PERSUASIVE STRATEGIES OF THE UNITED STATES MILITARY TELEVISION RECRUITMENT ADVERTISING DURING THE ALL-VOLUNTEER FORCE ERA

BY

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DISSERTATION

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This dissertation examined the persuasive strategies of U.S. military recruitment television advertising with a multi-service branches and multi-generation approaches in the all volunteer force (AVF) era. The analytical framework of this dissertation included the television advertisements that are published by the U.S. Department of Defense’s (DoD) four service branches, including the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marines from 1973 to 2010.

Quantitative content analysis is applied in this dissertation. The researcher explored the persuasive strategy patterns, executional cue, and storytelling typologies contain in the U.S. military recruitment advertising for the past four decades within variety of persuasive related theories, including Hierarchy of Needs and Theory of Planned Behavior to demonstrate the trajectory of the DoD’s recruiting strategies. Also, PEST analysis is used after content analysis to provide the possible explanations toward the persuasive strategies changes overtime in a multi-external factors dimensions, including political, economical, social, and technological factor.

The research findings concluded that three determinants of successful military recruiting mission for the U.S. DoD were recognized, including quantitative analysis for understanding the relationship between incentives and enlistment behavior, government
sector adjudging recruiting incentives and policies appropriately, and communicating DoD’s service features with public continuously. The U.S DoD also needs to seek balance between its external and internal incentives in recruitment advertising. For the external incentive cue message usually refer to educational opportunities, monetary compensation, and family care. The internal incentive cues usually refer to messages trigger its target audiences’ love belong needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization need level.

This dissertation contributed the theoretical and practice knowledge of persuasive message strategies in the recruitment television advertising and provides a persuasive strategic suggestion for the effectiveness recruitment advertising.
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Chapter 1 Introduction

“We have the finest military on Earth because we have the finest people on Earth, because we recruit and we retain the best that America has to offer.”

William S. Cohen  
Former Secretary of Defense-- 2001

This dissertation will examine the persuasive strategies and persuasive models used in the U. S. military television recruitment advertising from 1973 to 2010 using quantitative content analysis. The author also will review historical context information concerning contemporary American society, including political, social, economic, and technological perspectives in order to discover the trajectory of U.S. military recruiting strategies following implementation of the All- Volunteer Force (AVF) era.

The Department of Defense (DoD) in the United States launched the AVF system in 1973. The AVF system was implemented to allow the U.S. military to develop a strong, quick reaction and economic military expenditure, to maintain the functions of the DoD (Bailey, 2007). An armed force within an all-volunteer structure would have more professional training than a conscript military force for operating advanced technological weapons in a modern warfare environment (GAO, 2005). One primary challenge that the U.S. DoD faced was attracting high-quality American youths to serve in the military to keep the armed force benchmark position consistent with the worldwide projection.

U.S. military enlistment numbers have declined since the 1980s (Eighmey, 2006). The central issue in this dissertation is examining the persuasive strategies used television in
recruitment advertising that sought to attract qualified youths to serve their country and, if necessary, find those willing to put themselves in harm’s way. Television is a popular medium for reaching the DoD’s potential audience because young men were more likely to watch television than read magazines in the contemporary America society (GAO, 2003).

**Historical Background of the U.S. Military AVF Recruiting System**

The United States military abandoned the draft human resource system in 1973, two years before the end of the Vietnam War. The U.S. military conscription system has historically been used primary in war time rather than during times of peace (Gates, 1970). Because the U.S. military’s manpower need would increase dramatically during a war time. In the late 1960s, the U.S. military was heavily reliant on the draft to maintain the function of national defense. The U.S. government had been drafting youths into the military since the 1940s, and the public opinion regarding the military was increasingly unpopular during the Vietnam War period (Moskos, 2005).

The United States used the draft to recruit soldiers during World War I, World War II, Korea War and in the Vietnam War from 1917 to 1973. The draft was not popular and was particularly difficult during the era of social changes in the 1960s and 1970s (Brockett, et al., 2008). There was pressure for the U.S. government to reform their military manpower structure (Gates, 1970). Moreover, there was a widespread political belief in the 1970s that the conscription system was unfair, and that sacrifices were not shared (McGovern, 1968). The Left argued that the draft should be replaced due to the inequalities in the conscription system. Subsequently, the draft lottery was instituted in 1969 to decide who should be sent to Vietnam, although the U.S. government announced the draft lottery was 100% fair (Woodruff, 2006).
In the early 1970s, the U.S. DoD began analyzing contemporary social science research to determine the psychological and socio-psychological motivations of their potential enlistees (Dertouzos, 2006). They treated the AVF system as a market, regarded the armed force itself as a product, and attempted to attract “customers.” It was not easy for the U.S. military manpower system to transfer the logic of the marketplace of the late twentieth century to the military. The DoD sought to maintain the productivity of armed force and change Americans’ understanding of military service in a certain direction.

The initial efforts to attract the volunteer force by the U.S. military focused on the public image of the military. The Special Assistant of Modern Volunteer Armed Force (SAMVA) office relied on social science research and found that the U.S. Army was not well-regarded by the public, particularly among the nation’s youths. The DoD intended to influence the behavior and attitudes of American youths, including their personal experiences, impressions, feelings, and knowledge (Gilroy, 1990). SAMVA argued that the U.S. military needed to borrow ideas from the recruiting strategies of commercial enterprises, such as Ford, General Motors, and Volvo. They sought to use part of psychologist Abraham H. Maslow’s theory, meaning his-- Hierarchy of Needs-- to attract potential enlistees into military service within the all-volunteer force manpower structure (Segal, 1998). Maslow’s theory was not a comprehensive model that would help the U.S. military attract contemporary American youths. However, it did provide the essential recruiting elements of “need” and “motivation” essential to help the military transition to the AVF system (Maslow, 1954).

General William Westmoreland, former Chief of Staff of the United States Army, asserted that the crucial point was to develop a modern military in the United States by redesigning the armed forces to be more “enjoyable,” more “professionally rewarding,” and less “burdensome in
its impact on our people and their families” (Parshall, 1998). He also asserted that Vietnam War made American youths fear that if they joined the military they would lose their personal freedom and would be forced to make immoral sacrifices for an institution which showed no respect for individuality. The primary mission of the brand new recruiting strategies in all-volunteer force system was to show that the U.S. military was a young man’s business; that armed forces liked young men and understood them; that the U.S. armed forces could help young Americans develop a value system, and that if young people gave the military their energy, the military would give them fulfilling futures (Kreutzer, 2009). The recruiting slogan of the U.S. military AVF shifted from “I Want You!” to “We Need Each Other!” after 1973 in the initial stages of the AVF system. The change of slogan represented that primary persuasive strategy shifted from independent to inter-depandant.

Contemporary U.S. Military All-Volunteer Force Recruiting Research

The current recruiting goals of the U.S. military services require about 200,000 enlistments each year in order to maintain an active-duty, enlisted military force of about 1.2 million (Dertouzos, 2009). This represents a substantial recruiting challenge that is complicated by the high percentage of youth pursuing education beyond high school, cyclical fluctuations in the civilian job market, and the occurrence of international and domestic events that can lead to periods of heightened concern (Warner & Asch, 2001).

The DoD relied on several social scientific research programs to determine its recruiting strategies, including the Youth Attitudinal Tracking Survey (YATS), Annual Report to the President and the Congress, and Monitoring the Future Project (MTF) since 1975. These were backed up by U. S. military recruitment opinion polls that studied the willingness of youth to enlist in the Army appeared during the early 1980s (National Research Council, 2000). The U.S.
armed forces began experiencing difficulties achieving their recruiting goals, particular among youths with high school diplomas (National Research Council, 2003).

The YATS (1975-1990) and Annual Report to the President and the Congress (1990-2002) provide one possible explanation for this decline: the increasing attractiveness of alternatives to military service (Holman, 2005). Although surveys indicate that the public had confidence in military leadership and the military as an institution, military service was not seen as one of the more attractive choices for young people following high school (GAO, 2000).

Contemporary American youths were more interested in finding good-paying jobs or in attending college instead of joining the military services. The Annual Report to the President and the Congress was conducted by the DoD from 1990 through 2010 and asked respondents in 1999 why they might consider joining the military. Material concerns topped their responses. The most common single reason cited for enlistment by 27.1% of respondents was to pay for their education, and 6.6% said that they would join the military in order to develop marketable work skills. Another 8.7% said that pay was an important consideration, 1.9% cited job security, and 1.9% pointed to retirement benefits. Only 2.3% of respondents cited duty to country as a reason for joining the military in 2000 (National Research Council, 2000).

The goal of military recruitment advertising is to provide assistance to young people to help them in meeting their educational and occupational goals and to maintain the propensity of potential enlistees to serve in the military (Buddin & Roan, 1994). Advertising expenditures rose considerably throughout the 1980s and 1990s. The result was that the DoD spent increasingly greater amounts of money to recruit from a smaller demographic pool of recruits (Sattar, et al., 2002). Military advertising expenditures and recruiting bonuses increased more than threefold from 1993 to 2006 (Farrell, 2008).
The U.S military struggled with recruitment, and its public image improved between the 1970s and 2005. The image building approach that was used in military recruitment advertising was effective (Dertouzos & Steven, 2006). The U.S. military earned greater public esteem than during the Vietnam War period, largely due to the messages presented by non-military sources. The military helped pay the production costs of movies that presented the military in a positive light. However, increased public esteem did not translate into increased enlistments (Farrell, 2008).

Moskos (2005) indicated that the military is no longer regarded by the public as an institution but rather as an occupation that competes for labor in an increasingly competitive market. He argued that an institution is legitimated in terms of values and norms, meaning a purpose that transcends individual self-interest in favor of presumed higher values, including duty, honor, and service to one’s country. U.S. youths thus saw the military as just another job that was available to them in the marketplace (Moskos, 2005).

Development of U.S. Military Television Recruiting Advertisement

After the United States government decided to transform the military services into an all-volunteer system in 1973, the U.S. DoD allowed each branch of the military services to determine and attract to own target audience (Bailey, 2007). The Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marines each had to identify its own manpower needs and sources and devote the resources to increasing its enlistment numbers.

The military believed that advertising could influence public attitudes and behavior towards the military services (Moskos, 2005). Previous military recruitment advertising had been intended to increase the proportion of the population that had the propensity to enlist at any given
point in time, or increase the likelihood that those with the propensity to serve actually would enlist (Dertouzos, 2009).

The U.S. DoD thought that maintaining the propensity to enlist was the primary responsibility of military recruitment advertising. They thought that advertising could be used to maintain the propensity to enlist among the members of the youth population who are interested in volunteer military services (Hosek & Francisco, 2009). Instead of allocating advertising expenditures on the basis of immediate recruiting goals, advertising could be deployed more usefully as a means of supporting and maintaining the level of propensity to enlist.

Eighmey (2006) indicated that military recruitment advertising planners should consider the trade-offs between primary and selective demand. A military strategic communication policy should be developed regarding the proportion of military advertising to be devoted to supporting the overall propensity to enlist in the military (primary demand) and the proportion to be devoted to attracting needed recruits to the individual military services (selective demand).

Furthermore, each service branch was free to use different persuasive strategies that were adapted to match its service features (GAO, 2003). For example, the Air Force advertising becomes more likely to emphasize technology and equipment. The services might also adapt their advertising storytelling patterns after they had identified their target audiences.

Previous studies of military recruitment advertising (see National Research Council, 2003) had shown that most researchers focused on examining the relationship between the proportion of people with the propensity to enlist (or those who have actually enlisted) and demographic and psychosocial variables (e.g., percent unemployed, civilian/military pay differentials, educational benefits offered, percentage of the population holding a given belief, attitude, or value) (See Figure 1-1).
Another DoD-funded research approach toward military recruitment advertising studies focused on evaluating the costs and the effects of military marketing expenditure by comparing the enlistment numbers and annual recruiting budget. Most research programs analyzed the effects of advertising in different media, including television, magazines, newspapers, and radio on a limited budget (Daula & Smith, 1992; Buddin & Roan, 1994; Eighmey, 2006, Brockett, et al., 2008).

The National Research Council also organized a large-scale research project to examine the interrelationships among youth attitudes, recruiting advertisements, and their enlistment behavior in 2003 (National Research Council, 2003). Hence, the National Research Council’s research program on military recruitment demonstrated that the United States military advertising strategy from the 1970s to the 1990s utilized have had a specific persuasive storytelling tactics. Most

*Figure 1.1 Determinants of enlistment behavior*

Source: Reproduced from *Attitude, Aptitudes, and Aspirations of American Youth.*
joint-service type military advertising made use of extrinsic benefits to attract enlistees. Service-
specific types of military advertising made use of external benefits to influence the propensity to
enlist (Dertouzos, 2009). However, this research did not examine the persuasive strategies found
in U. S. military recruitment advertising.

In addition, complex story-telling approaches have been used in the U.S. military
recruitment advertising (Dung & Lei, 2006). These include image building and attracting
qualities target audience approaches, the use of different persuasive strategies, and the
application of contemporary commercial story-telling strategies. For example, conscription
during the Vietnam era hurt the public image of the U.S. Army, and the Army recruiting
advertisements that appeared early in the AVF era focused on image restoration (Brockett, et al.,
2008). The U.S. Army in 1980s found this image placement strategy to be useful, in attempts to
improve the army's image with the general public. The U.S. DoD believed that a positive image
of the military in public mind would decrease its recruiting difficulties (Eighmey, 2006).
Advertising that reached a broad market that included their best prospects was more useful than
advertising that narrowly targeted American youth (Eighmey, 2006). Because the U.S. Army
found that the influencers, such as parents and friends could be a strong dynamic for increasing
the propensity of American youths, a broad image restoration strategy could reach both potential
enlistee and their influencers (Eighmey, 2006).

In the early 1980s, the U.S. military recruitment advertising research became consumer
driven. The underlying assumption was that the consumer was shaped by the sum of
psychological development factors with respect to family structure, peer culture, and the
meaning of masculinity and femininity (Bailey, 2007). For example, The Opinion Research
Corporation in Princeton, New Jersey, reported in 1981 that in addition to increased pay,
contemporary American youths wanted individual freedom in their personal time and wanted to be allowed to maintain their individuality. In 1982 the Cinecom Corporation in Cambridge asserted that the all-volunteer force system could be operated successfully if the U.S. DoD acquired knowledge about the needs, attitudes, and perspectives of American youths (Reichert, et al., 2007).

The increasingly sophisticated efforts to discover the desires and psychological needs of contemporary American youths helped the U.S. DoD develop effective persuasive strategies in advertising intended to maintain the functions of the U.S. military system. The transition from a conscript military to an all-volunteer force changed the perspective of military services from one of obligation to that of a competitive career opportunity in the employment marketplace.

**Problem Statements**

The research literature has rarely analyzed overall military recruitment advertising strategies and the relationships among military advertising story-telling patterns, persuasive strategies, advertising types and demographic factors. The National Research Council’s research project “Evaluating Military Advertising and Recruiting” (2003) determined that the attitudes of youths, perception norms, and self-efficacy are the three core factors that can influence prospective enlistees’ propensity towards service in the military. The researchers who conducted that study demonstrated that the longitudinal attitudes of U.S. youth toward the military services have not changed significantly during the past three decades. The socio-economic status and cultural value of military service retain a relatively high rank in the U.S. society. However, the percentage of enlistees has declined in all of the services since 1990. This project concluded that a specific event, such as 9-11 attack or the Gulf War might induce the U.S. youths to increase their propensity to volunteer for military service. In addition, the goal of recruitment advertising
should still be to attract potential enlistees to serve in the military, and the persuasive strategies used in advertising should be adapted to mesh with DoD’s contemporary manpower needs.

Enlistees’ propensity level is a strong predictor of their enlistment decisions (Nagar, 2009). Thus, the types, channels, genres, and persuasive strategies model of military television recruitment advertising can provide significant variables that can be used when conducting advertising campaigns. Such campaigns should embody an effective persuasive strategy that can achieve the primary and secondary goals of helping to reinforce the current level of enlistees’ propensity to enlist and increase potential enlistees’ propensity to serve in the military.

In order to achieve the goal of this dissertation, the author will analyze the advertising content of United States military recruiting television advertising from the 1973 through 2010 in all branches of the military, including the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marines, and explore the evolutionary trends of media persuasion strategies, storytelling genres and types of television advertising content that have been used to execute the persuasive strategies models of U. S. military volunteer recruitment advertising. This dissertation will attempt to provide a complete picture of the trajectory of the United States military recruiting persuasion strategies during the past four decades, and suggest potential military persuasive strategy models for use in future volunteer recruiting plans.

**Summary**

Television advertising is a form of communication that simultaneously conveys sound and visual motion. However, contemporary military recruiting campaigns, a single advertisement appears to be unlikely to attract the attention of potential enlistees. Content analysis will be used to investigate longitudinal data regarding the characteristics of U.S. military recruiting commercials and describe the persuasive strategies used in these campaigns. This will include
the persuasive strategies’ patterns, executional cue, and storytelling typologies. The U.S. DoD conveys its marketing message in the all-volunteer recruitment advertising to attract the contemporary American youths. The persuasive strategies have adjusted to fit the standard of the DoD’s human resource requirement. This dissertation will examine the persuasive strategies of the U.S. DoD within a variety of theoretical frameworks, including decision-making procedures, planned behavior, and attitude changes to discover the evolution of trajectory of the U.S. military volunteer recruiting strategies; and explore the possible future improvement of the DoD’s recruitment advertising.
**Chapter 2 Historical Review of the U.S. Military AVF System Recruiting Trajectory**

“The United States processes unprecedented- and unequaled-strength and influence in the World…. The U.S. national security strategy will be based on a distinctly American internationalism that reflects the union of our values and our national interests.”

---- George W Bush
Former President of the United States, 2002

In the fall of 2010, approximately 156,000 Americans were serving in wars: 125,000 in Iraq and 31,000 in Afghanistan (Farrell, 2011). All are volunteers. After Operation Freedom began in Iraq in 1991 and action began in Afghanistan in 2001, the U.S. armed forces were the finest fighting forces the U.S. government had ever developed (Bush, 2002).

The U.S. in 1973 government moved from conscription to an all-volunteer force for four primary reasons. First, the American’s mainstream public opinion is now an all-volunteer military based. Second, the youths of the Baby Boom after the World War II grew up and ready to serve in the military, the number of qualify youths for military service exceeded the manpower needs of the American armed force in early the 1970s. The Department of Defense (DoD) needed to deal with numbers in the eligible population of youths in order to maintain the human resource expenditure and remain within budgetary constraints (Gate, 1970).

Third, by the end of 1960s, the U.S. military had lost the support of American public due to drug abuse, racial discrimination, and massacres in South Vietnam. The anti-war movement was a significant event in American society. Fourth, the armed forces needed to professionalize (Gate, 1970). The human resource structure is adapted to the constraints of the mission and the
technological development of weapons (Chu, 2005). The U.S. DoD sought better educated and higher quality manpower to operate an increasingly technological military to maintain its benchmark position worldwide. The all-volunteer force was the solution that the Gates Committee suggested to President Nixon for remodeling the U.S. armed forces (Hatfield, 1971).

**Figure 2.1**

*The manpower size of active-duty military under the draft and the All-Volunteer Force era, 1940 to 2006*  
(Millions of personnel)

Source: Congressional Budget Office based on Department of Defense, Office of the Under Secretary of Defense (Comptroller), *National Defense Budget Estimates for FY 2007*

Four significant events, meaning the Vietnam War, the Cold War, the Gulf War, and the 9/11 Attack in 2001 and the War in Afghanistan are closely related to the primary mission of the U.S. armed force and its human resources structure and represent the trajectory of the changing of the all-volunteer force in different generations. This dissertation will contribute the theoretical and applied knowledge of persuasive message strategies in the recruiting television advertising and provide a persuasive strategic suggestion for the effectiveness recruitment advertising. The author also examined the U.S. military recruitment advertising strategies within the contexts of the contemporary America history tradition, the political spectrum, the social culture, and economic development.
After Vietnam War

Today all across our country we face a crisis of confidence. Nowhere is it more acute than among our young people. They recognize the draft as an infringement on their liberty, which it is. To them, it represents a government insensitive to their rights, a government callous to their status as free men. They ask for justice, and they deserve it.

---- Richard Nixon

Former President of the United States

The path of negotiation of an all-volunteer force system by the U.S. military is a complex political, economic, social, and technological issue. The Gates Commission was a group that represented the concerns of different bureaucracies, including the White House, the Committee of Economic in Congress, and the Department of Defense (DoD).

Nixon (1968) argued that because of the changing nature of warfare, the U.S. military needed high-quality manpower to operate the large-scale ground armed forces and high technology facilities, particularly in the nuclear age. He also envisioned the future of U.S. military in terms of a small, highly motivated cadre of manpower that had been trained at a high level of technological and professional skill to operate the complex weapons that modern warfare requires.

The Gates Commission was the primary institute responsible for the evaluation of the feasibility toward launching the all-volunteer force (AVF) system in the early 1970s (Gates, 1970). The committee members asserted that higher pay and increased benefit were necessary for
the initial AVF to attract contemporary American youth from the civilian sector which was driven by free market capitalism.

In 1968, five members of the Gates Commission, including the chair and Generals Alfred Greunther and Lauris Norstad, voted against the U.S. military becoming an AVF; another five members were undecided; and five members agreed (Stockstill, 1970). Four of the five members who voted in agreement with ending the conscription manpower system, including Walter Oi, Harry Gilman, William Meckling, and Stuart Altman were free market economists. (Stockstill, 1970)

The final decision of the Gates Commission relied on quantitative economic studies of “flexible elasticity” and “hidden tax” (Gates, 1970). The New York Times reported on the Gates Commission decision on February, 22, 1971. The commission announced that “the system for maintaining forces that minimizes U.S. government interference with the freedom of the individual to determine his own life in accord with his value.” (Rosenbaum, 1971) The U.S. government sought to maintain a leadership position in armed forces development.

One significant perspectives of Gates Commission was the U.S. public’s doubts about the legitimacy of the Vietnam War. They also believed that it was immoral to send American youths into the battle field through the Draft Lottery, that the sacrifices were not shared. President Nixon argued that the American mass media played an important role in influencing mainstream public opinion to oppose the U.S. government (Congressional Digest, 1971).

The relations between the U.S. military and media were complicated. At the beginning of the Vietnam War, the three major national television networks, including ABC, NBC, and CBS and network news correspondents such as Peter Arnett, Malcolm Browne, Neil Sheehan, and David Halberstam provided positive support in their stories for the U.S. government’s official
policies although they did question those policies (Hammond, 1998). The news media had confidence in American soldiers, instead of the U.S. military. The media also rejected censorship, but processed their stories carefully to avoid providing valuable information to their enemy (Hammond, 1998).

In addition, reporters in Saigon often complained that the U.S. military provided only official announcements which were uninformative, and self-serving instead of real news. President Johnson and Nixon treated the military as their spokesmen for endorsing their political policies (Schell, 1988). However, the questions about the military’s activities, including Vietnam, Cambodia, and Laos were raised after 1969, particularly regarding the “My Lai” massacre (Schell, 1988). In the fall of 1969, the first large-scale antiwar movement, the Moratorium movement, was launched in Washington D.C. This movement had a deep impact on public opinion. The members included prominent academics, the Roman Catholic archbishop of Boston, Richard Cardinal Cushing, the president of the Synagogue Council of Churches, Reverend Eugene Carson Blake, and others (Hammond, 1998).

The mass media represented public mistrust about the government’s decisions on the war, such as David Brinkley at NBC believed that the war was the president’s personal war and Senator Fulbright sought to launch an investigation of the war. Given the number of American soldiers sacrificed in South Vietnam, the public in the United States increasingly doubted their government (Segal, et al., 1998).

At the same time that social tension was growing, the drug abuse issue in the U.S. military was raised. Soldiers found drugs to be a refuge from the frustration and pressures of warfare (Schell, 1988). The young soldiers began introducing drugs to peers, although most soldiers
avoided taking drugs in the barracks, it still hurt the reputation of the U.S. military (Hammond, 1998).

One of significant example of drug abuse is “Marijuana abuse in the south Vietnam”. A survey conducted by the U.S. Army South Vietnam Office in 1970 revealed that 45% of American soldiers in South Vietnam had marijuana use experience (Hammond, 1998). The Pentagon noticed that such statistics were bad enough to hurt their military mission and had to be addressed. Official spokesmen for the U.S. Army announced that the drug was distributed by war hospitals to reduce sacrifice numbers and the real circumstance of drug was not bad as statistical numbers (Haugen, et al., 2011), but the public had doubt in their government.

Another crucial factor that influenced the image of the U.S. military among the public was the “My Lai Massacre”. A unit of the U.S. Army division, led by Lt. William L. Calley, invaded the South Vietnamese hamlet of My Lai, an alleged Viet Cong stronghold. In the course of combat operations, unarmed civilians, including women and children, were shot to death. The U.S. Army’s investigation estimated that the number killed was 347. In addition, the soldiers raped numerous women, burned buildings, poisoned wells, and killed livestock. The incident remained unknown to the American public until the autumn of 1969, when a series of letters by a former soldier to government officials forced the Army to take action (Haugen, et al., 2011). This massacre escalated the antiwar movement, although most of soldiers were freed by the courts. General William R. Peers was assigned to investigate this event and he asserted that the low quality of the soldiers and drug abuse might be why Lieutenant Calley did what he did (Hammond, 1998). That was one form of pressure for the U.S. government to change their military manpower structure.
The U.S. public was convinced that the conflict in Vietnam was necessary in the late 1960s. The American public, Congress, and the media viewed the role of the United States in this war as one that would end in a reasonable period time. President Johnson and Nixon both failed to cultivate favorable public opinion and news coverage of the war. Near the end of the Vietnam War increasing sacrifices, drugs abuse, and massacres made public opinion became more critical of the Vietnam War, the U.S. government’s decisions during warfare, and the troops. President Nixon decided to end conscription right in 1972 and the all-volunteer forces for each service branch began to correct the mistake they made in the Vietnam War (Hammond, 1998).

Faced with the decision to establish an all-volunteer force, each services branch response attempted to attract American youths who were suitable with respect to its special service characteristics. For example, the Navy and Marine Corps treated the AVF just as another “personal drill” meaning another recruiting approach at the beginning of 1970s (Duggan, 1970). The Navy and Marines rejected help from David Kassing, a Gates Commission member, because the leadership of Navy and Marines believed they can recruit enough manpower to maintain the force and function (Duggan, 1970). The Air Force believed that AVF would be business as usual, although the Air Force built a “Project Volunteer Task Group” and used the RAND corporation’s research to examine their ideas and make adjustments as necessary (Correll, 1971). The Army was the fastest unit of the four services to react; General William C. Westmoreland, the chief officer of Army conducted research on the feasibility of an AVF before Nixon announced the AVF plan (Werner, 1974). The research helped the Army to identify the relationships between potential U.S. soldiers and the variables which might influence their propensity to serve in the military. The services’ different reactions to a brand new human resource structure influenced their recruiting strategies and their persuasive perspectives.
Cold War Period

“We interpret our experience to date as highly promising and I can assure you that there is no lack of commitment in the Department of Defense in implementing the Nation’s policy of an all-volunteer force in time of peace.”

---- William K. Brehm
Former Assistant Secretary of Defense

The Cold War involved continuing political conflict, military tension and competition, and economic competition between the Communist world, particularly the Soviet Union and its allies, against the United States and its allies between 1945 and 1991 (Anderrson, 2011). The armed forces were an essential component of the Cold War that the United States used to increase pressure on the Soviet Union.

However, the all-volunteer force (AVF) manpower system did not operate as the Gates Commission assumed, and had not decreased the financial pressure on the U.S. government and maintained its functionality during the first decade of the AVF (Padilla, 2002). The General Accounting Office (GAO) stated that defense expenditures were 80 percent to 100 percent higher than the Gates Commission’s estimates made for 1977 to 1983 (GAO, 2000). The possible explanations of this unexpected financial burden include the changes in the nature of warfare during the Cold War period and internal environmental changes in the United States, including the economy, the status of women, and popular attitudes towards the military (Moskos, 2005).

Conventional weapons, chemical and biological weapons, and nuclear weapons were developed during the Cold War (Cohen, et al., 1995). One crucial similarity of these weapons
involved dramatic increases in the technological sophistication and effectiveness of conventional weapons. The result was that modern conventional wars became, to a considerable extent, wars between machines and their operators, as opposed to wars involving soldiers involved in open combat. In the 1980s, the deployment, production, and research on conventional weapons accounted for 75 percent of the United States' military budget (Fried, 1998).

The Gates Commission asserted that in order to enhance enlistment of large numbers of qualified military volunteers, the U.S. government should increase military pay to act as an external incentive to attract qualified American youths to serve in the military (Gates, 1970). The Youth Attitude Tracking Survey (YATS) showed that only 29 percent of U.S. soldiers were concerned with monetary awards when considering serving in AVF. However, almost 70 percent if soldiers said they might leave the military if the salary did not reach the average income level of contemporary America society (YATS, 1985). The DoD faced difficulties attracting qualified American youths to serve in the military.

The DoD found that women offered one possible solution to the shortage of enlistees. In 1987, there were about 10,000 females serving in the U.S. military, which was three times the number of women serving in 1973 (Harries-Jenkins, 2002). Although some commanders of Army and Navy reported to the DoD that having too great percentage of females in military would have negative effects on strategic deployment because of the combat-exclusion policy. They also had doubts about female contributions to the all-volunteer force (Harries-Jenkins, 2002). However, Secretary of the Army Cliff Alexander conducted a reexamination of females in the AVF Army in June 1978, and the results did not show that there was a direct causal effect between military mission completion and the numbers of female military personnel. Female
soldiers might influence the military deployment, but were not a significant determination factor that influenced the function of AVF (Brown, 2006).

In addition, the DoD proposed a “Two Year Enlistment Program” offering $5,000 dollars cash awards and $36,000 educational compensation to attract large numbers of soldiers in the early stages of the AVF in order to eliminate the manpower shortage gap during the transition from conscription to the AVF (Moskos, 1981). However, only 28% of AVF soldiers continued to serve in the military after their Two-Year contracts expired in the late 1970s. This difficulty in recruiting for the AVF showed that there were difficulties in maintaining human resources who had professional knowledge about military technology. Maintaining high quality human resources within an AVF structure was not easy as the DoD had assumed. The DoD needed to reexamine their recruiting policies and persuasive strategies in order to achieve their recruiting goals (Moskos, 1981).

The DoD released a comprehensive report- *America’s Volunteers: A Report on the All-Volunteer Force* (DoD, 1978). This report stated that the AVF had not meet its recruitment targets and had not provided the U.S. military with a full-strength active force of a quality equal to or superior to that which had been achieved under the draft (DoD, 1978, p. 11). The report also indicated that the AVF might have a uncertain future because the military enlistment numbers during the first five years were significant 15-20% lower than during the Vietnam War era of conscription, but it was no possible to return to conscription (DoD, 1978, p. 65). The DoD sought to improve recruiting and retention using the results and suggestions from scientific research that conducted form the DoD. In other words, the DoD need to re-identify their target market of potential enlistees and re-think their persuasive strategies.
The U.S. DoD assigned General Maxwell Turmans as the new Commander of the Army Recruiting Command in 1979 to determine the effectiveness of recruiting strategies for the Army, which had experienced the greatest difficulties of the four military service branches in attracting American youths. He worked with several institutes in reexamining the U.S. Army’s recruiting policies, including the RAND Corporation, the Army Research Institute (ARI), and the Deputy Chief of Staff for Personnel (DCSPER). He concluded that future military volunteer recruiting strategies had to have two dimensions, including internal and external strategies (Griffith, 1980).

For the internal dimension, he decided to establish “quality goals” for recruiting. He believed that recruiting standards had to be raised in order to attract quality recruits, because lower recruiting standard did not meet the need of the military, that is, the lower quality soldiers did not have the ability to maintain the quality of U.S. national (Bailey, 2007). The second point was to develop a “research program”. This program should involve the Army’s advertising agency, the RAND Corporation, the DoD, the U.S. Military Academy at West Point, and the Army Research Institute and led to a normative approach which means let the American public believe that to serve for their country is their duty and honor and should be admired. “Be All You Can Be” was the product of this research program. The Army sent a positive message by telling prospective American youths that the Army was a place where they could grow and achieve (Bailey, 2007). After the research program, the next step in remodeling the U.S. Army recruiting mechanism was starting the training revolution for new soldiers. General Thurman planned to instill pride and improved retention in order to rebuild the “Army’s Tradition” for the modern U.S Army (Griffith, 1980). The final step in Thurman’s internal action for improving the Army recruiting numbers and quality was building a sophisticated “information system” for understanding the demography of the Army, including categories, genders, and the ages of
applicants. This system focused on contemporary American youths’ need to serve in the military and showed them the top 15 positions for potential military applicants in order to convince them that the U.S. Army cared about their futures (Kohli, et al., 2009).

As regards the external dimension, Senator Warner and Null proposed the “Nunn- Warner Bill” to increase monetary compensation by up to 25.5% for soldiers (Kearl & Nelson, 1992). In 1981, the White House added more than $650 million to the Pentagon’s “Human Resource Maintenance Budget” to improve external incentives for recruiting American youths. General Thurman also provided college funds for soldiers and allowed soldiers have educational opportunities after serving in the Army (Kearl & Nelson, 1992).

By the end of 1989, total annual number of new volunteer soldiers for the DoD was 103,000, and about 31,000 American youths chose the Army as their primary service branch (GAO, 1990). In comparison with the beginning of the AVF, the Army was the service branch that experienced the greatest difficulties in attracting American youths. However, after General Thurman’s remodeling of recruiting strategies, the U.S. Army changed this circumstance to become one of the most popular service branch and met their recruiting goals.

After the Army’s success in recruiting volunteer human resources, the chief Naval officer, Bob Lockman, decided to use the Center for Naval Analyses (CNA) to develop a new set of persuasive recruiting strategies for the U.S. Navy and the Marine Corps (Reich & Kozlusky, 1994). The Navy asked CAN to develop a model for understanding target enlistees for the Navy who could survive in high-pressure work environments. In 1986, the CNA proposed the “Success Chances of Recruits Entering the Navy (SCREEN)” index to determine who should or who should not enlist in the U.S. Navy (Reich & Kozlusky, 1994). The Navy used the SCREEN index to conclude that American youth twenty years of age and older with twelve years of
education would perform best in the Navy. Moreover, CAN also suggested that “high school” was a significant index for American youths’ job performance. Soldiers with high school diplomas had a 54% chance to have a successful career in the Navy versus 28% of those without high school diplomas (Reich & Kozlusky, 1994).

During the Cold War each branch of the U.S. military sought effective recruiting strategies using social science research. They cooperated with internal research institutes, such as the Center for Naval Analysis and the Army Research Institute, and external resources, such as the RAND Corporation, in developing models and persuasive strategies. The Army was the first service branch to identify their recruiting goals and strategies, and experienced a significant success during the early 1980s. The Navy and Marines follow. The DoD used variety of indexes to evaluate and analyze American youths. These included the Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery (ASVAB), the Deployment Effect on Retention Analysis (DERA), and the Soldiers Performance Research Project (SPRP) (Stewart, 2006). The DoD used these research programs to reform their educational benefit and bonus programs to attract contemporary American youths and increase their propensity toward military services. Moskos(1998) asserted that the U.S. military during the Cold War had changed from an institutional model to a civilian-style occupational model, so the DoD needed to focus on external incentives to attract youths to meet their recruiting goals.

Military volunteer recruitment advertising played a crucial role for the U.S. military human resource structure during the Cold War (National Research Council, 2003). Researchers used the “Advertising Mix Test” published by the RAND Corporation in 1986, reexamine the relationship between advertising budget and enlistment numbers from 1981 to 1985; and conducted a survey of new soldiers to measure the motivations that might be triggered by mass media (Dertouzos,
The result showed that military recruiting advertising had a significant and immediate effect on the number of high-quality enlistments and there was positive correlation between advertising expenditure and enlistment numbers from 1981 to 1985. However, advertising is not the dominant factor that convinced American youths to serve in the military (Dertouzos, 1989). In other words, advertising is a catalyst for reinforcing youths’ motivation to serve their country.

By the end of Cold War, the AVF military human resources structure had been in place under Presidents Nixon, Carter, Reagan, and Bush. The AVF were in their golden age during this period, there was about 89,000 volunteer soldiers had high school diplomas in the U.S. military. In the Army, 75 percent of volunteers had high school diplomas in 1990s. Both recruiting and retention were better than under the early AVF system (Moskos, 2002).

The primary question regarding the AVF in the Gates Commission report was whether the AVF would maintain a high quality mission completion rate. Moskos (1981) suggested that AVF soldiers might not fight as did conscript soldiers. However, military action in Panama and the first Gulf conflict provided the answer. The U.S. military experiences limited casualties in these two military actions and displayed rapid reaction time, high professionalism, and strong self-regulation in early the 1990s. The Acting Assistant Secretary of Defense for Manpower’s office announced that the military services had achieved 101% of the DoD’s need in 1989, and the Army had achieved 99% of its recruitment goals (GAO, 1990).
As we look back on the first decade of the All- Volunteer Force, I feel that we have learned how to make it work. We have found the levers to pull. We have determined the influences of bonuses and education incentives. We have seen the power of effective advertising…. In short, we have a better understanding of the supply of available youth, the recruiting environment, and the use of recruiting resources.

---- General Maxwell R. Thurman
Former Vice Chief of Staff of the Army

The Gulf War provided the U.S. military with an opportunity to examine the efficacy of an all-volunteer force (AVF) and gave the U.S. DoD an opportunity to rethink the American military posture after the end of the Cold War. The U.S. military shifted their attention from Asia and Russia to Europe, and emphasized cooperation with the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), which they announced in the first Quadrennial Defense Review (QDR) (Vickers, et al., 1997).

President Bush announced that the strategies of national defense was in a “transition to a restructured military phase,” and the new strategies would be more flexible, more geared toward helping other countries meet the nation’s responsibilities to maintain a global balance (Bush, 2002). Colin Powell, Chairman of the Joint Chiefs asserted that the new generation of U.S. military should be a “Base Force” meaning a small military unit capable of quick reaction to threats from the Third World (Neil & Lewis, 1991).
Joint Staff participants argued that after Cold War, the risk of attack from the Soviet against the United States was reduced (Steven, 2008). However, threats from the Third World were at higher level than at any time in the past. The United States military should develop strategies for dealing with regionally-based the Third World threats. They particularly emphasized the emerging importance of the Pacific region and Central and South America relative to the U. S. security interests (Drummond, 1991). The DoD advocated a shift away from the permanent large, forward-stationed land, sea, and air forces towards a strategy designed to involve smaller permanent forces, together with periodic deployments, to demonstrate the US commitment to protect its oversea partners (Kipp& Grau, 2011).

The human resource structure of the U.S. military also require changing recruiting targets to mesh with the primary mission of the Unites States military. Another recruiting challenge for the DoD was that the national defense budget was shrinking after the Cold War, and the recruiting mission became more difficult than before (GAO, 1995). The DoD published the “Annual Report to the President and the Congress” each year to explain the demographics of personnel in the U.S. military. The report in 2001 showed that during the previous 7 years, overall enlistment propensity to serve in the U.S. military among American youth had declined (DoD, 2001). Increased advertising expenditures had been successful in raising youth awareness about military opportunities during the Cold War era (DoD, 2001). However, after the Gulf War, the original persuasive strategies for recruiting were ineffective in increasing youths’ propensity to serve their country (DoD, 2001). The DoD was forced to address the challenge of recruiting by adapting to the changing interests of contemporary American youth and maintain and develop appropriate recruiting and advertising resources that reach their potential target audience.
The DoD continued to monitor the recruiting climate using several large-scale research institutions during 1990s, including Eskew-Murphy agency and the National Academy of Sciences (National Research Council, 2003). The Eskew-Murphy team reviewed the market research, creative approaches, persuasive strategies, contract management and interviewed more than twenty senior DoD officers with focus group meetings. They found that most recruiters did not adequately understand their target audiences because each service branch conducted its own research programs and did not communicate with each other. Even the large scale research “YATS” did not collect effectiveness data concerning the DoD need to attract qualified American youths (Rostker & Bernard, 2006).

The DoD needed to replace the YATs with quarterly polls of both youths and their influencers (Geddes, 2009). The National Academy of Science reexamined American youth enlistment behavior using behavioral theories, economic theories and adolescent development theories to understand the effects of their persuasive strategies. The results published in 1999 demonstrated that after the military involvement in Bosnia, continued air patrols in Iraq, and naval patrols in Gulf, the key issue with which American soldiers were concerned was compensation, which included cash, housing, and health care (GAO, 1999).

After the Gulf War, the primary mission shifted from combat in continental countries to peacekeeping (Rostker & Bernard, 2006). The human resources structure needs were different in each of these two different warfare strategies. During the continental warfare age, the Army was the primary force for national defense and most of soldiers served inside the continent United States.

However, during the peacekeeping mission age, the Navy and the Air Force were the focal point and the DoD needed to assign large numbers of American soldiers to strategic points
around the World (See Figure 2.2), such as Japan, Iraq, and Korea. How to maintain the propensity level of American youth to serve in the military was the issue the DoD needed to address in order to ensure the functioning of American troops the world (Gebicke, 1998).

**Figure 2.2**
*U.S. military abroad service deployments FY 1990-1995*

Source: Gebicke (1998, p.4)

David S. C. Chu, the Under Secretary for Personnel and Readiness in 2001, believed that the U.S. DoD needed to expand the market, given the difficulty of recruiting. The DoD would begin to allow American youths who held a “General Equivalency Diploma (GED)” to participant in the military (Chu, 2005). He also identified that most of the soldiers who chose to remain in the military system had families. The new persuasive strategies would focus on providing “quality life” for soldiers and their family, such as housing, retirement plans, and
health care. The issue of family has become particularly important during the past few decades, especially for soldiers who serve aboard (Chu, 2007).

Dr. Chu also suggested that the DoD should increase their recruiting focus on Hispanic Americans due to the changes in the demographics of contemporary American society. The primary approach to developing a solid national defense is eliminating the demographics gap between military and civilian (Chu, 2005). The DoD wants the manpower structure represent American demographics. Hispanic Americans may be the next major target of military recruiting. This could help the DoD resolve the shortage of volunteers (Chu, 2005). The DoD has used part of the recruiting budget to attract Hispanic personnel toward military service. For example, the DoD has used bilingual advertising and has also used Hispanic Americans as actors in recruitment advertising. The number of Hispanic American enlistees has grown annually, particularly after 2000 (See figure 2.3). By the end of 2006, the Marine Corps had the highest proportion of Hispanics enlisted personnel, and have continued to increase since then. Between 1976 and 2006, Hispanics were an average of 9 percent of enlisted personnel in the Marine Corps, 6 percent in the Army and Navy, and 4 percent in the Air Force. In comparison with the United States civilian demographics, the Hispanic population as a whole grew from 11 million (5 percent of the U.S. population) to 43 million (14 percent) from the 1973 to 2006 (Chu, 2007). The increasing numbers of Hispanic soldiers reflect the changing face of contemporary society.
After several years of success, the recruiting mission then became difficult, and there were problems involved in meeting the minimum enlistee numbers that the DoD needed. John White, the Chairman of Commission on Roles and Missions of the Armed Services argued that the failure of recruiting in the late 1990s was a complex issue. What triggered this difficulty was Congress cutting the military recruitment budget (Rostker & Bernard, 2006). It was not a significant issue when the America economy was strong and the unemployment rate was low. However, budget cuts were made when unemployment reached a high and the economy was headed downhill at the same time (White, 2004). White (2004) noted that the DoD and Congress needed to monitor recruiting mechanisms systematically and conduct programmatic adjustments, such as increasing the budget to maintain the flexibility of recruiting strategies.

Source: Congressional Budget Office based on data from the Department of Defense, Office of the Under Secretary of Defense for Personnel and Readiness, *Population Representation in the Military Services* (various years); and Department of Defense, Defense Manpower Data Center.
The September, 11, 2001 Attack and the War in Afghanistan

“We’re not going to reimplement a draft. There is no need for it at all. The disadvantage of using compulsion to bring into the armed force the men and women needed are notable.”

---- Donald H Rumsfeld
Former Secretary of Defense

The United States was last directly attacked in 1941, 60 years ago before September, 11, 2001. These attacks were a series of four coordinated suicide attacks upon the United States in New York City, Pennsylvania and Washington, D.C. on September 11, 2001. The U.S. government quickly identified al-Qaeda and Osama bin Laden, their leader, who initially denied involvement, but later claimed responsibility for the attacks (Ken& Holly, 2002). The United States responded to the attacks by launching the War on Terrorism and invaded Afghanistan to depose the Taliban, which harbored members of al-Qaeda.

The U.S. government organized their armed forces rapidly and launched the war in Afghanistan on October, 7, 2001. The U.S and British forces initiated aerial bombing campaigns targeting Taliban and al-Qaeda camps, and later invaded Afghanistan using Special Forces ground troops. The overthrow of Taliban rule in Afghanistan by a U.S.-led coalition was the second-biggest operation in the U.S. global war on terrorism outside of the United States, and the largest direct operation against terrorism (Ken& Holly, 2002).

A war or conflict can serve as a catalyst for remodeling or reconstructing the all-volunteer force concept (Bailey, 2007). The U.S. government examined the efficacy of military deployment strategies and adjusts them for use in warfare. War in Afghanistan in 2001 was a new war strategy that the United States never used before. This war was operated by the U.S.
armed force involved a period of “nation-building” (Berger & Reese, 2010). The U.S. government deployed over 138,000 soldiers in Iraq by the end of 2004 in order to maintain the peace for the new Iraq regime (Berger & Reese, 2010). The U.S. Congress responded to the human resources demand from the DoD in 2005 by stating that the government could not afford to assign more than 180,000 active soldiers to Iraq, because that would damage the economy of the United States. The DoD also faced personnel losses during the War in Afghanistan. 51,000 soldiers reported that they would leave the military services in the next year due to the high-pressure work environment they faced abroad (Simonsen, 2009).

The U.S. DoD decided to rebalance and restructure the all-volunteer force to fit the requirements of the new mission of the military (Korb & Segal, 2011). In the short term, the U.S. DoD launched the “Individual Ready Reserve (IRR)” program and recalled 5,600 retired soldiers to return to active duty. This program addressed the immediate shortage of skilled personnel by adding temporary soldiers (Korb & Segal, 2011). Obviously, the short term increase in manpower was insufficient to solve the human resources shortage. The Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense for Reserve Affair reported that during Operation Iraqi Freedom, the U.S. military faced an ongoing partial mobilization might have negatively impacted recruiting and retention. The peacekeeping mission requires soldiers with special capacities, including civil affairs processing, military police and security forces, public affairs personnel, air traffic controllers, and deployable air control squadrons (Korb & Segal, 2011). Secretary Rumsfeld announced that the DoD would need 50,000 professional soldiers to handle these issues in 2003 (Rumsfeld, 2003). The primary mission for the DoD is to rebalance their manpower structure to fit these requirements.

There were difficulties for each of the services because the DoD had to eliminate some soldiers who might not necessary fit in with the new human resources deployment plan. For
example, the Army Rangers were the dominant force during the Cold War period. After the Gulf War, the United States needed a force that could be extended thousand of miles away from the U.S., such as the Navy and the Air Force. Thus, the DoD had to downsize the Army but enlarge the Navy and the Air Force within the context of a limited national defense budget (Korb & Segal, 2011). Transitioning from the old manpower structure to the new generation manpower structure and maintaining its functions is the difficulty for the contemporary U.S. DoD administration.

The all-volunteer force depends on the willingness of American youths toward serve in the military. Improving external incentives, such as salaries, educational benefits, and health care plans enhance enlistments. However, the national defense budget is declining and limited, and the development of appropriate persuasive strategies for attracting American youths is a critical issue for the U.S. Department of Defense.

Summary

The U.S. government first used the draft during the Civil War from 1861 to 1865. The Department of Defense used the draft during World War I, World War II, the Korean conflict, and most of the Vietnam War until 1973. The draft has been used for only thirty-five years since the U.S. came into existence in 1789.

Changing the human resource structure from the draft to the all-volunteer force was a complex decision based on the political, economic, and social perspectives. The Gates Commission decided to end the draft and launched the all-volunteer force because they had several concerns. The first concern was the changing demographics of contemporary American youths. By the end of 1960s, there were large numbers of qualified youths whose numbers exceeded the needs of the DoD. The second reason was that a small, highly professional volunteer force could be more economical than a larger conscription-based manpower structure,
according to the Gates Commission’s research. The third concern was the moral issue of the draft. The American public did not think that the sacrifices were shared among all members of society. The final reason was that the U.S. military did not have public support news stories about drug abuse, massacres in Vietnam, and racial discrimination in the military (Gates, 1970). President Nixon decided to change the military in 1973.

Rumsfeld (2004) concluded that the lessons the U.S. government learned from having an all-volunteer force since 1973 involved maintaining the high quality of recruits, understanding the problem using research, managing the problem using adjustable strategies, and controlling military expenditure within the context of adequate budget.

Defense Secretary Caspar Weinberger and Army General Maxwell R. Thurman played significant roles in the development of U.S. military recruiting strategies. Weinberger decided to increase the number of female enlistments (Rostker & Bernard, 2006). That was important when the U.S. military transitioned from the draft to the all-volunteer force because it allowed the administration to have more recruiting options for maintaining the size of the armed forces. General Thurman taught the U.S. DoD how to “marketing” the Army using marketing and advertising principles. He was also the first person point out that the DoD needed to increase the educational benefits and salaries in order for the military to become an aggressive competitor in the labor marketplace (Rostker & Bernard, 2006).

The U.S. DoD conducted recruiting research using variety of institutions, including the RAND Corporation, the Center for Naval Analyses, University of Chicago, the Army Research Institute, Eskew- Murphy agency, and the National Academy of Sciences to study the recruiting problems. These institutions used scientific and statistical research to identify the problems and provided appropriate suggestions to the DoD. Once the problem was recognized, the DoD made
flexible adjustments to address the changing recruiting targets and the needs of potential enlistees. For example, Chu (2005) found that focusing persuasive strategies exclusively on American youths was inadequate because their parents were often the key influencers of their offspring and their propensity and final enlistment decision. The DoD adjusted their recruiting strategies and kept those changes within budgetary constraints.

This chapter reviewed the trajectory of the development of the U.S. all-volunteer force from 1973 to 2010 using multiple approaches. The United States maintains the country’s armed force benchmark position worldwide with an excellent professional all-volunteer force. Within the context of changes in international relationships, the political spectrum, social traditions, and culture, the U.S. DoD should continue monitoring the new landscape of external environment and make appropriate decisions. The next chapter will examine the significant theoretical frameworks that are related to persuasion and enlistment behavior in order to examine the past, present, and the possible future of the persuasive strategies used by the U.S. AVF system.
Chapter 3 Literature Review on Persuasive Strategy

One of the primary purpose of military recruitment advertising is to increase the propensity of qualified youths to enlist in the military and to improve the public image of military among the public (Eighmey, 2006). The National Research Council (2003) suggested that the DoD engage in research to understand contemporary American youths and their language used, and continue to monitor their beliefs, attitudes, and values with respect to the military.

The National Research Council (2003) indicated that the pervious advertising research that conducted by the DoD was fragmented and lacked coordination with their long-term objectives. The primary object of this dissertation is to help the DoD improve its research on advertising and recruitment, and review the persuasive strategies of recruitment advertising. It is difficult to discuss the persuasive strategies of advertising without considering theories regarding the core variables which influence enlistment decisions.

Dertouzos (2009) demonstrated that theories that relate to Americans enlistment behavior are diverse and have been influenced by multiple disciplines, including economics, sociology, and psychology. These theories explore the different variables that influence potential enlistees’ propensity to enlist and their ultimate decisions. For example, Maslow’s psychological theory of the “Hierarchy of Needs” focuses on characteristics of individual needs (Maslow, 1954). The Theory of Planned Behavior is a social- psychology theory which examines individual decision-making processes in relationship their beliefs, attitudes and reference groups (Ajzen 1991; 2011).

A primary purpose of this chapter is to identify persuasive strategy variables which impact American youths’ decision making regarding military service that the DoD has to address when developing recruitment advertising. Message strategies, the typologies perspective, information and transformation cues, Taylor’s Six- Segment Strategies, and executional strategies will be
presented in order to demonstrate the manifest and latent characteristics of U.S. military
recruitment advertising (Taylor, 1999; Stewart & Furse, 2000).

The Hierarchy of Needs and Theory of Planned Behavior (Masloe, 1954; Sherif, 1962; Ajzen, 1980; 1991) provide analytical frameworks that can be used to explain enlistees’ attitudes, decision-making, and behavior using theories drawn from academic fields such as psychology and social psychology. These theories allow the author interpret the persuasive strategies of the U.S. military recruitment advertising using a micro-individual enlistment decision perspective.

P. E. S. T analysis (Political, Economic, Social, and Technological) will be deployed after the micro perspective theoretical framework. This is a macro analysis approach for understanding how the America social context, including politics, economics, society, and technology influence trends regarding in the use of persuasive strategies in U.S. military recruitment advertising during the AVF era.

Literature Review of Persuasive Strategies

Message Strategies and Typologies on Television

"Message strategy" or "creative strategy" generally refers to "what to say" in advertising or marketing communications plans, whereas "creative tactics" and “execution" refers to "how it is said" (Frazer, 1983). Taylor (1999) defined creative strategy on television advertising as a policy or guiding principle that specifies the general nature and character of the messages to be designed. Persuasive strategies for an advertising campaign involve the selection of meaning for the purpose of achieving the desired audience effect over the course of the campaign (Frazer, et al., 2002). The message strategies are not specific message tactics but rather the storytelling principles that guide all areas of the promotional mix. Taylor also indicated that there are seven creative strategies and taxonomies. These include the generic, preemptive, unique selling
proposition, brand image, positioning, resonance, and anomalous/affective strategies (Taylor, 1999).

The generic strategies approach involves making a claim that all of the brands within a particular product category can make (Stone & Duffy, 1993). For example, the coffee industry states that “coffee is a kind of beverage in their commercial” (Ruzich, 2008). Consumers do not acquire any additional information the coffee from the advertisements except the name of the product itself (Ruzich, 2008).

The preemptive approach is a form of advertising that makes a generic claim stronger and highlights the characteristics of specific product, but does not emphasize the unique selling position (Riffe, et al., 1998). Coffee is an example in the sense that advertisers might mention an exported coffee’s country of origin, production procedures, or categories in order to give the consumer more information than would be the case for a generic advertisement for a product in that category.

The unique selling proposition emphasizes convincing consumers that they will obtain unique benefits by using their product. The brand image strategy focuses on constructing positive images in the minds of consumers and creating links between the imagery and purchase propensity (Stewart & Furse, 2000). In other words, the brand image approach concerns the social-cultural features of images, and symbols that feature the brand name are intended to induce a psychological response from consumers. For brand image advertisements, the advertiser is not trying to induce rational thinking, but rather create emotions and thereby give the brand a personality.

Persuasive strategies in advertising seek to have products occupy unique positions in consumers’ minds that are so called position strategy (Ries& Trout, 1986). Advertising that used
Positioning strategy seeks to have products occupy mental positions that are superior to the positions of competing brands. Ries & Trout suggested that an effective advertising and resonance advertising are defined as involving strong persuasive effect methods. This strategy involves consumer experiences, and attempts to have consumers think that using a particular product means that they have their own means of self-identification (Stewart & Koslow, 1989). Apple products are typical examples. Users of the iPad and iPod users have their own online virtual communities. The virtual community has two categories: “Apple user” and “non-Apple user.” Making people feel good about a product is known as affective advertising. This strategy often combines humor and a unique consumer position cues in the advertising message in order to make affective advertising possible. State Farm’s advertisement is another example: the advertiser states that State Farm is “like a good neighbor,” meaning friendly, honest, and understanding. This message is intended to make consumers feel comfortable about purchasing insurance from this company. Message strategies and typologies provide initial descriptions of the characteristics of the target market for the U.S. military recruitment advertising. Researchers can recognize the analytical framework by identifying the storytelling features and tactics used in advertisements.

**Informational and Transformational Strategies**

Laskey, et al. (1989) indicated that informational advertising provides consumers with factual, relevant brand data in a clear and logical manner such that they experience greater confidence in their ability to assess the merits of buying the brand as a direct result of having seen the advertisements.

Every advertisement actually includes some element of information that allows audiences identify the advertised brand or product after exposure to the advertising message (Laskey, et al.,
Mortimer (2000) asserted that an advertisement is designed with the intention of providing information to consumers. Informational cue is a strategy for providing factual, relevant information and data about the brand and product to consumers. Informational advertisements can help consumers acquire more information for the purpose of making better purchasing decisions after exposure to the advertisement. Informational cues are widely used in advertisements, and include price or value, performance, availability, content or components, special offers, taste, packaging, warranties, safety, nutrition, and research (Laskey, et al., 1995).

Another persuasive strategy is the transformational cue strategy that associates the experience of using or consuming the advertised brand and product with consumers’ emotions (Cutler, et al., 2000). Transformational advertising makes specific use of emotions, vicarious classical conditioning and motivation in order to associate the user experiences of consumers (consumption of the advertised brand) with a unique set of psychological characteristics which would not typically be associated with the brand experience to the same degree that occurs in the absence of exposure to the advertisement (Puto & Wells, 1984). Transformational cues also concern experiences related to having an exciting or enjoyable experience, and allow consumers to recall the brand that is associated with the experience. An advertising which uses a transformational strategy can be identified with certain specific transformational subtypes, including user image, brand image, use occasion, and genetic-transformational image (Rossiter, et al., 1991).

User image strategy focuses on the advertiser’s intention to create a user image instead of a product image, and is frequently used in alcohol commercials and personal product and clothing advertisements that represent the lifestyles and tastes of users (Sparks & Schenk, 2001). Brand image strategy involves creating a brand personality, including characteristics such as the luxury,
prestige, and quality of the brand. Using transformational categories involves displaying users’ occasions and experiences in the storytelling patterns. The generic-transformational strategy focuses on the product class, and the advertiser emphasize the category of the product instead of being brand-specific (Schreiber & Appel, 1990). Transformational advertising is comparable to other psychological descriptors that are frequently applied to advertisements (e.g., mood, emotional, feeling, and image advertisements) in being essentially affect-based rather cognitive-based (Sparks & Schenk, 2001).

Puto & Wells (1984) suggested that informational and transformational cues are not mutually exclusive in advertisements, but they are exhaustive. Any given advertisement can be categorized as belonging to one of four basic categories: (1) High Transformation/ Low Information, (2) Low Transformation/High Information, (3) High Transformation/High Information, and (4) Low Transformation/Low Information. Each category is hypothesized to produce different effects on the traditional measures of advertising effectiveness (Puto & Wells, 1984).

The informational/ transformational perspective can be a valuable analytical framework for the U.S. military recruitment advertising. For example, the Army “Be All You Can Be” advertising theme usually provided detailed educational benefits information in the 1990s. However, this advertising used the jingle to describe the Army as it did because it was based on a self-actualization appeal which within the Hierarchy of Needs. That is a typical example of how the U.S. DoD used both informational and transformational strategies in a single advertisement. Both informational and transformational strategies involve emotion, motivation, and decision-making behavioral theories (Puto & Wells, 1984) that are one of the theoretical frameworks for this dissertation.
Taylor’s Six-Segment Strategy Wheel

Advertising research on creative strategies has yielded a fundamental classification of advertisements: they are either informational or transformational. While informational cues refer to advertisements that appeal to individuals’ cognition or logic, transformational cues refer to advertisements that appeal to consumers’ emotions or senses (Puto & Wells, 1984). Taylor (1999) sought to address the persuasive strategies more sophisticatedly, and designed the Six-Segment Strategy Wheel by revisiting consumer decision-making models. He used Petty and Cacioppo’s Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1984) and Vaughn’s Foote, Cone and Belding Advertising (FCB) Model to develop a model in 1986 that is more comprehensive for the purpose of understanding the persuasive strategies in advertisements. Taylor’s strategy wheel model has six segments: ego, social, sensory, routine, acute need, and rational. This model is based on a particular interpretation approach. The left-hand side of the wheel represents the “Transmission View” of communication (See figure 3.1). This transmission view represented that consumers’ decision were based on a rationale assumption. The right-hand side represents the “Ritual View” of Communication. This ritual view represented that consumers’ decision were build on the emotional attachment based. This wheel has a vertical axis. At the top of the axis are items that consumers regard as being of the greatest importance, by reason of either rational or emotional attachment. As one moves clockwise from the ego segment to the sensory position, emotional attachment strength decreases. As one moves counterclockwise from the rational position to the routine position, the strength of the rational attachment decreases (Taylor, 1999).
The ego segment is based on the Freudian Psychoanalytical Model. That is, consumers' emotional needs are fulfilled by products that are ego-related, and their purchase decisions are decisions that consumers as being emotionally important. One of crucial point of the Freudian concept is that consumers must make statements to themselves about who they believe themselves to be (Hwang, et al., 2003). The role of advertising is to show how the product fits into the consumer's definition of who he or she is using emotional appeals.

The social segment is where advertising messages need to represent other competitive brands. Persuasive strategy cues should be directed at getting noticed, obtaining social approval, engaging in socially correct behavior, or recalling and reliving social experiences through product consumption.

The sensory segment in the advertising storytelling pattern provides consumers with "moments of pleasure" based on the five senses: taste, sight, hearing, touch, and smell. The role
of communication is to transform the product into a "pleasurable moment" by showing consumers how using the product produces sensory pleasure for them.

Consumer decisions in the routine segment are made on the basis of rational buying motives, but consumers do not invest large amounts of deliberation time in most purchases, and usually in accordance with pervious buying behavior (Taylor & Stern, 1997). Once a habit becomes established, advertising reminds consumers to continue buying the brand so the habit does not become extinguished.

The acute need segment is characterized by the acute need that consumers have to purchase a product. Consumers’ desire information, but time limitations restrict the amount of information that can be processed in a given amount of time. Given limited time and information, consumers are likely to simply choose what is available. If more than one brand is available, consumers may choose the brand that is most familiar, the brand with the lowest price or the brand with a demonstrable advantage (Taylor, 1999). Persuasive strategy cues in advertisements should remind consumers of the brand’s familiarity and recognize ability so that the brand is remembered as being "known and trusted" when the consumer’s experience an acute need arises (Morton & Duck, 2006). The basic assumption of the rational segment is that consumers are rational, conscious, calculating, deliberative individuals. Advertisers could thus use preemptive and positioning strategies to attract consumers.

The Six-Segment Strategy Wheel allows researchers to examine the commercial features and executional cues in advertisements, including visual devices, auditory devices, commercial appeals, selling propositions, commercial structures, commercial formats, settings, tone, comparisons, and the use of music. Frazer, et al. (2002) indicated that executional cues can help
consumers recall brands and can influence their consumption behavior consciously or unconsciously after exposure to commercials.

Laskey, et al. (1994) demonstrated that the executional characteristics of advertisements enhance advertising effectiveness and help consumers recall advertising messages when they are engaged in purchase decision-making. Stewart and Furse (1986) examined the relationship between executional cues and the effects of television commercials. The results showed that some commercial features, including music, brand image, and direct comparisons between competitors, promote recall among consumers.

This dissertation will apply Taylor’s six-segment strategy wheel for the purpose of analyzing of the U.S. military recruitment advertising. This dissertation analyzes creative nature of the recruitment advertising in order to better identify the nature of the executional cues and tactics of U.S. military recruitment advertising.

**Hierarchy of Needs**

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs is a theory in psychological theory, proposed by Abraham Maslow in his 1948 paper *Some Theoretical Consequences of Basic Need-Gratification*. He proposed that human needs can be ranked in a hierarchy. Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs is a five-level that model depict the progression of an individual’s pursuit of the satisfaction of needs. Maslow’s 1954 book, *Motivation and Personality*, explained that the most fundamental human needs must be satisfied before higher level human needs can be pursued. When the needs on one level are met, individuals can naturally progress up to the next level. When a lower level need is denied, however, the individual’s attention shifts to the unmet need as the most important priority (See Figure 3.2).
The most basic needs are physical-air, water, food and sex. Above these are the safety needs of security and stability, followed by the psychological and social needs for belonging, love and acceptance. At the top are aesthetic needs - the need to fulfill oneself and the need to become all that one is capable of becoming. Maslow believed that one could be motivated by higher-level needs only after lower-level needs were taken care of (Maslow, 1968).

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory is succinct, clearly expressed and fundamentally true to consumers’ own experiences. It became the foundation for the human potential movement and advertising planning (Maslow, 1968).

Maslow (1954) also suggested that every individual works his or her way up a hierarchy of needs, seeking to fulfill the most basic needs (such as food and shelter) first and afterward gradually working up to self-actualization and fulfillment. Advertising enables us to position ourselves on a hierarchy, to figure out how far advertisers still have to go to achieve consumers’
dreams. This stimulates individual effort and ambition which, in turn, is a powerful and irresistible force in the marketplace (Pollay, 1983).

The Hierarchy of Needs model presents the notion that the decision-making by consumers is dependent on their needs. The research conclusions of the National Research Council about the U.S. military recruitment strategies in 2003 suggested that the primary mission of the U.S. military recruitment advertising is to identify its target audience and determine what its audience wants. The DoD needs to increase appropriate incentives in order to fill needs of potential enlistees. Eighmey (2006) provided a possible explanation for the relationship between the psychological needs of prospective American soldiers and the DoD’s persuasive strategies. He demonstrated that American society was unstable due to the social changes and the economic recessions in the mid-1970s. The DoD offered $36,000 in cash for education as the advertising slogan in order to attract their early volunteer force. He believed that people would increase their propensity to enlist in the military when the unemployment rate was high or society was economically unstable (Eighmey, 2006).

Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB)

Kleykamp’s (2006) survey on Army soldiers’ enlistment decision-making and Yeung and Gifford’s (2011) large scale survey on enlistees’ of different ethnicities showed that there is a strong positive relationship (Correlation between .47 and .38) between potential enlistment attitudes and final enlistment behavior. However, there remains a 50% to 60% difference between American youth’s propensity to enlist and their actual enlistment behavior. The Theory of Planned Behavior provides a bridge between consumers’ propensities and their actual behavior.
Ajzen, et al., (1980; 1991) proposed the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), which attempts to specify the cognitive determinants of behavior. It has been successfully used to predict a variety of social and high-involvement behaviors such as, health-care decisions and career selection (Conner & Sparks, 2005). The Theory of Planned Behavior posits that the most immediate determinant of behavior is behavioral intention. A behavioral intention is assumed to reflect an individual’s decision to behave in a certain way, and to reflect their motivation to engage in the behavior in question (Conner, et al., 2002). This propensity may be a strong indicator of their decision-making behavior sources.

Ajzen (1991) has noted that the TPB can be extended if its other variables are determined to contribute to the prediction of behavior. The predictive utility of this model has been augmented since its initial development by several additional variables, including moral obligations (Beck & Ajzen, 1991), self-identity (Povey, et al., 2000), group norms (Terry & Hogg, 1996), belief salience (Van Der Pligt & De Vries, 1998), group identification (Terry, Hogg, & White, 1999), and reactance (Orbell & Hagger, 2006). Reference group opinions and the social atmospheres which influence potential enlistees also influence their behavior. For example, the Army’s recruitment advertising theme during the 1990s, the “Be All You Can Be” series, invited family members, including parents, to use the external benefits to the families of enlistees if youths joined the U.S. Army. However, the research also should take into account individual’s idiosyncrasy in personality within the theoretical framework of the TPB (Furnham & Heaven, 1999).

The fundamental assumption of TPB is that the propensity is a valuable index of an individual’s behavior (Vaughn, 1986). An individual’s propensity can be synthesized using three essential elements, including attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control
The attitude factor in this theory refers to the overall evaluation of a specific event made by people. The subjective norm encapsulates beliefs about social approval or disapproval of their behavior. Perceived behavioral control concerns self-confidence in one’s capacity to engage in behavior (Ajzen, et al., 2011). This is to say, the theory explicitly recognizes that intentions do not always translate directly into behavior.

Critically speaking, the TPB assumes that human behavior is the result of rational decision-making processes, and that these processes are based on rational cost–benefit analyses of the likely outcomes of differing behavioral options (Ajzen, et al., 2011). For example, the model postulates that attitudes towards a certain type of behavior can be predicted using the anticipated utility to be derived from a cost–benefit analysis of the likely outcomes of that behavior. However, the relationship between behavior and rational thinking can be influenced by family dynamics. Youths might decide to join the U. S. military due to the economic difficulties faced by their families and ignore their first-choice careers.

Ajzen and Fishbein (2005) advised a degree of caution regarding the inclusion of additional predictors, urging thorough theoretical and empirical investigation of proposed embellishments to the TPB. However, the research does not subscribe to a view of human behavior that can be characterized as “reasoned,” “rational,” and as ‘under volitional control’ (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). The TPB viewpoint is that people are not “controlled by unconscious motives or overpowering desires”, that people “are usually quite rational and make systematic use of the information available to them” and that they consider the implications of their actions before they decide to engage or not engage in a given behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

The development of the TPB is an extension of the theory of reasoned action, and has proven to be useful in explaining the numerous types of behavior where complete individual
control is not readily apparent (Madden, et al., 1992). Ajzen (1991) addressed the question of whether the intention or propensity to enlist translates into enlistment behavior. One class of variables concerns whether or not potential enlistees’ personal attitudes are favorable or unfavorable toward the military service. The second variable that can influence enlistees’ behavior is environmental factors that can facilitate or prevent the person from carrying out his or her intention (Frazer, et al., 2002). The third class of variables that influences whether or not intentions translate into behavior is whether the individual has the requisite qualifications, skills, and abilities to engage in the behavior (Foss, et al., 2004). For example, an individual may have a strong intention to enlist in the military, but if he or she cannot graduate from high school or cannot pass the physical exam, then enlistment will not occur regardless of the presence of a strong intention.

**Determinants of Attitude to Enlist**

The Elaboration Likelihood Model states that there are several immediate determinants of an individual’s attitude to enlistment (Petty & Cacioppo, 1983; Smith, et al., 2006). The first is how favorable or unfavorable the individual feels about enlisting, meaning the individual’s personal attitude toward enlisting. In general, the more favorable an individual feels about enlisting in the military, the more likely it is that he or she will intend to serve in the U.S. military. Attitudes regarding the military system are accumulated from the social context (Hosek & Francisco, 2009).

An individual’s personal attitude toward enlisting is a function of the individual’s behavioral beliefs and outcome evaluations associated with those beliefs (Ajzen, et al., 1980; Ajzen, 1991). In other words, potential military applicants perceive that certain advantages and disadvantages are associated with enlisting in the military. A given perceived advantage or
disadvantage has two components. First, there is an expectancy, which refers to how likely the individual is to think that enlisting in the military will, in fact, lead to the advantage or disadvantage in question. For example, one possible advantage of pursuing a military career might be that one expects to acquire a civilian job skill that will be useful later in life. The expectancy in this case, also known as a behavioral belief, is the subjective probability on the part of the individual that the individual will acquire a job skill that will be useful later in life if she or he enlists in the military (Eighmey, 2006).

The second component is an outcome evaluation. This variable refers to how positive or negatives the specific advantage or disadvantage is perceived as being. Some advantages are thought to be more positive than others, and some disadvantages are thought to be more negative than others. The individual’s perception of the degree of positivity or negativity of a given consequence is important and must be taken into account. These perceptions derive from the individual’s fundamental value system, which ultimately determines the worth that he or she ascribes to the different outcomes and consequences (Britt, et al., 2011).

*Environmental Determinants of Enlistment*

Britt, et al., (2011) recognized that environmental variables are crucial considerations in military enlistment. For example, an individual might have a strong positive desire to enlist in the U.S. military system, but might be unable to do so due to parental resistance. In addition, Schreurs, et al. (2009) demonstrated that norms and normative pressures can influence military applicants’ enlistment behavior, particularly when society experiences disruption such as wars. This is to say, the social and normative pressures to enlist or not are inferred from the social context. There are two types of normative influences that have the potential to contribute to this form of social pressure: injunctive norms and descriptive norms (Baker & Lutz, 2000).
Injunctive norms refer to perceptions of what important others think the individual should do with respect to enlisting. Descriptive norms refer to perceptions of how individual’s peers perform behavior, and how many do so (Baker & Lutz, 2000).

Injunctive norms reflect whether important others approve or disapprove of the individual enlisting. Such approval or disapproval are reflective of, or determined, by the’ perceptions of the opinions of specific referents, such as one’s mother, or one’s father. There are multiple referents. Parents and other parties might have opinions about what an individual should do, and even two parents in one family might have different opinions. The overall normative pressure to enlist or not enlist is function of these differing opinions (Bitektine, 2011).

**Determinants of Self-Efficacy**

Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) indicated that self-efficacy consists of perceptions of the obstacles that impede enlistment and one’s judged ability (or perceived power) to overcome those obstacles. For example, one obstacle to enlisting might be the sense that an individual may be uncertain of his or her ability to overcome challenges they will suffer in the military. The belief that the obstacle can be overcome is refereed to individual’s self-efficacy (Conner, et al., 2002). Another example is the case where one might have a strong positive attitude toward military service and their families support military service. However, if they believe that they might die in the Iraq, they might choose to not enlist.

These three determinants that influence the U.S. military applicants’ potential enlisting behavior are not isolated from each other, and serve to influence each other. Attitudes toward military services are influenced by behavioral beliefs and outcome evaluations and subjective norms about enlisting can be impacted by individual perceptions of the opinions of specific referents and the motivation to please or comply with those referents. Feelings about self-
efficacy are influenced by the perceived obstacles to behavioral performance and one’s perceived ability to overcome such obstacles.

**P.E.S.T. Analysis (Political, Economic, Social, and Technological)**

P.E.S.T. analysis examines the external macro-environment that affects all institutions in society. P.E.S.T. is an acronym for the Political, Economic, Social, and Technological factors in the external macro-environment of an organization or the organization’s strategies (Kotler, 1998). Such external factors usually are beyond the organization’s control and sometimes present themselves as threats. However, sometimes these factors can create new opportunities. P.E.S.T. analysis is essential for the development of marketing and strategic plans for companies that operate in business environments. Doyle (1994) argues that P.E.S.T. analysis is a useful strategic tool for understanding the growth and decline of markets, business positions, potential and the direction of business operations.

In this dissertation, political factors are variables such as political stability, minority immigration policies, regional relations, the war in Iraq and the presidential approval rate. Political factors are recognized to the significant influencers on the U.S. military system (Moore, 2009). For example, during the Cold War, the major mission of the U.S. military was resisting nuclear threats from the Soviet Union (Dertouzos & Garber, 2006). After the Gulf War, peace keeping and worldwide force deployment became the primary concern of the U.S. DoD (Dertouzos & Garber, 2006).

The Army was the largest military service, and had the greatest manpower needs during the 1970s (Dertouzos & Garber, 2006). However, when the military mission required American soldiers to serve around the worldwide, the Navy improved its warfare position to become the service with the most human resource demands (Bailey, 2007).
Social factors include the youth workforce and demographics, the crime rate, and public opinions about the U.S. military service. The Gates Commission asserted that social pressure was a major consideration that forces the U.S. government to ended the draft and initiate the all-volunteer force. The draft system was unknown during most of American’s history (Gates, 1970). Large portions of the American public did not support their military during the late 1960s. The antiwar movement represented that people wanted a change in the military (Hammond, 1998). Social factors thus influenced the development of the all-volunteer force in early 1970s.

Economic factors include the U.S. family income level, the unemployment rate and the noncitizen population. Moskos (2005) suggested that military service had become not an institutional job anymore but rather an occupational job. The military service thus needed to compete for personnel with other jobs in the marketplace. The DoD expect to find better recruiting persuasive strategies for the volunteer force during economic downturns when the unemployment rate rose (Moskos, 2005). Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs also provides a possible explanation for this observation: people seek safety during economic downturns. The military service is one solution to their need for safety.

Technological factor include advance-technology weapons and equipment development by the U.S. military. Weapons are under continual development in contemporary military strategies. For example, the U.S. Navy once relied on gas power vessels to be the main force to serve in the worldwide (Grygiel, 2005). However, such slow, low-efficiency vessels could not be deployed more than 5,000 miles away from military bases. During the Cold War, the U.S. Navy owned the nuclear reactors that were aboard naval vessels This is meant that the U.S. Navy could reach any location in the world with more than 10,000 soldiers (Grygiel, 2005). Professionalized weapons
and equipment require high-quality manpower to operate and maintain its functions. Thus, the high-quality, all-volunteer force is a significant issue the U.S. DoD must continue to address.

P.E.S.T. analysis can be used in the matrix format to review the direction of a company, a company’s strategy or position within the external market, or a specific proposition or idea (Kotler, 1994). In regards to the U.S. military recruitment advertising trends, P.E.S.T. analysis can provide a supplemental approach for understanding how external factors such as, the 9-11 attack, the Gulf War, and military activities in Afghanistan influence storytelling patterns in U.S. military recruitment campaigns. I will use P.E.S.T. analysis to interpret the statistical results in chapter six to provide a panoramic view of the U.S. DoD’s persuasive strategies in the AVF era.

**Research Questions and Hypotheses**

The goal of this dissertation is to explore the persuasive strategies and appeals used in U.S. military all-volunteer force advertising from 1973 to 2010 and judge how these characteristics fit into with the theoretical framework synthesized from psychology, social psychology, and political science. One goal is to theoretically examine persuasive strategies and tactics, including scene settings, music, and executional cues using quantitative content analysis. This researcher also will analyze persuasive strategies from the macro perspective, which includes political, social, economic and technological factors to demonstrate how these external factors influence the persuasive strategies of the U.S. Department of Defense.

The literature review examined how message strategies are used to construct the guidelines, appeals, and executional cues that constitute messages. This dissertation will focus on the manifest and latent characteristics of the U.S. military recruitment advertising during the AVF era. The literature review led to the following proposed research questions and hypotheses:
**Hypothesis 1:** U.S. military recruitment advertising in the AVF era used informational message strategies more often than transformational message strategies.

**Hypothesis 2:** U.S. military recruitment advertising in the AVF era used external incentive cues more often than internal incentive cues.

**Hypothesis 3:** US military recruitment persuasive strategies advertising in the AVF era used primary reference group images more often than secondary reference group influencers.

**RQ 1:** Which longitudinal trends can be found in heroism image strategies in U.S. military recruitment advertising during the AVF era?

**RQ 2:** How can the Hierarchy of Needs were used to explore persuasive strategies in military recruitment advertising for different branches of the service during the AVF era?

**RQ 3:** What the auditory devices and music using message strategies been used in U.S. military recruitment advertising during the AVF era?

**RQ 4:** What executional cues expressions were synthesized with the factors of the Theory of Planned Behavior in U.S. military recruitment advertising for different service branches?

**RQ 5:** Were there significant differences in visual appeal cues among the service branches in U.S. military recruitment advertising during the AVF era?

**RQ 6:** Which longitudinal trends can be found in advertising setting strategies found in U.S. military recruitment advertising during the AVF era?

**RQ 7:** Which longitudinal trends can be found in campaign characters strategies found in U.S. military recruitment advertising during the AVF era?
Chapter 4 Methodology

The transition from a conscript armed force to an all-volunteer force changed the sense of military service from an obligatory nature to opportunities in the marketplace has been invisible in American society (Moskos, 2005). The U.S. DoD created approximately hundreds different television advertisements from 1973 to 2010 using variety of slogans, tactics, music, and incentives to attract the military’s potential audiences. The central issue for these recruitment advertising was to increase the propensity of American youths to enlist in the military and to improve enlistment numbers.

This dissertation used quantitative content analysis to depict the manifest and latent persuasive strategies in U. S military recruitment advertisements during the all-volunteer force era from 1973 to 2010. Quantitative content analysis examined the typologies, executional cues, and persuasive structures used during this time period by the Army, Navy, Air Force and Marines. This allowed the researcher to determine the overall persuasive trends used in the U.S. military recruitment advertising. The study also examined the volunteer recruiting propensity and theories related to decision-making in order to determine how to conduct effective military recruitment advertising and provided suggestions that can help develop the persuasive strategies to be used in the future.

Content Analysis

Quantitative content analysis involves the objective, systematic and replicable observations of manifest and latent content (Krippendorff, 2004). The objectivity of content analysis can be established by using procedures to define coding categories. The objective definition process is the fundamental way to examine manifest content, latent content and theoretical testing (Shimp,
In other words, objectivity should be constructed using existing theoretical frameworks and operational definitions of independent variables.

The researcher can analyze words, symbols, themes, and other characteristics of the advertisements in a systematic manner (Kolbe & Burnett, 1991). Content analysis involves studying manifest and latent message cues in order to help researchers focus on the content instead of focusing on communicators and audiences. Researchers should avoid influencing messages and avoid survey bias by observing analytical material (Kassarjian, 1977). Content analysis offers an unobtrusive way to collect data, test theories in an empirical manner and generate new research evidence and ideas.

In addition, content analysis can be applied for the purpose of measuring words, symbols, themes, characters, items and space-and-time measures (Kassarjian, 1977). Riffe, et al. (1998) indicated that content analysis consists of a replicable examination of communication symbols and is a deductive approach to inquiry that makes use of predetermined categories for the purpose of exploring research questions and hypotheses.

Content analysis had been widely used in marketing, advertising and business researches (Davis, 1997; Neuendorf, 2002; Krippendorff, 2004; Du Plessis & Erik, 2005; Farrell, 2008; Marshall, et al., 2008; Nagar, 2009) because it can be used to examine the manifest and latent characteristics that can be found in commercial campaigns.

In summarizing the characteristics of quantitative content analysis, one can concentrate on following elements:

\textit{Systematic}

One purpose of social science research is developing theories and confirming social phenomena. The researcher thus requires generalizable empirical evidence. Explanations of
phenomena, relationships, assumptions and presumptions are not accepted uncritically, and should be subjected to a system of observation and empirical verification (Riffe, et al., 1998). The scientific research method, which includes quantitative content analysis, is one such system, and involves step-by-step protocols for problem identification, hypothesizing about an explanation, and testing that explanation (Neuendorf, 2002). Being systematic is the crucial element for content analysis to generate the test-able hypotheses regarding a phenomenon and the specification of relationships among concepts or variables that can synopsize using a theoretical framework.

Objective

A second goal of scientific investigation is to describe or explain a phenomenon while avoiding investigator biases. Objective is a crucial issue for a social science research which is related to its validity (Babbie, 1982), and content analysis provides a systematical approach to minimize the researchers’ personal influence the research results. The validity of conclusions drawn from content analysis is greatly reduced if personal idiosyncrasies and biases are allowed to influence the selection and examination of advertising. Therefore, objectivity in content analysis is enhanced when: (1) there are clear social agreement rules for advertising selection and examination, (2) coding categories are well-defined, (3) coders or examiners are well-trained and work independently of each other, (4) data analysis is appropriate for the measurement level of the data that are collected (Neuendorf, 2002).

Replicable

The research results should be replicable is one index for scientific research (Babbie, 1982) that represents that every researcher who uses the same methods and manipulates the same variables could have the similar research results (Neuendorf, 2002). To meet this requirement,
the particular research definitions and operational definition that were used must be reported explicitly and fully so that readers can understand exactly what was done. Explicitness means that other researchers can evaluate the procedure and findings and, if desired, replicate the operations (Sackett, et al., 2004). This specifically means that other researchers who apply the same system of inquiry, use the same research design, and make use of the same operational definitions of the same content should be able to replicate the original findings. Only then can a measure of certainty be obtained; and only after repeated replications can a researcher challenge or modify existing theory or explanations for a phenomenon (Stone & Duffy, 1993; Stewart & Furse, 2000).

Quantitative content analysis allows researchers to examine U.S. military recruitment advertisements from 1973 to 2010 using an unobtrusive approach. This research project will use a systematic and replicable coding perspective for the purpose of improving the inter-subjectivity, reliability, and validity of analytical frameworks.

*Statistical evaluation of Inter-coder reliability*

The coding process is another important issue that relates to the quality of content analysis. Inter-coder reliability measures are based on the systematic and consistent nature of defined variables. Reliability is based on category definitions and how well coders agree on content decisions (Rust, 2001). Marshall, et al. (2008) indicated that coding rules and procedures, coders training, pretest measures, the nature of coding, coding independence and the detailed reporting of reliability estimates are concepts that cannot be avoided by researchers who intend to enhance the reliability and validity of the current quantitative content analysis method.
Most researchers agree that inter-coder reliability is a key issue in quantitative content analysis (Holsti, 1969; Davis, 1997; Frazer, et al., 2002; Keller, 2003; Krippendorff, 2004; Marshall, et al., 2008). However, it is the case that a variety of methods have been used to evaluate reliability, and there is no single universal standard.

Holsti (1969) proposed the initial protocols for measuring reliability:

\[ \text{Reliability} = \frac{2M}{N1 + N2} \]

\( M \) = the number of agreements between coders
\( N \) = total number of decisions made by each coder

Holsti’s method is the basic standard used to measure reliability. However, it might not be the best approach to correct for chance agreements between coders. Krippendorff (2007) indicated that even if there are only rare instances of chance agreements between coders, should it happen, it will decrease the reliability significantly.

Krippendorff (2004) developed alpha reliability to adjust for chance agreements among coders.

\[ \alpha = \frac{k \bar{r}}{1 + (k - 1)\bar{r}} \]

\( \kappa \) = number of questions
\( \gamma \) = average inter-item correlation

Hence, alpha reliability improves chance agreements by assuming that all of the choices found within categories have an equal probability of being used by coders. In other words, this formula can be used only when the coders’ decisions are symmetrical.

Cohen’s Kappa is one of the most widely used methods for examining inter-coder reliability in social science research (Krippendorff, 2004). Cohen’s Kappa could display the frequencies
with which each coder agreed upon each coding category. The metaphor of Cohen’s Kappa is used to make calculations using a term known as the proportion of expected agreement between coders. Kappa is appropriate for the researcher when more than two coders are making binary, "yes or no" decisions using their independent judgments (Krippendorff, 2004).

The equation for $\kappa$ is:

$$\kappa = \frac{P_\gamma(a) - P_\gamma(e)}{1 - P_\gamma(e)}$$

Where $P(a)$ is the relative observed agreement among raters, and $P(e)$ is the hypothetical probability of chance agreement, using the observed data to calculate the probabilities of each observer randomly saying each category. If the raters are in complete agreement then $\kappa = 1$. If there is no agreement among the raters other than what would be expected by chance (as defined by $P(e)$), $\kappa = 0$ (Cohen, 1960).

**Unit of analysis and sample frame**

The unit of analysis in this dissertation is individual U.S. military recruiting television advertisements. The Department of Defense (DoD) of the United States launched an all-volunteer military force in 1973. During that year, each military service branch, including Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marines began the process of identifying their manpower needs specifically and sought to attract quality manpower to join the military. Television advertising is one approach used to persuade audiences to change their propensities and attitudes concerning military service. The U.S. DoD spends nearly 75% of their recruiting budget producing
advertisements and paying for media placement. Almost 85% of their advertising budgets have been spent on paid television commercials since 1973 (Dertouzos & Garber, 2006).

**Content Analysis in Advertising Research**

Content analysis is a comprehensive research methodology for both cross-sectional and longitudinal analysis (Kang, et al., 1993). This dissertation will use a combination of previous operational definitions and instruments used in content analysis to examine U. S military recruitment advertisements during the all-volunteer force era from 1973 to 2010. An initial literature review of prior military recruiting campaign research and television advertising research that used quantitative content analysis was completed in order to establish the coding instructions and to enhance the reliability and validity of this dissertation.

Moore’s (2009) research employed three coders to examine hundreds of U.S. Army recruitment advertisements. Each of the three coders reviewed one third of the total amount of material that was used for purposes of analysis. However, Moore (2009) used alpha coefficient reliability instead of inter-coder reliability. The validity test applied factor analysis for the purpose of reexamining the category that was listed in the coding instrument. The results of Moore’s research only indicated the Army’s persuasive strategies on part of printing advertising, and did not provide explanations of the changing of U.S. DoD’s recruiting strategies.

Stewart & Furse (1985) used five coders. Each of the five coders reviewed 1059 pieces commercial and coded them independently. The authors reported that the reliability was .94 for the informational and transformational categories and .90 for the message typology category. The author did not test the validity and report of the coder training process in that study. Lee, et al. (2008) used four coders to examine the effectiveness of television commercials and used alpha coefficient for the purpose of reliability reporting.
Nagar (2009) examined the persuasive strategies used in television commercials. The author hired five coders to review each of 415 pieces of advertisements. When inter-coder reliability failed to reach .65 or higher, the missing value was coded. Other studies examined the persuasive strategies used in television advertisements as an analytical unit that used a variety of reliability judgment methods. For example, Holsti (1969) formulated the reliability for inter-coder reliability and computed disagreement using focus group discussions. Malaviya (2007) used the random assignment method to improve reliability and tested it using alpha reliability. This dissertation will synthesize the literature in order to improve content analysis.

The research methodology of this dissertation was a lengthy procedure that included the following steps: a) identification and collection of the primary materials from the institution; b) construction, testing, and revision of an initial coding instrument that could be used to address the research hypotheses and research questions; c) Coder training and group discussions to build a consensus for regarding the primary material; d) pilot testing for determining inter-coder reliability and to inform this researcher about a series of coding instrument revisions; e) construction and application of the final coding instrument; f) cross tabular analysis of the final coding results for the purpose of addressing the research hypotheses and research questions. Each step of the methodology is discussed in greater detail below.

Identification and collection of the primary material from the National Archive

The U.S. DoD began to conduct its volunteer recruitment advertising for all-volunteer force form 1973. Each service branch has their own persuasive strategies and uses variety of slogans, tactics, and storytelling patterns for attracting their potential audiences (Dertouzos & Garber, 2006). The National Archive Administration of Motion Picture branch located in Maryland collected most of television commercials of the Unites States. The U.S. military deployed its
recruitment advertising in the major national wide television networks, such as ABC, NBC, and CBS from the beginning of the all-volunteer force. The DoD also paid for the advertising on the sport channel within a popular sport competitions, such as NFL, NBA, MLB, and NHL (Sackett, et al., 2004).

The DoD conducted the numbers of the volunteer recruitment advertising depends on the budget approved by the Congress (see Table 4.1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years/Service Branch</th>
<th>Army</th>
<th>Navy</th>
<th>Air Force</th>
<th>Marines</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1973-1980</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981-1990</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991-2000</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-2010</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Kang, et al. (1993) mentioned that the coding rules and instruments should be derived from the literature and theoretical frameworks. Appropriate summaries of the coding categories can improve overall validity. Stewart and Furse (1986) indicated those advertising content categories are concepts can be organized by developing content typologies. All of the analytical dimensions and coding categories used in this dissertation can be identified in the literature review.
Fleiss (1971) believed that coding subcategories in a meaningful coding instrument would inform each of the research questions and account for the subcategories, descriptions, and observations. The research could generate a code first and then develop a brief definition, a complete definition, and examples that could serve to clarify each of subcategory for coders. In this dissertation, the primary researcher organized the brief definition in the coding instruments, and placed the complete definition and examples in the code book (See Appendix A and B).

The coders were given a coding instrument for each of the variables in each category. The coding instrument will include 57 subcategories selected from previous studies and the literature review. The coding categories be divided into eight groups. The first consideration is the descriptive information collection, including series names, advertisement titles, colors, years of publication, and military service categories. The second coding subcategory is “hero coding” that will examine the relationship between heroism in Western culture and military image. Two types of hero images would widely been used in the U.S. military advertising. The first type of hero image is that the principal character might be a hero who appears at the beginning of an advertisement, the second types id that the principle character becomes a hero through military service. The hero images represented in the military recruitment advertising would provide American youths a strong control belief that projecting themselves will become a hero when they serve in the military.

The third section is the Hierarchy of Needs which focuses on the type of advertising appeals. Maslow (1954) believed that people first seek the satisfaction of their basic physiological needs then seek to satisfy higher-level needs, including safety needs, love and belongingness needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization needs. U.S. military recruitment advertising is designed to
influence the propensity of its target audiences. The persuasive strategies embedded in advertising used a variety of appeals to trigger the latent needs of qualified American youths. For example, the physiological needs might be water, food, or money. The safety needs might be security of body, family, or property. The love and belongingness needs might be friendship, family, or acceptance. The esteem needs might be confidence, achievement, or respect from others. The self-actualization needs might be self-fulfillment, money for education, or problem-solving.

The fourth section is based on the Theory of Planned Behavior. Ajzen (1991; 2011) demonstrated that people who are involved in an important decision, their decision-making procedures will fully take into consideration the advantages and disadvantages factors using a rational analysis instead of emotions. He proposed a model for revealing the factors which can influence decision-making; these factors include attitudinal beliefs, normative beliefs and control beliefs. Attitudinal beliefs refers to the sort of advertising that conveys positive attitudes toward military services; normative beliefs refer to the sort of advertising that conveys the attitude that serving in the military is an honor for the U.S. society; control beliefs refer to the sort of message cues that conveys that people can reach successful career opportunities in the military services.

The fifth through eighth sections are defined as involving visual and auditory appeals and typologies of messages that have been adapted from various television advertising research studies and military persuasive strategies studies (Stewart & Koslow, 1989; Gagnard & Morris, 1988; Frazer, et al., 2002; Morgan, 2009). These include adventure appeal, civilian job training appeal, military job training appeal, credential appeal, educational benefit appeal, material goods/services, camaraderie appeal, physical development appeal, social approval appeal,
travel/entrainment appeal, memorable rhymes, slogans and/or mnemonic devices, musical tempos, spoken taglines, and comparison information in recruitment advertisements.

The night and tenth sections of the coding instrument involve scene settings, and representative campaign characters, a concept examined at length in business and marketing journal articles (Gagnard & Morris, 1988; Stewart & Koslow, 1989; Frazer, et al., 2002; Lee, et al., 2008). These include: dominant commercial settings and principal and minor characters’ settings. All of the subcategories are assigned numerical values for the purpose of nominal data analysis. The complete final coding instrument can be found in Appendix A.

**Coder training and group discussions for building a consensus for the coding instrument**

Four coders were employed to assist with the research for this dissertation. All of the coders are undergraduate students who are majors in the College of Media and Department of Political Science. These four coders were divided into two groups. Each group reviewed and coded every piece of U.S military recruitment advertising independently as individuals.

Five coder meetings were arranged before the coding procedures began. Each meeting lasted for approximately one to one and half hours. The meetings involved discussing the goals of this dissertation, the procedures used in this project, and the definitions of each of the coding variables. All of the above were covered during the first section of coder training. One primary concern in the first time coders’ meeting was keeping the coders in the dark or blind regarding the research hypotheses and questions. This means that the author mentioned only the research purpose and the variables in the coding instrument instead of mentioned the research hypotheses and research questions. Krippendorff (2007) asserted that blind coder status helps coders stay within a relative objective and avoid bias when judging the variables. In this dissertation, the
author will avoid mentioning any research questions and hypotheses during the coders training and their pilot testing.

During the second part of coder training, the primary researcher coded four samples that were randomly selected from recruitment advertising for the purpose of seeking general agreement regarding the judgment standard.

The author then demonstrated an example of the coding process. Each coder was given eight samples which were randomly selected from the U.S. military recruitment commercials for practice purposes. They were allowed to discuss the judgment standards while practicing. After the practice session was over, the group discussion was led by the primary researcher. The purpose of this group discussion was to revise the initial coding instrument and code book.

**Table 4.2 Inter-coder reliability during the first practice session (Oct. 12, 2011)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code Section</th>
<th>Percent Agreement</th>
<th>Cohen's Kappa</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Section A Hero Coding</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section B Hierarchy of Needs</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section C Theory of Planned Behavior</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section D Visual Appeals</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section E Comparisons</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section F Typology of Messages</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section G Auditory Devices and Music</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section H Advertising Setting</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section I Campaign Characters</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>.69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
During the third coders’ meeting, the author spoke to the coders about the results of their inter-coder reliability they had previously practiced coding, and this author led a discussion regarding possible revision of the code book and coding instrument. After a group discussion, the primary researcher assigned another eight samples which had been randomly selected from U.S. military recruitment advertisements for independent coding practice. Below is an inter-coder reliability table used in the second coding practice session (Table 4.3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code Section</th>
<th>Percent Agreement</th>
<th>Cohen's Kappa</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Section A Hero Coding</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section B Hierarchy of Needs</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section C Theory of Planned Behavior</td>
<td>86%</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section D Visual Appeals</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section E Comparisons</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section F Typology of Messages</td>
<td>91%</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section G Auditory Devices and Music</td>
<td>92%</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section H Advertising Setting</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section I Campaign Characters</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pilot testing for determining inter-coders reliability and coding instrument revisions

During the fourth coders’ training session, the primary researcher led a group discussion regarding possible code book and coding instrument revision. This was the final coders’ training
session before the pilot test. The author led a discussion in a thoughtful manner and assigned 28 samples which had been randomly selected from the primary material and gave this material to each coder. The primary researcher also restated that coding independence is a necessary factor in order to ensure the reliability of quantitative content analysis. Thus, during the coding period, the coders were asked to work independently and to not discuss their coding decisions (Spence & Lachlan, 2005). The coders had to work independently in separate rooms.

Each coder should code the U.S. military volunteers recruitment advertisements independently based on the dominant variables in each coding subcategory. Coders should use their judgment standard that was built on the coder training to identify the dominant trait. If no clear dominant signal was represented in a military recruitment advertisement, the “Cannot be coded” option should be selected. The pilot testing results appear in Table 4. 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code Section</th>
<th>Percent Agreement</th>
<th>Cohen's Kappa</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Section A Hero Coding</td>
<td>93.75%</td>
<td>.897</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section B Hierarchy of Needs</td>
<td>88.00%</td>
<td>.812</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section C Theory of Planned Behavior</td>
<td>91.67%</td>
<td>.883</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section D Visual Appeals</td>
<td>87.65%</td>
<td>.821</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section E Comparisons</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section F Typology of Messages</td>
<td>91.65%</td>
<td>.815</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section G Auditory Devices and Music</td>
<td>98.88%</td>
<td>.946</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section H Advertising Setting</td>
<td>96.00%</td>
<td>.932</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section I Campaign Characters</td>
<td>91.77%</td>
<td>.856</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Construction and application of the final coding instrument

Cohen (1960) and Krippendorff (2002) demonstrated that once the inter-coder pilot testing reliability reaches .80, which represents that agreement between coders has reached an acceptable level then the study is ready for the next step.

During the pilot testing for this dissertation, the inter-coder reliability of each coding section was between .812 and 1.00. The results of the final coding were deemed acceptable based on the percentages of agreement and the Kappa values in Table 4.4 above.

The purpose of the fifth coders’ session was to address the final revision of the code book and coding instrument and to give the final coding instrument to each coder. After the final revision of the code book and the coding instrument, the primary researcher assigned four coding samples for group discussion in order to ensure that each coder understood the discussion results which were addressed during the coders’ training and pilot testing.

After the group discussion and practice sessions, each coder was assigned the final coding material. The four coders were divided into two groups. Each group had one coder from the College of Media and one coder from the Department of Political Science. After coder practicing and pilot testing was completed, 532 pieces of U.S. military recruitment advertising remained. In other words, each coder needed to code 266 advertisements. The coding material was randomly assigned to coders in each group.

The primary researcher repeated his announcement that each coder needed to judge the primary material independently based on the consensus developed during coders’ training. Each coder had 30 calendar days after the time that the final coding material was assigned to submit their coding forms. The primary researcher also provided contact information to coders in the event of questions or suggestions.
Cross tabular analysis of the final coding results to address the research hypotheses and research questions.

Acceptable inter-coder reliability was achieved using the final coding instrument. The quantitative data from the coding was exported to SPSS 18.0 version. The purpose of the final study was to use the refined coding instrument to explore the persuasive strategies used in U.S. military recruitment advertisements and provide suggestions for future persuasive strategies. The results of the coding were used to address the research hypotheses and research questions. The frequencies and cross-tabulation results are reported in the findings section below. The final versions of the coding instrument contain each of the coding subcategories and all of the executional cues and appeals associated with each of the coding items were coded.
Chapter 5 Findings

Descriptive Statistics

There were 532 pieces of U.S. military recruitment commercials included in this analysis. 84.9% of these commercials were produced using color, 12.5% were both color and black and white, and 2.6% were black and white only. 98.7% of U.S. military recruitment advertising was paid for by the Department of Defense (DoD), while only 1.3% was provided for by Public Service Announcement (PSA). Of the 584 recruitment commercials, 38% were produced for the Army, 21% were produced for the Navy, 17% were produced for the Air Force, and 24% were produced for the Marines. Table 5.1 presents the distribution across the four military service branches and four generations for the All-Volunteer Force (AVF) after pilot testing and coders training.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years/ Service Branch</th>
<th>Army</th>
<th>Navy</th>
<th>Air Force</th>
<th>Marines</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1973-1980</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981-1990</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991-2000</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-2010</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis One

Research hypothesis one predicted that U.S. military recruitment advertising in the AVF era used informational message strategies more often than transformational message strategies. As stated in the methodology section of this dissertation, an independent samples \( t \)-Test was utilized to analyze the similarities and differences of the informational message and transformational cues used by each branch of the military services.

The frequency of informational and transformational cues in the messages in the U.S. military recruitment advertising during the AVF era varied among the different service branches. The Army’s recruitment advertising used informational cue messages (\( M = 1.07, SD = 0.65 \)) on a significantly more frequent basis than transformational cue messages (\( M = 0.45, SD = 0.77 \)), \( t \) (206) = 6.51, \( p < .001 \), \( d = .639 \). Cohen (1992) demonstrated that the effect size (\( d \)) of a \( t \)-Test is a strong index that can help researchers because it indicates the power of one’s statistical results. In the behavioral sciences, the value of \( d \) of .2, .5, and .8 correspond to small, medium, and large effects.

The Navy, Air Force, and Marines recruitment advertising used transformational cue messages (Navy, \( M = 0.94, SD = 0.95 \), Air Force \( M = 1.01, SD = 0.79 \), and the Marines, \( M = 1.25, SD = 0.33 \)) significantly more often than informational cue messages (Navy, \( M = 0.23, SD = 0.61 \), Air Force \( M = 0.56, SD = 0.94 \) and Marines, \( M = 0.27, SD = 0.26 \)). The \( t \)-Test results for these three military service branches were presented as follow, Navy \( t \) (108) = 6.93, \( p < .001 \), \( d = .934 \); Air Force \( t \) (85) = 5.77, \( p < .05 \), \( d = .875 \); Marines \( t \) (125) = 7.09, \( p < .001 \), \( d = .693 \).

Research hypothesis one was thus partially confirmed and the range of effect size was between .639 and .934. The Army’s recruitment advertising in the AVF era used informational
cue messages more often than transformational cue messages. However, the Navy, Air Force, and Marines used transformational cues messages significantly more often than informational cue messages. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 Means of informational and transformational cues used in the U.S. military recruitment advertising

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Persuasive Strategies</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Informational Cues</td>
<td>Transformational Cues</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Army</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>6.51***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Navy</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>6.93***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air Force</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>5.77*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marines</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>7.09***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. * = p < .05, *** = p < .001.

Hypothesis Two

Research hypothesis two predicted that U.S. military recruitment advertising in the AVF era used external incentive strategies more often than internal incentive strategies to attract qualified American youths. The external incentive category was combined from adventure appeal, job training appeal, material good appeal, credential appeal, physical development cues, and travel appeal. The internal incentive category was combined from social approval, camaraderie appeal, love and belonging needs appeal, esteem need appeals, and self-actualization need appeal. An independent samples t-Test was utilized to analyze the similarities and differences of external incentive messages and external incentive messages used by each branches of the military services.

The frequency of external and internal incentives message used in U.S. military recruitment advertising in the AVF era varied by different services. The Army’s recruitment
advertising used external incentive cue messages \((M = 1.33, SD = 0.92)\) on a significantly more frequent basis than internal incentive cue messages \((M = 0.41, SD = 0.81)\), \(t\ (206) = 7.11, p < .001, d = .698\).

The Marines recruitment advertising used internal incentive cue messages \((M = 0.94, SD = 0.95)\) significantly more often than external incentive cue messages \((M = 1.98, SD = 0.23)\), \(t\ (125) = 7.98, p < .001, d = .83\). There was no significant difference between the external and internal incentive cue messages used in Navy and Air Force recruitment advertising during the AVF era.

Research hypothesis two thus was partially confirmed and the range of effect size was between .52 and .83. The Army’s recruitment advertising in the AVF era used external incentive cue messages more often than internal incentive cue messages. However, the Marines used internal incentive cues messages significantly more often than external incentive cue messages. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 5.3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Persuasive Strategies</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>External Incentive</th>
<th>Internal Incentive</th>
<th>(t)</th>
<th>(df)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Army</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>7.11***</td>
<td>206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Navy</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air Force</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marines</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>7.98***</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. *** = \(p < .001\).
Hypothesis Three

Research hypothesis three predicted that U.S. military recruitment advertising in the AVF era used primary reference group images more often than secondary reference group image to attract qualified American youths. Eighmey (2006) indicated that parents’ attitude toward military service would be significant reference factor when American youths considering military service. An independent samples t-Test was utilized to analyze the similarities and differences of the primary reference group images and secondary reference group image used by each branch of the military services.

The primary reference group images and secondary reference group images used in the U.S. military recruitment advertising in AVF era varied among the different services. The recruitment advertising produced by the advertising agencies hired by the Army, Navy, and Marines used primary reference group images (Army, $M = 0.32$, $SD = 0.77$, Navy, $M = 0.16$, $SD = 0.41$, and Marines $M = 0.14$, $SD = 0.88$) on a significantly more frequent basis than secondary reference group images (Army, $M = 0.08$, $SD = 0.24$, Navy, $M = 0.06$, $SD = 0.49$, and Marines $M = 0.07$, $SD = 0.43$). The results of the t-Tests were as follows, Army $t (206) = 1.95$, $p < .05$, $d = .19$, Navy $t (108) = 1.02$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.14$, and Marines $t (125) = 1.29$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.16$. There were no significant differences for the primary reference group images and secondary reference group images used in Air Force recruitment advertising in the AVF era.

Research hypothesis three was thus partially confirmed and the range of the effect size was between .14 and .41. The recruitment advertising used by the Army, Navy, and Marines recruitment advertising during the AVF era used primary reference group images more often than secondary reference group images. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 5.4.
Table 5.4 Means of primary reference group images and secondary reference group images used in U.S. military recruitment advertising

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Primary Reference Group Image</th>
<th>Secondary Reference Group Image</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Army</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>1.95*</td>
<td>206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Navy</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>1.34*</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air Force</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marines</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>1.29*</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. * = p < .05.

Research Questions

Research Question One

Research question one addressed the question of whether images of heroism were used in U.S. military recruitment advertising during the AVF era. There were two types of heroism images presented in military recruiting commercials. One type of images of heroism showed the principal characters as a hero at the beginning of the commercial. The other type showed the principal characters in the process of becoming a hero during the commercial. Stevens, et al. (2003) demonstrated that hero images used in advertising were based on an assumption that products and brands would benefit from popularity by virtue of being associated with heroism. Advertisers would encourage members of their target audience to identify with heroes that as presented in the commercials. The U.S military recruitment advertising used hero images to develop a “the U.S. national hero model” to encourage American youths to participate in military services.
This researcher applied the Chi-square test for the purpose of comparing the ratio differences among the commercials broadcast for the U.S. military recruitment advertising during the AVF era and the hero images used by the different services. The chi-square can help the researcher examining the ratio difference of hero image used in variety of military service branches, especially when the independent and dependent variables were both nominal level data. Overall in U.S. military recruitment advertising, 14.1% ($N= 532$) of the commercials presented hero images. More specifically, 8.9% of the hero image commercials depicted the main characters as being heroes at the beginning of the advertisements, and 5.1% were engaged in becoming heroes during the advertising.

For the Army, the “Main character is a hero” was the dominant type of hero imagery used in the Army’s commercials. 10.5% of the Army’s advertising used hero coding and about 77% of these commercials were the “Main character is a hero”. In case of the Navy recruitment advertising, 10.4% of the Navy’s commercials used hero images. It was significant that all of the Navy’s hero image advertising was of the “Main character is a hero” type.

An examination of the Air Force volunteer recruitment advertising, observed that 14.7% of the Air Force commercials used hero images and 69% of them were of the “Main character is a hero” variety. The Marines was the service branch which used hero image in commercials with the most frequency. There was 20.8% of the Marines’ advertising used hero depiction and 67% of its advertisements used the “Main character becomes a hero” approach. The descriptive statistics and frequency distribution of hero images used in the military recruitment advertising in AVF era are presented in Table 5.5.
Table 5.5 Frequency of hero image used in U.S. military recruitment advertising during the AVF era

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hero Coding</th>
<th>Service Branches/ Broadcast Years</th>
<th>Army</th>
<th>Navy</th>
<th>Air Force</th>
<th>Marines</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main character becomes a hero</td>
<td>1973-1980</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1981-1990</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1991-2000</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2001-2010</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main character is a hero</td>
<td>1973-1980</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1981-1990</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1991-2000</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2001-2010</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td></td>
<td>10.5%</td>
<td>10.4%</td>
<td>14.7%</td>
<td>20.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The main characters become hero images used by the different services in U.S. military recruitment advertising during the AVF era. The Chi-Square test results were Army (3, N=208) = 94.34, p>.05; Navy (3, N=110) = 55, p>.05; Air Force (3, N=87) = 36.4, p>.05; Marines (3, N=127) = 34.39, p<.01. The Marines significantly used main characters that became hero images approach more often between 1991 and 2010. The percentages of the Marines’ advertisement that used main characters who became hero images were 0% in the 1970s, 4% in the 1980s, 15% in the 1990s, and 30% in the 2000s. There were no significant relationships between the year in which that were broadcasted and the main characters being part of hero images strategy used by the Army, Navy, and Air Force. The results of cross-tabulations of main characters that became hero images used are presented in Table 5.6.
Table 5.6 Cross-tabulations of main character that became hero images that were used in U.S. military recruitment advertising during the AVF era

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main character becomes hero</th>
<th>Broadcast Years</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>( \chi^2 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Army Presence</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>94.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Army Absence</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Navy Presence</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Navy Absence</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>41</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air Force Presence</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>36.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air Force Absence</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marines Presence</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>34.39**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marines Absence</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. ** = \( p < .01 \).

Having the main characters were hero images is a strategy used by the different branches of the U.S. military in its recruitment advertising during the AVF era. The different services used slightly different variations of this hero images strategy. The Chi-Square test result for this strategy was: Army (3, \( N=208 \)) = 55.15, \( p > .05 \); Navy (3, \( N=110 \)) = 39.96, \( p < .05 \); Air Force (3, \( N=87 \)) = 29.97, \( p > .05 \); Marines (3, \( N=127 \)) = 32.1, \( p < .01 \). The Navy used the main characters as hero images approach significantly more often between 1991 and 2000. The Marines significantly used main characters as hero images significantly more often between 1981 and 1990. The percentage of Navy’s advertisements that used main characters as hero images was 6% in the 1970s, was 10% in the 1980s, was 6% in the 1990s, and was 16% in the 2000s. Concerning the Marines, the percentage of the Marines’ advertisements was 16% in the 1970s, 16.7% in the 1980s, 2% in the 1990s and 2000s. There were no significant Chi-Square test results for commercials broadcast years and main characters who were used hero images in the
Army, and the Air Force recruitment advertising. The results of cross- tabulations of main characters who became hero images used are presented in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7 Cross- tabulations of main characters who were used as hero images in U.S. military recruitment advertising during the AVF era

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main characters were hero</th>
<th>Broadcast Years</th>
<th>1973-1980</th>
<th>1981-1990</th>
<th>1991-2000</th>
<th>2001-2010</th>
<th>χ²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Army</td>
<td>Presence</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>55.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Absence</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Navy</td>
<td>Presence</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>39.96*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Absence</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>41</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air Force</td>
<td>Presence</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>29.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Absence</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marines</td>
<td>Presence</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>32.1**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Absence</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .01.

Research Question Two

Research question two examined how the elements of the Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory was used in the persuasive strategies found in U.S. military recruitment advertising produced by the different branches of service in different years. In order to measure manifestations of the hierarchy of needs theory, this researcher used one-way analysis of variance (One-way ANOVA) and post hoc analysis to address similarities and differences between the different services. The One-way ANOVA and multi-comparison can allow the researcher exploring the frequency of the difference among the factors of hierarchy of needs in the variety of U.S. military branches. The researcher presented the frequency of use of the hierarchy of needs theory that was used for different generations for each individual military service after post hoc analysis.
The frequency of use of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs messageing was used in recruitment advertising during the AVF era varied among the different services. Concerning the use of the physiological need appeal, $F (3, 528) = 5.41, p < .001, \eta^2 = .83$, Scheffe’s post hoc paired comparisons indicated that the Army ($M = 1.32, SD = 0.42$) used the physiological need appeals in recruitment advertising significantly more often than was the case for the Navy ($M = 0.21, SD = 0.54$), the Air Force ($M = 0.16, SD = 0.11$), and the Marines ($M = 0.14, SD = 0.22$) during the AVF era. There was no significant difference in use of the hierarchy of needs theoretical framework by the Navy, Air Force, and Marines. More specifically, the U.S. Army used physiological need appeal more often between 1973 and 1990. Thus, 85% of the Army’s advertising used physiological need appeal during 1973 to 1990, compared with only 18% after 1991.

For the use of safety need appeals, $F (3, 528) = 2.41, p > .05, \eta^2 = .52$, there was no significant difference in the number of safety need appeals messages used in recruitment advertising among the different services during the AVF era. Moreover, in the case of love and belonging need appeals, $F (3, 528) = 2.18, p > .05, \eta^2 = .65$, there was also no significant difference in the number of love and belonging need appeals messages used.

An examination of the use of esteem need appeals, $F (3, 528) = 3.85, p < .05, \eta^2 = .72$, Scheffe’s post hoc paired comparisons indicated that the Army ($M = 1.98, SD = 0.95$) used esteem need appeals in recruitment advertising significantly more often than was the case for the Navy ($M = 0.96, SD = 0.71$), and the Marines ($M = 1.99, SD = 0.97$). Furthermore, the Navy and the Marines used esteem need appeals more often than was the case for the Air Force ($M = 0.22, SD = 0.51$) during the AVF era. The U.S. Army used increased numbers of esteem need appeals
between 1991 and 2010. Thus, 73% of the Army’s advertising contained esteem need appeals, in comparison with 8% before 1991.

In terms of the use of self-actualization need appeals analysis, $F(3, 528) = 3.74, \ p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .72$, Scheffé’s post hoc paired comparisons indicated that Marines ($M = 1.95, SD = 0.83$) used the self-actualization need appeals in its recruitment advertising significantly more often than was the case for the Navy ($M = 1.33, SD = 0.62$), which was also the case for the Air Force ($M = 1.47, SD = 0.85$). Furthermore, the Navy and the Air Force used the self-actualization need appeals more often than was the case for the Army ($M = 0.62, SD = 0.29$) during the AVF era. The Marines used the self-actualization need appeals consistently from 1980 to 2010. The percentages of actualization need appeals used were 75% in the 1980s, 81% in the 1990s, and 90% in the 2000s. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8 Means of the hierarchy of needs theory used in the recruitment advertising by the different services

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>U.S. military Service Branches</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>$\eta^2$</th>
<th>Post Hoc (Scheffe)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Army</td>
<td>Navy</td>
<td>Air Force</td>
<td>Marines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physiological Need Appeals</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety Need Appeals</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Love and Belonging Need Appeals</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esteem Need Appeals</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self- Actualization Need Appeals</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>1.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. *** = $p < .001$. Means with differing subscripts within rows are significantly different at the $p < .05$ level of significance based on Scheffé’s post hoc paired comparisons.
Research Question Three

Research question three examined the use of auditory devices and music using strategies by each branch of military services during the AVF era. Five types of auditory devices and music using strategies have been analyzed, including spoken taglines, memorable rhymes, music, music tempos, and the use of jingles. This researcher used the Chi-Square test to compare ratio differences for each decade of recruitment advertising from the 1973 to 2010 and the use of auditory devices and music by the services.

The average of frequency of use of auditory devices and music varied among the different services and according to generations, the percentages of spoken taglines, memorable rhymes, music, music tempos, and the use of jingles were 37%, 85.3%, 91.75%, 74.5%, and 40%. The frequencies and descriptive statistics results are presented in Table5.9.
Table 5.9 Frequency of use of auditory devices and music in recruitment advertising during the AVF era (N= 532)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Auditory Devices and Music Using Strategies</th>
<th>Service Branches/ Broadcast Years</th>
<th>Army</th>
<th>Navy</th>
<th>Air Force</th>
<th>Marines</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Avg. Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spoken Taglines</td>
<td>1973-1980</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1981-1990</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1991-2000</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2001-2010</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Memorable Rhymes, Slogans or Mnemonics</td>
<td>1973-1980</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1981-1990</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td>85.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1991-2000</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2001-2010</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>88%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music Use</td>
<td>1973-1980</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>92%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1981-1990</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>91.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1991-2000</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>92%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2001-2010</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>93%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fast Music Tempos</td>
<td>1973-1980</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1981-1990</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>74.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1991-2000</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>77%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2001-2010</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Jingles</td>
<td>1973-1980</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1981-1990</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1991-2000</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2001-2010</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>49%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The ratio of spoken tagline strategies used in Army (3, \(N= 208\)), Air Force (3, \(N= 87\)), and Marine (3, \(N= 127\)) recruitment advertising varied in different broadcasted year, the \(\chi^2\) values were 29.08(\(p<.01\)), 17.31(\(p<.001\)), and 13.82(\(p<.001\)). The percentages of Army advertising that made use of spoken taglines in the generations were, 9% in the 1970s, 33% in the 1980s, 23% in the 1990s, and 27% in the 2000s. Concerning Air Force advertising that made use of spoken taglines for each generation, the percentages were 8% in the 1970s, 35% in the 1980s, 83% in the 1990s, and 82% in the 2000s. Marines advertising used spoken taglines, the
percentages for each generation were 0% in 1970s, 77% in the 1980s, 53% in the 1990s, and 77% in the 2000s.

The Chi-Square analysis results showed that, the Army used spoken taglines most frequently in the 1980s, and the Air Force used this persuasive strategy in the 1990s and the 2000s more often than was the case in the 1970s and the 1980s. The Marines used spoken taglines in the 1980s and the 2000s more often than was the case in the 1970s and the 1990s. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 5.10.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
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<td>Army Presence</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>29.08**</td>
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<tr>
<td>Army Absence</td>
<td></td>
<td>28</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Navy Presence</td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Navy Absence</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air Force Presence</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>17.31***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air Force Absence</td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marines Presence</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>13.82***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marines Absence</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. ** = \( p < .01 \), *** = \( p < .001 \).

The ratios of memorable rhymes, slogans and mnemonic strategies used in Army (3, \( N=208 \)), Navy (3, \( N=110 \)), Air Force (3, \( N=87 \)), and Marine (3, \( N=127 \)) recruitment advertising were consistent in different broadcasted years, the \( \chi^2 \) values were 49.08, 30.75, 20.57, and 45.17, \( p>.05 \). The percentages of Army advertising that made use of memorable rhymes, slogans and mnemonic strategies in each generation were 83% in the 1970s, 75% in the 1980s, 78% in the 1990s, and 84% in the 2000s. In the case of the Navy, the percentages were 92% in the 1970s, 88% in the 1980s, 83% in the 1990s, and 88% in the 2000s. For the Air Force, the percentages were 75% in the 1970s, 76%, in the 1980s, 87% in the 1990s, and 88% in the 2000s. An
examination of the Marines, the percentages was 90% in the 1970s, 92% in the 1980s, 89% in the 1990s, and 94% in the 2000s.

The results of the Chi-Square tests demonstrated that all four branches of the military services used memorable rhymes, slogans and mnemonic strategies in their recruitment advertising on a consistently frequent basis, and there were no significant differences between each generation during the AVF era. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 5.11.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Memorable Rhymes, Slogans or Mnemonic</th>
<th>Broadcast Years</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Army Presence</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Army Absence</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Navy Presence</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Navy Absence</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air Force Presence</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air Force Absence</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marines Presence</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marines Absence</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The ratio of the use of music strategies used in Army (3, N= 208), Navy (3, N= 110), Air Force (3, N= 87), and Marine (3, N= 127) recruitment advertising were consistent in different broadcasted years, the $\chi^2$ values were 85.02, 38.53, 29.29, and 35.77, $p>.05$. The percentages of Army advertising that made use of music strategies in each of the generations were 96% in the 1970s, 93% in the 1980s, 94% in the 1990s, and 96% in the 2000s, the case for the Navy were 100%, 92%, 93%, and 92%, the case for the Air Force were 83%, 88%, 91%, and 91%, the case for the Marines were 80%, 85%, 87%, and 92%.
The results of the Chi-Square tests demonstrated that all four military services used music in its recruitment advertising on a consistently frequent basis, and there were no significant differences between each generation during the AVF era. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 5.12.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Army Presence</td>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>85.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Army Absence</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Navy Presence</td>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>38.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Navy Absence</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air Force Presence</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>29.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air Force Absence</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marines Presence</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>35.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marines Absence</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The ratio of fast music tempo strategies used in Army (3, $N=208$), Air Force (3, $N=87$), and Marines (3, $N=127$) recruitment advertising varied in different broadcasted years, the $\chi^2$ value were 66.94 ($p<.05$), 12.20($p<.001$), and 13.82($p<.05$). The percentage of Army advertising that made use of fast music tempo of each generation was 80% in the 1970s, 90% in the 1980s, 92% in the 1990s, and 92% in the 2000s. In the case of the Air Force, the percentages were 66% in the 1970s, 70% in the 1980s, 83% in the 1990s, and 76% in the 2000s. As regards the Marines, the percentages of advertising that made use of fast music tempo in each generation were 50% in the 1970s, 38% in the 1980s, 43% in the 1990s, and 40% in the 2000s.

The Chi-Square analysis results showed that the Army used fast tempo music most frequently after the 1980s. The Air Force used this persuasive strategy in the 1990s more often than in
the 1970s, 1980s and 2000s. The Marines used fast tempo music in the 1970s more often than in the 1970s, 1990s, and 2000s. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 5.13.

**Table 5.13 Cross-tabulations of fast music tempo used in recruitment advertising during the AVF era**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Army</td>
<td>Presence</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>66.94*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Absence</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Navy</td>
<td>Presence</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>27.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Absence</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air Force</td>
<td>Presence</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>12.20***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Absence</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marines</td>
<td>Presence</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>1.97*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Absence</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>31</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. * = $p < .05$, *** = $p < .001$.

The ratios of brand jingles strategy used in Army (3, $N = 208$), Navy (3, $N = 110$), and Marine (3, $N = 127$) recruitment advertising were varied in different broadcasted year, the $\chi^2$ value were 61.70 ($p < .001$), 21.33($p < .001$), and 34.62($p < .05$). The percentage of Army advertising that made use of brand jingles in each of the generation were 64% in the 1970s, 82% in the 1980s, 89% in the 1990s, and 96% in the 2000s. An examination of the Navy, the percentage were 0% in the 1970s, 0% in the 1980s, 63% in the 1990s, and 76% in the 2000s, and the same case for the Marines, the percentage of advertising used brand jingles were 0%, 0%, 20%, and 19%.

The Chi-Square analysis results showed that the Army used the brand jingle strategy most frequently after the 1980s and the Navy used this strategy after the 1990s more often than was the case in the 1970s, and the 1980s. The Marines used the brand jingle strategy after the
1980s more often than was the case in the 1970s and 1980s. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14 Cross-tabulations of brand jingle used in recruitment advertising during the AVF era

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Army</td>
<td>Presence</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>61.70***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Absence</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Navy</td>
<td>Presence</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21.33***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Absence</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air Force</td>
<td>Presence</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>43.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Absence</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>34</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marines</td>
<td>Presence</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>34.62*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Absence</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>42</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note:* = $p < .05$, *** = $p < .001$.

Research Question Four

Research question four examined the intercorrelations among the factors of the Theory of Planned Behavior strategies, including attitudinal beliefs, normative beliefs, and control beliefs used in the U.S. military recruitment advertising for the different services and for different broadcasted years. A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to explore how the U.S. DoD used components of the Theory of Planned Behavior to develop its persuasive strategies to attract qualified American youths to serve their country.

Stevens (2002) demonstrated that Wilks’ $\lambda$ is a strong indicator that can be used to examine the percentage of the results which cannot be explained by independent variables. If
Wilks’λ approaches zero, the independent variables would have more power to explain dependent variable.

A one-way MANOVA revealed a significant multivariate main effect for the different service branches, Wilks’λ= .23, $F (3, 373) = 2.74$, $p< .001$, $\eta^2 = .16$. Power to detect the effect size was .955. There was no significant result for the broadcast years, Wilks’λ= .42, $F (3, 373) = .94$, $p> .05$. In addition, there was no interaction effect between the services and the broadcast years, Wilks’λ= .46, $F (9, 1089) = .82$, $p> .05$. In research question four, Wilks’λ was .23 and its $\eta^2=.16$. This statistical result was appropriate for explaining how the different U.S. military services used the Theory of Planned Behavior to develop different approaches for attracting its potential target audiences.

The normative beliefs variable reached a significant level in the main effect examination, $F (3, 375) = 1.72$, $p< .05$, $\eta^2 = .17$, power = .91. The mean numbers of normative belief message strategies used by the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marines were 0.65, 0.51, 1.33, and 0.41. The post hoc analysis (Bonferroni) demonstrated that the Air Force used normative beliefs in its volunteer recruitment advertising more often than was the case for the Army, Navy, and Marines.

The other significant variable was control beliefs, $F (3, 375) = 5.96$, $p< .001$, $\eta^2 = .15$, power = .97. The mean numbers of the control belief messages used by the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marines were 0.54, 0.23, 0.41, and 1.65. The post hoc analysis (Bonferroni) demonstrated that the Marines used control beliefs message cues in its volunteer recruitment advertising more often than was the case for the Army, Navy, and Air Force. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 5.15.
Table 5.15 Results of MANOVA of Theory of Planned Behavior by services and broadcasted years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Wilks’ ( \lambda )</th>
<th>( F )</th>
<th>Partial Eta Square (( \eta^2 ))</th>
<th>Post Hoc Analysis (Bonferroni)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Service Branch</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>2.74***</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service Branch X Attitudinal Belief</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service Branch X Normative Belief</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>1.72*</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Air Force (1.33) &gt; Army (.65), Navy (.51), Marines (.41)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service Branch X Control Belief</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>5.96***</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Marines (1.65) &gt; Army (.54), Navy (.23), Air Force (.41)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service Branch X Broadcasted Year</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service Branch</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broadcasted Year X Attitudinal Belief</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>--</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broadcasted Year X Normative Belief</td>
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<td>.49</td>
<td>1.60</td>
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<tr>
<td>Broadcasted Year X Control Belief</td>
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<td>.42</td>
<td>1.07</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service Branch* Service Branch X Attitudinal Belief</td>
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<td>.39</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service Branch* Service Branch X Normative Belief</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service Branch* Service Branch X Control Belief</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. * \( p < .05 \), *** \( p < .001 \). Once the F value reaches a significant level, post hoc analysis (Bonferroni) would be conducted.
Research Question Five

Research question five examined how visual appeals, including adventure appeals, civilian job training appeals, military job training appeals, credential appeals, educational opportunities appeals, camaraderie appeals, material good appeals, physical development appeals, social approval appeals, and travel/entertainment appeals were used in recruitment advertising during the AVF era. This researcher used One-way ANOVA and multi-comparison to address similarities and differences of visual appeal cues used by different services, and the percentages of visual appeal cues used in different generations for each individual military service after post hoc analysis.

Some visual appeal cues, including adventure appeals, civilian job training appeals, educational opportunities appeals, material goods/services appeals, and physical development appeals that were used in military recruitment advertising during the AVF era varied among the different services. For the examination of adventure appeal cues, $F(98, 432) = 21.12, p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .72$, Scheffé’s post hoc paired comparisons indicated that the Navy ($M = 46, SD = 7.2$) and the Air Force ($M = 64, SD = 11.3$) used adventure appeals in recruitment advertising significantly more often than was the case for the Army ($M = 11, SD = 7.9$), and the Marines ($M = 27, SD = 10.23$) during the AVF era. Cohen (1992) demonstrated that $\eta^2$ value is an effect indicator for estimating effect size in ANOVA analysis, and .01, .06, and .14 represented small, medium, and large effect sizes.

Concerning civilian job training appeal cues, $F(98, 432) = 18.17, p < .01, \eta^2 = .61$, Scheffé’s post hoc paired comparisons indicated that the Army ($M = 22, SD = 9.27$) used civilian job training appeal cues in recruitment advertising significantly more often than was the case for
the Navy ($M = 2$, $SD = 3.89$), the Air Force ($M = 1$, $SD = 6.00$) and the Marines ($M = 2$, $SD = 6.19$).

Regarding educational opportunities appeal cues, $F(98, 432) = 13.55$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .51$, Scheffé’s post hoc paired comparisons indicated that the Army ($M = 37$, $SD = 7.25$) used educational opportunities appeal cues in recruitment advertising significantly more often than was the case for the Navy ($M = 2$, $SD = 6.17$), the Air Force ($M = 5$, $SD = 9.00$) and the Marines ($M = 3$, $SD = 13.05$).

In the case of material goods/services appeal cues, $F(98, 432) = 11.00$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .49$, Scheffé’s post hoc paired comparisons indicated that the Army ($M = 26$, $SD = 17.13$) used material goods/services appeal cues in recruitment advertising significantly more often than was the case for the Navy ($M = 9$, $SD = 11.03$), the Air Force ($M = 1$, $SD = 2.54$) and the Marines ($M = 3$, $SD = 7.88$).

In terms of physical development appeal cues, $F(98, 432) = 12.43$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .51$, Scheffé’s post hoc paired comparisons indicated that the Army ($M = 19$, $SD = 14.20$) and the Marines ($M = 16$, $SD = 5.39$) used physical development appeal cues in recruitment advertising significantly more often than was the case for the Navy ($M = 5$, $SD = 1.54$) and the Air Force ($M = 3$, $SD = 6.19$).

There were no significant differences in military job training appeals, credential appeals, camaraderie appeals, and social approval appeals used by different military service branches overtime. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 5.16.
Table 5.16 Means of the visual appeal cues used by the different services in the recruitment advertising

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Army</th>
<th>Navy</th>
<th>Air Force</th>
<th>Marines</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>$\eta^2$</th>
<th>Post Hoc (Scheffe)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adventure Appeal</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>21.12**</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>Navy, Air Force, Marines &gt; Army</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civilian Job Training Appeal</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18.17**</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>Army &gt; Navy, Air Force, Marines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military Job Training Appeal</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11.85</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Credential Appeal</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Opportunities Appeal</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13.55**</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>Army &gt; Navy, Air Force, Marines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camaraderie Appeal</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>Army &gt; Navy, Air Force, Marines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material Good/Service</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11.00*</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>Army &gt; Navy, Air Force, Marines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Development</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12.43*</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>Army &gt; Marines, &gt; Navy, Air Force</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Approval</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .01$, *** = $p < .001$. Means with differing subscripts within rows are significantly different at the $p < .05$ based level on Scheffe’s post hoc paired comparisons.
Research Question Six

Research question six addressed the issue of what differences there were in the advertising setting strategies used in military recruitment advertising among the military service branches during the AVF era. This researcher combined the coding instrument of section H - “Advertising setting” - into two categories which were indoor and outdoor environment settings. Outdoor environments include sea/landmark, foreign environment/landmarks, wild areas, and mountain areas; indoor environments include apartments/housing, gyms/training facilities, generic offices/business settings, and military barracks. The campaign environment settings were part of story-telling strategies which would represented the idiosyncrasy of each military branch. Also, advertising background settings would be a part of information for potential soldiers when they considering their priority sequence of military services.

A one-way analysis of variance (One-way ANOVA) and post hoc analysis were used to address similarities and differences in advertising settings among each branch of the military services. The one-way ANOVA results demonstrated that the advertising settings that were chosen for use in military recruitment advertising during the AVF era varied among the branches. Concerning outdoor environment settings, $F(9, 521) = 30.81, p < .01, \eta^2 = .74$, Scheffé’s post hoc paired comparisons indicated that the Navy ($M = 87, SD = 21.56$) and the Air Force ($M = 91, SD = 24.40$) used outdoor environments as its advertising settings in recruitment advertising significantly more often than was the case for the Army ($M = 45, SD = 37.33$) and the Marines ($M = 61, SD = 18.69$).

In the case of indoor environment settings, $F(9, 521) = 28.17, p < .001, \eta^2 = .61$, Scheffé’s post hoc paired comparisons indicated that the Army ($M = 61, SD = 16.25$) and the Marines ($M = 54, SD = 10.01$) used indoor environments as its advertising setting in recruitment
advertising significantly more often than was the case for the Navy \( (M = 17, SD = 9.63) \) and the Air Force \( (M = 10, SD = 9.95) \). The results of these analyses are presented in Table 5.17.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>U.S. Military Service Branches (%)</th>
<th>( F )</th>
<th>( \eta^2 )</th>
<th>Post Hoc (Scheffe)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Outdoor Environment</td>
<td>Army 45, Navy 87, Air Force 91, Marines 61</td>
<td>30.81**</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>Navy, Air Force &gt; Army, Marines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indoor Environment</td>
<td>Army 61, Navy 17, Air Force 10, Marines 54</td>
<td>28.17***</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>Army, Marines &gt; Navy, Air Force</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. ** = \( p < .01 \), *** = \( p < .001 \). Means with differing subscripts within rows are significantly different at the \( p < .05 \) level based on Scheffe’s post hoc paired comparisons.

**Research Question Seven**

Research question seven examined the differences in campaign characters settings in the recruitment advertising. A One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted to analyze the campaign character settings, including the main characters, the minor characters and the demographics used by the different military services for the DoD’s volunteer recruitment advertising during the AVF era.

There were five campaign character settings used strategies significantly varied by service branches. The five campaign character settings were: male and minorities settings on the “main character” section; female, minorities, and no minor characters settings on the “minor character” section. Moskos (2005) indicated that the demographic structure of military organization would represent the contemporary American society. The GAO’s military
demography report on FY 2005 also demonstrated that Hispanic, Black, and Asian number are increasing in the U.S. military organization. Thus, the former Secretary for Personnel and Readiness of U.S. DoD, Dr. Chu believed that recruiting target should focus on Black, Hispanic, Asian to address manpower shortage issue that the DoD has suffered since 1990s (Chu, 2005).

The U.S. military recruitment advertising used variety of campaign character to target different racial backgrounds of American youth. Researcher distinguished the major character was as a leading or principal figure in a commercial; the minor character represented other characters engaging in a commercial except main characters. The minority coding category was distinguished as Black, Hispanic, Asian, and other racial characters in the recruitment advertising context.

For examination of main campaign character on the main character section, male character setting, $F (97, 433) = 32.01$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .82$, Scheffe’s post hoc paired comparisons indicated that the Marines ($M = 94$, $SD = 13.55$) used males as its main campaign character in recruitment advertising significantly more often than was the case for the Army ($M = 83$, $SD = 5.18$), the Navy ($M = 81$, $SD = 11.00$) and the Air Force ($M = 81$, $SD = 16.89$).

Concerning minority character settings on the main character section, $F (97, 433) = 9.55$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .69$, Scheffe’s post hoc paired comparisons indicated that the Army ($M = 21$, $SD = 24.50$) and the Marines ($M = 19$, $SD = 22.99$) used minorities as main campaign characters in its recruitment advertising significantly more often than was the case for the Navy ($M = 10$, $SD = 31.11$) and the Air Force ($M = 12$, $SD = 18.43$).

In the case of minor campaign characters, the female character settings, $F (97, 433) = 16.43$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .77$, Scheffe’s post hoc paired comparisons indicated that the Army ($M = 31$, $SD = 16.95$) used females as minor campaign characters in its recruitment advertising
significantly more often than was the case for the Navy \( (M = 19, SD = 11.11) \), the Air Force \( (M = 19, SD = 9.91) \) and the Marines \( (M = 12, SD = 35.00) \).

An examination of minority character settings, \( F (97, 433) = 19.88, p < .01, \eta^2 = .70 \), Scheffé’s post hoc paired comparisons indicated that the Army \( (M = 41, SD = 8.12) \) used minorities as minor campaign characters in its recruitment advertising significantly more often than was the case for the Navy \( (M = 18, SD = 30.10) \), the Air Force \( (M = 23, SD = 21.90) \) and the Marines \( (M = 25, SD = 17.12) \).

In terms of “no minor character” settings, \( F (97, 433) = 13.58, p < .05, \eta^2 = .62 \), Scheffé’s post hoc paired comparisons indicated that the Marines \( (M = 27, SD = 41.89) \) used no minor characters settings in its recruitment advertising significantly more often than was the case for the Army \( (M = 18, SD = 65.40) \), the Navy \( (M = 19, SD = 44.17) \) and the Air Force \( (M = 21, SD = 34.50) \). The results of these analyses are presented in Table 5.18.

### Table 5.18 Means of the campaign characters used by the different services in the recruitment advertising

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>U.S. Military Service Branches (%)</th>
<th>Post Hoc (Scheffe)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Army</td>
<td>Navy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Main Character(s)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children or Infants</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minorities</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Celebrities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Professional Actors</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Main Character</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Minor character(s)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>81</th>
<th>78</th>
<th>83</th>
<th>88</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>37.19</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>16.43**</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children or Infants</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minorities</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>19.88**</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Celebrities</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Professional Actors</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>51.27</td>
<td>.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Minor Characters</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>13.58*</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Other Settings**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>0.4</th>
<th>0.8</th>
<th>1.1</th>
<th>0.3</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Presenters/spokes persons on camera</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other information sources appear</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>56.00</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Animated</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>.89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .01, *** = p < .001. Means with differing subscripts within rows are significantly different at the p < .05 level based on Scheffe’s post hoc paired comparisons.
Summary

Table 5.19 presented the results of this dissertation. In response to research hypothesis one through research hypothesis three, the independent samples \(t\)-Tests suggested that they partially confirm these hypotheses. More specifically, the Army used informational cue messages, external incentives and primary reference group images more often than transformational cue messages, internal incentives and secondary reference group images in its recruitment advertising for the all-volunteer force (AVF) era. In addition, the Navy and the Air Force used primary reference group images significantly more often than secondary reference group images during the AVF era.

In research question one, heroism images were used as a part of persuasive strategy and the results varied among the different services and generations. The Marines’ recruitment advertising in the 1990s and 2000s was more likely to use “becomes a hero” strategies, meaning that the principal characters or minor characters became heroes in the advertising more often than was the case for other generations. The Navy’s recruitment advertising in the 1990s was more likely to use “is a hero” strategies, which means that principal characters or minor characters were heroes at the beginning of the advertising, than was the case for other generations.

The testing results for research question two demonstrated that the Army’s recruitment advertising used physiological needs appeals and esteem needs appeals more often than was the case for the other military service branches during the AVF era. However, the Marines’ recruitment advertising used self-actualization needs appeals more often than was the case for the Army, the Navy, and the Air Force.
In the case of research question three, the Army and Marines were more likely to use spoken taglines, fast tempo music, and brand jingles in its recruitment advertising during the AVF era. The Navy’s advertising tended to use spoken taglines and brand jingles strategies; and the Air Force’s advertising preferred to make use of fast tempo music strategies.

Research question four involved the use of one-way MANOVA to examine the intercorrelations between the element of Theory of Planned Behavior, different services and generations in military recruitment advertising. The results of this analysis suggested that there were two main effects. These main effects were that the intercorrelation between services and normative beliefs and between services and control beliefs were reached a significant level. More specifically, the Air Force used normative beliefs to guide its persuasive strategies. The Marines used control beliefs strategies more often than other strategies and more often than was the case for the other services in its recruitment advertising during the AVF era. No interaction effects were found between the different services and generations.

Concerning research question five through research question seven, one-way ANOVA was conducted to examine visual appeal cues, advertising setting strategies, and campaign characters in the persuasive strategies used in recruitment advertising for the different services during the AVF era. The results demonstrated that these persuasive strategies varied among the different services. For example, Army recruitment advertising during the AVF featured an emphasis on civilian job training appeals, educational opportunities appeals, indoor advertising environment settings, and used minorities as its minor characters. The next chapter will interrogate and discuss the major findings in relationship to existing theoretical and empirical knowledge. The implications of this dissertation for advertising and persuasive communication theory and research will be considered and the limitations will be identified.
Table 5.19 **Summary of test results for research hypotheses and questions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research hypotheses and questions</th>
<th>Testing method</th>
<th>Testing results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1: Used informational cues more often than transformational cues</td>
<td>Independent samples t-Test</td>
<td>Partially support (Army)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2: Used external incentive cues more often than internal incentive cues</td>
<td>Independent samples t-Test</td>
<td>Partially support (Army)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3: Used primary reference group images more often than secondary reference group images</td>
<td>Independent samples t-Test</td>
<td>Partially support (Army, Navy, Marines)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ1: How heroism images have been used in advertising</td>
<td>Chi-Square</td>
<td>1. Becomes a hero: Marines, 1990s, 2000s 2. Is a hero: Navy, 1990s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ2: How Hierarchy of Needs appeals have been used in advertising</td>
<td>One-way ANOVA</td>
<td>1. Physiological needs: Army 2. Esteem needs: Army 3. Self-actualization needs: Marine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ4: How the Theory of Planned Behavior has been used in advertising</td>
<td>MANOVA</td>
<td>1. Main effect: Service branches X Normative belief, Service branches X Control belief 2. Interaction effect: No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ5: How have visual appeal cues been used in advertising</td>
<td>One-way ANOVA</td>
<td>Visual appeal cues were varied by different service branches.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ6: How have advertising setting strategies been used in advertising</td>
<td>One-way ANOVA</td>
<td>Advertising settings were varied among the different services.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ7: How have campaign characters setting strategies been used in advertising</td>
<td>One-way ANOVA</td>
<td>Campaign characters varied among the different services.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 6 Discussion

Discussion of Research Findings

Past research projects on U.S. military recruitment advertising were in order to determine examined the effects of using several approaches, including econometrics, surveys of volunteers’ decision-making procedures, and potential soldiers’ information-seeking behavior to explore the vital components of attracting contemporary American youths who are willing to serve their country.

This dissertation investigated the persuasive strategies of the U.S. military recruitment television advertising in the all-volunteer force (AVF) era. Persuasion theories, including the hierarchy of needs theory, the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), and P.E.S.T analysis were used to examine the military recruitment advertising for each branch of military service and different generations in order to explore manifest and latent tactics, executive cues, and advertising settings of the contents of recruitment commercials.

Role of advertising in U.S. military recruiting

Figure 6.1 presents the advertising expenditures of the U.S. DoD during the AVF era. The Army had the largest recruitment advertising budget for attracting Americans toward military services. There were two phases for the U.S. DoD’s recruitment advertising expenditures. The first phase is that the recruitment advertising expenditures increased at a relatively slow pace between 1973 and 1990. There were no large-scale military conflicts between 1973 and 1990s. The second phase is that advertising budgets increased rapidly after the early 1990s. More specifically, the total amount of military recruitment advertising of DoD in Fiscal Year 1973 was 85.5 million dollars and it is increasing continuously. The military
recruitment advertising budget reached 514 million dollars in FY 2010. All four service branches increased its recruitment advertising budgets since the early 1990s.

![Graph showing enlisted advertising resources FY 1973-2010 in current dollars](image)

**Figure 6.1 Enlisted advertising resources FY 1973-2010 in current dollars**
Source: U.S. GAO (2011)

The four services of DoD increased their recruitment advertising at beginning of the shortage of military manpower numbers which was in FY 1990. Figure 6.2 presents the recruiting goals and success rate from 1973 to 2010. The Army, Navy, and Air Force began to fail to meet its recruiting goals in the early of 1990s and returned to achieving its recruiting goals in the early 2000s. The Marines was a unique service which was able to maintain and meet its manpower goals relatively well in the 1990s when the others services experienced recruiting difficulties. The part of explanations for the Marines’ outstanding performance in 1990s was it
used specialty persuasive strategies to attract its own target audiences that will be presented later of this chapter. This dissertation will reexamine the persuasive strategies used by these four military services during the fiscal years when the DoD experienced improvements and difficulties meeting its recruiting goals. Moreover, the P.E.S.T factors were used to analyze the changing trajectories of persuasive strategies during the AVF era.

Figure 6.2 Active and reserve enlisted recruiting goals and success by service
Source: Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense, 2011

U.S. Military television recruitment advertising during 1973-1980

The Army was the first branch to respond to the AVF recruiting mission due to the expected of difficulty of recruitment circumstances (Rostker& Bernard, 2006). The analytical
results of the previous chapter demonstrated that the U.S. Army used persuasive strategies in its television commercials quite consistently and talked about what the Army looking for in Army personnel candidates in general for the future Army using a unique approach. More specifically, the Army used informational based messages that included external incentives, such as educational opportunities, civilian job training, and military training for attracting members of its potential target audiences. For example, the “Join the People Who Join the Army” series of commercial which were broadcast in 1978 used salaries and job training as the principal themes of its commercials. The Army also used fast- tempo music commercial jingles in this series of advertisements. The RAND Corporation conducted a survey on incoming soldiers in order to effectively evaluate the Army’s commercial which indicated that commercials which include fast- tempo jingles promoted better recall of such television advertisements (Buddin & Roan, 1994).

The U.S. Constitution spells out the power of Congress regarding the national defense. Congress can authorize rules for developing strategies and regulations for defense (Gates, 1970). The Gates Commission was authorized by Congress to determine the structure of the all-volunteer force (AVF) in 1969. Congress expected the AVF to consist of highly- educated soldiers, be a relatively small-sized force that could operate advanced- technology weapons on a worldwide basis. Another mission of the AVF was decreasing U.S. defense expenditure (Gates, 1970).

The Navy and the Air Force believed that the AVF would not create problems for its manpower recruiting, if it chose to use the same persuasive strategies as before the AVF era (Rostker & Bernard, 2006). The Navy and the Air Force used transformational cue messages, such as adventure, foreign-country settings, as part of its principal persuasive themes during the
1970s. This was the same strategy that was used during the draft era. The recruiting situation remained stable records American youths’ propensity serves in the Navy and the Air Force (Stockstill, 1970).

The Army became one of the most attractive services in the 1980s (Chu, 2005) which was an improvement from the early 1970s. The Army lost public’s support from marijuana abuse and racial discrimination scandals during the early 1970s (Hammond, 1998). Few American youths chose the Army for their military service career. The Army started treating recruiting in AVF era as a market selling mission which meant the military needed to compete with other job categories in the AVF era (Eighmey, 2006). Moskos (2005) indicated that U.S. military recruiting in the AVF era had shifted from an institutional job which emphasized self-sacrifices and duty toward the country to an occupational job which focused on the benefits and external incentives. Chu (2007) believed that the focal point that drove the Army’s recruiting success during the late 1970s was that the Army conducted research on understanding its target audiences and changed its persuasive strategies to “fit” the psychological framework of contemporary American youths interested in military careers.

Goldich (1984) indicated that the DoD was concerned that the AVF would become a “poor people’s” Army, and that the Gates Commission believed that the target audiences of the Army would be drawn from the lower socioeconomic classes. Such potential recruits saw a lack of formal education, lack of job training, lack of opportunities, and lack of money for survival in American society of the 1970s, especially the U.S. experienced two oil embargos, a stock market crash and a job market crash during the 1970s.

Moskos (1977) demonstrated that American society in the mid-1970s was in relatively unstable circumstances due to the end of the Vietnam War. Young people sought job
opportunities in order to survive. For example, the Army instituted the “Be All You Can Be” commercials to provide $36,000 for educational opportunities and job training to send a positive message that told potential soldiers that the Army was a place where they can grow.

Concerning political circumstance, President Carter replaced President Ford in 1977. He nominated Harold Brown to be the first Secretary of Defense to manage all-volunteer manpower personnel issues (Segal, 1989). Brown assigned Dr. John White, a senior Vice President of the RAND Corporation to conduct a research and expenditure evaluation of the AVF manpower system (Segal, 1989). The RAND Corporation’s report on the AVF era provided support for the Gates Commission’s decision. This meant that the AVF would decrease the financial pressures on the U.S. government and maintain the quality of the country’s national defense with professionalism and relatively small unit military manpower structures (Dertouzos & Garber, 2006).

However, the AVF did not operate smoothly. Senator Nunn and the Senate Subcommittee on Manpower and Personnel offered two types of criticism, including the cost of the AVF and the quality of people that the DoD attracted (Rostker & Bernard, 2006). Senator Nunn believed that the personnel expenditures in the national defense budget would increase and that the weapon systems development budget would decrease. The U.S. government would lose the leadership position in the fight against Communism (Rostker & Bernard, 2006).

In response to the criticism from Senator Nunn, the DoD developed persuasive strategies for AVF manpower recruiting. The Pentagon tried to avoid increasing the AVF budget rapidly. It recognized that the DoD needed to offer American youths a bright and clear future. It launched a “two-year service program” to recruit people with high school diplomas. The DoD also promised that educational opportunities and job training would be available during period of
military service. These forms of compensations became the primary persuasive strategies in the television recruitment advertising during the 1970s.

_U.S. military television recruitment advertising during 1981-1990_

According to the analysis results of the chapter five, the Navy used transformational cue messages to motivate American youths seeking opportunities for self-actualization in military services as part of its persuasive strategies for the 1980s. For example, in the “It’s Not Just a Job, It’s an Adventure” series commercials, the Naval administration used self-actualization cue messages to present the features of the Navy service which involved advanced-technology weapons as part of its worldwide operations.

The Office of Naval Research (ONR) questioned that the recruiting policies of the Army which focused on American youths with high school diplomas, and claimed that such activities sought to “raise enlistment standards to unrealistic levels” in 1977 (Warner, 1990). However, the YATS reported that the Army’s recruiting mission in the late 1970s was successful in meeting the DoD’s expectations (YATS, 1985).

The Center for Naval Analysis (CNA) conducted a series of studies in the early 1980s that sought to forecast next-generation manpower structure (Bormam, et al., 1980). The results demonstrated that the Navy and Marines would face manpower shortages within three years if the Navy failed to show improvement in fulfilling its recruiting mission (Bormam, et al., 1980). Preliminary suggestions of the CAN recruiting report indicated that the Navy and the Marines should seek to motivated American youths with an elaborate approach that should include a focus on target audiences’ significant influencers and make use of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs model to motivate youths to a higher achievement level (Bormam, et al., 1980). Another implication of CAN’s research on the Navy’s recruiting was that it focused on the key
influencers of American youths. The “Live Is Adventure” commercials broadcasted in 1986 was the first DoD’s recruitment advertising which included the parents of youth and presented the parents’ positive attitudes regarding allowing their offspring to serve in the Navy.

An examination of the Army’s recruiting during the 1980s, the overall propensity toward serving in the Army improved. The Army kept enlarging its recruiting pool during this decade. The RAND Corporation conducted follow-up research regarding how to increase the quality of its manpower (Bailey, 2007). One significant implication of the Army’s recruiting was that it updated its persuasive strategies in order to keep up with demographic changes in the United States (Brown, 2006). Warner (1990) evaluated the continuing success of Army’s recruiting mission in the 1980s. He indicated that the Army had emphasized its recruiting attention from American youths in general to Black and Hispanic. Also, females became one of their target audiences during the 1980s. Kirby (2000) believed that the increase in the number of minorities and female soldiers increased in the U.S. Army allowed the Army to maintain a high percentage of high-quality manpower during the late 1970s.

The Army selected Blacks, Hispanics, and females to be its principal characters and minor characters in the 1980s significantly more often than in the 1970s. For example, the “Be All You Can Be” series of commercials were the predominant Army commercials during the 1980s. 95% of the Army’s advertising budget was spent on this series of commercials (Gebicke, 1998) and 93% of these commercials used minorities and females as its principal or minor characters.

In the case of Air Force recruiting in the 1980s, the Air Force administrators believed that Air Force soldiers needed to be highly professional in order to manage new types of technology weapons and exhibit loyalty strong loyalty the country (Ash, 1989). The Air Force used
persuasive strategies that were similar to those used by the Navy in the 1980s. However, the Air Force administration also included normative belief messages in its recruitment advertising. For example, the “Aim High” series commercials broadcasted during the 1980s was used “Air Force, the guard of the country” to be the spoken tagline when presenting the value of loyalty toward the country. Another feature of Air Force recruitment advertising was the Air Force administration’s emphasis on the new technological weapons in its commercials for purpose of creating a high-technology image regarding the Air Force in the mind of the public on a consistent basis. One can find this persuasive strategy in Air Force’s recruitment advertising all of the individual decades.

The DoD took notice of the economic recession that occurred in the early 1980s as constituting another factors for encouraging American youths to consider serving in the military because it offered middle-upper level of income and job training opportunities (Chu, 2007). Moskos (2005) also believed that the DoD took advantage of this opportunity instituted new policies to improve monetary compensation, the work place environment, and its public image to create a “Golden Age” for the AVF recruitment.

U.S. military television recruitment advertising during 1991-2000

The data represented in pervious chapter demonstrated that the predominant persuasive strategies of the Army used in recruitment advertising during the AVF era were external incentives, such as salaries, monetary compensation for education, and job training. However, the frequency with which the Army used internal incentives, such as duty toward the country and to being the guardian of the freedom of society in its recruitment advertising increased from 0.41 times per commercial to 0.98 times per commercial. For example, the “Be All You Can Be” series of commercials used during the Desert Storm Action focused on the honor of serving in
the military. Meanwhile, the Army used foreign images and battle fields as its major advertising background settings. The differences in the Army’s persuasive approach can partially explain the improvement in the Army’s manpower quality during the warfare period, because the focal point of the recruitment strategy during the war time was using transformational cue messages to encourage youths serving for their country.

The Marines were the best performing service with respect to recruiting during the 1990s. The other services had difficulties meeting recruiting goals starting in 1991. For example, the Army’s recruiting soldiers number were 9% under its goal and Navy’s recruiting soldiers number were 10.5% under its manpower needs in the mid-1990s. The Marines’ recruiting numbers were 1% over its recruiting goal during the 1990s (See Figure 6.2).

The persuasive strategies of the Marines included an emphasis on transformational cue messages and internal incentives, such as duty to the country and honoring American society to motivate American youths to serve in the Marines. Maslow’s hierarchy of needs model was used to develop the Marines’ recruitment advertising. It was focused on arousing target audiences’ needs for esteem and needs for self-actualization within the adventure and physical development settings. The Marines also provided highly control belief cue messages in its recruitment advertising during the 1990s. For example, the “The Few, The Proud, the Marines” series of commercials used large numbers of images of the principal and minor characters, either depicting them as heroes or as being in the process of becoming heroes by virtue of being in the Marines. The Marines sent out the positive control belief messages to its target audiences for the purpose of making American youths believe that they can have successful careers and become heroes if they choose to serve in the Marines.
Segal (1989) predicted the Marines’ recruiting success in relationship to its recruiting mission for the next decade. More specifically, he believed that Moskos’s Institution/Occupation theory (See Chapter Two) might not be suitable for the contemporary American military. He demonstrated that the public image and public support for the DoD have significantly improvement since the AVF manpower system began. An institutional perspective cannot be used to analyze the motivations which trigger American youths to choose to serve for their country during the early stages of the AVF era (Segal, 1989). Caforio (2009) indicated that the monetary compensation is a necessary, but not a sufficient condition for youths considering their futures, especially as regards serving their country.

Kirby, et al. (2000) stated that the AVF put the military services into the job market to compete with other occupations for manpower. However, the features of military services still have a strong connection with altruism, such as duty to the society and self-sacrifices for others. The enlistment decision-making model (See Chapter One) indicated that the enlistment decision cannot be made using only a single consideration; it involves a synthesis of three primary elements, including attitudes, norms, and self-efficacy. A military service seeking successful volunteer recruiting goals completion rates needs to determine how to influence its target audiences using multiple dimensions of behavioral decision-making.

One significant concern of the Gates Commission in 1970 regarding the AVF system was the ability of the U.S. military to operate during a war (Gates, 1970). The Desert Storm Action in the 1990/1991 provided a chance to test this concern in a warfare environment. The Secretary of the Army during the Desert Storm Action indicated that the AVF operated well in a warfare environment and demonstrated a high degree of self-regulation which had not been seen in the context of the draft system (Rumsfeld, 2003). More specifically, this action showed that the
contemporary Army had a large percentage of Blacks, Hispanics, and female soldiers who demonstrated skill, excellence, leadership, and professionalism in the military services (Rumsfeld, 2003).

Since the time when the Gates Commission decided to launch the AVF, military personnel managers and the research institutions attempted to encourage American youths to serve their country. However, the DoD never managed manpower recruiting issues when the country suffered conflict since 1973, the year of the AVF began. The Army Research Institute (ARI) conducted the “Project A” from 1983 to 1991 to explore the factors which influence soldiers’ final enlistment behavior. Project A was the largest single research that ever undertaken in the history of military personnel research (Campbell, 1990). There were two primary results that emerged from this project: one is that, a military unit organized by higher quality personnel would have better performance in the battle fields; the other result is that American youth who have high school diplomas did not hesitate to join the military when the country was engaged in conflicts. The percentage of soldiers has high school diplomas in the Army increased from 91% to 97% in the FY 1990 (Campbell, 1990).

The U.S. military was facing the drawdown of enlistment numbers during the 1990s. The military was facing a recruiting dilemma. One part of dilemma was that the DoD accepted youths who with General Educational Development (GED) certificates into the military in order to meet its recruiting goals. The other part of the dilemma was that the DoD was seeking higher-quality manpower after the Desert Storm Action. Secretary of Defense Donald Rumsfeld (1990) announced in his first Quadrennial Defense Review (QDR) that the DoD was rethinking the American military manpower structure. He demonstrated that one of the primary missions of the Desert Storm Action was learning regarding military operations in the post-Cold War period.
The first QDR predicted that the modern warfare was in a “Transformation” stage and moving away from a term of “Major theater war” (MTW) and towards “major regional conflict” (MRC). The manpower needs were different for these two different types of warfare models. The MTW model represented the idea that the primary conflict would occur within the territory of the United States. The Army was the principal force for responding to such an attack. The DoD would need a large Army deployed within the continental U.S. to manage this type of conflict. The MRC model represented the idea that the U.S. military needed to engage in conflicts that occur outside of the United States (Rumsfeld, 1990). In order to develop a rapid response military system for global missions, the Navy and the Air Force became the primary branches built around the idea of being the first responders to regional conflicts. The DoD also needed a large numbers of international affairs manpower and high-quality soldiers who could be trained for deployment around the world and survivals on the new, high-pressure, and professional battlefield (Rumsfeld, 1990).

The persuasive strategies of the Navy and Air Force’s recruitment advertising during the 1990s make use of advanced-technology weapons imagery combined with adventurous visual settings and self-actualization cue messages intended to encourage high-quality manpower to serve in these branches. For example, the Air Force’s “Above All” series commercial broadcasted in 1995 used the “I defend my country” theme, the “I fly above all and adventure” as the principal themes of the commercial. The Navy’s “Full Speed Ahead” series of commercials used the “U.S. Navy maintains the dynamic in the worldwide” to project a positive, professional, and adventurous image to the public.
U.S. military television recruitment advertising during 2001-2010

The persuasive strategies of the DoD’s recruitment advertising for all of the four services after the 9-11 attack used battlefield images as the principal advertising setting. In addition, internal incentives, such as training personnel to guard the country and adventure were used more often than last decades. For example, the Army’s “Army Strong” theme commercials used “Seeking dignity much bigger than yourself, discovering your adventure and give something back to your country”, the Marines’ “The Few The Proud The Marines” commercials used the theme “A path for a warrior, proud yourself.” The Air Force’s commercial “Above All” used theme “Right now, right here, no one is better suited to guard America than the Air Force”, the Navy’s commercial “Global Force For Good” commercials themes used “We are doing good for the people”. The principal themes of the DoD’s recruitment advertising during wartime, including the Desert Storm Action in 1990 and the Iraq War in 2003, made use of battle images and internal incentives to motivate American youths on a more frequent basis than during peacetime. The average frequency of use of internal incentives cue messages in recruitment advertising during wartime was 1.76 times per commercial, which exceeded the rate of 0.89 during peacetime.

By the time of the 9-11 attack, the U.S DoD was following the MRC warfare strategies that developed during the last decade to deploy Navy, Air Force, and Marines to Bosnia, Iraq, Persian Gulf to manage peacekeeping missions. The DoD also deployed the Navy, Army, and Air Force in the East Asia, including Japan and Korea to monitor regional relationships (Rumsfeld, 2004). The former Air Force Chief of Staff, General Larry Welch, believed that the DoD was suffering human resource challenges. Declining American public interest in military
services changed the DoD’s mission and operational tempo and most importantly caused a significant downsizing of the DoD’s workforce since the early 1990s (Rostker & Bernard, 2006). The DoD assigned David S. C. Chu to be the fourth Secretary of Personnel and Readiness. He was in charge of developing a flexible compensation system to replace the “one-size-fit all” approach which had provided each branch with flexible payment systems regardless of level of responsibility and skill.

After the 9-11 attack, the U.S. DoD launched the Iraq War for antiterrorism purposes in March 2003. In order to prepare for war action in the Middle East, a complex landscape consisting of multiple cultures in a sensitive region, the U.S. DoD’s manpower needed change. The Army, particularly the Rangers, became the significant fighting force in the Middle East (Chu, 2007).

The Gulf War in 2003 was different types of military action than any other war the United States America faced during the 20th century. The primary mission of the Gulf War was to rebuild the Afghanistan administration (Rumsfeld, 2004). The manpower needed for this type of military action required large numbers of the Army and Marines personnel for the purpose of managing conflicts in a complex landscape. Rumsfeld (2004) indicated that the U.S. DoD had to rebalance and reconstruct the force to increase the numbers of reserve soldiers and active duty soldiers before the manpower shortage crisis that the DoD expected to happen in five years to force the DoD return to a conscription system.

Former Defense Secretary Rumsfeld (2003) said that communicating with the public in order to increase the propensity of American youths toward military service is a primary mission in this decade. Advertising was recognized one of the elements needed for communicating with the public and attracting American youths serve for the country (Eighmey, 2006; Farrell, 2008;
The Army’s 2005 survey of volunteer soldiers’ information-seeking behavior demonstrated that television advertising was a factor that was important in the recruiting of soldiers. According to the DoD’s survey on new soldiers’ media using experience on 2005, 95% of American soldiers thought that recruitment advertising was an important channel for seeking information when they considered joining the military (Chu, 2006). The DoD’s AVF volunteer recruitment advertising expenditures reached a historical high level of about 5 billion dollars per year by the end of the 2010.

**Implications For U.S. Military Recruiting Strategies**

Comparisons of the most successful persuasive strategies of the four services in the each decade of the AVF were made. These comparisons included the Army’s recruitment advertising during the 1970s and 1980s, the Marines’ commercials during the 1990s, the Navy’s commercials during the 2000s, and the Air Force’s commercials during the 2000s. Two primary approaches can be proposed: first, expanding the range of external incentives, and, second, developing rationale internal incentives.

Concerning expending the range of external incentives, the DoD need to become more explicit about which goals soldiers can achieve during their military careers over the long term and the short term. Besides middle-up level pay, the high-quality manpower might also demanded quality-of-life benefits such as child care, health benefits, and family advocacy programs. For example, the Army’s “Army of The One” series of commercials often used family care as its primary theme in presenting “we care your family more than you imagination.” This persuasive approach was focused on family-friendly service was expected to increase the propensity of soldiers and their family members have a positive attitude toward serve in the U.S. military.
In terms of developing rationale internal incentives, the DoD needs to compete with other job opportunities in the job marketing in the AVF era. A well-defined rationale for military service beyond the pay rate, such as serving the people, duty to the country, giving back to society could be a valuable persuasive strategy. The U.S. government needs to develop a collective sense of the strategic mission it expects the armed forces to achieve in the international arena for the public, particularly for the soldiers. This persuasive approach is a long-term cultivation procedure for image-building which the Army advocated in its recruitment advertising during the 1970s. The Marines also emphasized this approach since the 1990s. The DoD needs to discover the balance between external incentive cues and internal incentive cues and present it in the limited amount of time allowed by television commercials.

**Implications For Future Academic Research**

The DoD, the Research Council of Congress, and the RAND Corporation conducted a variety of research studies of American youths’ enlistment behavior, information-seeking behavior, the significant influencers as regards serving in the military, and monitoring the propensity toward military service among contemporary American youths. Chu (2005) argued that the DoD spent nearly $400 million a year on recruitment advertising, but it is difficult to evaluate the effect of the recruiting effects of this advertising. The DoD was also unable to determine which persuasive strategies can trigger enlistment behavior among youths or increase their propensity toward military services. Moreover, the ultimate recruiting goal for the U.S. DoD is to find high-quality soldiers who can survive on the battlefield.

In order to meet the DoD’s recruiting needs, this researcher believes that future academic research on the DoD’s recruiting needs a long-term systematic and cross-services research project. This project should be organized by the warfare administration sector, the active soldiers’
manpower management sector, and the potential soldiers’ recruiting sector. In terms of the administration sector, an early prediction system for manpower needs should be developed. The manpower structure is changing continuously within the context of unstable international relationships and regional political relationships (Rumsfeld, 2004). The U.S. DoD needs to react appropriately before a new conflict emerges and impact the recruiting mission. Thus, an early determination of the features and numbers regarding manpower needs during the next conflict is the first part of future research.

For future research on the active soldiers manpower management sector, the DoD can recognize the best performance on the battlefield, and what the soldiers features are. These high-quality soldiers’ media usage habits, information-seeking behavior, enlistment behavior, and enlistment decision making procedure are valuable references for maintaining the recruitment rate for high-quality manpower recruiting rate. A long-term survey, observations, and experimental studies can be conducted to develop an in-depth understanding of the habits and preferences of these soldiers so that the DoD can determine the persuasive strategies that will be needed in the future.

In terms future research concerning the recruitment of potential soldiers, annual monitoring of the propensity of American youth to enlist is still needed. However, the DoD should avoid the mistakes that YATS poll made during the 1990s in collecting data the DoD did not need (See Chapter Two). The future research on DoD’s recruiting should focus on evaluating American youths’ media usage habits, primary career choice considerations, values and attitudes regarding military service, and the influence of significant others on career development. For example, Yeung and Gifford (2011) found that the Internet has become the primary information acquisition channel for contemporary American youth, whereas television was the primary
vehicle in the past. Potential soldiers will turn to the web after exposure recruiting commercials on television.

Follow-up information appears at the end of the television commercials, such as the recruiting website or a toll-free number, which creates another opportunity for the potential soldiers to be exposed to recruiting information twice. This research should be conducted periodically in order to develop a database for a long-term evaluation of persuasive strategies and the effects of internal incentives on recruitment advertising which uses the image-building approach.

In addition, the future research project needs to combine recruiting research based on these different approaches into a multi-methodology approach, such as using focus group to help explore and define prospective enlistment options which will then be tested using a large youth market survey to explore key factors for further experiments and quasi-experiments for determining optimal mix of incentives in its recruitment advertising.

The examination of the research hypothesis one and two indicated that the Army used informational cues and external incentive significantly more often than transformational cues and had an improvement on its recruiting mission in 1970s to 1980s. The large scale survey conducted by U.S. DoD in 2005 provided explanations for this phenomenon (Chu, 2006). This survey suggested that television was one of the popular medium since 1960s. Also it was important information acquiring channel of contemporary American youths. The U.S. Army conducted informational cues and external incentive cues based advertisement to provide its target audience clear and useful information about military service which would reinforce the propensity of American youths who did not resist military services.
However, the research hypothesis two demonstrated that the Marines used transformational cues more often than informational cues and received a significant recruiting success during 1990s. Segal (1989) forecasted this result in the late 1980s. He noted that military services in contemporary American society shifted from a pure occupational job to a mix concept that combined occupational job and institutional job. The U.S. DoD could not hit its recruiting goals by providing only external incentive. A transformation cues and internal incentive messages to trigger target audiences’ needs on a higher level of human needs, such as esteem needs and self-actualization need also should be a necessary element of the DoD’s recruiting policies.

The research hypothesis three suggested that the U.S. Army, Navy, and Marines used primary reference group images more often than secondary reference group images. The U.S. DoD increased the distribution of food stamps (SNAP) and housing compensation for military families (Chu, 2005) to influence the parents and spouses of potential soldiers. The Army’s recruitment advertising “Army of The One” series of commercials used more primary reference group image and testimonials regarding the benefits for families when family members serve in the U.S. military. For example, the Army used “That is the Army, I can get funding for college and good training. Dad, please!” Dialogue between family members was predominant settings of this period of Army recruitment advertising to present benefit not only for soldiers, but also for their family members. This provided part of explanation for research hypothesis three that is most of U.S. military branches used primary reference group images more often the secondary reference group image.
Study Limitations

This dissertation analyzed the persuasive strategies of the U.S. military recruitment advertising during the past four decades. Quantitative content analysis was used to discover the manifest and latent features of persuasive strategies. In addition, this researcher synthesized the results, strategic statements, enlistment numbers, Quadrennial Defense Review, and advertising expenditure records of each fiscal year in order to provide explanations regarding the effects of recruitment advertising. P.E.S.T analysis was used to analyze the external factors which might influence enlistment decision-making. The goal of this project is to provide a multi-dimensional analysis of persuasive strategies on the DoD’s recruitment advertising and to predict which elements of effective recruiting strategies are crucial.

However, recruiting is a complex process. There is no guaranteed route to success in achieving recruiting goals. The performance of recruiters and the raise of the Internet are also valuable variables for influencing the propensity and enlistment behavior of contemporary American youths toward military services. In terms of the performance of recruiters, the mission of the recruiters is to provide a face-to-face communication for the purpose of providing in-depth information about military services. Dertouzos (2006) indicated that the quality of recruiters and their performance are two strong indices for evaluating the success of recruiting missions.

Concerning the raise of the Internet, the Internet has become the most popular medium for the American youths since 1990s (Yeung & Gifford, 2011). The DoD provides recruiting information on the official website of four branches. In addition, all four services have created its own channels on social media, such as “Youtube”, “Twitter“, and “Facebook”. Further research can help analyze website recruiting efforts.

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Conclusion

In reviewing the persuasive strategies that were used in military recruitment advertising during the past four decades, it was noted that a variety of persuasive approaches were used. After examining historical enlistment numbers, advertising expenditures, government records on AVF recruiting, and P.E.S.T factors, it appears that there are three possible indicators for the success of manpower recruiting during the AVF era.

First, quantitative analysis was used to understand the relationship between incentives and enlistment behavior. Second, policymakers need to understand early that incentives, bonuses, compensation, and promotional opportunities rather than “rules and regulations” are the primary dynamic for achieving a high-quality manpower structure. Third, each branch identified its recruiting goal clearly and represented its features to the public appropriately.

As regards quantitative research on understanding its target audiences, the DoD and its services assigned research projects to a variety of institutions, including the RAND Corporation, the Office of Naval Research, the Center for Naval Analysis, the Army Research Institute, and the National Research Council (See Chapter Two). This was completed to determine which factors increase the propensity of contemporary American youths to consider military service and influence their final enlistment decisions. These research institutions examined the enlistment behavior using a multi-dimensional approach. For example, the RAND Corporation used an econometric approach to demonstrate the effects of recruitment advertising. The Center for Naval Analysis and the Army Research Institute used long-term surveys and interviews to understanding the demographics and media seeking habits for its soldiers for analyzing focal factors which influence youths’ enlistment behavior. The National Research Council conducted annual surveys of national American youths to monitor the trajectory of changes among youths.
concerning on their careers. These research results provided the DoD with a scientific basis for developing its persuasive strategies and incentives to attract their potential target audience serve in the military.

In the case of policymakers of the U.S. administration, President Nixon followed the Gates Commission’s suggestions regarding adjusting military salaries and retirement plans (Gates, 1970). The President Carter increased recruitment advertising expenditures when the RAND Corporation reported that the DoD needed to communicate benefit of AVF with the U.S. public (Buddin & Roan, 1994). The Bush administration created a flexible payment system after the Secretary of Defense, Rumsfeld suggested that the manpower system needed to change in order to support the regional conflict warfare type (Rumsfeld, 1990). The U.S government can make adjustment on compensation, salaries, promotions, and communication channel appropriately to provide resources for recruiting.

The third indicator was that the each service can identify its own target audience and communicates with the public using suitable persuasive strategies. Warfare strategies are primarily determined by international relationships and the U.S. foreign policies (Rumsfeld, 1990). For example, the primary threat to the U.S. during the Cold War was the Soviet Union and its nuclear weapons. Any possible conflict between the U.S. and USSR was expected occur within the U.S. territory. Thus, large units of the Army deployed national wide was the principal warfare strategy. The Army needed to recruit large number of soldiers to manage its territorial defense missions. During the post- Cold War era, conflicts were expected to occur outside of the U.S. territory, primary in the Eastern Europe and the Middle East (Chu, 2005). Such conflicts were expected to be of relatively small size and launched in a complex landscape featuring a multi- cultural environment. The Navy and the Air Force were the focal point for worldwide deployment for the
purpose of managing conflicts in a rapid pace (Rumsfeld, 2004). The U.S. DoD has adapted its updated manpower structure over time and adjusted its recruiting goals in order to acquire appropriate human resources over the past four decades.

The Army achieved a successful recruiting record during the 1970s and 1980s using clear external incentives, including increased salaries, educational opportunities, and job training. However, the same persuasive strategies did not work out as well during the 1990s. The Marines focused on internal incentive, including duty to one’s country, guarding society and leadership for their future, experienced the best recruiting results among these four services since in 1990s. Persuasive strategies should be adapted to reflect changes in the interests of American youths, public support for the military, international political relationships, economic circumstances in the United States America, and warrior technology development. The decision- making procedure of the potential soldiers also influences the development of the persuasive strategies used in recruitment advertising was a complex and multi-factorial process. The U.S. DoD needs to synthesize the multi-dimensional factors mentioned above to discover the best persuasive strategies continuously that can be used to maintain the leading position for global military force development.
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Appendix A Coding Instrument

The U.S. Military Recruitment Advertising During All-Volunteer Force Era Coding Sheet

V1 Case ID# _______ V2 Coder initials _______

V3 Series Name: ____________________________________________________________
PRINT NEATLY

V4 Ad Title: _______________________________________________________________
PRINT NEATLY

V5 Color:
<1> All Color
<2> B & W
<3> Mixed

V6 Publish Year: _______

V7 Service Category
1> Army
2> Navy
3> Air Force
4> Marine
If category is not listed or confusing, please write it here: _______________________

V8 Publish Institute
1> Department of Defense
2> Public Services Announcements

A. Hero Coding: A person who exhibits extraordinary bravery, firmness, fortitude, or greatness of soul, in any course of action, or sacrifice for the country.

V9 Main character in the spot becomes a hero
1> yes
2> no

Other hero type _______________________

V10 Main character in the spot is a hero
1> yes
2> no

B. Hierarchy of Needs (Maslow, 1954)

V11 Physiological Need Appeals: Breathing, Water, Food, Sex, Sleep, Homeostasis, or Money
0> Absence
1> 1 time
2> 2 times
3> 3 times
4> 4 times or more
V12 Safety Need Appeals: Security: Body, Employment, Resources, Family, Healthy, Property, or Country
0> Absence
1> 1 time
2> 2 times
3> 3 times
4> 4 times or more

V13 Love and Belonging Need Appeals: Friendship, Family, Sexual Intimacy, or Acceptance
0> Absence
1> 1 time
2> 2 times
3> 3 times
4> 4 times or more

V14 Esteem Need Appeals: Self-Esteem, Confidence, Achievement, Respect of others, or respect by others
0> Absence
1> 1 time
2> 2 times
3> 3 times
4> 4 times or more

V15 Self-Actualization Need Appeals: Morality, Creativity, Spontaneity, Problem Solving, Self-Fulfillment, or Money for Education
0> Absence
1> 1 time
2> 2 times
3> 3 times
4> 4 times or more

C. Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 2005)

V16 Attitudinal Belief: Convey positive attitude toward military services
0> Absence
1> 1 time
2> 2 times
3> 3 times
4> 4 times or more

V17 Normative Belief: Convey normative belief toward military services
0> Absence
1> 1 time
2> 2 times
3> 3 times
4> 4 times or more
V18 Control Belief: Convey people can have a success career opportunity in their military system
   0> Absence
   1> 1 time
   2> 2 times
   3> 3 times
   4> 4 times or more

D. Visual Appeal Cues (Frazer, Bartel & Patti 2002; Stewart, 2007)

V19 Adventure Appeal
   1> Presence
   2> Absence
   3> Can not code

V20 Civilian Job Training Appeal
   1> Presence
   2> Absence
   3> Can not code

V21 Military Job Training Appeal
   1> Presence
   2> Absence
   3> Can not code

V22 Credential Appeal
   1> Presence
   2> Absence
   3> Can not code

V23 Educational Chance Appeal
   1> Presence
   2> Absence
   3> Can not code

V24 Camaraderie Appeal
   1> Presence
   2> Absence
   3> Can not code

V25 Material Good/ Service
   1> Presence
   2> Absence
   3> Can not code

V26 Physical Development
   1> Presence
   2> Absence
   3> Can not code

V27 Social Approval
   1> Presence
   2> Absence
   3> Can not code

V28 Travel/ Entertainment Appeal
   1> Presence
   2> Absence
   3> Can not code

E. Comparisons (Stewart & Furse 1986; Gagnard & Morris 1988)

V29 Service categories- differentiating message
   1> Presence
   2> Absence
   3> Can not code
F. Typology of Recruiting Campaign Messages (Laskey, 1989; Fox & Crask, 1995; Yssel & Gustafson, 1998; Ramaprasadsad & Hasegawa 1992; Perloff, 2008)

V30 Informational/Rational OR Transformational/Emotional
a1> Informational (If yes, go to V31 and select the best overall answer from only choices 1-5)
   0> Absence
   1> 1 time
   2> 2 times
   3> 3 times
   4> 4 times or more
a2> Transformational (If yes, go to V31 and select the best overall answer from only choices 7-10)
   0> Absence
   1> 1 time
   2> 2 times
   3> 3 times
   4> 4 times or more

V31 Informational / Transformational Subcategories (multiple response questions)
   Please code with the frequency
   0> Absence
   1> 1 time
   2> 2 times
   3> 3 times
   4> 4 times or more

Informational
a1> External Incentive (show or explicitly mention benefit will be received)
a2> Unique Recruiting Proposition (explicit claims or assertions of uniqueness)
a3> Preemptive (factually based but no claim of uniqueness or mention of competition)
a4> Generic-Info (factual messages focused on service class)
a5> Other (informational but not included above, please describe)

Transformational
b1> Military Image (focus on the solders of a services branch and their lifestyle eg., duty and honor for the country)
b2> Branch Image Logo (image of military branch itself such as quality, prestige and/or status)
b3> Use Occasion (focus on the experience of serve the services branch)
b4> Other (transformational but not included above, please describe)
G. Auditory Devices and Music (Stewart & Furse 1986; Stewart & Koslow 1989; Frazer, Bartel & Patti 2002; Schreurs et al., 2009)

V32 Spoken Tagline
Devices:
1> Presence
2> Absence
3> Can not code

V33 Memorable Rhymes, Slogans or Mnemonic
1> Presence
2> Absence
3> Can not code

V34 Presence or absence of music in advertisements
1> Presence
2> Absence

V35 Music Tempo
1> Fast
2> Slow
3> Unidentifiable

V36 Is the music a brand jingle?
1> Presence
2> Absence

H. Advertising Setting (Gagnard & Morris 1988; Stewart & Koslow 1989; Frazer, Bartel & Patti 2002; Roskos-Ewoldsen et al., 2007)
(multiple response questions)

V37 Where is the commercial setting?
1> Apartment/housing
2> Gym/ training facilities
3> Generic office/business setting
4> Sea/ landmark
5> Foreign locale/landmark
6> Wild area
7> Mountainous area
8> Barracks
9> Other ________________________
10> Not applicable

I. Campaign Characters (Frazer, Bartel & Patti 2002)

Principle character(s):

V38 Principle character(s) male?
1> yes
2> no
3> Unidentifiable

V39 Principle character(s) female?
1> yes
2> no
3> Unidentifiable

V40 Principle character(s) child or infant?
1> yes
2> no
3> Unidentifiable

V41 Principle character(s) racial or ethnic minority?
1> yes
2> no
3> Unidentifiable
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Value 1</th>
<th>Value 2</th>
<th>Value 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>V42</td>
<td>Principle character(s) celebrity?</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>Unidentifiable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V43</td>
<td>Principle character(s) real people (not professional actors)?</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>Unidentifiable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V44</td>
<td>Principle character(s) animated?</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>Unidentifiable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V45</td>
<td>No principle character(s)?</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>Unidentifiable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minor character(s):</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V46</td>
<td>Minor character(s) male?</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>Unidentifiable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V47</td>
<td>Minor character(s) female?</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>Unidentifiable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V48</td>
<td>Minor character(s) child or infant?</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>Unidentifiable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V49</td>
<td>Minor character(s) racial or ethnic minority?</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>Unidentifiable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V50</td>
<td>Minor character(s) celebrity?</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>Unidentifiable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V51</td>
<td>Real person in minor role (not professional actors)?</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>Unidentifiable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V52</td>
<td>Minor character(s) animated?</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>Unidentifiable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V53</td>
<td>No minor character(s)?</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>Unidentifiable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Other Setting

**V54** Family and elder people characters?
- 1> yes
- 2> no
- 3> Unidentifiable

**V55** Reference group/ friends characters?
- 1> yes
- 2> no
- 3> Unidentifiable

**V56** Presenter/spokesperson on camera?
- 1> yes
- 2> no
- 3> Unidentifiable

**V57** Other information sources show up?
- 1> yes
- 2> no
- 3> Unidentifiable

### Any Other Comments or Observations?
Appendix B Code Book

U.S. Military Recruiting Advertisement All- Volunteer Force Era Code Book

Unit of Data Collection: Code each complete commercial

Case ID: Service Branch (A,N,M,AF)+ Year+ Series Number

Series Name: Primary series name. eg., Be all you can be; Army of one

Ad Title: The name show up at document

Color: All color, Black and White, and Mix setting

Publish Year:

Service Category: Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marine

Publish Institute: Institute paid the commercial: DoD or PSAs

Hero Coding: A man who exhibits extraordinary bravery, firmness, fortitude, or greatness of soul, in any course of action, or in connection with any pursuit, work, or enterprise; a man admired and venerated for his achievements and noble qualities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Operational Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main character in the spot becomes a hero</td>
<td>Main character is not a hero in the beginning of commercial, but he (she) becomes a hero.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main character in the spot is a hero</td>
<td>Main character is a hero in the beginning of commercial.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hierarchy of Needs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Operational Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Physiological Need Appeals</td>
<td>eg., Breathing, Water, Food, Sex, Sleep, Homeostasis, or Money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety Need Appeals</td>
<td>eg., Security: Body, Employment, Resources, Family, Healthy, Property, or Country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Love and Belonging Need Appeals</td>
<td>eg., Friendship, Family, Sexual Intimacy, or Acceptance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esteem Need Appeals</td>
<td>eg., Self- Esteem, Confidence, Achievement, Respect of others, or respect by others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self- Actualization Need Appeals</td>
<td>eg., Morality, Creativity, Spontaneity, Problem Solving, self- fulfillment, or Money for</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Theory of Planned Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Operational Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Behavior Belief</td>
<td>An individual's belief about consequences of particular behavior. The concept is based on the subjective probability that the behavior will produce a given outcome.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normative Belief</td>
<td>An individual's perception about the particular behavior, which is influenced by the judgment of significant others (e.g., parents, spouse, friends, teachers).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Belief</td>
<td>An individual's beliefs about the presence of factors that may facilitate or impede performance of the behavior.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Visual Appeals: Attraction produced primarily by visual stimuli

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Operational Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adventure Appeal</td>
<td>Applied disparagingly to any act or policy considered to be dangerous, e.g. as likely to involve the country concerned in war.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civilian Job Training Appeal</td>
<td>Soldiers will learn life skill or knowledge and can use it after their military career.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military Job Training Appeal</td>
<td>Soldiers will learn high military related skill or knowledge and can use it after their military career.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Credential Appeal</td>
<td>Soldiers will receive citification or written warrants recommending or entitling the bearer to credit or confidence when they serve in military.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Chance Appeal</td>
<td>Soldiers will receive additional education opportunities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camaraderie Appeal</td>
<td>A spirit of familiarity and trust existing between friends.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material Good/ Service</td>
<td>Soldiers will receive material compensation, such as food stamp when they serve in the military.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Development</td>
<td>Soldiers will have training for physical body strong when they serve in the military.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Themes</td>
<td>Operational Definition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Approval</td>
<td>Soldiers will have positive evaluation of an individual or group in a social context.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel/ Entrainment Appeal</td>
<td>Soldiers will have more travel and entrainment opportunities, when they serve in the military.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Comparisons**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Operational Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Service categories- differentiating message</td>
<td>The content of commercial provides comparison between military and other jobs or specific service branch.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Typology of Recruiting Campaign Messages**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Operational Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Informational/Rational Cue</td>
<td>Advertising that presents factual, usually verifiable, information about the US military service.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transformational/Emotional Cue</td>
<td>The advertising that associates product usage with certain feelings, images, or meanings that then transform the experience of using the product. For example, a transformational ad could make the experience of using a product warmer or more exciting.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Auditory Devices and Music**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Operational Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Memorable Rhymes, Slogans or Mnemonic Devices</td>
<td>Rhymes have the same final accented vowel and consonant sounds and a different consonant preceding that vowel. eg., alliteration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spoken Tagline</td>
<td>A statement at the end of the commercial that presents new information usually unrelated to the principal focus of the commercial. eg., &quot;Be afraid. Be very afraid.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presence or absence of music in advertisements</td>
<td>Dose any form of music show up during the commercial?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music Tempo</td>
<td>The speed at which a piece or passage of music is meant to be played</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is the music a brand jingle</td>
<td>A catchy, often musical advertising slogan.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Advertising Setting**

The dominate environment in the advertising content.

**Campaign Characters (Main and Minor Characters)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Operational Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Child or Infant</td>
<td>The characters are generally a human between the stages of birth and puberty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Racial or Ethnic Minority</td>
<td>The characters are black, Hispanic, or Asian.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Celebrity</td>
<td>eg., Actors, movie stars, singers, sport players.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real People</td>
<td>Non-professional actors</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Other Setting**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Operational Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family and elder people character</td>
<td>Family members, such as mother, father, and other members show up in the commercial.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference group/ friends characters</td>
<td>Secondary group, such as friends, teachers, and cohorts show up in the commercial.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presenter/spokesperson on camera</td>
<td>An advocate who represents military recruiting policy or information in the commercial.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other information sources show up</td>
<td>Other information, such as website and phone number show up in the commercial.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>