Sport Nostalgia: An Examination of Familiarity and Intended Behavior

Dissertation

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By
Katherine C. Meyer, M.A.
Graduate Program in Sport Management

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Dissertation Committee:
Dr. Brian Turner, Advisor
Dr. Packianathan Chelladurai
Dr. Sarah Fields
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ABSTRACT

Nostalgia has a long history; the term was derived in 1688 to refer to homesickness (Hofer, 1688/1934). Since the origination of the term, nostalgia has transformed to mean a preference for an object in the past (Fairley, 2003). A distinction between first and second hand experiences with the past has previously been termed personal nostalgia (Stern, 1992) and vicarious nostalgia (Goulding, 2002). This study uses Jim Thorpe, an athlete for which the sample was too young to have experienced first-hand. Therefore, vicarious nostalgia was used in this study.

Current literature lacks understanding of nostalgia’s antecedents and outcomes. The general purpose of this study was to expand the understanding of nostalgia antecedents and outcomes, especially as they relate to sport nostalgia. Specifically, this study explored the effects of familiarity with a vicarious object on evoked nostalgia. The study also explored the relationship between evoked nostalgia and nostalgic intended behaviors. Gender and race were also investigated in the study as they relate to evoked nostalgia and nostalgic intended behaviors.

A non-random convenience sample consisting of undergraduate students from a large, Midwestern university were asked to participate in the study. The participants watched a video about Jim Thorpe and then complete a questionnaire. The purpose of the
video was to evoke the participants with nostalgia. The Nostalgic Intended Behavior Questionnaire consisted of items designed to measure evoked nostalgia (NOST), intended behaviors as they relate to an object of nostalgia, familiarity with Jim Thorpe, nostalgia proneness (adapted TPI), and demographics. Of the 306 respondents, 303 of the questionnaires were useable.

The results indicated a significant relationship between familiarity and evoked nostalgia. A significant relationship was also found between evoked nostalgia and nostalgic intended behaviors. No significant relationships were found for race and gender as they relate to evoked nostalgia and nostalgic intended behaviors. These findings suggest that sport organizations should promote and celebrate their history to continually create opportunities for consumers to become familiar with the past of the organizations. The findings also suggest that it is beneficial for sport organizations to use nostalgia as a tool to persuade consumer behavior.
Dedicated to my family: Past, present, and future
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VITA

June 21, 1982……………………………………Born - Cincinnati, Ohio

2000-2004…………………………………….Varsity Synchronized Swimming
   The Ohio State University

2004……………………………………………..B.A. Sociology,
   The Ohio State University

2005-2006………………………………………Graduate Administrative Assistant
   The Ohio State University
   Department of Recreation

2006……………………………………………..M.A. Sport Management,
   The Ohio State University

2006-present……………………………………Graduate Teaching Associate
   The Ohio State University
   School of Physical Activity and Educational Services

FIELDS OF STUDY

Major Field:   College of Education
               Physical Activities and Educational Services
               Studies in Sport Management

Specialization: Sociology
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Marketers have been using nostalgia to influence consumers for years. While commonplace, this nostalgic trend has been increasing in recent years due to the flagging economy, because in difficult times consumers find reassurance in familiarity (Elliot, 2009). Nostalgia marketing campaigns aim to capitalize on the consumer’s preference for the “good old days.” Historically, food and beverage brands use nostalgia as an advertising strategy to entice consumers to purchase their products (Unger, McConocha, & Faier, 1991). Pepsi and Mountain Dew, two popular soft drink beverages, were recently part of a nostalgia campaign entitled “throwback” where their logos were redesigned to resemble their logos from the past. The beverages were also made with cane sugar as they had been in the past, rather than high fructose corn syrup, the standard practice of today (“Pepsi Throwback Hub,” 2010). Elliot (2009) wrote “the hope [of nostalgia advertising campaigns] is that warm, fuzzy feelings about the past will help make people feel better about the present and future” (para. 4). The Pepsi and Mountain Dew nostalgia campaigns were so successful the “throwback” beverages were re-released for a limited time in December 2009.
Sports have also been at the center of nostalgic marketing. Many of the advertisements aired during the 2010 NFL Super Bowl XLIV used nostalgia as a marketing tactic in the midst of the poor economy (Elliot, 2010). Nostalgia characteristics displayed in the commercials included: celebrities from various generations, such as baby boomer Stevie Wonder for Volkswagen; former athletes, such as former NBA star Charles Barkley for Taco Bell; and older music, such as the band Kiss, for Dr. Pepper Cherry (Elliot, 2010).

Another example of sport orientated nostalgic marketing is a recent Visa commercial highlighting Dan Jansen, a former United States Olympic speed skater, which was broadcast during the 2010 Winter Olympics. Actor Morgan Freeman narrated the commercial depicting Jansen’s Olympic story as video highlights of Jansen rolled. The commercial explains that Jansen's sister, who had inspired him to take up speed skating, died just before the 1988 Olympic Games. Six years later, however, at the 1994 Olympics, Jansen persevered back from years of disappointment and won his first Olympic Gold medal in his last Olympic race (DrewDevil, 2010).

In the National Basketball Association, ever since acquiring Kevin Garnett and Ray Allen prior to the 2007-2008 season, the Boston Celtics have heavily marketed Garnett, Allen, and Paul Pierce as the new version of “The Big Three,” playing on the city of Boston’s nostalgic feelings for the original version of “The Big Three,” which featured Larry Bird, Kevin McHale, and Robert Parrish and won three NBA championships during the 1980s (“Celtics History,” 2010).
In Major League Baseball, the explosion of new stadiums over the past two decades has featured many nostalgic elements linking the new stadiums to the past. The exterior of the New York Mets’ Citi Field in Queens is designed to replicate the exterior of Brooklyn’s famed and beloved Ebbets Field (“Ballparks of Baseball,” 2010a). Similarly the exterior of the New York Yankees’ two-year old Yankee Stadium was built to mirror the exterior of the original Yankee Stadium when it was built in 1923. This is but a small sample of recent sports marketing efforts utilizing nostalgia (“Ballparks of Baseball,” 2010b).

So why is it important to study nostalgic sport marketing? Quite simply, a complete understanding of nostalgic marketing enables sport organizations to design more effective marketing campaigns and bring in more revenue. In order to get that result, however, organizations need to understand exactly how to exploit nostalgia to provide that revenue. For example, designing the exterior of Citi Field to resemble the exterior of beloved Ebbets Field will most likely nostalgically influence those baseball fans old enough to have visited Ebbets Field prior to its demolition in 1960 to attend a game at Citi Field, but what about the majority of baseball fans who are not old enough to have seen a game at Ebbets Field? Can they still be nostalgic for the iconic field where Jackie Robinson broke into Major League Baseball? What about those Boston Celtics fans in their teenage years who were born after the Celtics’ original “Big Three” broke up in the early 1990s, are they nostalgically motivated to attend Celtics games or buy Celtics merchandise in the era of the new “Big Three?” Simply put, can nostalgic marketing be used on consumers lacking first hand experience with the nostalgic event?
Taking nostalgic studies one step further, how does one’s familiarity with a sport organization affect one’s level of nostalgia? Is someone who knows the entire history of the team more likely to be nostalgic than someone who is only slightly aware of the team’s historical past? Are nostalgic feelings similar between genders and races? Are there varying levels of successful nostalgic marketing between genders and races? If a sports organization is trying to encourage more female or African-American attendance to events, are there specific marketing plans that will more effectively evoke nostalgia in those groups? Lastly, can the link between evoked nostalgia and the intended behavior while one is nostalgic, be quantified? While nostalgic marketing has been used for many years, understanding the influence of nostalgia on consumer behavior is limited. Imagine how beneficial it would be if a sport organization could design quantifiable marketing plans based on nostalgia to influence the purchase behavior of an entire fan base across racial, gender, and generational gaps.

In this dissertation, the current nostalgia research is reviewed along with the results of a study that empirically investigates familiarity, gender, and race as antecedents of nostalgia. The dissertation also examined the relationship between nostalgia and the intended behavior while one is nostalgic, henceforth referred to as nostalgic intended behavior.

Nostalgia

Johannes Hofer first coined the term nostalgia in his medical dissertation in 1688 to refer to homesickness (1688/1934). His studies showed that some individuals left home and became very ill because they longed for their homeland. The remedy for the
disease was simple—to return to one’s native land. The medical context of nostalgia has waned as the definition of nostalgia has been altered and expanded by scholars in varying disciplines. As a result of the more than two centuries of research and discussion on nostalgia, it is no longer defined as homesickness. The current definition of nostalgia is “a preference (general liking, positive attitude or favorable affect) towards objects (people, places, experiences or things) from when one was younger or from times about which one has learned vicariously, perhaps through socialization or the media” (Fairley, 2003, p. 287-288).


To date, nostalgia research has been far-reaching, but demand remains to explore its conceptual and empirical realms (Holbrook & Schindler, 1991; Nawas & Platt, 1965). Topics that have been explored include nostalgia proneness (Holbrook, 1993), age (Holbrook & Schindler, 1989, 1991), gender (Baker & Kennedy, 1994), identity (Aden, 1995; Belk, 1990; Davis, 1979; Ritivoli, 2002), negative and positive feelings (Baker &
Kennedy, 1994; Davis, 1979; Holak & Havlena, 1992), sport tourism (Fairley, 2003; Gammon, 2002; Gibson, 1998a, 1998b, 2002; Mason, Duquette, & Sherer, 2005; Ramshaw & Gammon, 2005; Wilson, 2004), and advertising (Howell, 1991; Pascal, Sprott, & Muehling, 2002; Stern, 1992; Unger, McConocha, & Faier, 1991). These topics will be discussed further in the second chapter.

The nostalgic experience encompasses emotion (Baker & Kennedy, 1994; Belk, 1990; Holak & Havlena, 1998), which research has shown is generally more positive than negative (Wildschut, Sedikides, Arndt, & Routledge, 2006). It is important to note that the emotion felt by the individual is controlled by the way the individual recalls the past. The individual can filter memories to recall them in an artificial context (Belk 1990; Havlena & Holak, 1991; Holak & Havlena, 1992; Stern, 1992) to make the memory more pleasing than the initial experience. For example, an NBA player could be nostalgic for his first basketball game when he was a child, even if his team lost the game and he happened to get hurt. Although the NBA player’s first basketball game seems unfavorable, he could still have a positive nostalgic experience recalling his first game because it was the unofficial beginning of his career.

The nostalgic experience also encompasses the memory of an object (i.e., person, place, experience, or thing). These objects are seen as triggers of nostalgia. The notion of objects playing a role in the nostalgic experience is dictated in Fairley’s (2003) definition of nostalgia.

Many studies have been conducted to examine the objects of nostalgia. Some of these objects include people (i.e., immediate family members, relatives, classmates,
friends, teachers, coaches, partners, and ex-partners), items (i.e., antiques, clothing, jewelry, toys, books, and cars), and events (i.e., holidays, birthdays, births, and class reunions; Holak & Havlena, 1992). It has also been found that people are nostalgic for music (Holbrook & Schindler, 1989; 1991), movies (Holbrook, 1993), sport places or artifacts (i.e., sport halls of fame and museums), and for social experiences (i.e., participant, spectator, volunteer in sport; Fairley & Gammon, 2005).

Fairley’s (2003) definition also discusses the time period for which one can be nostalgic for objects from the past. Her definition suggests one can be nostalgic for something from one’s past or for something that happened prior to one’s lifetime, a vicarious nostalgia. Vicarious nostalgia (Goulding, 2002) is a longing for a past that was not personally experienced by the individual (also called second-hand nostalgia). In order for one to have vicarious nostalgia, he or she has to learn about the object of nostalgia. Individuals can learn to be nostalgic for an object, person, place, or experience through loved ones (Baker & Kennedy, 1994; Fairley, 2003; Havlena & Holak, 1996; Snyder, 1991) or the media (Fairley, 2003; Snyder, 1991). For example, it is impossible for a present day 20 year old to have directly experienced Babe Ruth, but the individual can be vicariously nostalgic for how Ruth changed the game of baseball or the way he lived larger than life.

In personal nostalgia, one is nostalgic for something they have personally experienced. An example of personal nostalgia is if someone becomes nostalgic for the time they witnessed Lance Armstrong win his seventh consecutive Tour de France. A
possible trigger of the nostalgia emotion could be seeing Armstrong in the media or noticing a yellow Lance Armstrong “Livestrong” wristband on someone’s arm.

Other aspects of nostalgia that are important to understand are the antecedents and the outcomes of nostalgia. One antecedent that is particularly important in determining nostalgia is nostalgia proneness. Nostalgia proneness is how likely one will be nostalgic (Holbrook, 1993). Those who are more prone to nostalgia are more likely to be nostalgic and behave differently than those who are less prone. Therefore, it is thought that a highly prone individual will be more likely to be affected by a nostalgic marketing campaign. Some other antecedents to nostalgia include age, gender, race, identity, and senses.

Research has been conducted investigating the outcomes of nostalgia. Studies have found that nostalgia increases one’s intention to purchase (Pascal et al., 2002; Sierra & McQuitty, 2007), creates a more positive perception and attitude towards advertisements and brands (Baker & Kennedy; 1994; Muehling & Sprott, 2004; Neeb, Faier, & Unger, 1989; Pascal, et al., 2002), enhances brand associations (Gladden & Funk, 2006), and the ability to recall radio advertisements (Neeb, et al., 1989). Nostalgia has also been found to create bonds and attachments between people (Fairley, 2003) and objects (Holbrook & Schindler, 2003).

Statement of the Problem

While nostalgia has been studied in detail to date, further study of the antecedents and the corresponding outcomes of nostalgia need to be explored in order have a more complete understanding of nostalgia. A better understanding of the antecedents and
outcomes of nostalgia could be invaluable for sport marketers if they are able to induce nostalgia in order to provoke a specific outcome, such as purchasing tickets to attend a game. Another example of the antecedents and outcomes of nostalgia is the use of professional throwback jerseys. For instance, professional sport throwback jerseys are commonly used to help fans recall the past glories of their team (the antecedent to nostalgia), and can encourage them to purchase the throwback jersey (the outcome of nostalgia).

In the proposed study the antecedents studied include familiarity with a nostalgic object (i.e., athlete), nostalgia proneness, gender, and race. The outcome studied is nostalgic intended behavior (i.e., the anticipated behavior of an individual once he or she is nostalgic).

Previous scholars have made a distinction between vicarious nostalgia and personal nostalgia (Baker & Kennedy, 1994; Goulding, 2002). These distinctions suggest that one can be nostalgic for something he or she has no direct experience with or for something with which he or she has direct experience. A study, however, has not been conducted to compare the strengths of the nostalgic responses for items that are personally (personal nostalgia) and not-personally (vicarious nostalgia) experienced. Knowing which objects or marketing tools best evoke nostalgia across personal or vicarious nostalgia helps marketers more carefully select the right evoking object and achieve better results. The goal of course, is to select objects that create the highest levels of nostalgia.
The possible differences between experience levels among personal and vicarious nostalgia suggest that individuals might have different levels of familiarity with objects that induce nostalgia. These varying levels of familiarity might be an antecedent influencing the nostalgic experience. For example, a person with a strong familiarity for the Boston Celtics might be more susceptible to nostalgia evoking marketing plans like the Celtics’ recent “Big Three” campaign because he or she grew up in Boston, regularly attended games at the TD Garden, read about the Celtic players in the local newspapers, heard about the players on the news, or discussed the Celtics with friends. Therefore, the level of familiarity one has with the object that is evoking nostalgia might influence one’s nostalgic experience. It is important to remember that people can become familiar with objects without experiencing them first-hand, but can become familiar vicariously, such as through the media.

Nostalgia proneness has been found to be an influential antecedent on one’s level of evoked nostalgia (Holbrook, 1993; Holbrook & Schindler, 1991, 1994). Since previous research has found relationships between nostalgia and nostalgia proneness, the proposed study measures nostalgia proneness as a control variable.

Gender and race are also thought to be possible antecedents of nostalgia but need to be studied further. Research on the study of the differences between males and females has found varying results about objects that evoke nostalgia. One study found that men are more nostalgic for cars than females (Schindler & Holbrook, 2003), while in other studies, the results show little to no difference (Batcho, 1995; Muehling & Sprott, 2004; Sherman & Newman, 1977). For racial differences in evoked nostalgia, the only
existing study found non-whites to be more nostalgic than whites (Best & Nelson, 1985). A clearer understanding of the differences between genders and races as antecedents of nostalgia, if there were differences, would be an enormous help to marketers. Not only is an understanding of which groups are more susceptible to nostalgia marketing needed, but also an understanding of what types of objects produce better responses between genders and races is needed. Maybe both genders and all races are equally susceptible to nostalgia, but just require specific evoking elements than others. Furthermore, no study has explored the relationships between gender and race with nostalgic elements related to sport.

Considering the trend of implementing nostalgia in marketing campaigns, especially in sports, it is surprising that more studies have not been conducted to explore the effects of nostalgia, specifically nostalgic intended behavior. Nostalgic intended behavior is the behavior an individual anticipates to perform after being nostalgic. For example, in the aforementioned Visa commercial featuring Olympian Dan Jansen, after one’s nostalgia has been evoked from watching the video, how is the consumer going to behave? Nostalgia could influence the consumer to support Visa by either applying for a Visa credit card or using their Visa card more often.

In summary, while elements of nostalgia have been studied, further study of the antecedents and the corresponding outcomes of nostalgia are necessary in order to have a more complete understanding of nostalgia and its marketing effectiveness, especially in the unstudied area of sport nostalgia. In the proposed study, familiarity, nostalgia proneness, gender, and race will be examined as antecedents to nostalgia. Nostalgia
intended behavior will also be studied as an outcome to nostalgia. Each of these antecedents and outcomes will provide important information to better equip sport marketers to market their organizations more effectively, bring in additional revenue, and as a result, shape the fan experience from merchandise sales to the types of sport products produced.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study is to expand the understanding of nostalgia antecedents and outcomes, especially as they relate to sport nostalgia. Specifically, this study explores the effects of familiarity with a vicarious object inducing nostalgia with levels of evoked nostalgia. The study also, explores the relationship between evoked nostalgia and nostalgic intended behaviors. Additionally, this study explores the effects of gender and race on evoked nostalgia and nostalgic indented behaviors. The instrument used in the study measured evoked nostalgia (NOST), intended behaviors as they relate to an object of nostalgia, familiarity to the nostalgic object, nostalgia proneness (adapted TPI), and demographics.

A more thorough understanding of nostalgia antecedents and outcomes related to sport nostalgia is invaluable to the sport marketers turning more and more to nostalgia marketing, especially in the midst of a rebounding economy, where sport organizations need to maximize every possible revenue stream.

**Conceptual Framework and Research Questions**

The conceptual framework proposed in this study focuses on the role of familiarity with an object (person, place, experience, or item) on evoked nostalgia. The
researcher believes the more familiar one is with the object, then the more likely the object is to produce a nostalgic reaction within the individual. Therefore, familiarity is seen as a possible antecedent to the nostalgic experience. This conceptualization was derived from the notion that people learn about nostalgic objects differently, through personal or vicarious nostalgia. Since there are varying ways to learn about objects, it is thought that there are also varying levels of familiarity among objects that evoke nostalgia.

Previous research has suggested nostalgia proneness is a factor that influences one’s level of evoked nostalgia (Holbrook, 1993; Holbrook & Schindler, 1991, 1994). Since there is evidence that nostalgia proneness plays a factor in one’s nostalgia, nostalgia proneness will be measured and controlled for during statistical analysis. The research question to be explored relating to the preceding issues is as follows:

**Research Question 1:** Can familiarity influence evoked nostalgia?

A second component to the study investigates whether or not evoked nostalgia influences one’s nostalgic intended behaviors. Previous research has shown that nostalgia does influence one’s intention to purchase (Pascal, et al., 2002; Sierra & McQuitty, 2007) and creates a more positive perception and attitude toward advertisements and brands (Baker & Kennedy; 1994; Muehling & Sprott, 2004; Neeb, et al., 1989; Pascal et al., 2002). However, specific behaviors relating to what type of actions one will take as a result to being nostalgic have not been studied. For example, is there a difference between going to a movie and reading a book?
The theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1988) states that one’s intention is a predictor of behavior. There are several factors influencing intention, such as behavioral beliefs, normative beliefs, and control beliefs. These factors influence intention to behave. This study used a portion of the model explaining the theory of planned behavior; the study simply looked at the relationship between intention and behavior.

For that reason, this study aims to explore the nostalgic intended behavior for actions that vary in the amount of time and resources needed to participate in nostalgic intended behaviors. The research question asked to explore evoked nostalgia and nostalgic intended behavior is as follows:

**Research Question 2**: Does evoked nostalgia influence nostalgic intended behavior?

Gender has been studied as it relates to nostalgia. The findings have produced inconclusive results as to whether or not gender is a significant factor of nostalgia. In one case no differences between gender among 20 items relating to places, family, society, and experiences were found (Batcho, 1995). However, another study found that men were more likely to be nostalgic during a tour of Wrigley Field (Wilson, 2004). This study aims to further explore the relationships between males and females on evoked nostalgia and on nostalgic intended behaviors. The following research questions are asked to explore these relations:

**Research Question 3**: Is there a difference between males and females for evoked nostalgia?
**Research Question 4:** Is there a difference between males and females for nostalgic intended behaviors?

Studying the relationship between race and the nostalgic experience has not been widely studied. However, in one study non-whites were found to be more nostalgic than whites (Best & Nelson, 1985). This finding resulted because the lives of non-whites were seen as more complicated than whites because of racism. The presence of racism created a discontinuity of the self for non-whites, causing the non-white individual to be nostalgic in order to create a sense of personal security or continuity.

This study aims to expand the research investigating the relationship between race and nostalgia to determine if race has an effect on the response to a nostalgic object. The study also aims to explore the relationship between race and nostalgic intended behaviors. These results will provide a greater understanding of what races will react to being evoked with nostalgia. The following research questions will be explored in the study:

**Research Question 5:** Is there a difference between race and evoked nostalgia?

**Research Question 6:** Is there a difference between race and nostalgic intended behaviors?

**Limitations and Delimitations of the Study**

**Limitations**

The researcher acknowledges the following limitations:

1. The use of a single questionnaire only captures one moment of time.
2. The results may be influenced by current events; a history threat might occur.
3. The request to answer the items might force the participant to reflect on the video shown when he or she would not normally spend time to analyze the video.

4. The participants were enrolled in classes with a subject matter pertaining to sport and recreation, suggesting the participants might have a greater interest in sport than others. The higher degree of sport interest might have influenced the responses.

5. The study may be limited by the restrictions imposed by the validity and reliability of the measures selected.

Delimitations

The researcher acknowledges the following delimitations:

1. The study used a convenience sample. Therefore, the results of the study cannot be generalized.

2. The sample was derived from undergraduate students enrolled in a large, Midwestern university. Therefore, the sample was very homogenous based on age and race. A more heterogeneous sample could provide varying results and also add to generalizability.

Definition of Key Terms

The following is a list of conceptual definitions for key terms in the study:

1. Nostalgia is defined as “a preference (general liking, positive attitude or favorable affect) towards objects (people, places, experiences or things) from
when one was younger or from times about which one has learned vicariously, perhaps through socialization or the media” (Fairley, 2003, p. 287-288).

2. Object refers to people, places, experiences, or things (Fairley, 2003). These objects trigger nostalgic experiences.

3. Evoked nostalgia is nostalgia that is induced by a stimulus, such as a video.


5. Familiarity refers to how familiar one is with the object (people, places, experiences, or things).

6. Nostalgia proneness is defined as “a potential facet of individual character, which displays a propensity for an individual to be prone to nostalgia” (Holbrook, 1993, p. 246).

7. Media is defined as a means to communicate information. It can include words, images, and sound.

8. Nostalgic intended behavior is defined as one’s anticipated actions while he or she is nostalgic.

Summary

This first chapter is an introduction to and overview of the proposed study. It outlines the opportunity to make further advancements in the application of nostalgia, especially as nostalgia relates to intended nostalgic behaviors. The second chapter provides an in depth literature review of the key conceptual underpinnings of nostalgia. It also provides a literature review of intended behavior. The third chapter discusses the
research design and methodology for the proposed study. Outlined in this chapter are the research design, sample, instrumentation, data collection, and analysis. The fourth chapter presents the results of the proposed study, revealing the strength of relationships between variables. The fifth chapter provides a discussion of the findings and suggests future studies.
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

“Nostalgia is a confusing emotion, full of paradoxes…Nostalgia is universal and ubiquitous, yet unique…It is one of the most astonishingly powerful of all the emotions, and also one of the most remarkably delicate…Nostalgia can be a real inspirational stimulant: and also one of the deadliest of all poisons…The nostalgic emotion, so heady and so potentially treacherous, is central in life and at the heart of the therapeutic situation.” (Howland, 1962, p. 198-199)

The term nostalgia has been in use for more than three centuries during which the word has represented varying notions. The purpose of this chapter is to briefly trace the history of nostalgia, discuss the current conceptualizations of nostalgia, the antecedents of nostalgia, and the outcomes of nostalgia. The chapter will conclude by discussing the conceptualization of intended behavior.

Historical Overview of Nostalgia

The nostalgia journey begins with Johnnes Hofer, who in 1688 coined the term to signify homesickness, or a longing for home. Hofer (1688/1934) derived the term nostalgia from the Greek word *Nostalgias* where *Nosos* means return to the native land and *Algos* means suffering. The original nostalgic diagnosis referred to soldiers who left home and became sick. The term was later broadened to include anyone who left home and most commonly referred to immigrants (Frost, 1938). Nostalgia was considered
a mental disease (Hofer 1688/1934). The symptoms included sadness, disturbed sleep, loss of strength, hunger, thirst, weakened senses, palpitations of the heart, frequent sighs, and stupidity of the mind (Hofer, 1688/1934). These symptoms were believed to be caused by an affliction in the inner brain from animal spirits where vibrations in the brain cause a longing for one’s native land (Hofer, 1688/1934). The cure for nostalgia was to return one to his or her native land.

Starobiniski (1966) suggests Hofer coined the term as a disease because the classification of diseases was common practice at the time. It was also thought that the disease nostalgia was popularized because the influx of diseases at the time caused people to be scared, which in turn caused people to disseminate information about nostalgia (Starobiniski, 1966). Therefore, nostalgia was readily discussed and communicated within communities, undoubtedly leading to the popularization of the nostalgic disease.

Scholars continued to study nostalgia as it relates to a longing for home well into the 20th century and beyond (Best & Nelson, 1985; Howland, 1962; Fodor, 1950; Frost, 1938; Martin, 1954; McCann, 1941; Ritivoi, 2002; Rosen, 1975). In the most recent research, Ritivoi (2002) describes nostalgia as a method of coping with leaving home. The nostalgic experience is considered to be a form of escapism and retreatism, allowing immigrants to feel better about themselves as they use nostalgia to reflect on their identities from their former home. The challenge for immigrants is to decide how they are going to adjust to their new environment by deciding how much of their former identity they are going to maintain, and how much they are going to change in their new
environment. This process is known as assimilation and accommodation in the field of psychology.

Due to its popularity and the length of its usage, the term nostalgia has changed over time such that the original definition of nostalgia is no longer synonymous with the current definition (Starobinski, 1966). The meaning of nostalgia has transformed from a medical disease about homesickness to an emotion (Davis, 1979; Howland, 1962), and to a memory (Baumgartner, 1992; Cavanaugh, 1989; Merchant & Ford, 2008; Werman, 1977. Some of the disciplines that have contributed to the maturation of nostalgia are sociology (Davis 1977, 1979; Stauth & Turner, 1987), cultural studies (Tannock, 1995), history (Lowenthal, 1989), business (Baker & Kennedy, 1994; Brown & Humphreys, 2002; Havlena & Holak, 1996; Hirsch, 1992; Holak & Havlena, 1992, 1998; Holbrook & Schindler, 1994, 1996, 2003; Merchant & Ford, 2008; Muehling & Sprott, 2004; Pascal, et al., 2002; Schindler & Holbrook, 2003; Reisenwitz, et al., 2004; Sierra & McQuitty, 2007; Stern, 1992) and sport management (Fairley, 2003; Fairley & Gammon, 2005; Redmond, 1973; Slowikowski, 1991; Snyder, 1991; Wilson, 2004).

Although popular culture definitions of nostalgia usually refer to sentimental revisiting of the past, academics aim to create definitions that encapsulate all of nostalgia’s constructs. These definitions guide the researcher in framing his or her research. Merchant and Ford (2008) have categorized the various definitions created by scholars into four broad categories: (a) temporal, (b) emotional, (c) triggers, and (d) comprehensive. These categories will be used to discuss and critique current definitions.
of nostalgia. It is important to note the researcher classified the definitions in each
category.

Davis’ (1979) definition of nostalgia is a yearning for yesterday. This definition
represents the temporal category discussed by Merchant and Ford (2008) because the
definition represents the past. Davis’ definition declares nostalgia is a craving for
something that occurred at a period before the present.

The emotion and trigger categories are represented in Belk’s (1990) definition of
nostalgia. Belk (1990) defines nostalgia as “a wistful mood that may be promoted by an
object, a scene, a smell, or a strain of music” (p. 670). These objects, scenes, smells, and
music are all triggers of nostalgia. The emotion category is linked to the wistful mood
generated during a nostalgic state. The definition of wistful is important because it
describes the type of emotion nostalgia generates can be both positive and negative.

The categories temporal, emotion, and trigger are represented in Holbrook and
Schindler’s (1991) definition of nostalgia. Since these three categories are represented,
Holbrook and Schindler’s (1991) definition of nostalgia is considered to be
comprehensive. Holbrook and Schindler (1991) define nostalgia as “a preference
(general liking, positive attitude, or favorable affect) toward objects (people, places, or
things) that were more common (popular, fashionable, or widely circulated) when one
was younger (in early adulthood, in adolescence, in childhood, or even before birth)” (p.
330). The temporal aspect of the definition includes more than just the past, even
venturing prior to one’s birth. Since one can be nostalgic for a time before one’s birth,
the individual can therefore be nostalgic for something with which they have no direct
experience, a vicarious nostalgia. The emotion mentioned in the definition refers to a positive expression. The definition does not mention any negative connotations. The triggers mentioned in this definition are objects (people, places, or things).

Stern’s (1992) definition of nostalgia falls under the temporal and emotion categories. Stern (1992) defines nostalgia as “an emotional state in which an individual yearns for an idealized or sanitized version of an earlier time period” (p. 11). The temporal aspect of the definition refers to the undefined time period. The definition’s emotional category is also undefined. It is important to note in this definition that the time period is seen as an “idealized or sanitized” conception of the past, suggesting a purely positive memory of the past which is not always an accurate recollection.

Baker and Kennedy (1994) offer a comprehensive definition of nostalgia defining nostalgia as “a sentimental or bittersweet yearning for an experience, product, or service from the past” (p. 169). The temporal aspect of the definition relates to the past. The emotion relates to a “bittersweet” emotion, one that is infused with both positive and negative emotions. The triggers of nostalgia are experiences, products, and services. It is important to note this is the first definition to include experiences and services.

Holak and Havlena (1998) offer another comprehensive definition of nostalgia. They define nostalgia as “a positively valanced complex feeling, emotion, or mood produced by reflection on things (objects, persons, experiences, ideas) associated with the past” (p. 218). This definition introduces ideas as a trigger of nostalgia.

Fairley (2003) also offers a comprehensive definition. Fairley (2003) defines nostalgia as “a preference (general liking, positive attitude or favorable affect) towards
objects (people, places, experiences or things) from when one was younger or from times about which one has learned vicariously, perhaps through socialization or the media” (p. 287-288). Fairley’s definition is very similar to Holbrook and Schindler’s (1991) definition, but it offers some noticeable additions. Most importantly, Fairley introduced socialization and media as possible nostalgia contributors, acknowledging the possibility that nostalgia can be generated by second-hand experiences. As a result, nostalgia can be spread through the socialization of agents such as family, friends, education, religion, and media. In other words, people can experience nostalgia vicariously. Using media as a socialization tool increases the opportunity for nostalgia to occur since it can be socialized through television, movies, newspaper, magazines, and the internet.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A yearning for yesterday (Davis, 1979).</td>
<td>Temporal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A wistful mood that may be promoted by an object, a scene, a smell, or a strain of music (Belk, 1990, p. 670).</td>
<td>Emotion and Trigger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A preference (general liking, positive attitude, or favorable affect) toward objects (people, places, or things) that were more common (popular, fashionable, or widely circulated) when one was younger (in early adulthood, in adolescence, in childhood, or even before birth; Holbrook &amp; Schindler, 1991, p. 330).</td>
<td>Comprehensive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An emotional state in which an individual yearns for an idealized or sanitized version of an earlier time period (Stern, 1992, p. 11).</td>
<td>Temporal and Emotion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A sentimental or bittersweet yearning for an experience, product, or service from the past (Baker &amp; Kennedy, 1994, p. 169).</td>
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<td>Comprehensive</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 2.1: Summary of nostalgia definitions

Dimensions of Nostalgia: The Nostalgic Experience

In order to provide additional insight into the nostalgic experience, it is necessary to elaborate on the many dimensions associated with nostalgia in the presented
definitions. These dimensions include personal and collective nostalgia, first-hand and second-hand experience, reality and fabrication, and positive and negative emotions.

**Personal versus Collective Nostalgia**

**Personal nostalgia.** Personal nostalgia (Davis, 1979; Havlena & Holak, 1996; Stern, 1992), private nostalgia (Dickinson & Erben, 2006; Snyder, 1991), relevant past (Havlena & Holak, 1991) and real nostalgia (Baker & Kennedy, 1994) are all synonymous terms. In this paper the term personal nostalgia will be used to refer to idealized personally remembered past (Stern, 1992). Since the personal nostalgia is from a personal experience, the symbols of personal nostalgia tend to be more idiosyncratic, individualized or personally relevant than second-hand nostalgia (Davis, 1979).

Things at the heart of personal nostalgia are one’s childhood (Dickinson & Erben, 2006), the natural world/outdoors (Dickinson & Erben, 2006), the freedom/independence from adults (Dickinson & Erben, 2006), sport memorabilia (Snyder, 1991), past family experiences (Unger, et al., 1991), and "comfort” food items (Stern, 1992). This list is not exhaustive of personal nostalgia. Creating such a list might be impossible since nostalgic objects for one person might not have the same effect on another (Daniels, 1985).

**Collective nostalgia.** Collective nostalgia is a yearning for the past that is mutually understood by a culture, a generation, or a nation (Baker & Kennedy, 1994). Collective nostalgia, just like nostalgia can be represented by or through a symbol, object, experience, or person. However, collective nostalgia must affect the masses. For example, the image of the Olympic Torch is a trigger of a collective nostalgic experience (Slowikowski, 1991).
Collective nostalgia has been found to aid in defining generations. Therefore, generations are created by history and groups of people attach to items from history that represent generations (Davis, 1979). Sports have been found to create collective nostalgia among generations. Snyder (1991) suggests events, teams, and individuals from particular time periods are aspects of collective nostalgia. It has also been found that generations are collectively nostalgic for sport venues (Trujillo & Krizek, 1994).

In comparing personal and collective nostalgia, personal nostalgia focuses on the micro, while collective focuses on the macro (Snyder, 1991). A nostalgic experience, however, cannot always be confined to be solely personal or collective, and can in fact be both collective and personal (Davis, 1979). For example, to many baseball fans the song “Take Me Out to the Ballgame” is a symbol of collective nostalgia as fans often sing it in unison at games. However, the song can also symbolize private nostalgia if it evokes a personal memory such as eating frozen chocolate malts with a wooden spoon at a baseball game with your family as a child.

**First-Hand Experience versus Second-Hand Experience**

Another dimension of nostalgia that is critical to the understanding of the nostalgic experience is the amount of familiarity one has with the nostalgic object, person, or experience. Some scholars believe an individual can only be nostalgic for a time period during one’s life (Davis, 1979; Havlena & Holak, 1991). This first-hand experience is an example of personal nostalgia. Other scholars believe one can experience vicarious nostalgia for second-hand experiences; a nostalgia for things with which he or she has no direct experience (Chase & Shaw, 1989; Fairley, 2003; Holbrook
It is quite possible there is a difference in the intensity of the nostalgic experience for a first-hand or second-hand experience.

**Vicarious nostalgia.** Vicarious nostalgia (Goulding, 2002), also known as simulated nostalgia (Baker & Kennedy, 1994) and interpersonal nostalgia (Havlena & Holak, 1996) is a longing for a past that was not personally experienced by the individual. Within the realm of vicarious nostalgia there is a distinction between time and experience. One can be nostalgia for something that occurred before one’s life (Goulding, 2002) or one can simply be nostalgic for something with which they have no direct experience. Therefore with vicarious nostalgia, one can embrace the whole length of the past rather than just the lived past (Lowenthal, 1989).

As discussed earlier, the way one learns about events with which they have no direct experience varies. Examples include learning to be nostalgic for an object, person, place, or experience through loved ones (Baker & Kennedy, 1994), family or friends (Fairley, 2003; Havlena & Holak, 1996; Snyder, 1991), or media (Fairley, 2003; Snyder, 1991). Snyder (1991) found that older individuals shared their information about items found at museums to younger individuals, so the young accompanying them could learn about a collective memory. This is important because it shows that memories and emotions are communicated to others, possibly influencing the future nostalgia of the receiver of the story. Vicarious nostalgia was also found to be influential in Fairley’s (2003) study. The study investigated the impact of stories told by long standing group members to new group members. It was found that the new group members were
socialized into being nostalgic for things the group experienced in the past, although the new group members were not part of the experience.

**Reality versus Fabrication**

Part of being nostalgic is to be able to recall the experience. In these situations the way the memory recollects the past might not always be accurate. In fact, memories can be filtered through a hyper-reality often called rose-colored glasses, where the memory is recalled more positively than it happened (Belk, 1988, 1990; Havlena & Holak, 1991; Holak & Havlena, 1992; Stern 1992). Davis (1977) believes that if negative feelings about the past became salient, then the individual disguises these feelings through a positive attitude, such as humor. This fabrication of reality occurs to protect the individual (Stern, 1992).

**Positive versus Negative Emotions**

Nostalgic experiences include complex emotional responses (Holak & Havlena, 1998) and have been referred to as emotions with the past (Belk, 1990; Baker & Kennedy, 1994). The emotions stemming from a nostalgic experience can be both positive and negative.

The current, popular definition of nostalgia typically relates to positive emotions rather than negative emotions (Wildschut, et al., 2006). The positive emotions can vary from happiness to affection. Positive emotions include pleasure, joy, satisfaction, goodness, happiness, warmth, gratitude, innocence, affection, and love (Davis, 1977; Holak & Havlena, 1998).
Negatively, when one thinks about the past, he or she may feel a sense of affection or a sense of loss that the past cannot be replicated (Holak & Havlena, 1998). The negative emotion linked to nostalgia is not comparable to the pain that is usually associated with the loss of a loved one (Dickinson & Erben, 2006). Instead, the loss is much less intense and manageable (Dickinson & Erben, 2006). The loss associated with the negative feeling created can also be a bittersweet feeling (Baker & Kennedy, 1994). Bittersweet is a positive, yet negative emotion experienced at the same time. For example, a mother nostalgic for the time when her child was an infant is pleased to think about her child being young, but sad at the same time because the mother knows the child will never be young again.

While recent studies have found that positive, negative, and bittersweet feelings, can be associated with nostalgia (Dickson & Erben, 2006; Holak & Havlena, 1998; Muehling & Sprott, 2004), positive expressions are present more often than negative expressions (Wildschut, Sedikides, & Arndt, 2006). As such, nostalgia is more likely to benefit the individual than hurt the individual (Wildschut, et al., 2006), thus more likely to influence a person to move from a negative state to a positive state, than from a positive state to a negative state.

In advertising, nostalgic advertisements have been found to produce some negative feelings (Muehling & Sprott, 2004). However, negative feelings produced did not have an effect on the individual’s attitudinal response to the advertisement. Even though the negative responses have not been found to influence the consumer, Holak and Havlena (1998) suggest marketers should try to reduce the sense of loss that could be
associated with a nostalgic experience in an effort to not cause damage to the brands being represented in nostalgic marketing. For example, it is generally not a good idea to use the events of September 11, 2001 in an advertisement because it could create too strong of a negative emotion.

**Understanding Nostalgia**

In its current state, nostalgia consists of cognitive and affective dimensions (Baumgartner, 1992; Cavanaugh, 1989; Merchant & Ford, 2008; Werman, 1977). Cognitive refers to how an individual came to understand society. In a nostalgic context, the world is understood through memories of the past. Affective refers to the influence of emotions. In a nostalgic context, emotions are evoked through nostalgia. Therefore, a link exists between memory, emotion, and nostalgia; the nostalgic experience contains both memory and emotion.

Many scholars have analyzed the connections between memory, emotion, and nostalgia. The nostalgic experience does not consist solely of a memory. This is because to remember the past is not the same to be nostalgic for the past (Davis, 1977). It is important to note the difference between reminiscence and nostalgia because to simply think about the past, to reminisce, is much different than the emotion associated with nostalgia (Davis, 1979; Castelnuovo-Tedesco, 1980; Cavanaugh, 1989). Nostalgia is an emotional outcome of reminiscing (Cavanaugh, 1989), where reminiscing is the act of recollection and nostalgia is the emotion associated with recalling memories (Castelnuovo-Tedesco, 1980). Therefore, a memory does not automatically produce nostalgia.
Memory has been found to trigger emotions that in turn create a nostalgic experience (Braun-LaTour & LaTour, 2005). Pictures (Fairley, 2003) and advertisements can stimulate the recall of autobiographical memories (Sujan, Bettman, & Baumgartner, 1993) and evoke thoughts from one’s memory, which can create the nostalgic experience. The nostalgic experience has been found to be initiated by memory, but no study has been conducted to investigate the relationship between emotions generating a memory. The link between memory, emotion, and nostalgia is simply the experience associated with longing for the past (Davis, 1979).

**Passage of Time**

How much time must elapse before one can become nostalgic for a particular event? Can it be instantaneous or does it take, hours, days, or even years before nostalgia can occur? Davis (1977, 1979) believes the amount of time passed does not influence one’s aptitude to be nostalgic. Davis argues the amount of lapsed time is not significant, it is rather lived-time that is important. Lived-time refers to the current state of an individual that contrasts with events from the past. For example, an exchange student can be nostalgic for yesterday, the day he or she left his or her home for another home because yesterday contrasts with the individual’s current state. This notion of time passage has been studied as it relates to the age of an object (Holbrook & Schindler, 1994), but not for how much time must pass for the individual to be nostalgic. It has also been found that attitudes toward the past are moderated by the age of an object and one’s preferences for the object, person, place, or experience (Holbrook & Schindler, 1994).
This suggests nostalgic experiences are influenced by how old an object is and how much a person likes the object.

**Nostalgia for the Future**

The idea behind nostalgia for the future is that an individual in the present can imagine at some point in the future nostalgically looking back at events that are expected to occur in the future (Davis, 1977). Nostalgia for the future occurs as individuals envision themselves at some point in the future being able to look back at events that have not yet occurred (Davis, 1977). For example, an athlete could imagine himself or herself being nostalgic at some point in the future about his or her impending sporting event.

**Antecedents of Nostalgia**

Nostalgia is a multifaceted construct (Batcho, 1995) and understanding the antecedents of nostalgia provides a better conceptualization of the nostalgic experience. Antecedents of nostalgia are identity, nostalgia proneness, triggers of nostalgia, age, gender, nationality and race, and sensory experiences.

**Identity**

Identity is a term honed in social sciences such as sociology and psychology that describes how an individual classifies oneself. Nostalgia is a tool that uses the past to help define an individual or group (Belk, 1990), to provide a sense of self (Davis, 1977). It is thought by many (Aden, 1995; Belk, 1990; Davis, 1979; Ritivoli, 2002) that nostalgia aids in “structuring, maintaining, and reconstructing our identities” (Davis,
1979, p. 31) because the recall of nostalgia moments allows individuals to analyze themselves (Dickinson & Erben, 2006).

One way nostalgia helps an individual construct an identity is through symbols (Wilson, 1999). Baker and Kennedy (2004) believe humans create a set of symbols over their life that represent themselves and that these symbols encourage nostalgic reflections to maintain one’s identity. An example of this identity construction is if an individual who lived during the sixties becomes nostalgic when he or she reflects on the image of a peace symbol. The peace symbol represents a part of the individual’s identity since the individual acknowledges and willingly accepts he or she was part of the sixties.

Aspects that enforce one’s identity through the nostalgic experience are places of the past and present (Aden, 1995), sport (Snyder, 1991), and norms and rituals (Fairley, 2003). Synder (1991) suggests sport can help individuals solidify their identity by providing comfort when the individual questions his or her life. For example, a former high school soccer player’s identity might be challenged during his or her initial college years. It is thought that by continuing to play soccer at any level in college the individual will be able to maintain part of his or her identity.

**Identity and groups.** When individuals form a group, it is more likely the individuals within the group will be nostalgic (Slowikowski, 1991). Shared nostalgic memories help create group identities, for which groups of people become nostalgic (Brown & Humphreys, 2002). Nostalgia can be created in large (Slowikowski, 1991) and small social groups (Fairley, 2003). Fairley (2003) found that sport is a realm that provides an opportunity for people to celebrate the group’s identity because fandom acts
as a common link that allows individuals to form groups despite their individual differences. This concept can also unite team members and people within a country. Yang (2003) found that when China underwent social change, collective nostalgia was evoked as the community attempted to reconnect with its past.

**Continuity and discontinuity of identity.** Nostalgia is a method employed by humans to help create, maintain, and reconstruct one’s identity (Davis, 1979). In situations where there is an identity threat, there is a period when the individual is in a state of discontinuity and becomes nostalgic in order to search for continuity of identity. Davis (1977) suggested that discontinuity produces a nostalgic episode when an individual is in a state of uncertainty (consciously or subconsciously). The nostalgic episode allows the individual to possibly abandon the current discontinuity state in the hopes to create identity continuity.

However, Davis’ discontinuity hypothesis has not been supported (Basset, 2006; Best & Nelson, 1985). Bassett (2006) tested the discontinuity hypothesis through a mortality salience paradigm. Bassett hypothesized that by inducing individuals to be cognizant of their mortality, the individual would challenge their identity. The individual would then become nostalgic to protect their identity. He failed to support the discontinuity hypothesis, but recognizes the study had an external validity error due to the age of the subjects. The participants were college students and Bassett suggests identity threat is more likely among older adults. Another problem with the study is the simple relationship between being faced with mortality and being nostalgic. It is a problem because the intensity of the emotions associated with mortality may be too strong for the
individual to become nostalgic. Emotions such as fear and anger might be so intense that
they are more salient than nostalgia.

Best and Nelson (1985) call Davis’ discontinuity theory into question with their
study involving data gathered from four national sample surveys that contained one or
two items measuring nostalgic feelings. The authors question the nostalgic items because
they do not represent all of the dimensions of the emotion associated with nostalgia as
suggested by Davis (1979). The results, however, indicate Davis’ discontinuity theory
might not be supported.

On the other hand, Milligan (2003) supports Davis’ discontinuity theory.
Milligan (2003) suggests a displacement initiates an identity discontinuity, which evokes
nostalgia, and then creates a new identity category. Milligan (2003) tested this process
with a case study of a coffee house that was moving from one location to another
location. He found the employees of the old coffee shop to be collectively nostalgic for
the original Coffee House. The employees who worked at the previous coffee shop
created an identity around their experiences. This identity differentiated themselves from
the employees who never worked at the old store (Milligan, 2003). The old employees
identities’ were challenged, causing them to create a new identity in the new shop.

Ritivoi (2002) also supported Davis’ theory using life stories to analyze the link
between personal change and change in environment. In the stories there is a comparison
between the past and the current self where the individual notices a discontinuity. It is
thought by Ritivoi (2002) that when one is aware of the discontinuity, then the individual
can adapt to the new environment as desired. Ritivoi (2002) describes this point by depicting how immigrants handle the change of their new environments.

**Nostalgia Proneness**

Nostalgia proneness is how susceptible an individual is to incur a nostalgic experience. Holbrook (1993) explains nostalgia proneness as “a potential facet of individual character—a psychographic variable, aspect of life-style, or general customer characteristic—that may vary among consumers” (p. 246). It is thought those who are more prone to nostalgia might behave differently than others. How prone one is to nostalgia has been found to influence the individual’s experience and their behaviors.

Those with high levels of nostalgia proneness are more emotional (affective dimension), have stronger memories (cognitive dimension), and are more likely to prefer activities with people (Batcho, 1995). Also, those who are highly prone to being nostalgic are more likely than those less prone to be nostalgic for items from an earlier time in their life (Holbrook & Schindler, 1991, 1994; Schindler & Holbrook, 1993) and like tenderhearted and musical films (Holbrook, 1993). It has also been found that those who are more prone to nostalgia are more likely to create a nostalgic bond than those who are less prone (Holbrook, 1993, 1994).

Gender and age are also two aspects influencing nostalgia proneness. One study found women to be more prone to nostalgia than men (Reisenwitz, et al., 2004). Those who are more prone to nostalgia are more likely than those who are not prone to nostalgia to react to nostalgia stimulants such as branding strategies and advertising (Zimmer,
Little, & Griffiths, 1999). The more nostalgia prone an individual is the higher level of nostalgia one has toward an ad and toward the brand/company (Reisenwitz, et al., 2004).

**Triggers of Nostalgia**

The nostalgic experience can be triggered by a multitude of things. These triggers include people, objects, experiences, places, and moods. As a result, triggers of nostalgic experiences can include an old toy, a childhood friend, a recollection of a family vacation, or feeling alone. Holak and Havlena (1992) categorize triggers of nostalgia into three sections: people, objects, and experiences, while in recent years places (Mason, et al., 2005) and mood (Wildschut, et al., 2006) have also been recognized.

The types of people who trigger nostalgia are family, classmates, and friends (Holak & Havlena, 1992). The types of objects that have been found to trigger the nostalgic experience are categorized into tangible and intangible objects. Tangible objects that trigger the nostalgic experience are items such as food, both branded and non-branded, grooming and personal care, toys (Havlena & Holak, 1996), antiques, jewelry, books, photographs, cars-especially one’s first car (Holak & Havlena, 1992), and clothing (Havlena & Holak, 1996; Holak & Havlena, 1992). It is interesting to note, men have nostalgic attachments to automobile styles from their youth, but women do not (Schindler & Holbrook, 2003). Intangible objects that trigger nostalgia are music and movies (Holak & Havlena, 1992). It is important to note memorabilia can make intangible experiences tangible (Belk, 1988). This is especially important in sport because sport games are intangible, but sport memorabilia creates a tangible memory for the sport experience.
Within the tangible realm of objects, possessions play an important role. It is thought that possessions are a way of sorting the memories and feelings associated with our past (Belk, 1988). The possessions of individuals are an inventory of personal nostalgia (Batcho, 1995, 1998). Photographs, possessions, and objects have been found to initiate the nostalgic experience because they “serve as edited markers and stimuli for future reflection, communication, and consolidation of sense of self” (Belk, 1990, p. 670). They also help the memory recall experiences (Fairley, 2003).

Experiences that have been found to trigger nostalgia are holidays (Holak & Havlena, 1992), personal events (i.e., birthdays and reunions) (Holak & Havlena, 1992), smells (Hirsch, 1992), songs (Ramshaw & Gammon, 2005), and rituals (Fairley, 2003; Ramshaw & Gammon, 2005). The notion of rituals was confirmed in Fairley (2003) where the newer members of a sport travel group became nostalgic about the norms and rituals of the group. The group was not very nostalgic about the game itself, but was more nostalgic about the game experience because of the camaraderie among fans (Fairley, 2003). Here is what one of the group members said about the game experience:

“I think the best experience is the game itself. Everybody is doing it [cheering] the whole game instead of waiting for something to happen. It’s just the camaraderie at the games. It’s almost like a power trip because you’re there against 39,000 throats - and it’s just like yeah, we are here. That’s the buzz for me.” (Fairley, 2003, p. 296).

The two final triggers of nostalgia are place and moods. These two triggers have not been greatly studied but there is evidence of their effects. Mason, Duquette, and Sheer (2005) discovered hockey sport venues are considered a sport artifact that can create nostalgia when the Canadian identity is tied to the sport event and the venue.
Wilson (2004) found people were nostalgic about Wrigley Field. Mood has also been found to trigger nostalgia. Mood as a trigger has been found to be effective when negative moods exist, such as loneliness (Wildschut, et al., 2006).

Age

It has been debated whether age can be an antecedent of nostalgia. Reisnewitz, Iyer, and Cutler (2004) argue the ability to have a nostalgic experience does not increase with age. They also found that some aspects of nostalgia are not influenced by ages, such as odor-evoked nostalgia (Hirsh, 1992). Other scholars, however, believe age can be a factor of nostalgia, where adults are more likely to be nostalgic than youth (Batcho, 1995; Davis, 1979; Holbrook & Schindler, 1996; Holak & Havlena, 1992).

Batcho (1995) found nostalgia peaked during college-aged people and then declined. Batcho’s research determined that as one gets older, their nostalgia for pets, toys, and holidays declined. As one ages, however, nostalgia for music increases (Batcho, 1995) and one’s movie preferences tend to include older films (Holbrook, 1993). Music preferences also favor an earlier time period, specifically the period when the individual was around the age of 23.5 years old (Holbrook & Schindler, 1989). Items of nostalgia that individuals like from a previous time period include movie stars (Holbrook & Schindler, 1994) movies, (Holbrook & Schindler, 1996), and fashion (Holbrook & Schindler, 1993).

Marketers use age to segment consumers (Holbrook & Schindler, 1996) because people of different ages have various things for which they are nostalgic. For example, a person who grew up during the 1980’s might be nostalgic when he or she hears a
Madonna song, while someone who grew up in the 1960’s might be nostalgic when they hear a Rolling Stones song. It is also believed that people create bonds with items at the age of 20 (Holbrook & Schindler, 2003). This process is known as nostalgic bonding; establishing a long term bond with an item.

The varying age preferences for different items suggests individuals have different nostalgic experiences depending on the individual’s age group (Batcho, 1995). Studies of the age when one becomes nostalgic, however, are questionable because every individual is nostalgic for different objects, making it difficult to measure the age associated with objects of personal nostalgia. It is easier, however, to measure collective nostalgia since groups of people are going to be nostalgic for the same objects, but even studying groups as they relate to age might be problematic because different groups of the same age might also have varying opinions. For example, baby boomers are categorized as a group based on their age, but different groups of people within the baby boomers can be nostalgic for different objects. For instance, some baby boomers might be nostalgic for the drive-in-theater, while others are nostalgic for the 8-track.

**Gender**

It is possible that gender can be an antecedent of nostalgia, although conclusive results about the effects of gender on nostalgia have not been found. Sherman and Newman (1977) found no differences in the proneness of nostalgia between genders. Batcho (1995) found no differences between gender among 20 items that related to places, family, society, and experiences. Muehling and Sprott (2004) did not find a
difference between genders for attitudes toward nostalgic advertisements and for the attitudes toward the brands portrayed in the nostalgic ads.

On the other hand, Reisenwitz, Iyer, and Cutler (2004) found women are more prone to be nostalgic toward advertisements. Wilson (2004) found that men were more likely to be nostalgic during a tour of Wrigley Field. A definitive conclusion about the effects of gender on nostalgia is lacking until further studies can be conducted on gender as an antecedent of nostalgia. It is quite possible the nostalgic object, person, place, or experience can indicate whether or not gender will be a factor in the nostalgic experience.

Nationality and Race

Studying the relationship between nationality, race and the nostalgic experience has only been conducted twice. The first study investigated the nostalgic experiences of different nationalities. It found childhood memories provide nostalgia, but the way in which individuals recall the past varies by nationalities (Dickinson & Erben, 2006). The study was conducted on a small sample and is not largely generalizable. In the second study race was found to be a factor of nostalgia (Best & Nelson, 1985). Nonwhites were found to be more nostalgic than whites because nonwhites had more opportunities to have discontinuity in their identity. Future studies need to be conducted in order to investigate the differences of nationalities and races as they relate to nostalgia.

Senses

Sight, hearing, taste, smell, and touch are all senses that are possible antecedents of nostalgia. The sense of sight has been studied as it relates to pictures (Belk, 1990; Holak & Havlena, 1992) and print advertisements (Pascal, et al., 2002) producing a
nostalgic experience. The sense of hearing has been studied as it relates to music (Holak & Havlena, 1992) and radio advertisements (Neeb, et al., 1989), suggesting that both music and radio advertisements can induce nostalgia. Hirsch (1992) discovered that a nostalgic sense of smell is linked to one’s age. His results found that youth were more nostalgic for food smells while the older population flavored natural smells (Hirsch, 1992). The sense of touch has not been studied.

Future research should investigate the individual differences between the effects of senses on nostalgia. For example, does one sense have more of an influence on the nostalgic experience than another? The results could provide valuable information for evoking nostalgia within an individual. It would be interesting to know if the smell of a food item from one’s youth has a greater influence on purchase intention than a picture of the same food.

**Consequences of Nostalgia**

Some important outcomes of nostalgia exist, most notably the ability for nostalgia to affect consumer behavior, to create bonds for objects in one’s past, to affect an individual’s psychological state, and to motivate.

**Consumer Behavior**

Altering a preference for something through nostalgia can prove to be a valuable marketing tool if used effectively because those high in nostalgia are likely to consume in order to experience nostalgia (Holbrook & Schindler, 2003). Other findings of the effects of nostalgia on consumer behavior are: intention to purchase (Pascal, et al., 2002; Sierra & McQuitty, 2007), perception and attitude toward advertisements (Muehling & Sprott,
2004; Pascal, et al., 2002), attitude toward brands (Muehling & Sprott, 2004; Pascal, et al., 2002), brand associations (Gladden & Funk, 2006), and the ability to recall radio advertisements (Neeb, et al., 1989).

Nostalgia has been found to influence purchase intentions. Pascal et al. (2002) studied the effects of evoking nostalgia through print advertisements. They found that the more the print advertisement evoked nostalgia, the more likely one is to purchase the brand represented in the print advertisement. Sierra and McQuitty (2007) found that one’s attitude toward the past and one’s yearning for the past were significantly related to one’s intention to purchase a product reminiscent of a former time period. Therefore, the more favorable one’s attitude was toward the past, the more likely they were to purchase a product to remind them of the past. Also, the more one desires to be part of the past, the more likely they are to purchase a product that reminds them of the past.

Nostalgia has also been found to influence consumer perceptions and attitudes toward advertisements. Pascal et al. (2002) found that nostalgia used in print advertisements influenced one’s attitude toward the advertisement. Muehling and Sprott (2004) extended these findings by determining that nostalgia in advertisements created a more positive attitude toward the brand than advertisements that did not include items of nostalgia. These findings suggest that using nostalgia in print advertisements helps persuade the consumer to like an advertisement.

Another outcome of nostalgia is that nostalgia used in advertising affects one’s attitude toward the brand that is being advertised. Pascal et al. (2002) found that nostalgic print advertisements created a favorable attitude toward the brand. Similarly,
Muehling and Sprott (2004) found that nostalgia had an influence on attitude toward the brand, and that advertisements that used nostalgia were more likely than advertisements that did not use nostalgia to produce favorable attitudes toward the brand. These results are important because they show nostalgia can be used as a tool to entice the consumer to like a brand.

Nostalgia has been found to have an influence on brand associations. A brand association is anything in a consumer’s mind that is linked to a brand (Gladden & Funk, 2002). For example, the Coca-Cola Polar Bear that represents Coke is a brand association of Coke. A study conducted by Gladden and Funk (2002) examined the dimensions connected with creating brand associations in team sports (i.e., The Los Angeles Lakers). One of the dimensions found to influence brand associations is nostalgia. Nostalgia is seen as a benefit to the value of the brand. Therefore, nostalgia helps the consumer attach meaning and value to the brands he or she consumes.

Another outcome of nostalgia that has been studied is how nostalgia influenced one’s ability to recall an advertisement. Neeb et al. (1989) found that nostalgic themed radio commercials created a greater likelihood that listeners would be able to recall the radio advertisement. Therefore, nostalgia used in advertisements creates a longer time period for which the consumer can recall the advertisement.

Social Bonds

The nostalgic experience has been found to create bonds with objects and people. In a study, Holbrook and Schindler (2003) found that when participants were asked to recall a nostalgic event, the participant’s vignettes displayed a nostalgic bond for objects.
from one’s memory. It was also discovered that social bonds are heightened through the nostalgic experience (Wildschut, et al., 2006) and that men create attachments to objects from their youth as a result to the nostalgic experience (Schindler & Holbrook, 2003).

**Psychological**

The psychological state of the individual has not been studied at length, but progress is being made. A recent study discovered the nostalgic experience creates positive self-regard and positive affect (Wildschut, et al., 2006) in situations when these two aspects are used as coping methods. It was also found that nostalgic individuals perceived their life to be more meaningful than non-nostalgic individuals (Routledge, Arndt, Sedikides, & Wildschut, 2008) and those nostalgic individuals are able to alleviate existential threats (Routledge, et al., 2008).

**Nostalgia as a Motive**

Nostalgia as a motivator is an important concept to sport managers because motivation could be a vital factor in influencing consumer behavior. A few scholars have investigated the relationship between motivation and nostalgia (Gammon, 2002; Fairley, 2003; Wilson, 2004). According to Gammon (2002), nostalgia acts as a motivator to influence one to attend fantasy sport camps. Fairley (2003) found that nostalgia was a motivation to get people to attend a group trip to watch Australian Football games, where recollections of previous stories were discussed as a motivation to attend the group trip to follow their team.

Wilson (2004), however, discovered that nostalgia was not a primary motivational factor for individuals to tour Wrigley Field. Instead enhancement of kinship, prestige,
facilitation of social interaction, and relaxation were more important motives than nostalgia. It was also found that men were more likely to be nostalgic than females because females were motivated by spending time with family and friends. These findings might be due to the possibility that people were not nostalgic prior to going because they had no prior experience with the tour. This is the case with volunteers at Olympic Games. It was found that those who volunteered at previous Olympic Game were motivated by their nostalgia for the experience to volunteer again (Fairley, Kellett, & Green, 2007).

**Intended Behavior**

Intended behavior is the proposal an individual formulates to carry out a behavior (Ajzen, 1991). It is therefore thought that intention is an antecedent of behavior (Ajzen, 2002). Through theory and research it has become fairly easy to predict human behaviors (Ajzen, Czasch, & Flood, 2009). It is thought that a direct measure of intention can fairly accurately forecast behavior (Ajzen et al., 2009). Many types of behaviors have been predicted by intention. Some of these behaviors include weight loss (Bagozzi & Warrshaw, 1990), attendance behaviors (Cunningham & Kwon, 2003; Sheeran & Orbell, 2000), condom use (Boyd & Wandersman, 1991), and physical activity (Norman & Smith, 1995).

The theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1988) is one of the theories created by social psychologists to explain intended behaviors. The theory has been widely used in the field of health, but only one study has used the theory in sport management (Cunningham & Kwon, 2003). The theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1988) suggests
three aspects guide intention: behavioral beliefs, normative beliefs, and control beliefs. Behavioral beliefs are one’s belief about the possible consequences or outcomes of the behavior. These beliefs generate positive or negative attitudes toward the behavior. The attitudes toward the behavior then guide intention. For example, a person may believe that swimming five times a week (behavior) leads to weight loss. Therefore, the attitude towards swimming is determined by the person’s belief of what the outcome will be. Also, the more positively one believes the outcome to be the more likely he or she will carry out the behavior.

Normative beliefs are an individual’s belief about how the behavior will be perceived. These perceptions are influenced by significant others such as family and friends (Ajzen, 1988). The normative beliefs one holds influences the way one perceives social pressure. The normative beliefs also influence the way the individual is subjected to norms. As a result, an individual would be less likely to perform a behavior if the behavior were thought to be unacceptable by significant others.

Control beliefs relate to the factors that could possibly facilitate or impede the performance of the behavior. Control beliefs give rise to perceived behavioral control. Perceived behavioral control is how easy or difficult one believes it is to perform the behavior. Therefore, the greater control one has, the stronger their intention to behave will be. For example, if a student has the necessary resources (i.e., gym membership, gym shoes and gym clothes) to go the recreation center to work out, then he or she is more likely to go to the recreation center than if he or she did not have the resources.
When behavioral beliefs, normative beliefs, and control beliefs are combined, they lead to intention to behave. Generally, the more favorable one’s attitude toward the behavior and to the subjective norm, and the more perceived control, then the stronger the person’s intention to perform the behavior (Ajzen, 2002). It is also believed that perceived behavioral control can directly influence behavior and can serve as a prediction of behavior (Ajzen, 1991). Therefore, perceived behavior control is a predictor of behavior.

**Factors Influencing Behavior**

It is convenient to measure the intention to behave. However, it is difficult to know if the participant will follow through on his or her intention. For example, it may be someone’s intention to exercise four times a week, but there are many factors such as injury, too little time, and lack of motivation that could prevent the person from exercising. Two things that can reduce the gap between intended behavior and the behavior that actually occurs is to look at how the participant has behaved in the past and to ask the participant to create a plan to implement the behavior, what is known as, implementation intention.

**Past behavior.** The behavior that one has had in the past can influence future behavior. This is because people make habits or routines out of their behaviors (Schneider & Shiffrin, 1977). Therefore, frequency of the behavior in the past is a predictor of future actions. It is suggested that when intentions are low or unstable, then past behaviors should be measured in conjunction to one's intended behavior (Ajzen, 2002).
**Implementation intention.** Implementation intention is the process of defining how a goal will be attained (Gollwitzer, 1999). It is thought that when difficulty exists to implement a goal into action, then a plan should be formulated to help reach the goal. For example, if the goal is for an individual to lose five pounds, then a plan of what type of food to eat and an exercise regimen should be created to reach the goal. Implementation intention has been found to significantly influence the behavior intentions of others. Behaviors such as taking vitamins (Sheeran & Orbell, 1999) and performing self-breast exams (Orbell, Hodgkins, & Sheeran, 1997) have become more likely behaviors due to implementation intention.
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter outlines the research methods used to conduct a study on the relationship between nostalgia and behaviors. This chapter is organized into five sections: (a) research design, (b) sample, (c) instrument, (d) data collection, and (e) data analysis.

Research Design

Qualitative research and quantitative research are two types of research that aid in acquiring knowledge. Qualitative research aims at understanding the big picture (Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen, 2010). The approach used in qualitative research is inductive, allowing for the generation of theories rather than testing theories. Due to the nature of the approach, a flexible design is suitable for qualitative research because it is necessary to allow the theory to develop (Ary et al., 2010). Some types of qualitative research are interviews, ethnographies, and case studies. Conversely, the aim of quantitative research is to collect measurable and empirical data to study cause and effect relationships. A deductive approach is used to test theories. Therefore, the design of the study is developed before the start of the study (Ary et al., 2010). For the purpose of this study, it
was deemed most appropriate to use quantitative research, since the current literature has already provided an understanding of the topics being studied.

**Quantitative Research**

Designs for quantitative research are categorized as experimental research and non-experimental research (Ary et al., 2010). Experimental research is the study of the effects of the manipulation of variables on other variables (Ary et al., 2010). The manipulated variable is referred to as the independent variable and the observed and measurable variable is referred to as the dependent variable (Ary et al., 2010). Due to the control of the independent variable, participants must be randomly assigned to a control group or treatment group. If random assignment is not used, the study is considered to be quasi-experimental.

In contrast to experimental research, non-experimental research is the study of the relationships between variables that are not manipulated by the researcher. Therefore, independent variables are not manipulated, but observations between variables are observed. One of the limitations of non-experimental research is the causality cannot be attributed to the independent variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Common types of non-experimental research include ex post facto research, correlational research, and survey research (Ary et al., 2010).

**Ex post facto research.** Ex post facto research is very similar to experimental research in that the researcher compares differences in the dependent variable between levels of the independent, but manipulation of the independent variable does not occur. Therefore, ex post facto research explores how a preexisting variable affects the
dependent variable (Ary, et al., 2010). Since ex post facto research is so similar to experimental research, ex post facto research is also referred to as quasi-experimental research. One limitation of ex post facto research is that causal relationships among variables are not established (Ary et al., 2010).

**Correlational research.** Correlational research studies compare characteristics from a group of people to explain how characteristics can vary together (Ary et al., 2010). How the variables relate is referred to as correlation. Variables can correlate directly, where a positive correlation exists, or they can vary indirectly, where a negative correlation exists (Ary et al., 2010). Correlational research differs from ex post facto research because correlational research compares one group of participants on several variables, while ex post facto research compares the participants on at least two groups (Ary et al., 2010).

**Survey research.** Survey research employs interviews or questionnaires to collect information from participants (Ary et al., 2010). The purpose of survey research is to explore and describe, rather than investigate cause and effect relationships. Survey research is one of the most common research methods used in sport management (Gratton & Jones, 2004).

For the current study, the goal was to address specific research questions pertaining to evoked nostalgia and nostalgic intended behaviors. Since the study was exploratory and descriptive in nature and because no variables were manipulated, this study employed survey research.
Benefits of Survey Research

The benefits of survey research include accessibility, potential reduction in bias, anonymity, structured data, and increased time for respondents (Gratton & Jones, 2004).

Accessibility. The questionnaire offers accessibility to people all over the world since the researcher does not have to travel to administer the questionnaire, making the questionnaire a relatively inexpensive method. The questionnaire can be manually distributed or circulated through the mail or the internet (Gratton & Jones, 2004).

Potential reduction in bias. A well designed questionnaire can reduce the influence of bias created by the researcher, which is often prevalent in interviews or observations (Gratton & Jones, 2004). The researcher in interviews can introduce biases in the way he or she reacts to questions and by the questions that are asked. In observations, the presence of the researcher can create a biased response. Biases can also occur in survey research, but they are much less likely to occur if the questionnaire is well designed and is reviewed by a panel of experts.

Anonymity. Anonymity of responses provides an opportunity for the participant to be more honest about his or her responses, especially with sensitive topics (Gratton & Jones, 2004).

Structured data. The data collected from questionnaires is quantifiable, unless qualitative questions are asked. The quantifiable data is structured in the sense that it can be compared amongst groups, such as between subject groups. The data is also easy to translate into charts and graphs to help explain the results of the data (Gratton & Jones, 2004).
**Increased time for respondents.** Respondents have time to think about the questions on the questionnaire before they respond, allowing them to fully understand the question.

**Limitations of Survey Research**

The limitations of survey research include potential problems over complex questions, the difficulty in controlling who completes the questionnaire, the lack of opportunity to probe responses or ask follow-up questions, and potentially low response rates (Gratton & Jones, 2004). How the limitations of the survey are controlled will be discussed later in this chapter.

**Potential problems over complex questions.** Problems can exist if the questions asked on the questionnaire are too complex for the participant to understand. Not understanding the questions can be a problem because the participants most likely will not have access to someone or something to help them seek clarity. Therefore, the participant might answer the question out of context or misinterpret the meaning of the question. As a result of the issues with complex questions, questionnaires are limited to asking simple questions (Gratton & Jones, 2004).

**No control over who completes the questionnaire.** It is difficult to control who completes a questionnaire, especially if it is completed by mail. An inappropriate respondent may complete the questionnaire, even if the directions of the questionnaire state who should complete the questionnaire (Gratton & Jones, 2004).

**No opportunity to probe.** The participant completes questionnaires anonymously, eliminating the possibility for the researcher to ask additional questions in
response to the participant’s responses on the questionnaire (Gratton & Jones, 2004).

**Potentially low response rate.** A low response rate is when many of the participants do not complete and return the questionnaire (Gratton & Jones, 2004). In survey research participants can choose not to participate, therefore, reducing the response rate.

**Classification of Survey Research According to Time**

Survey research can be classified based on the time associated with collecting data. Studies can be either longitudinal or cross-sectional (Ary et al., 2010). Longitudinal studies collect data over a period of time in order to gain an understanding of how time influences the variables. An example of a longitudinal study is to test a child every year on his or her math skills to see how they have developed over time. A cross-sectional survey collects data from a single time period, one point in time. An example of a cross-sectional survey is to test several ages of children on their math skills during the same time period. In this scenario, children of the ages of 5, 10, and 15 would be tested during the same time period.

**Survey Research Data Collection Techniques**

Two types of data collection techniques can be employed in survey research: interviews and questionnaires (Ary et al., 2010). Interviews are when the researcher asks questions to the participant and records the participants’ responses. In this technique the researcher has a presence during data collection. Types of interviews are personal interviews, focus groups, telephone interviews, and computer-assisted telephone interviewing (Ary et al., 2010). The other survey research data collection technique is
questionnaires. Questionnaires allow the participant to record his or her own responses to questions and do not require the presence of the researcher. Types of questionnaires include mailed questionnaires, electronic mail survey, internet surveys, and directly administered questionnaires (Ary et al., 2010).

Interviews were not used in this study because the study outlined clear research questions that were best tested using quantitative data that was collected from individuals by completing scales that had been previously demonstrated to be valid and reliable. Therefore, a questionnaire data collection technique was utilized. Each questionnaire data collection technique has strengths and weaknesses for dealing with common data collection problems. The strengths and weaknesses relate to three goals: getting subjects to take the questionnaire, getting the subjects to accurately complete the questionnaire, and getting the questionnaires back from the subjects in a timely manner.

The types of questionnaires include mailed questionnaires, electronic mail surveys, internet surveys, and directly administered questionnaires.

**Mailed questionnaire.** Mailed questionnaires involve mailing a questionnaire to the participant in the hopes the participant completes and returns the questionnaire. An example of a mailed questionnaire is the U.S. Census. There are two main advantages to mailed questionnaires. The first advantage is that confidentiality and anonymity is maintained (Ary et al., 2010). As a result, participants are more willing to answer questions of a sensitive nature in mailed questionnaires (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998). The second benefit is the elimination of interviewer bias (Ary et al., 2010).
One of the disadvantages of mailed questionnaires is that the participant cannot seek clarification on the questions, so the participant might interpret the questions inappropriately (Ary et al., 2010). Mailed questionnaires can also be quite expensive because of mailing and printing costs. It can also be very time consuming to stuff envelopes with the questionnaire and for the questionnaire to be transported to the recipient and back to the researcher. Lastly, mailed questionnaires potentially have low response rates, which limits the ability to generalize the findings (Ary et al., 2010).

**Electronic mail survey.** Electronic mail surveys involve contacting participants to partake in a study through email. The advantages of electronic mail surveys are that they are less expensive than mailed questionnaires, they produce quality responses (i.e., more complete answers), and provide quicker responses (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998). The disadvantages of electronic mail surveys include lower response rates and the limitation of who can take the survey (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998). Who can take the survey is limited because some people within the target population might not have access to email.

**Internet survey.** Internet surveys allow the participant to access the questionnaire on the internet, usually through a web-based survey company such as Survey Monkey. The advantages of internet surveys include the ability to reach a lot of people, they can be conducted quickly, are inexpensive, and limit the need to input data (Ary et al., 2010). Limitations of internet surveys include the restriction of who can take the survey (only those with internet access; Ary et al., 2010). This method also has a lower response rate compared to other methods (Ary et al., 2010).
Directly administered questionnaire. Directly administered questionnaires are distributed to large groups of people who have gathered as a group for a purpose (Ary et al., 2010). An example of a directly administered questionnaire is distributing a questionnaire to everyone who attends a women’s college basketball and ask the participants to complete and return the questionnaire when they leave the game. One of the main advantages of directly administered questionnaires is that they have very high response rates (Ary et al., 2010). Another advantage is that this data collection technique does not cost much. The disadvantage is that in-person surveys are generally very time consuming for the researcher because he or she will need to spend time asking subjects to complete the questionnaires and often manually entering all of the surveyed data into a statistical program. Another disadvantage is that the population is limited to where the researcher can collect data, limiting the generalizability of the results (Ary et al., 2010).

For this study, response rate, cost, and controlling who took the questionnaire were concerns. Time, however, was not a concern. As a result, a directly administered questionnaire was selected for the data collection technique.

Sample

Sampling

The sampling method influences the generalizability of the sample to the population, which relates to external validity. If you obtain one hundred percent of the target population then you have perfect induction. However, if you can only obtain a portion of the target population, then you do not have imperfect induction, which requires the researcher to choose a sampling method (Ary et al., 2010). Two types of sampling
methods can be used. The first type is random sampling, also known as probability sampling. The second type is nonrandom sampling, also known as non-probability sampling.

**Random sampling.** Random sampling creates higher generalizability than non-random sampling. In order to obtain a random sample, the target population must be defined and every member of the population must be accounted for and have an equal chance of being selected for the sample (Ary et al., 2010). Four types of random sampling are typically used in sport management research: simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling, and cluster sampling.

**Simple random sampling.** A simple random sampling method requires the population to be defined. Then a list of everyone in the sample is created. Once the list is created, a method is determined for randomly selecting a specified number of participants where each participant has an equal opportunity for being chosen (Ary et al., 2010). For example, if the population is defined as the 2009 competitors at the men’s and women’s United States outdoor Track and Field Championships, then a list of all competitors would be created and every $n^{th}$ competitor would be selected. Each competitor would have an equal chance of being selected.

**Systematic sampling.** Systematic sampling is when a list of the population is created and every $K$th case from the list is selected (Ary et al., 2010). With the aforementioned track and field competitors, this method would list everyone that competed alphabetically and then select the $K$th case. The $K$th is selected by dividing the
population size (N) by the desired sample size (n). If there were 2,100 competitors and the desired sample size was 700, then the Kth interval would be 3.

**Stratified sampling.** In some studies the desired population may be divided into groups based on certain characteristics. These characteristics can vary, but examples include gender, age, nationality, and geographic location. Once the stratified groups are selected, then an equal random sample is drawn from the varying groups (Ary et al., 2010). In the track and field example, the competitors could be stratified by gender and then a random sample of a specified number of participants could be selected.

**Cluster sampling.** Sometimes a population is too large to obtain a list of every member in the population, but it might be possible to get a list of several groups of people within a population. In this scenario, one would create a cluster sample, where groups of people are selected from the total population and each group member is asked to be a participant (Ary et al., 2010). For example, it would be nearly impossible to obtain a list of every recreational runner in the United States, but geographic areas could be clustered together to make a list of recreational runners in specific areas. These areas could then be randomly selected and the recreational runners in the selected areas would be asked to participate in a study.

**Nonrandom sampling.** Nonrandom sampling is used when a list of the entire population cannot be generated (Ary et al., 2010). The four types of nonrandom sampling are convenience sampling, purposive sampling, quota sampling, and snowball sampling.
**Convenience sampling.** When a population is difficult to obtain, convenience sampling might be a good alternative, but the results of a convenience sample are not generalizable because they do not represent the population. A convenience sample is collected from anyone that fits the study’s criteria. In the recreational runner example, any recreational runner could be included in the study. Other types of convenience sampling are using large undergraduate classes or interviewing anyone you see on campus (Ary et al., 2010).

**Purposive sampling.** Purposive sampling is when a target population is selected and a sample is chosen from within the population. The chosen sample is thought to be a representation of the population (Ary et al., 2010). The problem with purposive sampling is the subjective nature of selecting a representative sample (Ary et al., 2010). An example of purposive sampling would be if a researcher were to hand select track and field athletes in an effort to select a representative sample.

**Quota sampling.** Quota sampling names a population and determines the important characteristics of the study such as age, gender, or nationality. The population is then segmented based on the percentage of each characteristic in the population. The sample is then selected based on the percentage, so the percentages in the sample equal the percentages in the population (Ary et al., 2010). For example, if the recreational running population consisted of 50% males and 50% females, of which 25% of the males were white, 15% black, 5% Hispanic, and 5% other, and 30% of the females were white, 10% black, 5% Hispanic, and 5% other, then gender and racial percentages in the sample would have to match the population.
**Snowball sampling.** In snowball sampling an initial list of participants is created that is not a comprehensive list of all the participants. The initial participants are asked to solicit other participants to reach the desired sample size (Gratton & Jones, 2004). In the recreational running example, a list of recreational runners from a club could be used as the initial sample, but each member of the club also asks other recreational runners that are not part of the club to participate in the study.

Since a non-experimental research design was used in this study it is not necessary for the sample to be randomly selected. Also, a target population was not chosen. Therefore, this study used a nonrandom convenience sample. It is suggested the results of the study not be generalized beyond the sample. The sample was a delimitation of the study.

**Participant Description**

A questionnaire relating to evoked nostalgia, nostalgic intended behavior, familiarity, and nostalgia proneness was distributed to undergraduate classes at a large, Midwestern university. The curriculum of the classes used in the study had an emphasis on sport and recreation. Undergraduate students were chosen because the researcher had access to the classes. Data was collected during two quarters, Winter quarter of 2010 and Spring quarter of 2010. During Winter quarter between the end of February 2010 and the beginning of March 2010, data was collected from five classes with class sizes ranging from 20 to 70. Data was also collected from 11 classes with class sizes ranging from 20 to 60 during Spring quarter between the end of March 2010 and the beginning of April 2010. It was known to the researcher that some of the students might be in multiple
classes that were asked to participate in the study. In order to eliminate a participant from responding twice, the researcher asked people at the beginning of each data collection to not participate in the study if he or she has already done so.

A total of 306 participants \((N = 306)\) completed the questionnaires. However, three of the questionnaires were deleted because they were not completed or not completed correctly. Of the usable questionnaires, there were 222 males (73.3%) and 81 (26.7%) females.

When collecting data, the best interest of the participants was always at the forefront of the researcher’s priorities. The researcher followed all of The Ohio State University’s institutional review board procedures to insure participation in the study was voluntary and not harmful to the participants. The subjects were informed through a prepared script read to them before they became participated in the study that their participation was voluntary and that participating in the study implied consent (see Appendix A for the consent script). All information collected was kept confidential and no individual was linked to his or her responses.

**Instrument**

The instrument for this study consists of several scales to measure several variables. Variables are attributes that explain a concept or construct (Ary et al., 2006). They can be measured, controlled, or manipulated. Since this study used a non-experimental design, no variables are controlled. The purpose of variables is to classify a concept or characteristic, giving a concept a label (McMillan, 2004), which helps researchers categorize the information they wish to study. The two main types of
variables are independent and dependent. A third type of variable also exists, called an extraneous variable (Ary et al., 2010).

Independent variables are also referred to as the presumed causes, the antecedents, treatments, or factors. The independent variable acts as a predictor or influence on the dependent variable (McMillan, 2004). Dependent variables are also referred to as the presumed effects, or the consequences. The dependent variable is the observed and measurable variable (Ary et al., 2010).

Extraneous variables are also known as intervening, confounding, or contaminating variables. An extraneous variable is a factor other than the independent variable being investigated that influences the dependent variable (Ary et al., 2010). Extraneous variables can be detrimental to research if they are not controlled.

It is important to be aware of extraneous variables and control for them when they are present, but it is also important to take into account validity and reliability. Validity is how well the study accurately measures what it is intended to measure.

There are two types of validity that are important to this study: content validity and face validity. Content validity is how well the measures represent what is supposed to be measured as the measures relate to the conceptual definitions (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2005). In order for the measures to be accurate the theoretical definitions should be represented in the measures. Having to rely on theoretical definitions is the limitation of content validity because scholarly agreements on theoretical definitions rarely exist (Bollen, 1989). Face validity is another concern in this study. Face validity is how well the measures look like they are going to measure
what it is supposed to measure (Ary et al, 2010). The purpose of face validity ensures the scales used extend past theoretical purposes and extend to practical applications (Hair et al., 2005).

Reliability is an important part of a study to ensure what is measured is consistent to guarantee scores have little to no error (McMillan, 2004), so there is consistency in the measures (Bollen, 1989). There are two main types of reliability: test-retest and internal consistency. Test-retest reliability is also known as stability reliability and occurs when the same instrument is given to the same group of people at two separate occasions. The results display the consistency of the respondents over a period of time (McMillan, 2004).

Internal consistency is the consistency among variables in a summated scale (Hair et al., 1998) or the homogeneity among items in an instrument (McMillan, 2004). Two types of internal consistency are often used: Kuder-Richardson and the Cronbach alpha (Ary et al., 2010). The Kuder-Richardson method is used when the responses to an instrument are dichotomous. An example of when you would use a Kuder-Richardson method is when you ask a person if they have been to an event or if they had ever purchased an item. The Cronbach alpha method should be used when responses are not dichotomous, but more psychological. For example, it would be a good idea to use the Cronbach alpha method with a study that asks questions about one’s feelings toward an object or advertisement. A Cronbach’s alpha value of .70 or above indicates good internal consistency (Nunnally, 1978). It is also important to note that if there is no internal consistency, then calculating a mean score is not necessary. This study used
Cronbach alpha values to control for internal consistency because the items on the instrument were psychological in nature.

**Panel of Experts**

A panel of experts was used to control for content and face validity. The panel consisted of three members from the field of sport management, three members from the field of sport humanities, and one from the field of sport tourism. The panel was selected to evaluate the object of nostalgia used in the study and the nostalgic intended behavior scale. The panel of experts were provided with a description of the study and were asked three questions pertaining to three possible objects (i.e., people) for the study. The three people being evaluated were athletes: Jim Thorpe, Billy Mills, and Maureen Connolly. The researcher selected these three athletes because they were all people that the participants (college students) would not have experienced first hand because of the presumed age difference between the athlete and the participant. Therefore, if the participant were nostalgic, then he or she would be vicariously nostalgic. The athletes selected were represented in videos that were found on “youtube.” The videos for Jim Thorpe (Nativemedia, 2010), Billy Mills (kjohansen, 2009), and Maureen Connolly (mcbtennis, 2010) were posted on “youtube” by individuals unknown to the researcher. The web links and references to the videos are in Appendix B.

The videos use images and narrations of the athlete to depict the athlete. The panel of experts were asked to rate the videos based on three qualifications: (a) how familiar the expert believed undergraduate students are of the athletes, (b) the videos ability to evoke nostalgia, and (c) which video and athlete combination best fits the study.
The feedback received from the panel was taken into consideration. Jim Thorpe was selected as the object of nostalgia.

The panel of experts was also asked to evaluate the items created to measure nostalgic intended behaviors. The panel reviewed the questions for relevance to the study and completeness. The items pertaining to nostalgic intended behaviors was revised to include a few additional questions. The selected items used to measure nostalgic intended behavior can be seen in Appendix C.

**Measurements**

It is imperative for variables to be explained in operational terms to provide a description of how data will be collected on observed events (Ary et al., 2010). They give meaning to the concept or construct being explained (Ary et al., 2010). In other words, an operational definition provides a way to measure a concept. The operational definitions for the variables used in the study are described below and the culminations of the variables make up the Nostalgic Intended Behavior Questionnaire that was used in the study (Appendix D).

**Evoked Nostalgia.** Pascal and Sprott (2002) created a nostalgia scale to determine if an object, person, place, or experience has evoked nostalgia within an individual, to see if an individual has become nostalgic from the object, person, place, or experience. The evoked nostalgia scale (NOST) consists of ten items that are scored on a seven point Likert-type scale (1 = “strongly disagree”, 7 = “strongly agree”). The scale can be viewed in Appendix E. Items on the scale include: “It reminds me of the past”, “
Evokes fond memories”, and “Reminds me of good times in the past.” In the past, the scale had an internal reliability of .96 (Pascal, Sprott, & Muehling, 2002; Wilson, 2004).

**Nostalgic Intended Behavior.** Ten items were created to measure nostalgic intended behavior. The items were created with the help of a panel of experts and were intended to measure varying levels of involvement. Therefore, some of the items were anticipated to have low levels of involvement (i.e., watch an online video), while others were thought to have higher levels of involvement (i.e., buying memorabilia). The items measure how the participant anticipates he or she will behave after being evoked with nostalgia. Ten items were scored on a nine point Likert-type scale (1 = “not likely”, 9 = “very likely”). The ten items related to Jim Thorpe, the athlete selected as the subject to evoke nostalgia. An example item is: “How likely are you to buy a book about Jim Thorpe.”

**Familiarity.** Familiarity with the object of nostalgia was measured using one item to measure the extent to which each participant knew the object in this study (i.e., Jim Thorpe). The item was scored on a nine point Likert-type scale (1 = “not aware”, 9 = “very aware”). The question asked “How familiar were you with Jim Thorpe before watching the video?”

**Nostalgia Proneness.** The Time Perspective Inventory (TPI; Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999) investigates one’s attitudes toward the past, present, and future. The scale was adapted to include eight items about attitudes toward the past to represent nostalgia proneness (Routledge, et al., 2008; Appendix F). The eight questions were scored on a seven point Likert-type scales (1 = “not at all characteristic of me”, 7 = “very
characteristic of me”). Example questions included are: “It gives me pleasure to think about my past” and “Happy memories of good times spring readily to mind.” The adapted inventory scale was tested for internal validity and found to have an internal validity of .71 (Routledge, et al., 2008).

**Demographics and Additional Comments.** Demographics were also included on the questionnaire. The demographic questions asked were gender (male or female), age, year in school (freshman, sophomore, junior, senior, 5+ years, or other), ethnicity/race (Caucasian, Asian, African American, Hispanic, Native American, or Other), and citizenship (U.S. citizen or non-U.S. citizen). A space was also provided on the questionnaire for the participant to provide additional comments. By allowing participants to leave comments it allows the participant to further explain their reaction to the study. Providing an opportunity for the participant to leave a comment also helps control for one of the disadvantages of survey research, the lack of opportunity to probe. The ability to leave a comment is similar to asking “do you have any additional comments at the end of an in person interview,” allowing the participant to relieve him or herself of any information they would like to share.

**Pilot Study**

A pilot study was conducted to check for reliability. A convenience sample consisting of two undergraduate classes from a large, Midwestern university were asked to participate in the pilot study ($n = 27$). The group of students was first read a script explaining the purpose of the study and depicting their rights as potential subjects. If the student completed the questionnaire, he or she provided consent to participate in the
study. Next, the students were asked to watch a video. After the video, the questionnaires were distributed and completed by the students. Once the questionnaires had been completed, the students were asked to comment on the appropriateness of the questions, the clarity of the questions, the sensitivity of the questions as they relate to the participant, and the clarity of the instructions. One of the reasons these questions were asked was to control for one of the disadvantages of survey research, the potential problem of asking too complex of questions and the participant not being able to seek clarity. The suggestions made on the questionnaires were recorded and a few formatting corrections were made.

The pilot study questionnaire assessed evoked nostalgia, nostalgic intended behaviors, familiarity, attitude toward sport, nostalgia proneness, and demographics. The Cronbach alpha’s were calculated for the evoked nostalgia scale (NOST) and the nostalgia proneness scale (adapted TPI). The Cronbach alpha for the evoked nostalgia scale was .84. The Cronbach alpha for the nostalgia proneness scale was .70. The reliability estimate was just at Nunally’s (1978) suggested level of .70. After running the analysis it was noticed that an item had been left out of the scale. The scale was adjusted to include the missing item. The item missing from the scale was: “I think about the good things I have missed out on in my life.”

**Data Collection**

The process for data collection consisted of a series of steps. The first step was to identify classes the researcher had access to and receive permission from the instructors of those classes to collect data. The second step was to collect data from the classes that
agreed to participate. The researcher arranged a time to attend each class with the instructor of the course. On the scheduled date, the researcher presented the study to the class. A briefing of the study was read to the class explaining the purpose of the study and depicting the rights of the subjects. Those who had previously participated in the study were asked to remain quiet and not participate in the study a second time. The subjects were then asked to watch a video about Jim Thorpe. Before the video was played, the lights in the room were turned off to help control the environment. By turning off the lights, a similar environment was created each time data was collected because it placed emphasis on the video, encouraging the participants to focus on the video.

After the video, the lights were turned back on and the questionnaires were passed out. The participants were then asked to complete the questionnaire. The researcher collected the questionnaires once they were completed. Participants that arrived to the class late were asked to not participate in the study.

**Data Analysis**

All of the data collected was inputted into the researcher’s personal computer and analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences version 18.0. Before statistical analysis was executed, a thorough investigation of the data set was performed in order to eliminate possible statistical error. A scan for accuracy of data entry and for missing values was completed. The data was correctly inputted, with no outliers. A few missing values existed, but there were not enough missing values to make a significant impact on the analysis, so the missing values were left as missing. The next step was to
run descriptive statistics for the variables. Means, frequencies, and standard deviations were calculated. Also, factor analyses were performed on the items representing evoked nostalgia, nostalgic intended behaviors, and nostalgia proneness.

Research question 1 asked if familiarity can evoke nostalgia. A simple regression was used to analyze this research question. A hierarchical regression was used to analyze the second research question asking if evoked nostalgia influences nostalgic intended behaviors.

Research questions 3, 4, 5, and 6 used $t$-tests to analyze the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable. Research question 3 investigated the relationship between males and females and evoked nostalgia. Research question 4 investigated the relationship between males and females and nostalgic intended behaviors. Research question 5 investigated the relationship between race and evoked nostalgia. Research question 6 investigated the relationship between race and nostalgic intended behaviors. Respondents had the opportunity to write comments concerning their reaction to the questionnaire. The responses from the participants are listed in Appendix G.
CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter contains the results of the quantitative data analysis procedures conducted for this study. The data was collected using the Nostalgic Intended Behavior Questionnaire, which contained items designed to measure evoked nostalgia, intended behaviors as they relate to an object of nostalgia, familiarity with Jim Thorpe, nostalgia proneness, and demographics. The results are presented in six sections: (a) participant demographics, (b) factor analysis, (c) reliability analysis, (d) item descriptive statistics (e) correlations, and (f) research questions.

Participant Demographics

The student respondents consisted of 222 males (73.3%) and 81 (26.7%) females. The mean age of the respondents was 21.44 years ($SD = 2.63$). The minimum age was 18 and the maximum age was 42. Of the 303 students responding, 40 (13.2%) were freshmen, 53 (17.5%) were sophomores, 79 (26.1%) were juniors, 111 (36.6%) were seniors, 18 (5.9%) were undergraduates for five or more years, and 1 (0.3%) was other. The 303 student respondents consisted of 270 (89.1%) Caucasians, 5 (1.7%) Asian Americans, 19 (6.3%) African Americans, 3 (1.0%) Hispanics, 1 (0.3%) Native Americans, 1 (0.3%) other.
American, and 5 (1.7%) others. Of the 303 student participants, 298 (98.3%) were American Citizen.

**Factor Analysis**

A factor analysis was performed on the items measuring the constructs of evoked nostalgia, nostalgic intended behavior, and nostalgia proneness. These analyses were performed to determine if multiple factors were present.

**Evoked nostalgia.** Principal factors extraction with varimax rotation (orthogonal rotation) was performed on 10 items from the evoked nostalgia scale (NOST) to ensure that all of the items measured one construct. Varimax rotation was chosen because this method of analysis emphasizes the variance of each factor loading; therefore the intensity of the loadings of each factor is increased (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Principal component extraction was used prior to principal factors extraction to estimate the number of factors, absence of multicollinearity, and factorability of the correlation matrix. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin’s measure of sampling adequacy was .91. Values above .90 are considered excellent when deciding if factor analysis is appropriate for the data (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999). Bartlett’s test of sphericity was significant, \( p < .001 \).

Two factors were emerged on the evoked nostalgia scale (NOST). The communality values, as seen in Table 4.1 were appropriate values to calculate variance. This is because a variable that has no variance would have a communality score of 1 and a variable that shares none of its variance with another variable would have a score of 0, representing a lack of communality (Field, 2005).

According to Comrey and Lee (1992) factor loadings of .71 or above are considered excellent, factor loadings from .63 to .70 are very good, factor loadings from 75
.55 to .62 are good, factor loadings from .45 to .54 are fair, and factor loadings .35 or below are poor. For this study, .45 was set as the cut off point for including an item in the interpretation of a factor. In this factor analysis, all items had a factor loading higher than .45, with only one item loading below .55. The loadings of variables on factors and communalities are shown in Table 4.1. Variables are ordered and grouped by size of loading to facilitate interpretation. Loadings under .45 (20% of variance) were replaced by zeros.

Of the ten items, seven items loaded on factor 1 and two items loaded on factor 2, with one item loading on both factors (factor 1, $F=.51$ and factor 2, $F=.57$). Since it was the goal to measure one construct, the three items that loaded on factor 2 were deleted from the scale.
### Table 4.1: Factor loadings, items measuring evoked nostalgia scale (NOST)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NOST Item</th>
<th>$F_1$</th>
<th>$F_2$</th>
<th>$h^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Evokes fond memories.</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brings back memories of good times from the past.</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makes me think about when I was younger.</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reminds me of good times in the past.</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reminds me of the good old days.</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helps me recall pleasant memories.</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makes me reminisce about a previous time.</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reminds me of the past.</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makes me feel nostalgic.</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is a pleasant reminder of the past.</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Extraction and varimax rotation on evoked nostalgia items

$h^2 = \text{Communalities}$

**Nostalgic intended behavior.** The items for nostalgic intended behavior were designed with the help of a panel of experts and were intended to measure varying levels of intention to perform each behavior. Principal factors extraction with varimax rotation was performed on the 10 intended behavior items to determine if the created items loaded on different factors. Prior to principal factors extraction, principal component extraction was used to estimate the number of factors, absence of multicollinearity, and factorability.
of the correlation matrix. The measure of sampling adequacy was .91 (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin). Values close to 1 indicate that factor analysis should produce unique and reliable factors (Field, 2005) and values above .5 are acceptable for factor analysis (Kaiser, 1974). Bartlett’s test of sphericity was significant, $p < .001$.

One factor emerged. The communality values, as seen in Table 4.2, indicate variance between the variables because the values are not close to the score of 0 or 1 (Field, 2005). With a cut off of .45 for inclusion of an item in interpretation of a factor, all items loaded on one factor. Most of the items loaded extremely well (.71 or above), with one item falling just short with a score of .70 (Comrey & Lee, 1992). The loadings of variables on factors and communalities are shown in Table 4.2. Variables are ordered and grouped by size of loading to facilitate interpretation. Since all ten items loaded on one factor, the ten items were treated as a ten item scale (Nostalgic Intended Behavior).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>$F_1$</th>
<th>$h^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How likely are you to buy a book about Jim Thorpe?</td>
<td>.839</td>
<td>.580</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How likely are you to go to a movie theater to watch a film about Jim Thorpe?</td>
<td>.828</td>
<td>.637</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How likely are you to buy a memorabilia item representing Jim Thorpe?</td>
<td>.798</td>
<td>.585</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How likely are you to buy a magazine with an article about Jim Thorpe?</td>
<td>.798</td>
<td>.637</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How likely are you to watch an online video about Jim Thorpe?</td>
<td>.784</td>
<td>.686</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How likely are you to watch a movie/documentary about Jim Thorpe?</td>
<td>.766</td>
<td>.704</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How likely are you to talk about Jim Thorpe with a friend, co-worker, or family member?</td>
<td>.765</td>
<td>.586</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How likely are you to search for an article to read about Jim Thorpe?</td>
<td>.762</td>
<td>.543</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How likely are you to support an organization associated with Jim Thorpe?</td>
<td>.737</td>
<td>.484</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How likely are you to visit a museum exhibit about Jim Thorpe?</td>
<td>.695</td>
<td>.614</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Extraction on nostalgia intended behavior items

$h^2$ = Communalities

Table 4.2: Factor loadings, items measuring nostalgic intended behaviors
**Nostalgia proneness.** The nostalgia proneness scale had eight items. A principal factor extraction with a varimax rotation was used to analyze the relationships between each item. Before a principal factor extraction occurred, a principal component extraction was used to screen the data. The results indicated an absence of multicollinearity and factorability of the correlation matrix. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin’s measure of sampling adequacy was .74, which is above the recommended level of .5 (Kaiser, 1974). Also, Bartlett’s test of sphericity was found to be significant, \( p < .001 \).

Two factors were extracted from the scale measuring nostalgic proneness (adapted TPI). The communality values, as seen in Table 4.3 were appropriate values to calculate variance because they were not close to 0 or 1. The factor loadings were all above .55, indicating they had good loadings (Comrey & Lee, 1992). Table 4.3 displays the factor loadings and communalities. Variables that loaded below .45 were replaced with zeros to make it easier to read the factor loadings. Of the eight items, four items loaded on factor 1 and four items loaded on factor 2. It is possible two factors were extracted because half of the items were reverse coded. All of the reverse coded items loaded on factor 1 and the non-reverse coded items loaded on a second factor. Internal reliability (Cronbach’s alpha) was run on each factor to determine which factor had higher reliability. Factor 1 had the higher reliability and was used to measure nostalgia proneness. The results to the internal reliability analysis are discussed in the next section.
Note. Extraction and varimax rotation on nostalgia proneness items (Adapted TPI) 

Table 4.3: Factor loadings, items measuring nostalgia proneness (adapted TPI)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nostalgia Proneness Items</th>
<th>$F_1$</th>
<th>$F_2$</th>
<th>$h^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I think about the bad things that have happened to me in the past.</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think about the good things I have missed out on in my life.</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I often think of what I should have done differently in the past.</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The past has too many unpleasant memories that I prefer not to think about.</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It gives me pleasure to think about my past.</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Happy memories of good times spring readily to mind.</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, there is much more good recall than bad in my past.</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I get nostalgic about my childhood.</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>.41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reliability Analysis

The Evoked Nostalgia Scale (NOST), developed by Pascal, et al. (2002), has had normal reliability estimates ($\alpha = .96$) in the past (Pascal, et al., 2002; Wilson, 2004). This study deleted three of the evoked nostalgia items based on the results of the factor analysis conducted. In this study, the adjusted NOST scale’s internal consistency (Cronbach’s alpha) measured .91. The internal consistency of the scale falls within
Nunnally’s (1978) level of acceptability ($\alpha = .70$) for exploratory or early stage research. Therefore, based on the exploratory nature of this study, the researcher proceeded without refinement to the scale. Similarly, the Nostalgic Intended Behavior Scale was found to have internal consistency ($\alpha = .93$).

The Time Perspective Inventory (TPI), adapted by Routledge et al. (2008) to represent nostalgia proneness had a reliability of .71 in the past (Routledge, et al., 2008). In this study, the items on the adapted TPI scale loaded on two factors. Therefore, an internal consistency analysis was run on each factor to determine which items to use in the scale measuring nostalgia proneness. Factor 1 had an internal reliability (Cronbach’s alpha) of .77, while Factor 2 had an internal reliability of .69. The internal consistency of Factor 2 falls below Nunnally’s (1978) level of acceptability ($\alpha = .70$). Since internal consistency for Factor 2 was below the acceptable level, the items in Factor 1 were used to measure nostalgia proneness.

**Item Descriptive Statistics**

The descriptive statistics for each item on the instrument were analyzed and are reported in the following table. Table 4.4 depicts the descriptive statistics for evoked nostalgia, nostalgic intended behaviors, familiarity with Jim Thorpe, and nostalgia proneness.
Table 4.4: Overall descriptive statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale/Item</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Evoked Nostalgia(^a)</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nostalgic Intended Behaviors(^b)</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Familiarity: How familiar are you with Jim Thorpe?(^c)</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nostalgia Proneness(^d)</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>303</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. \(^a\)Nostalgia scale; 7 point Likert-type scale (1 = “strongly disagree”, 7 = “strongly agree”), \(^b\)Intended behavior; 9 point Likert-type scale (1 = “strongly disagree”, 9 = “strongly agree”), \(^c\)Familiarity; 9 point Likert-type scale (1 = “not aware”, 9 = “very aware”), \(^d\)Nostalgia Proneness; 7 point Likert-type scale (1 = “not at all characteristic of me”, 7 = “very characteristic of me”)

Correlations

Table 4.5 illustrates the Pearson correlations that were performed on all of the variables in the study: evoked nostalgia, nostalgia proneness, nostalgic intended behaviors, and familiarity. The relationship between evoked nostalgia and nostalgic intended behavior was significant ($r = .379$, $p = .001$). Although the relationship was not as strong, there was also a significant and positive relationship for evoked nostalgia and familiarity ($r = .138$, $p = .016$). Another significant and positive correlation was the relationship between nostalgic intended behavior and familiarity ($r = .327$, $p = .001$).

No significant correlations were found for any of the variables with nostalgia proneness. Therefore, the relationship between evoked nostalgia and nostalgia proneness was not significant ($r = - .041$, $p = .474$). The correlation between nostalgia proneness and nostalgic intended behaviors was also not significant ($r = - .010$, $p = .868$).
Table 4.5: Correlations between variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. EvoNostalgia</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Proneness</td>
<td>-.041</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. IntenBehavior</td>
<td>.379**</td>
<td>-.010</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Familiarity</td>
<td>.138*</td>
<td>-.058</td>
<td>.327**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. * p < .05; ** p < .01. (two-tailed)
EvoNostalgia = Evoked Nostalgia; IntenBehavior = Nostalgic Intended Behavior.

Research Questions

The first research question asked if familiarity could influence evoked nostalgia. A linear regression was performed to explore the relationship. A significant relationship was found, $F(1, 302) = 5.85, p = .016$. The analysis revealed familiarity explained 1.6% of the variance in evoked nostalgia. Although nostalgia proneness has shown to impact nostalgia for objects in previous research (Holbrook & Schindler, 1991, 1994; Schindler & Holbrook, 1993), nostalgia proneness was not controlled for because it did not correlate with familiarity or evoked nostalgia. Therefore, familiarity was significantly related to evoked nostalgia.

The second research question asked if evoked nostalgia influenced nostalgic intended behavior. A hierarchical regression was performed to explore the relationship, while controlling for familiarity. Table 4.6 displays the outcomes of the analysis. When nostalgia was entered into the second step, the regression equation was significant,
$F_{\text{change}}(1, 298) = 43.199, p < .001, \Delta R^2 = .113$. Therefore, when controlling for familiarity, evoked nostalgia explained 11.3% of the variance in intended behavior. The findings suggest, evoked nostalgia was significantly related to nostalgic intended behavior.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>ADJ $R^2$</th>
<th>$\Delta R^2$</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>$B$</th>
<th>$SE$</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
<th>$t$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Step 1</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Familiar</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td>.104</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td>35.86*</td>
<td>.227</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>.327*</td>
<td>5.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Step 2</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Familiar</td>
<td>.220</td>
<td>.215</td>
<td>.113</td>
<td>43.20*</td>
<td>.194</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>.280*</td>
<td>5.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EvokedNos</td>
<td>.477</td>
<td>.073</td>
<td>.340*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6.57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. EvokedNos = Evoked Nostalgia

* $p < .01$

**Table 4.6: Hierarchical regression on nostalgic intended behaviors**

The third research question asked if there was a difference between males ($n = 222$) and females ($n = 81$) for evoked nostalgia. Since there was a large difference between the group sizes between males and females it was necessary to test for homogeneity of variance by using the Levene’s test (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The Levene’s test was found to be non-significant, $F(1, 301) = 2.69, p = .102$. The results indicated that homogeneity of variance existed within the data set. An independent sample $t$-test was used to determine differences between males and females for evoked
nostalgia. No significance difference between males \((M = 3.90, SD = 1.26)\) and females \((M = 4.18, SD = 1.12)\), was found, \(t(301) = -1.76, p = .079\).

The fourth research question asked if there was a difference between males \((n = 220)\) and females \((n = 81)\) for nostalgic intended behaviors. Levene’s test of homogeneity was performed and was not significant, \(F(1, 299) = .21, p = .651\). Therefore, equal variances were assumed. To test the relationship between genders on nostalgic intended behaviors, an independent sample \(t\)-test was used. The results indicated there were no significant differences between males \((M = 4.33, SD = 1.75)\) and females \((M = 4.00, SD = 1.67)\) on nostalgic intended behaviors, \(t(299) = 1.45, p = .148\).

The fifth and sixth research questions investigated the relationship between race and evoked nostalgia and race and nostalgic intended behaviors. The analysis for the two research questions could not be run with race segmented into six categories because there were not enough responses in each race category to perform statistical analyses. To correct the issue, the race categories of Asian Americans, African Americans, Hispanics, Native Americans, and Other were collapsed to create one group. The new categories were white \((n = 270)\) and non-white \((n = 33)\).

The fifth research question asked if there was a difference between whites and non-whites on evoked nostalgia. A test for homogeneity of variance (Levene’s) was run and was not significant, \(F(1, 301) = .78, p = .378\). Therefore equal variances were assumed. To test the relationship between whites and non-whites, an independent-sample \(t\)-test was used. There was no significant difference between white \((M = 3.96, SD = 1.22)\) and non-white \((M = 4.04, SD = 1.35)\) respondents, \(t(301) = -3.59, p = .72\).
The sixth research question asked if there was a difference between whites and non-whites on nostalgic intended behaviors. An independent-sample $t$-test was used to analyze the relationship. Levene’s test of homogeneity was violated, $F(1, 299) = 8.25, p = .004$. Therefore, equal variances were not assumed. There was no significant difference between white ($M = 34.23, SD = 1.66$) and non-white ($M = 4.34, SD = 2.23$) respondents, $t(299) = -.33, p = .74$.

According to Field (2005) if the assumption of homogeneity of variance is broken, a non-parametric test should also be run. If the assumption is violated because groups have unequal numbers of participants, then a Mann-Whitney test should be used (Field, 2005). A non-parametric analysis was run using the Mann-Whitney independent $t$-test to analyze the relationship between whites and non-whites on nostalgic intended behaviors. No significant relationship was found, $U(301) = 4,418.00, p = .993$. 

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CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The primary purposes of this study were to: (a) explore the relationship between familiarity and evoked nostalgia, (b) explore the relationship between evoked nostalgia and nostalgic intended behaviors, (c) determine if a difference exists between males and females for evoked nostalgia, (d) determine if a difference exists between males and females for nostalgic intended behaviors, (e) determine if there is a difference between race and evoked nostalgia, and (f) determine if there is a difference between race and intended behavior. As such this chapter discusses the findings of this study in four sections: instrument, discussion and implications, limitations, and recommendations for future research.

Instrument

The instrument used in this study was composed of a scale measuring evoked nostalgia (NOST), items pertaining to nostalgic intended behaviors, a scale measuring nostalgia proneness (adapted TPI), and demographic questions.
Factor Analysis

A factor analysis was run on each scale and the items pertaining to nostalgic intended behaviors. This analysis was performed to ensure the scales were measuring one construct. After the analysis, a few alterations were made to the evoked nostalgia scale and the nostalgia proneness scale.

The evoked nostalgia scale had two factors extracted during a factor analysis. Two items loaded on a second factor and one item loaded on both factors. The items that loaded on the second factor and the item that loaded on both factors could have possibly loaded differently than the other seven items because of the way the items were worded or possibly because the participants were too young to have personally experienced Jim Thorpe, so the questions did not pertain to the participants. The items removed were: “Reminds me of the past;” “Makes me feel nostalgic;” and “Is a pleasant reminder of the past.” These three items were removed from the scale during future analysis. The internal reliability for the scale was .91. Reliability for the scale in previous studies was .96. Although this instrument has not been widely used these results endorse the further use of this construct.

The nostalgia proneness scale also extracted two factors during a factor analysis. Half of the items loaded on one factor and the other half loaded on a second factor. After analyzing the differences between the items that loaded on each factor, it was concluded that they were seen as two constructs because of the way the items were scored; half of the items had reverse scoring. Also, the reverse coded items were worded in a negative context. An example of a negatively worded item was “The past has too many unpleasant memories that I prefer not to think about.” Even though half of the items had
reverse coding and were worded negatively, an obvious difference in the content of the questions that loaded on each factor does not differ. Since the items statistically represented two constructs, it was decided that one of the constructs should be removed. Since there was no difference in what the items in each factor were measuring, internal reliability was run on each factor to determine which factor to use in the study. The factor with the items that had reverse coding had the highest internal validity, so those four items were used to measure nostalgia proneness.

The four items measuring nostalgia proneness had fair internal reliability ($\alpha = .77$). This internal reliability is similar to the score the scale received in a previous study ($\alpha = .71$; Routledge et al., 2008). These results are acceptable and consistent, however, the scale did not correlate with evoked nostalgia or nostalgic intended behaviors. This is an interesting finding because previous research has found that those who are prone to nostalgia are more likely to be persuaded by the application of nostalgia in advertising (Zimmer et al., 1999) and that highly prone people consume goods in order to experience nostalgia (Holbrook & Schindler, 2003). Due to the findings, it is recommend to be cautious when using the adapted TPI scale in future research.

A factor analysis was also run on the items measuring nostalgic intended behavior because it was thought that the items might measure varying degrees of involvement/cost (i.e., time and financial resources) associated with the behavior. The results of the factor analysis suggest there was no difference among the variables. Since there was no varying degree of involvement, the items were reexamined to determine what level of involvement they were measuring. It was concluded that the items were measuring low involvement.
All of the items might have been seen as low involvement because they were behaviors the participants have performed in the past (i.e., bought a book, watched a movie, went to a museum, and sponsored an organization). This idea is supported with findings from Sierra and McQuitty (2007). These scholars found that people have bought nostalgia products such as music, sport memorabilia, and literature to remind them of the past. Therefore, it is suggested that previous behaviors might have a large influence on the level of involvement associated with nostalgic intended behaviors. Since the ten items loaded on one factor, they were combined and used as a scale. The internal reliability of the scale was high ($\alpha = .93$).

**Descriptive Statistics**

The mean scores for the three scales (evoked nostalgia, nostalgic intended behaviors, and nostalgia proneness) and for the item measuring familiarity were all close to the midpoint on their respective Likert-style scale. Evoked nostalgia had a mean score of 3.97 on a 7 point Likert-style scale with a standard deviation of 1.23. These results indicate that on average, the participants were slightly below the midpoint for evoked nostalgia. The results suggest there were not many participants who were extremely nostalgic or not nostalgic at all. These results could play a factor in the results of the research questions. For example, if the participants were highly nostalgic, then there might have been a stronger relationship between evoked nostalgia and nostalgic intended behaviors.

The mean score for nostalgic intended behaviors was 4.24 on a 9 point Likert-type scale with a standard deviation of 1.73. The intention to act after being induced with nostalgia had a below average score, however the standard deviation was fairly large
indicating that some of the participants were more or less likely to react. These results would have had more meaning if a pretest were used to collect information on the participant’s behaviors prior to being evoked.

The mean score for nostalgia proneness was 4.56 on a 9 point Likert-type scale with a standard deviation of 1.13. These results suggest that the participants were moderately prone to nostalgia. The participants might have been less prone to nostalgia because of the environment where they completed the questionnaire. The classrooms where the questionnaires were administered might not have been a suitable location for emotions to become salient because the students might have been reserved about displaying their emotions. Another reason the participants might not have been prone to nostalgia is because the participants responded to the nostalgia proneness items after watching the video about Jim Thorpe. The video could have interfered with how the participant responded to the items pertaining to nostalgia proneness. For example, if the individual was not nostalgic after the video, then he or she might not have been able to adequately respond for how prone he or she was to nostalgia. It is believed, however, that the age of the participants (college students, with an average age of 21.44) was not an influencing factor on nostalgia proneness. Previous studies have found that college students have the capability to be nostalgic. In fact, Batcho (1995) found nostalgia peaked during college-aged people and then declined.

The item measuring familiarity had a mean score of 4.92 on a 9 point Likert-type scale with a standard deviation of 2.48. The mean score was close to the midpoint of the scale, however there was a large standard deviation, suggesting there was a lot of variation between how familiar people were with Jim Thorpe.
Correlations

The variables used in the study (evoked nostalgia, intended behaviors, familiarity, and nostalgia proneness) were correlated to determine how strong the relationships were between the variables. All of the variables had significant correlations with each other except for nostalgia proneness, which did not correlate with any of the variables (evoked nostalgia, intended behaviors, or familiarity). This is interesting because previous research has shown a significant relationship between nostalgia proneness and preferences for products (Schindler & Holbrook, 2003). A significant relationship has also been found between how prone one is to being nostalgic and his or her nostalgic intensity toward a print advertisement and toward a brand or company (Reisenwitz, et al., 2004).

These unreliable findings may suggest that the nostalgic stimulus may interfere with how a participant responds to nostalgia proneness on a questionnaire. For example, a participant might be more prone to being nostalgic if they have already become nostalgic from the nostalgic stimuli. In this study, the nostalgic stimulus could have impeded the results because the items pertaining to nostalgia proneness were completed after seeing the Jim Thorpe video. As a result, a pretest should be used to test nostalgia proneness, so proneness can be accessed before becoming nostalgic.

Discussion of Results and Implications

The following section presents a discussion of the results as they relate to each research question. Along with a discussion of the results, implications of the findings are provided.
Research Question 1

The first research question explored the relationship between the participants’ level of familiarity with Jim Thorpe and evoked nostalgia. The results empirically showed that familiarity explained 1.6% of the variance for being nostalgic. Therefore, the more familiar one was with Jim Thorpe, the more likely he or she was to be nostalgic. These results suggest that familiarity is an antecedent that factors into the nostalgic experience. The amount of variance explained, however, was small.

This finding is important because it suggests that people are more nostalgic for items with which they are familiar. As a result, this finding could suggest that people are more nostalgic for objects from personal nostalgia rather than from vicarious nostalgia. For instance, the participants in this study were not very nostalgic for Jim Thorpe. This could be because every one of the participants was born after Jim Thorpe had passed away in 1953 (“Jim Thorpe,” 2010).

These findings have practical significance for marketers because they provide a better understanding of the types of objects that trigger nostalgia. The findings suggest that marketers should choose objects that are familiar to their consumers in order to induce nostalgia. Therefore, it is important the marketers understand what objects (people, places, experiences, or things) their target market is familiar with when designing a marketing campaign.

It is believed that information provided to the consumer can make one more familiar with the object of nostalgia, or could make the memory of the object more salient. For example, the aforementioned Visa commercial of Olympian speed skater Dan Jansen explains Jansen’s Olympic story, which either informs or reminds the
audience of Jansen’s story. This strategy could be very useful in trying to create a connection between present consumers and the history of the product or service.

For example, if the Cincinnati Reds were marketing to young professionals, it would be wise to market someone recognizable like Chris Sabo, one of the well known Reds during their World Series win in 1990. Sabo was most famously recognized for his unique eyewear that he wore during games, which looked like large, clear, carpenter’s glasses. A potential nostalgia promotion could include a Chris Sabo glasses giveaway. The glasses would make people nostalgic of Sabo and the successful Reds teams he played on. The novelty of the glasses could also help to create a more fun and enjoyable game experience. Additionally, the Reds could play Sabo’s career highlights on the jumbotron, make announcements over the loud speaker of his accomplishments, and provide information in the program about him. The more information about Sabo the Reds can get to their fans, the more familiar their fans will be with Sabo, and therefore, the greater the chance they will be nostalgically evoked.

The Sabo promotion also accomplishes two other nostalgic goals: first, the fans will be able to take the glasses home as a memento; and second, providing information about Sabo to the fans over the loudspeaker or in the programs increases familiarity, which can increase nostalgia. The glasses are a symbol representing Sabo and the Reds, forever having the ability to evoke nostalgia in an individual for not just the history of Reds, and their memory of the particular game where they received the glasses.

**Research Question 2**

The second research question investigated the relationship between evoked nostalgia and nostalgic intended behaviors. A hierarchical regression was performed to
examine a relationship between evoked nostalgia and nostalgia intended behaviors, while controlling for familiarity. Evoked nostalgia counted for 11.3% of the variance for nostalgic intended behaviors, when controlling for familiarity. This finding suggests that when one is evoked with nostalgia, one’s intended behavior changes. Therefore, when one is nostalgic they may behave differently than when they are not nostalgic. It is important to note that the intended behavior used in the study required low involvement, like buying a book. These results could be different for behaviors that required high involvement, like traveling by plane to a sport event.

A practical implication of the findings of this study would be for organizations to create opportunities for consumers to become nostalgic in order to increase the likelihood that consumers will positively respond to the nostalgic experience. These effects have the potential to create additional revenue for an organization by encouraging consumers to purchase more items, become or remain loyal, and heighten their identity with the organization. For example, the Boston Celtics could use Larry Bird in a print advertisement to influence consumers to buy licensed merchandise, to stay loyal to the Celtics, to donate money, to watch more games on television, or to increase or renew their identity with the Celtics.

Professional sports use various objects to create nostalgic opportunities. Some of the objects include hanging retired jerseys in the venue, creating nostalgic-style facilities, placing championship years on letterhead, and building halls of fame. The findings of this study suggest professional sports should continue to create opportunities for consumers to be nostalgic because nostalgia greatly contributes to consumer behavior.
Although professional sport teams use nostalgia to market to their consumers, objects of nostalgia are not as widely seen in other areas of sport, such as sport tourism, recreational sport, and high school sports. These other areas could benefit by incorporating nostalgic objects into their products. For example, a high school girl’s softball tournament could highlight former athletes that played at the tournament to influence future tournament attendees or to influence attendees to purchase a tournament t-shirt. Recreational sports could use the history of women in sport to encourage present day women to participate in more recreational activities. Also, high school athletics could create a video highlighting the accomplishments of its former athletes to use as a tool to endorse contributions from former and current parents.

The impact of nostalgia has been found to be significant on the intended behaviors of consumers. These outcomes of nostalgia resemble the outcomes of a commonly studied variable in determining sport consumer behavior, team identification. Team identification has been found to influence many aspects associated with sport teams, some of which have direct support and some of which have indirect support toward sport teams. Some of the direct impacts include the amount of money one is willing to spend on team licensed merchandise and the number of games one will attend (Fisher & Wakefield, 1988). One of the indirect impacts team identification has had on sport is that highly identified fans will support the sponsors of their favorite team by purchasing the sponsor’s product (Madrigal, 2000).

**Research Questions 3**

The third question investigated the relationship between genders on evoked nostalgia. No significant relationship was found between males and females on varying
levels of evoked nostalgia. These findings indicate gender was not a factor in the
nostalgic reactions to Jim Thorpe. This suggests that males and females who have an
interest in sport respond to a nostalgic male athlete similarly. This information can be
useful when selecting a person to use as an object to evoke nostalgia. For example, it can
be anticipated that Michael Jordan can induce both female and male sport fans to be
nostalgic.

It is unknown however, if males and females would have similar nostalgic
responses if a female athlete was used as the object to induce nostalgia rather than a male
athlete. This suggests that the object inducing nostalgia is influential when determining if
genders will react similarly or differently toward the object. This notion is comparable to
Schindler and Holbrook’s (2003) finding that men are nostalgic for cars from the past,
while women do not have a nostalgic preference for cars in the past. Similarly, Boyd and
Shank (2004) found that the gender of the person endorsing a product played a significant
impact on how the receiver of the endorsement perceived the trustworthiness of the
endorser. It was found that males thought male endorsers were more trustworthy and
females thought female endorsers were more trustworthy.

In summary, the results of the study emphasize the need to conduct future
research to determine what type of sport objects trigger men and women to be nostalgic.

**Research Question 4**

The results of the study did not find a significant difference between males and
females toward nostalgic intended behavior. These findings suggest that males and
females have similar intended behavior for behaviors of low involvement. The practical
implication of these results is that efforts to create nostalgic experiences should be aimed
at both males and females, since the intended behavior of both genders was influenced by being nostalgic. Therefore, both men and women will react to nostalgia, creating opportunities for organizations to capitalize on nostalgia. For example, being evoked with nostalgia will influence both men and women to purchase a jersey, sport memorabilia, or a ticket to a game.

No other study has investigated the difference between genders and nostalgic outcomes, but the findings in this study are interesting because other studies investigating consumer behavior suggests that men and women do behave differently. Bush, Martin, and Bush (2004) found that females were more influenced by athlete role models to buy certain brands, than men. Additionally, men are more likely to be season ticket holders to NCAA basketball games (Pan, Gabert, McGaugh, & Branvold, 1997). These examples are just a sampling of the research in consumer behavior on the differences between genders, it is suggested that future studies further explore the relationship between genders and nostalgic outcomes.

**Research Question 5**

The fifth question investigated the relationship between whites and non-whites on evoked nostalgia. The sample used in the study was nearly racially homogenous (few non-whites), but the homogeneity of variance was not violated. The findings suggest that there was not a difference between whites and non-whites on their levels of evoked nostalgia for Jim Thorpe, a Native American. Since the sample was almost homogenous, however, the differences between races could not be fully explored. For example, it would have been interesting to see if Native Americans were more nostalgic than other races because they identified more closely with Thorpe as a fellow Native American.
Research Question 6

The sixth research question investigated the relationship between whites and non-whites on nostalgic intended behaviors. The relationship was found to be insignificant, suggesting that whites and non-whites had similar behavior intentions. It is important to note, again that these intentions are for low involvement items and not high involvement items. It is unknown if race will have an influence on items that require a high level of involvement such as traveling out of state to attend a sporting event.

Other studies in consumer behavior have found race to be a factor influencing sport consumer behavior. Armstrong and Strata (2004) found that white and black consumers differ on their orientation to sport and their motivation to consume sport. In a study investigating two women’s professional basketball teams from two different regions of the country, the scholars found that white spectators were more likely to buy tickets in advance and to participate in pre-game social activities, such as going out to dinner. In the same study, however, whites and blacks were found to have a similar willingness to purchase team merchandise and had similar behaviors relating to game purchases. These similarities between whites and blacks relate to the results of this study, supporting that race does not have an influence on nostalgic intended behavior.

Limitations

This study had several limitations, including the lack of a control group or pretest, the use of a single questionnaire, the method used to collect data, the sample, and a lack of control for history.

The study would have benefited from using a control group or pretest for three reasons: first, the effects of media on evoked nostalgia could have been measured which
would have empirically displayed the impacts of using media to evoke nostalgia; second, the empirical effects of vicarious nostalgia could have been studied; and third, a pretest or control group could have also shown the change in evoked nostalgia and nostalgic intended behavior after being evoked with an object of nostalgia.

The use of a single questionnaire was the second limitation of the study because the questionnaire only captures one moment of time. Therefore, the results of the study cannot be directly generalized to another period of time.

The third limitation was the method used to collect data. The participants were asked to watch a video and then complete a questionnaire. By asking the participants to watch the video, it might have influenced them to pay more attention to the video than they normally would. Also, asking the participants to complete a questionnaire might influence the participant to reflect on the video when he or she would not normally spend time analyzing the video.

The fourth limitation was the sample used in the study. Since a convenience sample was used, the generalizability of the study’s findings is limited. Furthermore, the sample is almost homogenous across gender and racial lines, and it is suspected the sample had a higher interest in sport than the average American because the participants were enrolled in classes that emphasized sport and recreation. Since they were studying sport, it is suggested that the participants might have a greater interest in sport than others. A control group or a pre-test could have controlled for this issue.

The fifth limitation was a history threat that was present that possibly threatened internal validity. History is the threat of events occurring during the study that could interfere with the results of the study (Ary et. al., 2010). In this case, participants in the
study could have recently learned about Jim Thorpe from a classmate or a friend who had previously participated in the study.

Future Studies

The future of nostalgia in sport management is promising and has room for development as very few studies have linked sport and nostalgia. Building on the presented study, future studies could investigate the antecedents and outcomes specific to sport. Some of the antecedents that should be studied are the differences between personal and vicarious nostalgia, sport objects that trigger nostalgia, and the differing effectiveness of varying types of media to evoke nostalgia. Future studies on the outcome of being nostalgic include studying nostalgic intended behaviors that require high involvement. Future studies should also further investigate the relationship between nostalgia, gender, and race.

This study demonstrated that familiarity plays a significant role in the nostalgic experience. It is, however, suspected that familiarity might wane based on a person’s experience. A person who experienced an object, person, place, or experience first-hand (personal nostalgia) might be more familiar than someone with second-hand experience (vicarious nostalgia). This suggests that a personal experience might produce a more intense nostalgic reaction than a vicarious nostalgia experience. A future study should investigate differences between vicarious nostalgia and personal nostalgia on levels of evoked nostalgia.

Another future study should further investigate the triggers of sport nostalgia to determine specific sport triggers. Examples of possible sport nostalgia triggers that are common in sport include bobbleheads, tickets, videos played during an event, teams,
songs, championship games, and logos. By determining specific triggers in sport, sport marketers could make better decisions when selecting nostalgia objects (i.e., people, places, experiences, or items) to emphasize to sport consumers. Organizations could also benefit from knowing what objects trigger nostalgia by incorporating nostalgia into some of the objects. For example, if nostalgic videos were found to evoke nostalgia during a sporting event, organizations can make an effort to create videos with nostalgia content to be played during events.

This study used media to evoke nostalgia. A future study should be conducted to compare the effects of different types of media on evoked nostalgia to determine which type of media produces higher nostalgia within individuals. An understanding of which type of media produces varying levels of nostalgic responses can help sport marketers design more cost effective marketing campaigns. For example, if people produce a much higher nostalgic response from a video than from a program, it might be more beneficial to pay for video advertising than print advertising.

The outcomes of nostalgia are just as important to study as the antecedents to nostalgia. This study investigated how nostalgia influenced nostalgic intended behavior. The results show nostalgia significantly influenced the intended behaviors that required low levels of involvement, such as buying a book. Future studies should make specific distinctions between the degrees of involvement associated with the nostalgic intended behavior to determine if there is a difference between one’s nostalgia level and the amount of involvement/cost one is willing to indulge in while nostalgic. For example, a behavior with a high level of involvement that could be measured is how likely one is to
take a trip because one is nostalgic. The trip could be specific to nostalgia sport tourism (i.e., traveling to watch a MLB World Series game).

The results from this study also suggest further investigation of the relationship between genders and nostalgia associated to sport. This study displayed no significant difference between males and females for evoked nostalgia and for intended behavior. It would be interesting, however, to investigate if a significant difference would exist between males and females if the nostalgic subject were female (for example Billie Jean King) instead of male (Jim Thorpe in this study).

Other future sport nostalgia studies include investigating how nostalgia is created and maintained over a period of time, studying the relationship between nostalgia and performance, examining the effectiveness of using nostalgia at different points in the product life cycle, and exploring if people can be nostalgic for the future.

How much time must pass in order for one to be nostalgic for the past is another important consideration of nostalgia. Davis (1977, 1979) believes the amount of time passed does not influence one’s aptitude to be nostalgic. Time passage has been studied as it relates to the age of an object (Holbrook & Schindler, 1994), but it has not been studied as it relates to how much time must pass before an individual can be nostalgic. For example, it is unknown if one can be nostalgic for something that happened earlier in the day. In addition, nostalgia should be investigated for how long the nostalgic experience lasts. Knowing how long someone can remain nostalgic can greatly influence the time period when a sport consumer would purchase a sport product or sport service, thus enabling marketers to target consumers for a specific period of time.
A future study could investigate the relationship between nostalgia and team performance to determine how much of an effect nostalgia can have in maintaining fan identification with a team when the team’s performance is struggling. Using nostalgia campaigns of more successful times during stretches of poor team performance is similar to marketers using nostalgia campaigns of more prosperous times during troubled economic times (Elliot, 2009). The practical implications of this study could prove invaluable for teams with a losing record or a suffering public image to maintain positive relationships with fans. Further research could also study how nostalgia affects the athlete and the athlete’s performance. Taking it one step further, another study could identify if and how nostalgia builds team cohesion, which ultimately would increase team performance.

Sport managers could also benefit by examining the effectiveness of using nostalgia at different points in the product life cycle to determine if and when nostalgia can most positively affect a product. For example, a study should be conducted to determine if a nostalgia campaign could evoke positive nostalgic results for a product in the introduction, growth, maturation, or decline phase of the product life cycle. These results would display when a marketing campaign would be most beneficial to use during a product’s life cycle.

Another study could investigate the concept of future nostalgia. Future nostalgia was introduced by Davis (1977) as an idea where individuals could predict that they would be nostalgic for an event in the future. For example, an individual in the present can imagine at some point in the future nostalgically looking back at events that are expected to occur in the future. Davis’ idea has not yet been studied, but the concept
could be very valuable in the field of sport management as a fan’s prediction for an
episode of future nostalgia to occur could influence the fan’s purchase behavior for sport
memorabilia. For example, a fan could purchase a t-shirt commemorating their favorite
baseball team’s participation in the MLB World Series with the intention that in the
future once their team has presumably won the World Series, the t-shirt will nostalgically
evoke the fan.

Conclusion

In sum, this study extended previous research on nostalgia. Specifically, this
study examined the impact one’s familiarity with an object has on evoking nostalgia. It
was found that familiarity with an object has a significant impact on evoked nostalgia.
The study also examined the effects nostalgia has on the consumer’s intention to behave.
The results suggest that being nostalgic influences one’s intended behavior, for behaviors
requiring low levels of involvement. The study also found no significant difference
between males and females for levels of evoked nostalgia or nostalgic intended
behaviors. Similar findings were found for whites and non-whites.
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Appendix A

Verbal Consent

Dear Participants:
I am here today to introduce you to a study I am conducting. The purpose of the research is to investigate the relationship between media, evoked nostalgia, and behavior. A better understanding of this issue may be of interest to those interested in sociology, psychology, marketing, and sport management. As a member of a Sport Leadership and Sport Humanities class, you are invited to participate in a research study examining this topic. Your input is critical in assisting with this important study.

The research is being conducted by myself, Katie Meyer and my advisor, Dr. Brian Turner. Participation in the study is voluntary. You may withdraw from the study at any point without penalty and may refuse to answer any questions that make you feel uncomfortable. By returning the survey, you consent to participate. By participating you will receive no personal benefit or reward, although your responses will contribute to the expanding sport management knowledge base. The study will consist of a video less than four minutes in length and a questionnaire. **It is anticipated the questionnaire will take approximately 4-5 minutes to complete.**

Please be assured that **your responses will be kept confidential.** The results of the study will not be linked to any individual or institution, and any discussion of collected data will be based on group data. If you have any questions concerning your research rights at any time, contact me, Katie Meyer.

Thank you.
Appendix B

Web Links to Nostalgic Videos

Billy Mills - http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=l5vOhMwRQwI
(kjohansen1, 2009)

Jim Thorpe - http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=FZCvhW-Q634
(Nativemedia, 2009)

Maureen Connolly - http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=_JIhJY_N_8Q
(mcbtennis, 2010)
Appendix C

Nostalgic Intended Behavior

1) How likely are you to buy a book about Jim Thorpe?

2) How likely are you to go to a movie theater to watch a film about Jim Thorpe?

3) How likely are you to buy a memorabilia item representing Jim Thorpe?

4) How likely are you to buy a magazine with an article about Jim Thorpe?

5) How likely are you to watch an online video about Jim Thorpe?

6) How likely are you to watch a movie/documentary about Jim Thorpe?

7) How likely are you to talk about Jim Thorpe with a friend, co-worker, or family member?

8) How likely are you to search for an article to read about Jim Thorpe?

9) How likely are you to support an organization associated with Jim Thorpe?

10) How likely are you to visit a museum exhibit about Jim Thorpe?

Note. Nine point Likert-type scale (1 = “not likely,” 9 = “very likely”).
Appendix D

Nostalgic Intended Behavior Questionnaire
Examining Media’s Impact on Nostalgia Influenced Behavior

In response to the video you just watched please indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement using a 1 to 7 scale (1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) Reminds me of the past.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Helps me recall pleasant memories.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Makes me feel nostalgic.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) Makes me reminisce about a previous time.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) Makes me think about when I was younger.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6) Evokes fond memories.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7) Is a pleasant reminder of the past.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8) Brings back memories of good times from the past.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9) Reminds me of the good old days.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10) Reminds me of good times in the past.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please indicate your intended behaviors after watching the Jim Thorpe video by circling the appropriate number on the right hand side of each statement using a 1 to 9 scale (1 = not likely and 9 = very likely).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behavior</th>
<th>Not Likely</th>
<th>Very Likely</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) How likely are you to buy a book about Jim Thorpe?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) How likely are you to go to a movie theater to watch a film about Jim Thorpe?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) How likely are you to buy a memorabilia item representing Jim Thorpe?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) How likely are you to buy a magazine with an article about Jim Thorpe?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) How likely are you to watch an online video about Jim Thorpe?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6) How likely are you to watch a movie/documentary about Jim Thorpe?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7) How likely are you to talk about Jim Thorpe with a friend, co-worker, or family member?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8) How likely are you to search for an article to read about Jim Thorpe?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9) How likely are you to support an organization associated with Jim Thorpe?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10) How likely are you to visit a museum exhibit about Jim Thorpe?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Please indicate your familiarity with Jim Thorpe BEFORE watching the presented video by circling the appropriate number on the right hand side of each statement using a 1 to 9 scale (1 = not aware and 9 = very aware).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Not Aware</th>
<th>Very Aware</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please indicate your attitude by circling the appropriate number on the right hand side of each statement using a 1 to 9 scale (1 = do not like and 9 = like a lot).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do Not Like</th>
<th>Like A Lot</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement using a 1 to 7 scale (1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Not At All Characteristic Of Me</th>
<th>Very Characteristic Of Me</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Please answer the following demographic questions.

1) Gender (Circle): Male Female

2) Age (Write in): __________

3) Year in school (Circle):
   - Freshman
   - Sophomore
   - Junior
   - Senior
   - 5+ Years
   - Other

4) Ethnicity/Race (Circle):
   - Caucasian
   - Asian
   - African American
   - Hispanic
   - Native American
   - Other

5) Are you an American citizen (Circle): Yes No

Additional Comments:
Appendix E

Evoked Nostalgia Scale (NOST)

1. Reminds me of the past.
2. Helps me recall pleasant memories.
3. Makes me feel nostalgic.
4. Makes me reminisce about a previous time.
5. Makes me think about when I was younger.
6. Evokes fond memories.
7. Is a pleasant reminder of the past.
8. Brings back memories of good times from the past.
9. Reminds me of the good old days.
10. Reminds me of good times in the past.

Note. Seven point Likert-type scale (1 = “strongly disagree”, 7 = “strongly agree”).
Appendix F

Adapted Time Perspective Inventory (TPI)

(Adapted by Routledge, Arndt, Sedikides, & Wildschut, 2008)

1. It gives me pleasure to think about my past.
2. I often think of what I should have done differently in my past (reversed code).
3. On balance, there is much more good recall than bad in my past.
4. I think about the good things that I have missed out on in my life (reversed code).
5. Happy memories of good times spring readily to mind.
6. The past has too many unpleasant memories that I prefer not to think about (reversed code).
7. I get nostalgic about my childhood.
8. I think about the bad things that have happened to me in the past (reversed code).

Note. Seven point Likert-type scale (1 = “not at all characteristic of me,” 7 = “very characteristic of me”).

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Appendix G

Open-Ended Responses From Participants

- Jim Thorpe is an amazing role model and should be studied by all children.
- Cool. I’m always more interested in past athletes than present. Maybe it’s the morals…maybe the pride in being an amateur. It’s just different than the attitudes of athlete’s now.
- The narrator should probably be saying Native American as opposed to Indian. Thorpe is not from India.
- I love seeing people who go above and beyond the realm of their craft. I’d heard of Jim Thorpe, but didn’t know anything about him. I’m definitely more likely to go watch something or read something to learn more about him.
- I love learning about sport history. I never knew Jim Thorpe was a baseball player or an Olympian.