617	**0.682**	0.391	0.262	0.167
IPF	0.6	0.532	**0.967**	0.63	0.309
IPT	0.603	0.553	**0.968**	0.597	0.32
PPF	0.361	0.645	0.645	**0.931**	0.389
PPT	0.298	0.519	0.519	**0.914**	0.454
PIA	0.338	0.336	0.336	0.427	**0.872**
PII	0.347	0.245	0.245	0.371	**0.867**
PIR	0.308	0.189	0.189	0.292	**0.678**

Appendix C

Cross Loadings – Mixed Measurement Model (Participation)

Label	Inspiration	Nostalgia	Immediate football participation	Present football participation	Parental influence
IF1	**0.862**	0.61	0.341	0.201	0.277
IF2	**0.874**	0.637	0.345	0.211	0.288
IF3	**0.84**	0.605	0.289	0.171	0.25
IF4	**0.729**	0.564	0.563	0.511	0.49
II1	**0.871**	0.641	0.329	0.187	0.255
II2	**0.877**	0.646	0.354	0.213	0.276
II3	**0.859**	0.64	0.311	0.177	0.27
II4	**0.739**	0.574	0.576	0.519	0.494
NX1	0.588	**0.691**	0.336	0.251	0.282
NX2	0.6	**0.724**	0.371	0.298	0.258
NX3	0.603	**0.782**	0.419	0.352	0.302
NE1	0.593	**0.681**	0.363	0.25	0.204
NE2	0.454	**0.701**	0.457	0.389	0.228
NE3	0.432	**0.745**	0.475	0.436	0.33
NS1	0.515	**0.713**	0.44	0.313	0.265
NS2	0.57	**0.736**	0.416	0.336	0.241
NS3	0.478	**0.723**	0.455	0.393	0.251
NS4	0.508	**0.743**	0.445	0.396	0.267
NS5	0.49	**0.661**	0.383	0.308	0.236
NP1	0.647	**0.75**	0.353	0.282	0.295
NP2	0.611	**0.774**	0.443	0.337	0.242
NP3	0.678	**0.835**	0.429	0.345	0.319
NP4	0.627	**0.743**	0.395	0.308	0.218
NP5	0.668	**0.805**	0.416	0.32	0.292
NN1	0.475	**0.673**	0.421	0.348	0.2
NN2	0.54	**0.714**	0.423	0.331	0.226
NN3	0.586	**0.638**	0.35	0.194	0.166
NN4	0.617	**0.691**	0.382	0.236	0.179
NN5	0.56	**0.608**	0.326	0.194	0.155
NN6	0.584	**0.682**	0.391	0.262	0.167
IPF	0.456	0.532	**0.967**	0.63	0.309
IPT	0.491	0.553	**0.968**	0.597	0.32
PPF	0.347	0.462	0.645	**0.931**	0.389
PPT	0.308	0.401	0.519	**0.914**	0.454
PIA	0.361	0.353	0.336	0.427	**0.872**
PII	0.298	0.28	0.245	0.371	**0.867**
PIR	0.338	0.288	0.189	0.292	**0.678**

Appendix D

Cross Loadings – Reflective Measurement Model (Spectatorship)

Label	Inspiration	Nostalgia	Immediate football spectatorship	Present football spectatorship	Parental influence
IF1	**.875**	.643	.413	.36	.279
IF2	**.884**	.661	.417	.353	.289
IF3	**.854**	.64	.386	.328	.254
IF4	**.698**	.516	.469	.5	.489
II1	**.885**	.684	.431	.353	.258
II2	**.889**	.68	.432	.366	.278
II3	**.871**	.673	.401	.349	.275
II4	**.709**	.537	.468	.486	.493
NX1	.593	**.711**	.38	.388	.285
NX2	.603	**.781**	.413	.378	.26
NX3	.601	**.776**	.436	.403	.303
NE1	.597	**.758**	.44	.376	.204
NE2	.449	**.692**	.354	.326	.227
NE3	.422	**.649**	.331	.349	.327
NS1	.515	**.738**	.402	.348	.267
NS2	.571	**.784**	.454	.372	.242
NS3	.473	**.716**	.4	.299	.25
NS4	.507	**.74**	.398	.342	.267
NS5	.491	**.746**	.401	.336	.238
NP1	.65	**.763**	.412	.402	.297
NP2	.612	**.797**	.397	.37	.242
NP3	.68	**.795**	.42	.443	.321
NP4	.629	**.802**	.409	.34	.219
NP5	.67	**.803**	.427	.428	.293
NN1	.473	**.71**	.377	.325	.2
NN2	.54	**.769**	.438	.34	.226
NN3	.593	**.752**	.38	.306	.168
NN4	.62	**.777**	.393	.319	.181
NN5	.568	**.757**	.36	.289	.157
NN6	.586	**.78**	.402	.313	.168
ISF	.522	.539	**.968**	.671	.301
IST	.472	.488	**.964**	.667	.283
PSF	.443	.454	.742	**.926**	.384
PST	.389	.381	.456	**.856**	.381
PIA	.343	.282	.282	.385	**.855**
PII	.287	.242	.265	.341	**.86**
PIR	.33	.258	.183	.304	**.705**

Appendix E

Cross Loadings – Mixed Measurement Model (Spectatorship)

Label	Inspiration	Nostalgia	Immediate football spectatorship	Present football spectatorship	Parental influence
IF1	**.874**	.65	.413	.36	.279
IF2	**.884**	.673	.417	.353	.289
IF3	**.854**	.652	.386	.328	.254
IF4	**.699**	.548	.469	.5	.489
II1	**.884**	.685	.431	.353	.258
II2	**.888**	.683	.432	.366	.278
II3	**.871**	.691	.401	.349	.275
II4	**.709**	.554	.468	.486	.493
NX1	.593	**.761**	.38	.388	.286
NX2	.603	**.759**	.413	.378	.26
NX3	.601	**.79**	.436	.403	.303
NE1	.597	**.738**	.44	.376	.204
NE2	.449	**.608**	.354	.326	.227
NE3	.422	**.634**	.331	.349	.327
NS1	.515	**.685**	.402	.348	.267
NS2	.571	**.735**	.454	.371	.242
NS3	.473	**.626**	.4	.298	.25
NS4	.507	**.677**	.398	.342	.267
NS5	.491	**.652**	.401	.336	.238
NP1	.65	**.816**	.412	.402	.297
NP2	.612	**.752**	.397	.37	.242
NP3	.68	**.867**	.42	.443	.321
NP4	.629	**.742**	.409	.34	.219
NP5	.67	**.844**	.427	.428	.293
NN1	.473	**.616**	.377	.325	.2
NN2	.54	**.689**	.438	.34	.226
NN3	.593	**.677**	.38	.306	.168
NN4	.62	**.708**	.393	.318	.181
NN5	.567	**.643**	.36	.289	.157
NN6	.586	**.679**	.402	.313	.168
ISF	.522	.524	**.968**	.67	.301
IST	.472	.48	**.964**	.665	.283
PSF	.443	.467	.742	**.923**	.384
PST	.389	.445	.456	**.859**	.381
PIA	.344	.334	.282	.385	**.855**
PII	.288	.273	.265	.341	**.859**
PIR	.33	.306	.183	.304	**.706**

Appendix F

Questionnaire Survey Items for Korean Version

분류 (요인)	설문조사 문항
인구통계문항	SQ1 귀하의 성별은 어떻게 되십니까? SQ2 귀하의 현재 연령은 어떻게 되십니까? HQ_AGE (연령대) SQ3 귀하의 현재 결혼여부를 답해주세요. SQ4 귀하는 자녀가 있으십니까?
스크리닝 및 2002 월드컵 경험 관련 문항	SQ5.1 다음 중 귀하에게 해당하는 것을 선택해주십시오. 나는 1996 년 6 월부터 2002 년 5 월 사이에 스포츠를 활동을 하지 않았다. SQ5.2 다음 중 귀하에게 해당하는 것을 선택해주십시오. 나는 1996 년 6 월부터 2002 년 5 월 사이에 약 연간 1 회 이상 축구를 했다. SQ5.3 다음 중 귀하에게 해당하는 것을 선택해주십시오. 나는 1996 년 6 월부터 2002 년 5 월 사이에 약 연간 1 회 이상 야구를 했다. SQ5.4 다음 중 귀하에게 해당하는 것을 선택해주십시오. 나는 1996 년 6 월부터 2002 년 5 월 사이에 약 연간 1 회 이상 농구를 했다. SQ5.5 다음 중 귀하에게 해당하는 것을 선택해주십시오. 나는 1996 년 6 월부터 2002 년 5 월 사이에 약 연간 1 회 이상 배구를 했다. SQ6.1 2002 월드컵에 대해 당신은 얼마나 기억하고 있습니까? SQ7.1 당신은 2002 월드컵 경기를 관전 한 적이 있습니까? (복수응답 가능) 경기장에서 관전 한 적이 있다 SQ7.2 당신은 2002 월드컵 경기를 관전 한 적이 있습니까? (복수응답 가능) TV 로 관전 한 적이 있다 SQ7.3 당신은 2002 월드컵 경기를 관전 한 적이 있습니까? (복수응답 가능) 그 외의 장소에서 관전한 적이 있다 (길거리, 광장 등) SQ7.4 당신은 2002 월드컵 경기를 관전 한 적이 있습니까? (복수응답 가능) 관전 한 적이 없다

2002 월드컵 관전 형태 관련 문항	Q2_1.1 2002 월드컵 관전 관련 질문입니다. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵 기간 중, 나는 TV, 인터넷, 라디오 등을 통해 월드컵 경기를 보았다. (생중계, 녹화방송, 하이라이트 포함)** Q2_1.2 2002 년 월드컵 관전 관련 질문입니다. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵 기간 중, 나는 광장, 길거리, 술집, 혹은 공공장소에서 월드컵 경기를 보았다.** Q2_1.3 2002 년 월드컵 관전 관련 질문입니다. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵 기간 중, 친구, 가족, 지인들과 함께 월드컵에 대해서 얘기를 나누었다.**
축구 참여 관련 문항	Q2_2.1 축구 참여 관련 질문입니다. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵 직후 (2002 년여름~2005 년), 월드컵 개최 전과 비교해서 축구에 참여하는 시간이 늘었다.** Q2_2.2 축구 참여 관련 질문입니다. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵 직후 (2002 년여름~2005 년), 월드컵 개최 전과 비교해서 축구에 참여하는 빈도가 늘었다.** Q2_2.3 축구 참여 관련 질문입니다. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **나는 지금도 정기적으로 축구를 한다.** Q2_2.4 축구 참여 관련 질문입니다. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **현재 내가 축구에 참여하는 빈도는 월드컵 개최 전과 비교해서 늘었다.**
축구 관전 관련 문항	Q2_3.1 축구 관전 및 시청 관련 질문입니다. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵 직후 (2002 년 여름 ~ 2005 년), 나는 월드컵 개최 전과 비교해서 축구경기를 보는 시간이 늘었다. (경기장 관전, TV 또는 인터넷을 통한 생중계, 녹화방송, 하이라이트 시청 포함)** Q2_3.2 축구 관전 및 시청 관련 질문입니다. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵 직후 (2002 년 여름 ~ 2005 년), 나는 월드컵 개최 전과 비교해서 축구경기를 보는 빈도가 늘었다. (경기장 관전, TV 또는 인터넷을 통한 생중계, 녹화방송, 하이라이트 시청 포함)** Q2_3.3 축구 관전 및 시청 관련 질문입니다. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **나는 지금도 정기적으로 축구경기를 본다.(경기장 관전, TV 또는 인터넷을 통한 생중계, 녹화방송, 하이라이트 시청 포함)** Q2_3.4 축구 관전 및 시청 관련 질문입니다. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **현재 내가 축구경기를 보는 빈도는 월드컵 개최 전과 비교해서 늘었다.(경기장 관전, TV 또는 인터넷을 통한 생중계, 녹화방송, 하이라이트 시청 포함)**

부모영향 관련 문항	Q2_4.1 2002 년 월드컵 이후 부모의 영향 관련 질문입니다. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **나는 내 자녀(들)에게 축구를 하게끔 격려하거나 독려한 적이 있다** Q2_4.2 2002 년 월드컵 이후 부모의 영향 관련 질문입니다. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **나는 내 자녀(들)과 함께 축구를 한적이 있다.** Q2_4.3 2002 년 월드컵 이후 부모의 영향 관련 질문입니다. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **나는 운동을 좋아한다.**
Inspiration 관련 문항	Q2_5.1 Inspiration 관련 질문입니다. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **나는 2002 한일 월드컵에 자주 감격했다.** Q2_5.2 Inspiration 관련 질문입니다. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **나는 2002 한일 월드컵에 강하게 감격했다.** Q2_5.3 Inspiration 관련 질문입니다. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **나는 2002 한일 월드컵 분위기에 자주 고취되었다.** Q2_5.4 Inspiration 관련 질문입니다. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **나는 2002 한일 월드컵 분위기에 강하게 고취되었다.** Q2_5.5 Inspiration 관련 질문입니다. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **나는 2002 한일 월드컵에 자주 감동을 받았다.** Q2_5.6 Inspiration 관련 질문입니다. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **나는 2002 한일 월드컵에 강하게 감동을 받았다.** Q2_5.7 Inspiration 관련 질문입니다. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵 이후 나는 축구를 하고 싶다는 마음이 자주 들었다.** Q2_5.8 Inspiration 관련 질문입니다. 아래 항목 읽고 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵 이후 나는 축구를 하고 싶은 마음이 강하게 들었다.**
Nostalgia 관련 문항	Q3_1.1 아래 항목에 대하여 당신은 얼마나 향수를 느끼고 있습니까? 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **내가 즐겁게 본 2002 한일 월드컵 경기관전과 시청에 대한 기억** Q3_1.2 아래 항목에 대하여 당신은 얼마나 향수를 느끼고 있습니까? 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵 기간 중 나를 흥분시킨 응원 기억** Q3_1.3 아래 항목에 대하여 당신은 얼마나 향수를 느끼고 있습니까? 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵을 통한 내 삶의 재충전**

Nostalgia 관련 문항 (계속)	Q3_1.4 아래 항목에 대하여 당신은 얼마나 향수를 느끼고 있습니까? 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **기억에 남는 2002 한일 월드컵 당시의 분위기** Q3_1.5 아래 항목에 대하여 당신은 얼마나 향수를 느끼고 있습니까? 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵 당시 내가 방문했던 추억의 장소 (경기장, 길거리 응원 등 경기를 보며 응원했던 장소)** Q3_1.6 아래 항목에 대하여 당신은 얼마나 향수를 느끼고 있습니까? 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵 당시 내가 사용한 응원 도구** Q3_1.7 아래 항목에 대하여 당신은 얼마나 향수를 느끼고 있습니까? 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵 기간 동안, 나와 함께 경기를 보고 응원을 했던 친구들** Q3_1.8 아래 항목에 대하여 당신은 얼마나 향수를 느끼고 있습니까? 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵 기간 동안 다른 사람들과 공유한 좋은 기억** Q3_1.9 아래 항목에 대하여 당신은 얼마나 향수를 느끼고 있습니까? 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵 기간 동안 다른 이들과 함께하며 친해진 기억** Q3_1.10 아래 항목에 대하여 당신은 얼마나 향수를 느끼고 있습니까? 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵 기간 동안 다른 이들과 교류한 기억** Q3_1.11 아래 항목에 대하여 당신은 얼마나 향수를 느끼고 있습니까? 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵 기간 동안 다른 이들과 즐겼던 활동 (뒷풀이, 식사 등)** Q3_2.1 아래 항목에 대하여 당신은 얼마나 향수를 느끼고 있습니까? 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **나 자신이 2002 한일 월드컵을 좋아하는 사람이었다는 사실** Q3_2.2 아래 항목에 대하여 당신은 얼마나 향수를 느끼고 있습니까? 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵을 좋아한 사람으로서의 자부심** Q3_2.3 아래 항목에 대하여 당신은 얼마나 향수를 느끼고 있습니까? 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵의 진정한 팬이었다는 사실에 대한 만족감** Q3_2.4 아래 항목에 대하여 당신은 얼마나 향수를 느끼고 있습니까? 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵을 경험한 사람으로서의 성취감** Q3_2.5 아래 항목에 대하여 당신은 얼마나 향수를 느끼고 있습니까? 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵의 진정한 팬이었다는 사실** Q3_2.6 아래 항목에 대하여 당신은 얼마나 향수를 느끼고 있습니까? 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵 당시, 나와 함께 한국국가대표팀을 응원했던 사람들의 독특한 특징**

Nostalgia 관련 문항 (계속)	Q3_2.7 아래 항목에 대하여 당신은 얼마나 향수를 느끼고 있습니까? 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵 당시, 나와 함께 한국국가대표팀을 응원했던 사람들의 응원행위 (몸동작, 노래, 구호등)** Q3_2.8 아래 항목에 대하여 당신은 얼마나 향수를 느끼고 있습니까? 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵 당시 국민적 일체감에 영향을 준 기억** Q3_2.9 아래 항목에 대하여 당신은 얼마나 향수를 느끼고 있습니까? 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵 당시 한국사람으로서의 자부심** Q3_2.10 아래 항목에 대하여 당신은 얼마나 향수를 느끼고 있습니까? 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵 기간 중에 경험한 국민적 일체감** Q3_2.11 아래 항목에 대하여 당신은 얼마나 향수를 느끼고 있습니까? 가장 적절한 번호를 골라 주십시오. **2002 한일 월드컵 기간 중, 내가 한국사람이라는 것의 중요성**

Appendix G

Questionnaire Survey Items for Japanese Version

サッカーに関するアンケート

選択肢記号の説明

□ 複数選択（チェックボックス）

○ 単一選択（ラジオボタン）

▽ 単一選択（プルダウン）

SQ1

あなたご自身のことについてあてはまるものを全てお選びください。

▲ 設問文を折りたたむ

□ 1. 1996 年 6 月から 2002 年 5 月の間に日本でおよそ年 1 回以上サッカーをした

□ 2. 1996 年 6 月から 2002 年 5 月の間に日本でおよそ年 1 回以上野球をした

□ 3. 1996 年 6 月から 2002 年 5 月の間に日本でおよそ年 1 回以上バスケットボールをした

□ 4. 1996 年 6 月から 2002 年 5 月の間に日本でおよそ年 1 回以上バレーボールをした

□ 5. 1996 年 6 月から 2002 年 5 月の間に日本でおよそ年 1 回以上上記以外のスポーツをした

□ 6. 1996 年 6 月から 2002 年 5 月の間に日本でおよそ年 1 回以上スポーツをしなかった/覚えていない

SQ2

2002FIFA ワールドカップの大会について、あなたが覚えているものを全てお選びください。

▲ 設問文を折りたたむ

□ 1. 開催国

□ 2. 優勝国

☐	3.	日本の大会成績
☐	4.	上記は覚えていない

SQ3

あなたは 2002 FIFA ワールドカップの試合を観戦しましたか？（いくつでも）

▲ 設問文を折りたたむ

☐	1.	スタジアムで観戦した
☐	2.	テレビで観戦した
☐	3.	その他【FA】
☐	4.	観戦しなかった

Q1

以下の各項目について、あなた自身があてはまるものをそれぞれ選択してください。

▲ 設問文を折りたたむ

	項目リスト	
Q1S1	1.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会期間中、私はテレビやインターネット、ラジオなどを通してワールドカップの試合を見た（生中継、録画放送、ハイライトなどを含む）
Q1S2	2.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会期間中、私は大型スクリーンがある街頭やスポーツバーなどの公共の場所でワールドカップの試合を見た
Q1S3	3.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会期間中、私は家族や友人、知人などとワールドカップに関する話をした
Q1S4	4.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会の直後（2002 年夏～2005 年）、私は大会の前と比べてサッカーを実施する時間が増えた
Q1S5	5.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会の直後（2002 年夏～2005 年）、私は大会の前と比べてサッカーを実施する頻度が増えた
Q1S6	6.	現在も、私は定期的にサッカーを実施している
Q1S7	7.	現在の私のサッカー実施頻度は、2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会の前と比べて増えている
Q1S8	8.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会の直後（2002 年夏～2005 年）、私は大会の前と比べてサッカーの試合を見る時間が増えた（スタジアム観戦、テレビやインターネットを通した生中継、録画放送、ハイライトの視聴を含む）
Q1S9	9.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会の直後（2002 年夏～2005 年）、私は大会の前と比べてサッカーの試合を見る頻度が増えた（スタジアム観戦、テレビやインターネットを通した生中継、録画放送、ハイライトの視聴を含む）

Q1S10	10.	現在も、私は定期的にサッカーの試合を見ている（スタジアム観戦、テレビやインターネットを通した生中継、録画放送、ハイライトの視聴を含む）
Q1S11	11.	現在、私がサッカーの試合を見る頻度は、2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会の前と比べて増えている（スタジアム観戦、テレビやインターネットを通した生中継、録画放送、ハイライトの視聴を含む）
Q1S12	12.	私は、自分の子どもにサッカーをすることを勧めたことがある
Q1S13	13.	私は、自分の子どもと一緒にサッカーをしたことがある
Q1S14	14.	私は、スポーツや運動をすることが好きだ

選択肢リスト

○	1.	大いにあてはまる
○	2.	あてはまる
○	3.	ややあてはまる
○	4.	どちらともいえない
○	5.	ややあてはまらない
○	6.	あてはまらない
○	7.	全くあてはまらない

Q2

2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会に関する以下の各項目について、7 段階で最も近いものをそれぞれ選択してください。（頻度）

▲ 設問文を折りたたむ

項目リスト

Q2S1	1.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会は、私に刺激を与えた
Q2S2	2.	私は 2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会の雰囲気に刺激された
Q2S3	3.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会は、私に感動を与えた
Q2S4	4.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会の後、私はよりサッカーをしたいと思うようになった

選択肢リスト

○	1.	とてもよくあった

○	2.	↑
○	3.	↑
○	4.	—
○	5.	↓
○	6.	↓
○	7.	全くなかった

Q3

2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会に関する以下の各項目について、7 段階で最も近いものをそれぞれ選択してください。（強度）

▲ 設問文を折りたたむ

項目リスト

Q3S1	1.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会は、私に刺激を与えた
Q3S2	2.	私は 2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会の雰囲気に刺激された
Q3S3	3.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会は、私に感動を与えた
Q3S4	4.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会の後、私はよりサッカーをしたいと思うようになった

選択肢リスト

○	1.	とても強くあった
○	2.	↑
○	3.	↑
○	4.	—
○	5.	↓
○	6.	↓
○	7.	全くなかった

Q4

以下の各項目について、あなたはどの程度懐かしく思っていますか？
あなたの考えにあてはまるものをそれぞれ選択してください。

▲ 設問文を折りたたむ

項目リスト

Q4S1	1.	私が楽しんだ 2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会の試合を見た記憶
Q4S2	2.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会期間中、私が興奮した応援の記憶
Q4S3	3.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会によって、私はより元気になったこと
Q4S4	4.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会期間中の記憶に残る雰囲気
Q4S5	5.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会期間中に私が訪ねた思い出の場所（スタジアムやスポーツバーなど、試合を見て応援した場所）
Q4S6	6.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会期間中に私が使った応援グッズ
Q4S7	7.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会期間中、私と一緒に試合を見て応援した友人
Q4S8	8.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会期間中に他の人と共有したポジティブな記憶
Q4S9	9.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会期間中に他の人と仲良くなった記憶
Q4S10	10.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会期間中に他の人と交流した記憶
Q4S11	11.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会期間中の他の人との楽しい活動（飲み会、食事など）
Q4S12	12.	私自身が 2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会が好きな者であったこと
Q4S13	13.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会が好きな者としての誇り
Q4S14	14.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会の真のファンであったことに対する満足感

選択肢リスト

○	1.	とてもそう思う
○	2.	そう思う
○	3.	少しそう思う
○	4.	どちらともいえない
○	5.	あまりそう思わない
○	6.	そう思わない
○	7.	全くそう思わない

Q5

以下の各項目について、あなたはどの程度懐かしく思っていますか？あなたの考えにあてはまるものをそれぞれ選択してください。

▲ 設問文を折りたたむ

項目リスト

Q5S1	1.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会を経験した者としての達成感
Q5S2	2.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会の真のファンであったこと
Q5S3	3.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会期間中、私と一緒に日本代表を応援した人々のユニークな特徴
Q5S4	4.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会期間中、日本代表をサポートしたみんなで一緒にやった応援（手拍子、かけ声、歌など）
Q5S5	5.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会期間中に国民的な一体感に影響を与えた記憶
Q5S6	6.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会期間中の日本人としての誇り
Q5S7	7.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会期間中に経験した国民の一体感
Q5S8	8.	2002 FIFA ワールドカップ大会期間中、私自身が日本人であることの重要性

選択肢リスト

○	1.	とてもそう思う
○	2.	そう思う
○	3.	少しそう思う
○	4.	どちらともいえない
○	5.	あまりそう思わない
○	6.	そう思わない
○	7.	全くそう思わない