A FIELD EXPERIMENT FOR ANALYSING ORGANISATIONAL COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES AND OUTCOMES

By

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ABSTRACT

It is becoming increasingly difficult to justify major expenditures on public leisure programmes and infrastructure without taking more care in communicating to citizens the benefits associated with participation or even the existence of these resources. Despite this, the promotion of public leisure services is perhaps the least studied, and most misunderstood, aspect of the marketing mix. The purpose of this study was to increase our knowledge of promotion in a services context; more specifically, a leisure services context. To do this, consumers' responses to an organisation's communication efforts were investigated. Homecoming at the University of Waterloo was chosen as the venue for the field experiment because it is comprised of multiple events and therefore reflects, reasonable well, the variety and scope of what might be offered by a public leisure service agency. As summarised in A Conceptual Framework for Analysing Organisational Strategies and Outcomes, the responses that were of interest in this study were as follows: attitude toward the communication effort, post-exposure attitude toward Homecoming, recall of the communication effort, post-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming, behaviour, and post-event attitude toward Homecoming. Ultimately, this study attempted to assess the relative effectiveness of four communication efforts for communicating with potential consumers of leisure services. The first communication effort included in the field experiment was a brochure that contained only information about the event for Homecoming. This treatment represented the current standard in public leisure service agencies in terms of their communication efforts. Each subsequent communication effort represented a reasonable improvement on the current standard. The remaining communication efforts included in this study were as follows: brochure with information and persuasive messages, a website, and a personal appeal. Ultimately, organisations are concerned with the effectiveness of communication efforts as encouraging a particular behaviour. In the current study that behaviour was participation in Homecoming. Although there were no significant differences in the participation rates of subjects assigned to one of the four experiment groups, the majority of hypothesised relationships related to attitude, subjective norms, and intentions were significant in the hypothesised direction. In particular, there appears to be a number of variables that act as filters through which an organisation's communication efforts must past. These moderators influence an individual's pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming as well as their pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming. The moderators identified in this research included the following: past experience with Homecoming, involvement with Homecoming, commitment to the University of Waterloo, and subjective norms as they relate to Homecoming. The data suggest that the current standard of communication effort used by public leisure service agencies is less effective as compared to the other communication efforts included in this study. In addition, although subjects in this study viewed each communication effort positively, the current standard (i.e., the brochure with information only) elicited the least positive response. Finally, the data suggest that citizen's attitudes toward the services provided by public leisure service agencies can be improved merely by communicating with citizens. The conceptual model was generally supported by the data.

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To Dennis, Mom, and Dad

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE PROBLEM

1.1 Introduction

Public leisure providers have traditionally adopted a professional orientation to delivering leisure services (Johnson & McLean, 1996). More recently, new approaches to leisure programming have emerged "that emphasize a more dynamic role for citizens and/or clients in programming efforts" (Johnson Tew, Havitz, & McCarville, 1999, p. 2).

Marketing is one of these new approaches and although it has been discussed in the leisure literature for over twenty years, much confusion still surrounds its application in a public leisure service setting. Much of what has been written by the proponents of marketing in the last twenty years has been trying to overcome the confusion and negative connotations surrounding the use of marketing by public leisure service agencies (e.g., Crompton, 1984; Crompton & Lamb, 1986).

Crompton (1991) suggested that although marketing may appear simple, "there is a complex web of issues which require much greater consideration, knowledge, and understanding than they are generally accorded" (p. 213). Failure to fully comprehend these issues has resulted in the "misapplication of marketing principles or techniques" (Crompton, p. 213). Further, the miscomprehension of the concept of marketing, in general, has led to the belief that marketing, promotion, and advertising are synonymous. In fact, advertising is only one tool of promotion and promotion is only one aspect of marketing.

Despite the confusion surrounding marketing and its misapplication, it appears that marketing has gained favour over the past twenty years. However, important aspects of marketing have been virtually ignored. Indeed, promotion of public leisure services is virtually nonexistent in the leisure literature. A review of the *Journal of Park and*

Recreation Administration (1989 to 1999) and the *Journal of Applied Recreation Research* (1989 to 1999) revealed some interesting statistics. In total, less than 1% of the 372 articles published in these journals dealt with the promotion of public leisure services. Although promotion or more specifically, advertising, has been studied extensively in the marketing and business literature, the same cannot be said of the leisure literature.

In fact, promotion of public leisure services is perhaps the least studied, and most misunderstood, aspect of the marketing mix. Manfredo's (1992) edited book, *Influencing Human Behavior*, which deals with communication and more precisely persuasive communication, primarily in outdoor recreation contexts, is a prominent exception. Most of the book deals with how to persuade citizens once they are on site (e.g., reducing vandalism, reducing impact on the environment) however, it does not explicitly address the issue of getting people to the site. Persuading people to do things such as visit a site or facility or to register for classes, or giving them the information necessary to participate are two important applications of promotion that have been virtually ignored in the leisure literature.

Johnson Tew et al. (1999) noted that "recreation professionals, elected officials, and citizens have traditionally been distrustful of excessive promotion by public-sector agencies" (p. 16). However, it is becoming increasingly difficult to justify major expenditures on programmes and infrastructure without taking more care in communicating to citizens the benefits associated with participation or even the existence of these resources.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to investigate consumers' responses to an organisation's communication efforts. In doing so, there was an underlying objective of answering, at least tentatively, the following question, "What is the relative effectiveness of various methods for communicating with consumers and potential consumers of recreation and leisure programmes?" Furthermore, this study will provide a starting point from which further research can be undertaken for the express purpose of improving public leisure service agencies' communication with their citizens.

1.3 Promotion

Schmalensee (1983) suggested that "advertising has been extensively studied – probably more than any other aspect of marketing" (p. 49). Indeed, there are numerous academic journals dedicated solely to advertising (e.g., *International Journal of Advertising*, *Journal of Advertising*, *Journal of Advertising Research*, *Journal of Current Issues and Research in Advertising*). Furthermore, advertising, specifically, is the subject of numerous articles in other business-related journals (e.g., *Journal of Consumer Research*, *Journal of Marketing*, *Journal of Marketing Research*). However, promotion is more than just advertising as it encompasses an extensive range of media and methods. Indeed, the term promotion may not be the most accurate term to depict this extensive range.

Despite the emphasis on advertising in academic journals, there does appear to be general agreement, in the marketing literature, concerning what is included in the communications mix. Lovelock (1996) suggested that the marketing communications mix includes seven major elements: personal selling, customer service, advertising, sales

promotion, instructional materials, corporate design, and publicity, public relations, and sponsorship. Although Lovelock referred specifically to services marketing, the same communications mix can also be applied to products and events.

Similarly, Kotler, Armstrong, and Cunningham (1999) suggested that the communications mix includes five major elements (or communication modes) which are often used in combination. The five communication modes, as outlined by Kotler et al., are advertising, personal selling, sales promotion, public relations, and direct marketing. Beckman, Kurtz, and Boone (1992) suggested that the components of the communication mix are divided into personal (e.g., personal selling) and non-personal forms (e.g., advertising).

Beckman et al. (1992), like Kotler et al. (1999) suggested that organisations typically do not use just one form of communication to relay a message to a target market. Rather, elements of the communication mix are combined together "in an attempt to accomplish information and persuasion objectives" (Beckman et al., p. 475). Kotler et al. pointed out that communication goes beyond the specific promotion tools such as advertising or public relations. Rather, it includes all aspects of the product or service being offered such as the design and price of a product/service, a product's packaging including shape and colour, or even where the product/service is sold (Kotler et al.). Kwiatkowski (1998) suggested that these aspects contribute to the image of the product or service.

Lautenborn (1990) argued that the 4-P's of marketing (product, price, place, and promotion) are how marketing is viewed from an organisation's point of view and that from a consumer's point of view they would become the 4-C's (customer value, cost to

consumer, convenience, and communication). The two ways of looking at the components of marketing are contrasted in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1 The Components of Marketing: Two Viewpoints

Organisation's Point of View	Consumer's Point of View
Product/service	Customer value
Price	Cost to the consumer
Place	Convenience
Promotion	Communication

Source: Lautenborn (1990)

Utilising the term communication to represent all of the efforts an organisation makes to contact or remain in contact with consumers (i.e., users of its product or service) and potential consumers (i.e., users of a competitor's product or service; non-users) is more accurate and all-encompassing. Indeed, it appears that the term communication as opposed to promotion is becoming more widely used. For example, Kotler, McDougall, and Armstrong (1988), in their textbook, titled the first communication-related chapter Promoting Products: Communication and Promotion Strategy (p. 349). In contrast, Kotler et al. (1999), in an updated version of the textbook, titled the chapter Integrated Marketing Communication Strategy (p. 466).

Based on this argument, the term communication will be used as opposed to promotion. It must be noted however, that due to the emphasis on advertising in empirical studies, the term advertising will also be used (i.e., in direct quotes or referencing of ideas)

throughout this study however, effort will be made to use "communication" wherever possible. Please refer to Appendix A for an outline of the major concepts and terms, as well as the associated definitions, and short forms when applicable, that are used throughout this study.

1.4 Conceptual Development

Researchers have developed a number of models and theories of how communication efforts are developed and how consumers process these efforts. The following section outlines the models and theories that were incorporated into an overall model that served as the framework for this dissertation. Both the models and theories will be presented however, a detailed discussion of the various components will not be addressed until Chapter Two. The following section also serves as the conceptual basis by which the research hypotheses (presented in Chapter Three) were developed (i.e., nature and direction of the relationship between two study variables).

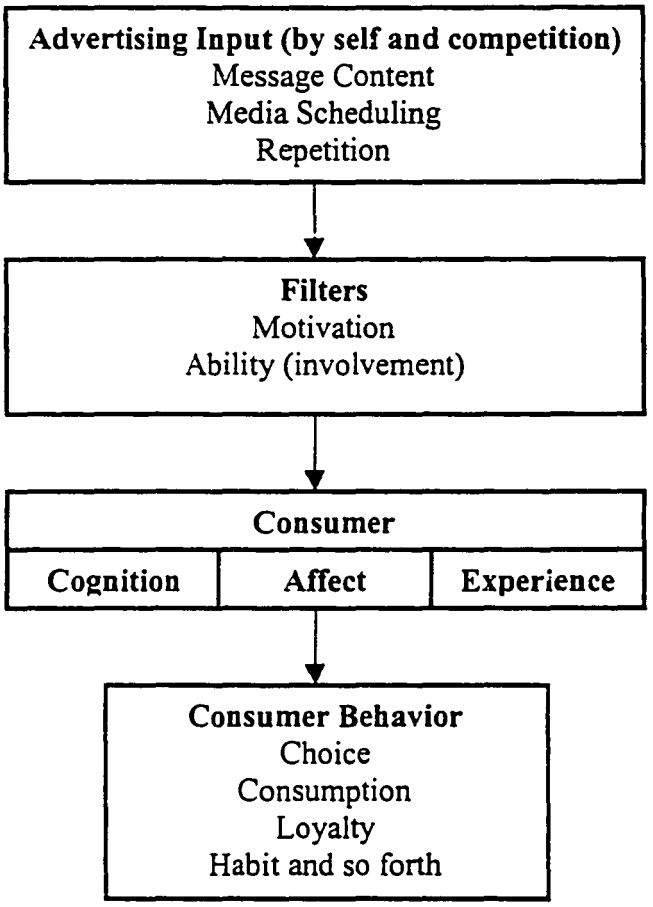
1.4.1 How Do Communication Efforts Work?

Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) suggested that organisations "should be concerned with how advertising affects consumers [and] how it works, in order to formulate more effective advertising strategies" (p. 26). No one really knows how advertising influences consumer behaviour and as a result a lot of money, amounting to as much as $130 billion (US) world wide, is wasted on ineffective advertising annually (Vakratsas & Ambler, 1996). Therefore, formulating more effective communication strategies is important for all types of organisations including public leisure service agencies.

Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) and Ambler (1998) suggested that there are seven types or forms of models to explain how advertising works however, they argued that the models are all variants on simple components; experience, cognition (thinking), and affect (feelings). Vakratsas and Ambler offered this analogy to describe experience: "for most products . . . the consumer's mind is not a blank sheet awaiting advertising but rather already contains conscious and unconscious memories of product purchasing and usage" (p. 27). Vakratsas and Ambler note that these memories include past experience with the purchase and use of the product or service in general or a particular brand of the product or service, as well as past communication by the organisation. Therefore, prior experiences with a product or service as well as the past messages received about it will affect the way that current communication about that product or service is processed.

Cognition refers to the thinking aspects of communication efforts such as the information that is provided. A purely cognitive view of communication efforts assumes that consumers' decisions are rational and based on information provided. The affect component, in contrast, is related to feelings that an advertisement evokes (e.g., Aaker, Stayman, & Hagerty, 1986). Based on the three components (i.e., cognition, affect, experience) inherent to all the models depicting how advertising works, Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) developed a "framework for studying how advertising works" (p. 26). Their framework is outlined in Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1 A Framework for Studying How Advertising Works



Source: Vakratsas and Ambler (1999, p. 26)

Although this framework is useful for organising how advertising works, it lacks detail in certain areas, such as input by the organisation. Furthermore, there are a number of filters or potential moderators (to be discussed later) that have not been included but which may affect how consumers receive or process the communication effort(s) of an organisation. Despite these shortcomings, the model presented by Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) will serve as a major component of the final dissertation framework because it provides some essential components for studying communication efforts. Various

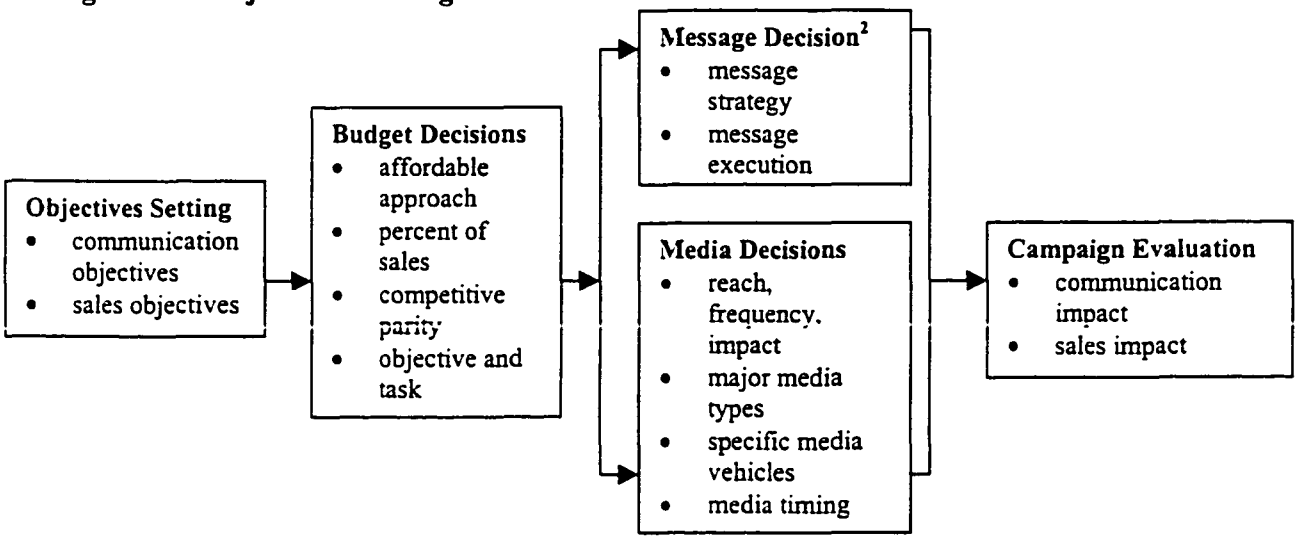
modifications will be made to the original framework presented by Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) in order to address some of the shortcomings. The model of major advertising decisions developed by Kotler (1980) will serve to provide some details, from the organisation's perspective, that are lacking in the model presented by Vakratsas and Ambler (1999).

1.4.2 Developing Communication Efforts

Kotler (1980) and his colleagues (Kotler et al., 1988; Kotler et al., 1999) developed a model outlining the decisions that marketing managers must make when developing a communications/advertising programme. Although Kotler developed this model several decades ago, the most current version is presented in this study. This model, depicted in Figure 1.2, will be incorporated into the framework that guides this dissertation.

Although this process was presented as specifically relating to advertising, it can also apply to an organisation's entire communication effort (e.g., personal selling, corporate identity logo). As Beckman et al. (1992) and Kotler et al. (1999) suggested, organisations typically use more than one method (as opposed to relying solely on advertising) to communicate with consumers and potential consumers. Organisations that choose to include more than advertising in their communications effort(s) will likely follow a similar process, to the one Kotler et al. outlined for major advertising decisions.

Figure 1.2 Major Advertising[1] Decisions



Source: Kotler et al., (1999)

[1]Kotler et al. (1999) used the term advertising.
[2]Message decision was originally comprised of message generation, message evaluation and selection, and message execution (Kotler, 1980; Kotler et al, 1988) however, in 1999 Kotler et al. combined message generation and message evaluation and selection into message strategy.

The model presented in Figure 1.2 was developed from the viewpoint of the organisation and, as such, does not include consideration of consumers' processing of communication efforts. Kotler et al.'s (1999) model will serve as the role an organisation has in the overall framework of communication efforts. As such, it will be presented in conjunction with the framework presented by Vakratsas and Ambler (1999).

1.4.3 Consumers' Processing of Communication Efforts

Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) outlined a number of factors that affect consumers' processing of organisations' communication efforts however, a review of the literature revealed additional factors that may serve to mediate consumers' responses to an organisation's communication effort(s). These factors will be discussed in the order of their relative positions in the final study framework (presented in Figure 1.3).

1.4.3.1 Involvement with the Communication Effort

The degree to which an individual is involved with the communication effort (e.g., paying attention, not paying attention) mediates his/her processing of the communication effort and its content. Petty and Cacioppo (1981) suggested that an individual's level of motivation and ability to process communication efforts will lead to either central or peripheral processing. Persuasion (i.e., attitude change, behavioural intent, actual behaviour), resulting from communication efforts, appears to be dependent on the effort a person puts into thinking about (elaborating on) the arguments presented in the message (Petty & Cacioppo).

1.4.3.2 Potential Moderators

Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) suggested that an individual's response to an organisation's communication efforts is mediated by a number of factors. They further suggested that "these mediating factors can alter or radically change response to advertising" (p. 27) and therefore can be viewed as filtering an organisation's communication efforts. Vakratsas and Ambler suggested that these filters include an individual's motivation and ability to process communication efforts.

Researchers have identified a number of other factors that may serve to filter an organisation's communication efforts including past experience with the product or service, involvement with the product or service, commitment to the sponsoring organisation, subjective norms, and prior brand attitudes. Each of these potential moderators will be discussed in the following subsections.

1.4.3.2.1 Past Experience

Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) suggested that a consumer's past experience with a product or service will affect how s/he processes new information about the product or service (e.g., is the new information consistent with his/her previous experiences). In addition to affecting a consumers' processing of an organisation's communication efforts, studies have shown that past experience increases a consumers' intention to participate or purchase in the future (e.g., Sonmez & Graefe, 1998). In some cases past experiences have more influence on future decisions than do communication efforts of organisations (Mazursky, 1989) or stated intentions (e.g., Sheeran, Orbell, & Trafimow, 1999). As such it is expected that past experience(s) will lead to greater participation, independent of the communication effort used by the organisation. Furthermore, past or direct experience contributes to the formation of current attitudes toward a product or service (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

1.4.3.2.2 Involvement with the Product or Service

The concept of involvement with a product or service has been extensively studied in the consumer behaviour, leisure, and marketing literature. Studies have shown that involvement affects the way people think about products and services (e.g., Havitz & Dimanche, 1990, 1999), the way they process communication efforts (e.g., Celsi & Olson, 1988), their intentions to participate or purchase (e.g., Kim, Scott, & Crompton, 1997; McIntyre, 1992), and their level or frequency of purchase or participation (e.g., Backman & Crompton, 1989; McCarville, 1991). Thus, involvement is an important variable to include in the development of a communication process and effects model as it might explain variations in the way recipients of communication efforts process the message as well as

their attitude toward the communication effort, their intent to participate before receiving the communication, and their actual participation. For example, for those who are highly involved in Homecoming, the communication effort may have no effect on their intent to participate (i.e., they would have participated without exposure to the communication effort).

1.4.3.2.3 Commitment to the Sponsoring Organisation

One premise of organisational commitment is that individuals are not passively loyal to the organisation but actively participate in activities that lead to the wellbeing of the organisation (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Furthermore, highly committed individuals believe in the goals and values of the organisation to which they are committed (Mowday et al.). Although little research has been conducted regarding individuals' commitment to a sponsoring organisation (e.g., hosting the event), it can be expected that individuals who are highly committed to an organisation will want to engage in activities that are of benefit the organisation as a whole and that are consistent with its goals and values. In addition, the level of commitment that an individual has, toward the sponsoring organisation, may influence his/her processing of that organisation's communication efforts (e.g., highly committed individuals may be predisposed to view the communication effort in a positive manner).

1.4.3.2.4 Subjective Norms

Subjective norms consist of an individual's evaluation of what s/he believe friends and other important people think about him/her engaging in a particular activities (e.g., attending Homecoming) as well as that individual's motivation to comply with important

others. In the Theory of Reasoned Action, subjective norms are theorised to influence an individual's intention to perform a behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Subjective norms may also play a role in the development of prior brand attitudes (Bentlar & Speckart, 1979). Schiffman and Kanuk (1994) suggested, subjective norms may provide an answer to why individuals behave in a certain manner (e.g., participate or do not participate in Homecoming).

1.4.3.2.5 Pre-Exposure Intentions

Individuals, before exposure to an organisation's communication efforts, will often have a certain level of intention to perform a given behaviour (e.g., purchase a particular product or service, participate in Homecoming). The Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) suggests that intentions are the best predictor of actual behaviour. Intentions to perform a behaviour are based on a number of factors including subjective norms (Ajzen & Fishbein) and attitude toward the product or service (Ajzen & Fishbein). However, an individual's intentions are influenced by a number of other factors such as past experience (e.g., Sonmez & Graefe, 1998), involvement (e.g., McCarville, Crompton, & Sell, 1993) and commitment (e.g., Kim et al., 1997).

1.4.3.2.6 Pre-Exposure Attitude toward the Brand

Even before exposure to an organisation's communication efforts, and even without direct experience with the product or service, an individual will often form an attitude toward a behaviour, product, or service (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). According to the Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), an individual's attitude toward a behaviour will lead, through intentions, to the performance (or non-performance) of a

behaviour. Individuals will used their prior brand attitude to evaluate the information presented in an organisation's communication efforts (Gardner, 1983). Edell and Burke (1987) found that those individuals who had a positive attitude toward the brand prior to being exposed to a related communication effort also had more positive attitudes toward the communication effort. Furthermore, even without an organisation's communication efforts, an individual may have a pre-formed attitude toward the product, service, or behaviour, based on direct or indirect experience, which can lead to eventual action (e.g., purchase the service, participate in a specific leisure activity).

1.4.3.3 Outcomes of Communications Processing

An individual's processing of an organisation's communication efforts will lead to various outcomes. The most obvious outcome is the action that a consumer takes (i.e., his/her behaviour) after processing the communication effort (e.g., purchase the product or service, register for swimming lessons, stop smoking). Organisations have traditionally focussed on this outcome level (e.g., number of sales). However, there is another series of outcomes with which organisations should be concerned, particularly when evaluating a communications campaign. This series can be considered level one outcomes as they will typically act as moderators of an individual's behaviour (level two outcome).

1.4.3.3.1 Attitude toward the Communication Effort

MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch (1986) found that an individual's 'attitude toward an advertisement' can affect his/her attitude toward the brand (or product or service) portrayed in the advertisements. They further found that a positive attitude toward the brand leads to increased likelihood that the consumer will intend to purchase the "advertised" brand.

Other researchers have also found support for the effects of attitude toward the communication effort on post-exposure attitude toward the product, service, or behaviour (e.g., Homer, 1990; Miniard, Bhatla, & Rose, 1990). Although the majority of research in this area has focussed specifically on consumers' attitudes toward an advertisement, the findings may also apply to the broader range of an organisation's communication efforts.

1.4.3.3.2 Recall

Just as consumers' attitude toward an organisation's communication effort affects their post-exposure attitude toward the brand, recall is also considered a measure of advertising effectiveness (e.g., Zinkhan, Locander, & Leigh, 1986). Zinkhan et al. also noted that the amount that an individual recalls of a communication effort can be influenced by that individual's attitude toward communication effort (i.e., how much s/he liked it). Further, Preston (1982) suggested that awareness of a product, service, issue, or programme may lead to a desired behaviour (e.g., purchase, participation, or agreement). Eagly and Chaiken (1993) noted that retention of a message (measured by a individual's recall of the communication effort over time) may influence a consumer's subsequent behaviour (e.g., purchase the product or service, participate in Homecoming).

1.4.3.3.3 Post-Exposure Attitude toward the Brand

MacKenzie et al. (1986) and Homer (1990) found evidence that an individual's attitude toward an organisation's communication effort has a mediating effect on his/her attitude toward the brand (i.e., that which is being 'promoted'). This mediating affect may result in a change in the individual's attitude toward the brand or may serve to strengthen existing attitudes toward the brand. An individual's post-exposure attitude toward the brand

has a direct impact on his/her intentions to perform a behaviour which should subsequently lead to the behaviour being performed (e.g., Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; MacKenzie et al., 1986; Mitchell & Olson, 1981). Therefore, a positive post-exposure attitude should lead to increased post-exposure intent to perform a behaviour (e.g., purchase, participate) whereas a negative post-exposure attitude should lead to decreased post-exposure intent to perform a behaviour.

1.4.3.3.4 Post-Exposure Intent

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) suggested that an individual's intent to perform a specific behaviour has a much stronger link to behaviour than does attitude. Furthermore, an individual's intent to perform a behaviour is a better predictor of actual behaviour than attitude (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1994) however, intentions are typically formed on the basis of an individual's attitudes (e.g., MacKenzie et al., 1986; Mitchell & Olson, 1981).

1.4.3.3.5 Behaviour

As discussed previously, organisations are typically concerned with the behavioural outcomes that occur as a result of their communication efforts. These outcomes can take the form of such behaviours as purchase, participation, or change (e.g., smoking cessation). Behaviour can be viewed as the culmination of the effects that an organisation's communication efforts have on the target market.

1.4.3.3.6 Post-Behaviour Attitude

The final outcome included in the study framework is that of post-behaviour attitude (level three outcome). There is no research to suggest that behaviour alters attitude

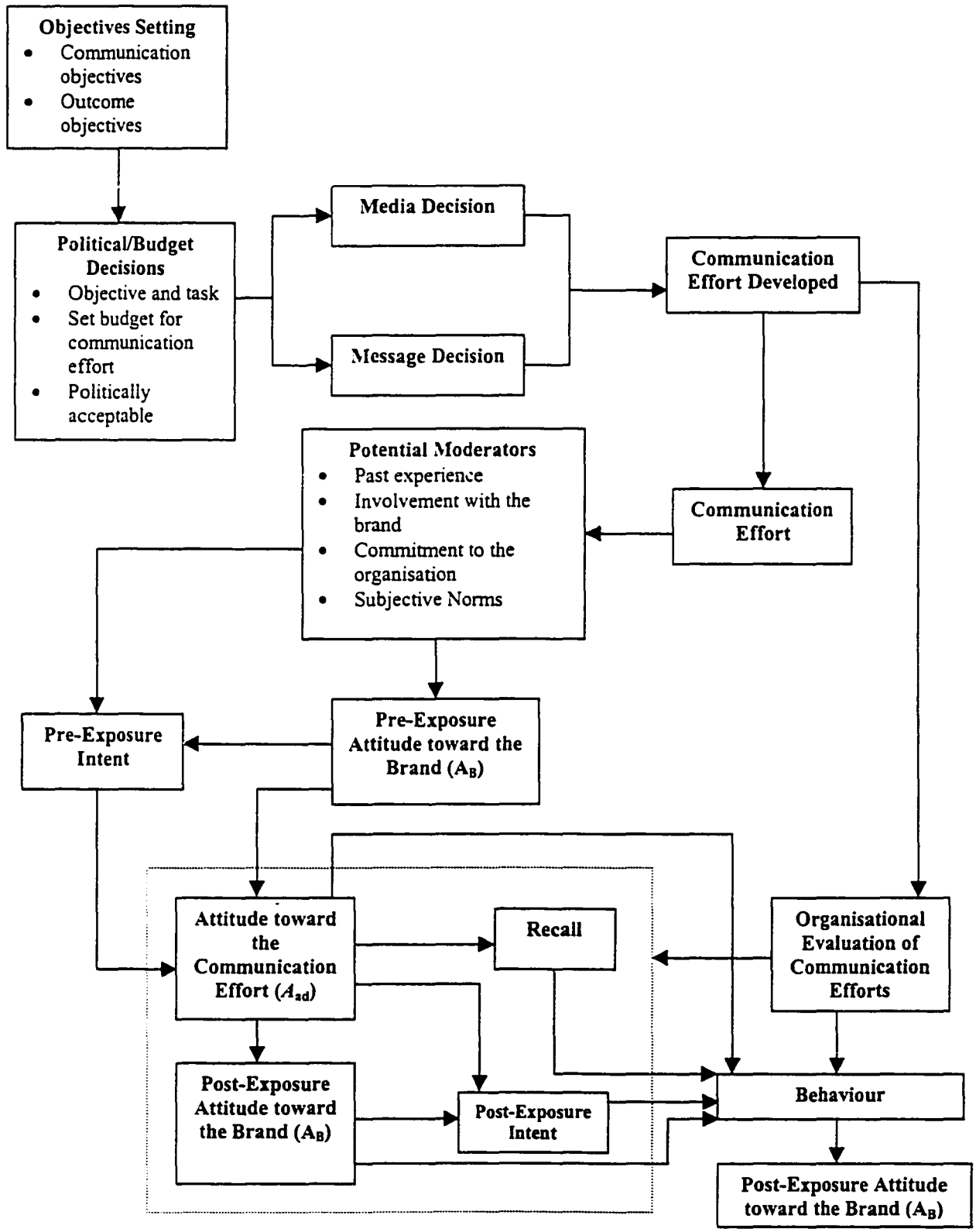
because the majority of studies to do not actually include a measure of behaviour. Hence, post-behaviour attitude cannot be measured. However, it makes intuitive sense that an individual's attitude toward a product or service may change based on his/her experience with that product or service. Therefore, if an individual enjoyed his/her experience with the product or service (e.g., liked the product or service, enjoyed Homecoming) his/her post-behaviour attitude may become more positive however, not enjoying the experience may have a negative affect on post-behaviour attitude.

1.5 Study Framework

The following section outlines the framework for this study. This framework is in the form of a model that has been developed based on two advertising related models (i.e., by Kotler et al., 1999 and Vakratsas & Ambler. 1999) as well as numerous concepts, theories, and empirical evidence from the business, leisure, marketing, psychology, and social psychology literature. Modifications have been made, based on the previous discussion, to the original models developed by Kotler et al. (1999) and Vakratsas and Ambler (1999). Please refer to Figure 1.3 for an outline of the study framework.

The first four steps in the model (objectives setting, political/budget decisions, media decisions, and message decisions) represent the major decisions that an organisation must make when developing a communication effort. The first three steps (objectives setting, political/budget decisions, and media decisions) will be discussed in Chapter One. Furthermore, the final step in the model, which represents the evaluation that an organisation conducts, also will be discussed in Chapter One. Setting communication objectives (the first task under objectives setting), however, will be introduced in the

Figure 1.3: A Framework for Analysing Organisational Communication Strategies and Outcomes



following section but will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter Two as will the fourth step (message decisions).

1.5.1 Objectives

As depicted in Figure 1.3, the first decision that must be made is to set objectives. These objectives include both communication and outcome objectives. Lovelock (1996) suggested that, at least in terms of services, communication efforts "[help] to define and project a service firm's personality and to highlight the competitive advantages of specific service features" (p. 376). Communication objectives, also termed advertising objectives, are "specific communication [tasks] to be accomplished with a specific *target* audience during a specific period of *time*" (Kotler et al., 1999, p. 501, emphasis in the original). For example, the task may entail informing customers about an upcoming sale or a change in the current programme schedule.

Outcome objectives are what the organisation hopes to accomplish with its communication efforts (e.g., increase sales by a given dollar amount or percentage). This objective can also be expressed in other terms such as participant numbers or public awareness. For example, a public leisure service agency may want to inform current participants that a new aerobics class will be offered every Monday at 10:00 a.m. (communication objective). By communicating this information the agency expects that 15 individuals will register for this new class (outcome objective).

Kotler et al. (1999) originally used the term "sales objectives" (as opposed to outcome objectives). However, the term sales objectives is somewhat misleading as it does not accurately reflect the variety of outcomes that may result from an organisation's communication efforts. Indeed, Crompton and Lamb (1986) suggested that sales figures or

"numbers through the door" are not accurate measures of communication success. Ambler (1998), who was referring specifically to advertising in the commercial sector, also suggested that different measures of communication success, such as brand equity, should be used. The term "communications outcomes" may be a more accurate reflection of what an organisation expects to accomplish with its communication efforts. For example, an organisation serving street youth may want to educate teens about the dangers of living on the street (communication objective). By educating teens, the agency hopes that the *number* of youth living on the street will *decrease 10%* by the end of the year (outcome objective).

1.5.2 Political/Budget Decisions

The second step in the framework presented in Figure 1.3 is to set the budget for the communication effort. This step has been modified from the original model presented by Kotler et al. (1999) as it now considers the politics involved in establishing a budget for communication efforts. Johnson Tew et al. (1999) suggested that "public agencies are typically bound by public accountability, reliance on externally generated funds, and mandates" (p. 18). Therefore, any decision to spend money typically must be approved by elected representatives and have general public support. For example, the general public may not support expenditures for communication efforts if they believe that the money could be spent developing new programmes.

1.5.3 Media and Message Decisions

The third step in the decision making process is to develop the message and choose the media by which the message will be conveyed. Lovelock (1996) stated that "communication plays a key role in positioning an organization and its products in the

market" (p. 377). Therefore, an organisation's product or service is positioned in the marketplace, and in the minds of consumers and potential consumers, through that organisation's communication efforts. Decisions surrounding media include choosing the media category (e.g., advertising, personal selling), the major media type (e.g., magazine, newspaper), the specific media vehicles (e.g., McLean's, Sports Illustrated), and the timing of the media (i.e., when the communication will occur).

Johnson Tew et al. (1999) found that public leisure agencies typically rely very heavily on printed forms of communication as opposed to other forms. Indeed, they found that, "on average, agencies relied on printed material for almost two-thirds . . . of the [communication] efforts" (p. 13) with seasonal brochures representing the majority of their communication efforts. Although it is an effective way of reaching a large number of citizens, print media has a number of inherent problems. People who are generally disinterested in public leisure services likely will not take the time and effort to read a seasonal programme brochure. A seasonal programme brochure also has untargeted content (i.e., tries to appeal to everyone) as well as untargeted delivery (i.e., the organisation tries to send it to the entire community). It is ineffective for reaching those citizens who are unwilling or unable to read. Furthermore, it can be inefficient to produce a seasonal programme brochure in languages other than English (a need in today's multicultural society). Finally, it may difficult to include anything but information in a seasonal programme brochure, therefore, an agency may have difficulty using persuasive or educational messages (this issue will be addressed further in Chapter Two).

One purpose of this study is to investigate the use of non-traditional forms of communication. However, in doing this there was also a need to remain realistic. As a

result, many forms of communication were eliminated from being considered for inclusion in this study due to the high costs associated with that media type (e.g., television) and the inability of the media type to communicate specific and detailed information (e.g., sponsorship, company manuals).

Therefore, a decision has been made to include three forms of communication: print, website, and personal appeal. Print media was chosen because it represents the current standard in public leisure service agencies' communication efforts. A website was included because it represents a new media that is feasible for agencies to incorporate into their communication efforts. A personal appeal will be included because it is feasible and studies have shown that it is more effective than other media types for achieving communication and outcome objectives (e.g., McDonald, 1997). A personal appeal is also consistent with a marketing orientation because the message can be adapted to suit the audience. Furthermore, it is consistent with professional judgement because the person delivering the appeal makes a judgement as to what information is in the best interest of the audience (i.e., to achieve outcomes desired by the organisation).

Print media, websites, and personal appeals also represent three very different forms of media because they have distinct features. Some forms of print media can be targeted to certain markets (e.g., newspaper or magazine advertisement) and a lot of information can be relayed to citizens depending on the form of print media chosen (e.g., seasonal programme brochures, pamphlets). However, print media is not interactive. The recipient must perform a "task" in order to obtain more information, receive clarification, or ask questions (e.g., phone, visit, mail).

Websites are comparatively inexpensive to set up and maintain and can contain vast amounts of information (Janal, 1995). However, this form of media is interactive thereby allowing customers to control their interaction with an organisation's communication efforts (Bezjian-Avery, Calder, & Iacobucci, 1998). For example, an individual may choose to access only that information in which s/he is interested. Furthermore, functions can be built in that allow individuals to obtain additional information or receive clarification on certain material presented on the site (e.g., question and answer via e-mail, request forms for additional information).

A website can also have built in features such as an internal counter that counts the number of times someone accesses the website. However, mechanism this does not indicate whether the site was accessed by mistake or how much information the individual accessed and/or comprehended. In addition, information contained in a website can be changed, modified, or updated on a minute-to-minute basis with very little cost to the organisation however, websites can only be used (i.e., received) by those who have access to the Internet.

As with websites, personal appeals can be modified "on the spot" to respond to the needs of each audience. Furthermore, like some print media, personal appeals can be targeted at specific audiences. Personal appeals are also interactive in that the audience can ask questions and receive immediate feedback. However, the costs associated with personal appeals can be high.

1.5.4 Evaluation of Communication Efforts

The final step in framework presented in Figure 1.3 is an evaluation of the organisation's communication efforts. In order to formulate more effective strategies,

current efforts must be assessed and evaluated. Kotler et al. (1999) suggested that both the communication impact and the sales (outcome) impact must be evaluated. Traditionally, organisations have used sales to measure advertising effectiveness (Koschat & Sabavala, 1995). Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) noted that "researchers conventionally have assumed that advertising's task is to increase sales or market share, but this is not necessarily true" (p. 37) and suggested that it could be used to support premium pricing or maintain market share (i.e., as a response to competitors communication efforts).

Further, Vakratsas and Ambler (1996) postulated that sales should not be used as a measure of advertising success because many of the objectives of an organisation's communication efforts are not an attempt at producing an actual sale. Rather, much of the communication effort is concerned with increasing the awareness and understanding an individual (i.e., consumer/potential consumer/non-consumer) has about a given product or service. Indeed, many communication efforts that attempt to inform, educate, and/or remind individuals about a product or service (these concepts will be revisited in Chapter Two).

Ambler (1998) and McDonald (1993) both suggested that brand equity, rather than sales (or an increase in sales) should be used as a measure of advertising effectiveness. McDonald argued that judging the effectiveness of advertising by increases in sales is inappropriate because it ignores what we currently know about advertising. McDonald stated that it ignores the "effect of brand equity, the position a brand has acquired in the hearts and minds of consumers as a result of previous advertising interacting with and reinforcing experience of the brand" (p. 64). Further, McDonald suggested that advertising

should be viewed as a "continuous investment which maintains the brand" (p. 64). Evaluation of communication success will be discussed further in Chapter Two.

1.6 Organisation of the Proposal

This dissertation is organised into five separate chapters. The first chapter provided background to the study and research questions. Further, it established a framework around which the remainder of the proposal was developed. Chapter Two examines the literature on the various components of the study framework (see Figure 1.3). Chapter Three reviews the experiment design and data collection procedures. The treatments and survey instruments for used in this study also are presented in Chapter Three as are the research hypotheses. Chapter Four outlines the results of the study (i.e., hypothesis testing). Finally, Chapter Five provides a summary and interpretation of the experiment, implications of public leisure service agencies, limitations of the study, and implications for future research.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Outline

This chapter reviews the literature associated with the framework for analysing organisational communication strategies and outcomes that was outlined in Figure 1.3 of Chapter One. Each component of the study framework will be addressed excluding those sections that were reviewed in Chapter One (i.e., objectives setting, political/budget decisions, and media decisions).

2.2 Communication Objectives

As depicted in Figure 1.3, the first decision that must be made is to set communication objectives and outcome objectives. Outcome objectives were outlined in Chapter One therefore, only the development of communication objectives will be addressed in the following discussion. Please note that the term advertising will be used in a number of the following sections because the research or idea development was done in the context of advertising specifically.

2.2.1 Communication Objectives: A Brief History

Research related to message type dates back a number of years. In the early 1960's, Colley (1961) outlined a series of 52 advertising tasks in the form of a checklist for "those seeking a better understanding of the purpose and contribution of advertising in a business" (p.60-61). Colley's method has been termed DAGMAR (after the book's title) or 'Defining Advertising Goals for Measured Advertising Results'. He suggested that, in order to lead to an eventual sale, advertising must perform a combination of different tasks and that the tasks important for one product or service may be unimportant for another product or

service. "The check list is simply an organized way to arrive at a *priority of importance* of the various communication tasks" (Colley, p. 61, emphasis in the original). Colley did not outline *how* an organisation should go about defining advertising goals nonetheless his work remains very influential even today (Bogart, 1995).

Kotler (1980) suggested that the 52 advertising objectives outlined by Colley (1961) could be grouped into three categories based on whether their aim was to inform, persuade, or remind. These broadly defined objectives, as stated by Kotler, have been and are still being used by researchers, authors, and professionals (e.g., Crompton & Lamb, 1986; Johnson Tew et al., 1999; Kotler et al., 1988; Lovelock, 1996). These communication objectives will be discussed in turn. A fourth objective, educating, will also be presented and discussed.

2.2.1.1 Inform

When introducing a new product or service, an organisation uses pioneering advertising (or communication) which builds demand for a product or service category (Kotler, 1980). For example, a municipal recreation department that has never offered water aerobics will use communication aimed at developing primary demand for the activity among its chosen target market. Kotler suggested that an informative communication effort often is used when introducing a new product or service because it gives basic information about the product or service (e.g., what it is, what it does, time, location, date, price or price change). Furthermore, informative communication can be used to "[suggest] new uses for a product, [inform] the market of a price change, [explain] how the product works, [describe] various available services, [correct] false impressions, [reduce] customers' fears, and [build] a company image" (Kotler, p. 525).

The taxonomy of advertising developed by the Marketing Science Institute (MSI) outlines the 'intent of advertising' (Schmalensee, 1983). According to MSI, informing consumers of the existence of, or building awareness of, the product or service is the major intent of advertising. Once 'existence' is achieved, advertising must inform consumers of the attributes of the product or service. This step is followed by the functional component or informing consumers what the product or service does. The final function of advertising is associational (Schmalensee). This function will be discussed in detail in the persuasion section.

Although the major intent of advertising or marketing communications, as conceptualised by MSI, is to inform consumers and potential consumers about a product or service, often times more is required. As Rapp and Collins (1988) suggested, "too often, advertising leaves the prospect dangling, with no idea of what to do next, where to buy, or how to obtain more information . . . the ideal advertising and marketing process should . . . [offer and provide] additional information . . . [reach] out in meaningful ways far more than merely offering where-to-buy information." This statement appears to be a legitimate criticism given that nowhere in MSI's taxonomy of advertising is there an outline of advertising's function beyond basic information about the product or service and an element of persuasion in the form of associational advertising.

Not only is it important for organisations to provide appropriate and meaningful information in their communication efforts, they must also attempt to educate, persuade, and remind consumers about their product or service (e.g., provide background, additional information, and motivation on a 'regular' basis). As Percy and Lautman (1986) suggested, "excluding the objective of awareness or direct response, the majority of advertising is

meant to convey information, or create a favorable 'feeling' or evaluation of the advertised product, company or service that would lead to some desired behavior" (p. 61). However, to perform the desired behaviour, a consumer must have all of the necessary information.

2.2.1.2 Persuade

According to Kotler (1980), persuasive communication efforts are used to build selective demand (e.g., demand for aerobics at the local YMCA) and typically are used when competition increases (Kotler et al., 1999). Kotler suggested that an organisation can try, among other objectives, to persuade a customer or potential customer to prefer a particular brand, switch brands, purchase the product or service now, or receive a sales call. One common form of persuasive communication is comparison advertising. Comparison advertising directly or indirectly compares an organisation's brand to one or more competing brands (e.g., Pepsi Cola will often compare its brand of cola to Coca Cola's brand of cola) (Kotler et al., 1988).

Comparative advertising can also be used to inform consumers of the attributes of a product or service (Schmalensee, 1983). However, the final advertising intent outlined in the taxonomy is labelled 'associational'. When an organisation uses associational advertising the purpose is to convince consumers of an association between the product or service and a desired situation or personality (Schmalensee). For example, a municipal recreation agency may want consumers to develop an association between a stress management course and a more relaxed lifestyle. Although this advertising purpose was not labelled as persuasion, it has a persuasive element. An organisation can use associational advertising to encourage consumers, especially those who *desire* the

portrayed situation or personality, to purchase the product or service in order to *achieve* their desired situation or personality.

Lovelock (1996) suggested that persuasive communication can be used to show that an organisation's product or service is the best way to satisfy a customer's needs. Furthermore, he noted that persuasive communication can be used to convince someone to purchase rather than not purchase a product or service (e.g., sign up for swimming lessons) or to purchase a particular product or service as opposed to a competing brand (e.g., sign up for swimming lessons at the municipal pool as opposed to the YMCA). Organisations may also want to achieve both of these objectives using the same communication (e.g., sign up for swimming lessons at the municipal pool).

2.2.1.3 Remind

Reminder communication efforts are used to keep customers or potential customers thinking about the product or service (Kotler et al., 1988; Kotler et al., 1999), or to confirm or reassure customers (Crompton & Lamb, 1986). Lovelock (1996) suggested that advertising can be used to "*remind* customers of product availability and motivate them to act" (p. 377, emphasis in the original). Kotler et al. (1988, 1999) noted that reminder communication efforts are typically used for mature products to remind consumers of the benefits of the organisation's particular product or service.

2.2.1.4 Educate

Crompton and Lamb (1986), writing in the context of government and social service agency marketing, included a fourth objective, educating, in their discussion of benefits to be communicated. Lovelock (1996) also suggested that effective

communication can "present information and educate customers, helping them to make sensible choices and obtain better value from the services they purchase" (p. 376). However, Lovelock did not expand on the idea of educating customers through communication efforts.

Other writers, typically practitioners, have also included educating as a communication objective however, it is often combined with other functions or is not given the specific label (i.e., it is presented as a function of 'advertising' but not termed specifically as educating). For example, Evans (1988) suggested that one purpose of communication efforts is to 'educate and/or inform.' In addition, Young (1963) presented "familiarising," which can be equated with educating, as one of the basic ways in which advertising works.

Crompton and Lamb (1986) suggested that, for some products more than others, consumers must develop "a level of understanding sufficient to arouse the desire to [purchase a product or service]" (p. 377). Johnson Tew et al. (1999, p. 6) elaborated on Crompton and Lamb's description when they noted that "educating refers to attempts to develop or improve [consumers'] levels of understanding such that they recognize the value of participation [or purchasing the product or service]."

When listing communication tasks, Crompton and Lamb (1986) put educating after informing and before persuading because an organisation often must educate its target market about a product or service before the market can be persuaded to purchase it. For example, in order to increase the chances that an individual will follow a fitness programme, s/he must be educated about the benefits of physical activity and the risk associated with a poor cardiovascular condition or excess weight.

2.2.2 Hierarchy of Communication Objectives

Johnson Tew et al. (1999) suggested that, with respect to specific products and services, consumers could be viewed being on a large, muti-layered pyramid. At the base are those consumers who have no interest in purchasing a particular product or service, or participating in a programme or activity, or who are not aware that the product, service, or programme exists. The next layer is comprised of a somewhat smaller group of consumers who may be interested in the product/service/programme but who are constrained in some way (e.g., lack of time, lack of money). The next layer is even smaller and is comprised of those consumers who occasionally purchase or participate. Finally, the peak of the pyramid is a small group of people who regularly purchase or participate.

Johnson Tew et al. (1999) suggested that the communication objectives for each of these groups differ. They posited that those consumers at the bottom of the pyramid likely require educational and persuasive messages while those at the top require only informational and reminder messages. However, they did not suggest what consumers in the middle portion of the pyramid require in terms of messages.

Consumers in the middle of the pyramid will not be homogeneous with respect to the messages they require. For example, people who are constrained due to a lack of motivation may require persuasive messages whereas those who are constrained due to perceived incompetence may require persuasive and educational messages (e.g., anyone can learn to dive; you don't have to be highly skilled to join our recreational volleyball team). Johnson Tew et al. (1999) did not suggest that all levels of consumers require informational messages however, without basic information, messages that educate, persuade, or remind may be ineffective at prompting action (i.e., purchase or participation).

For example, an individual may be persuaded to learn to golf after reading about the benefits of golf in a magazine advertisement. However, if the advertisement did not include basic information, the individual may not know where to register for lessons, how much it costs, and the day and time the lessons will be held. Therefore, although s/he wants to participate, s/he is constrained from doing so due to lack of information. Further, a consumer may also require information after s/he purchases the product or service in order to help him/her get the most of the product or service.

2.2.3 Alternative Communication Objectives

Although the group of inform, educate, persuade, and remind is a common way to define advertising objectives and has some historical perspective (e.g., Crompton & Lamb, 1986; Kotler, 1980) it is clear that this is not the only method for defining advertising objectives. Other purposes, or uses, of communication efforts have been developed however, in many instances, they can be equated with the set developed by Kotler (1980) (i.e., informing, educating, and reminding) and with Crompton and Lamb's (1986) educating.

Young (1963) suggested that there are five ways in which 'advertising' works: familiarising, reminding, spreading news, overcoming inertias, and adding a value not in the product. Vakratsas and Ambler (1996) suggested that "overcoming inertias" and "adding a value not in the product" can be equated with Kotler's (1980) persuading. Furthermore, they argued that "reminding" and "spreading news" can be equated with Kotler's informing and reminding. Although they did not group "familiarising," this advertising function can be equated with Crompton and Lamb's (1986) educating. Similarly, Fletcher (1994) developed a list communication objectives which, according to

Vakratsas and Ambler, can be reduced to reminding, informing, and adding value (i.e., persuading as defined by Vakratsas & Ambler).

Evans (1988) suggested that communication efforts can have one or more of seven purposes: stimulate the prospect to find out more, remind and reassure, increase awareness, induce preparedness to try, educate and/or inform, create new, sustain, or modify a brand or corporate image, and direct response. "Remind and reassure" can, obviously, be equated with Kotler's (1980) reminding function. "Increase awareness" and "create a new, sustain, or modify a brand or corporate image" can both be equated with the informing function presented by Kotler. Evans combines educate and inform into one function however, Crompton and Lamb (1986) suggested that these functions are distinct from on another. "Stimulate the prospect (or potential consumer) to find out more" can be equated with persuade. The consumer may not be persuaded to purchase at the present moment however, the communication may elicit enough interest that the prospect may continue his/her evaluation of the product or service. Finally, "direct response or sell off the page" can be equated with persuading as defined by Kotler.

2.2.3.1 Issue of Communication Success (Evaluation of Communication Efforts)

Evans (1988) noted that the direct response objective is the only direct attempt to sell a product or service. Vakratsas and Ambler (1996, p. 7) postulated that this "raises the question of whether sales should be used as a measure of [communication] success." Ambler (1998) subsequently proposed that communication success should be measured by brand equity rather than only sales.

Ambler (1998, p. 8) suggested that advertising affects consumers' memories and that "the sum of brand memories . . . the sum of what we have all thought and felt about the brand, is brand equity." Ambler also described brand equity as "what is in our heads" (p. 8). Brand equity is an important concept because the time between when a consumer sees an advertisement (i.e., an organisation's communication effort) for a particular product or service and the time the consumer is ready to make a purchase of that particular product or service can be days, weeks, or even months. Ambler suggested that, during this time lapse, an organisation's communication efforts shape and change consumers' memories of the product or service. Advertising therefore, may affect brand equity but may not necessarily lead to an increase in sales.

Rather, Ambler (1998) argued that advertising is more likely to support the price (i.e., maintain or increase the price a consumer is willing to pay) of a product or service. He goes on to argue that supporting price is more valuable than an increase in sales because if an organisation can keep up a current price, that money goes directly to profit whereas an extra unit sold has associated costs (i.e., it is not pure profit). Dyson, Farr, and Hollis (1996) appear to support this contention as they suggested that a buyer's perception of a product or service (i.e., the brand equity of the product or service) dictates, to a large extent, the price s/he is willing to pay for the product or service. Cobb-Walgren, Ruble, and Donthu (1995) suggested that this is an operationalisation of brand equity involving consumer loyalty (e.g., brand loyalty, willingness to pay a higher price).

The other operationalisation of brand equity within the marketing literature involves consumer perceptions (e.g., awareness, brand associations, perceived quality) (Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995). Dyson et al. (1996) also pointed out that that brand equity (i.e., a

consumer's attitude toward the product or service) determines, to a large extent, a consumer's willingness to repeatedly purchase a particular product or service.

Colley (1961) took a slightly different view of advertising effects when he suggested that current sales are not an indicator of 'advertising' effectiveness except under three conditions. The conditions under which sales can be used as an indicator of the effectiveness of 'advertising' include when: (1) advertising is the single variable (e.g., other factors including price and economic conditions do not affect sales), (2) advertising is the dominant force in the marketing mix, and (3) the proposition calls for immediate payout (e.g., mail order). However, Bogart (1995) suggested that these conditions are rarely present. Colley also noted that consumers who switch brands or providers due to communication efforts "may continue to use the brand [or service provider] and pay dividends to the [organisation] for several years to come" (p. 12). This occurrence has greater implications for those organisations whose products or services are purchased on a regular basis (e.g., gasoline, banking services, or fitness club memberships).

2.2.3.2 Communication Effects

Rossiter and Percy (1987) argued that communication objectives are based on (i.e., selected from) a list of communication effects. Communication effects, according to Rossiter and Percy, are caused, in whole or part, by the communication efforts of an organisation. They argued that "advertising and promotion cause action through the process of communication by establishing relatively enduring mental associations connected to the brand in the prospective buyer's mind" (Rossiter & Percy, p. 131).

The five communication effects or objectives as outlined by Rossiter and Percy (1987) include category need, brand awareness, brand attitude, brand purchase intention, and purchase facilitation. Category need, as defined by Rossiter and Percy, is a "buyer's perception of requiring something (a product or service) to remove or satisfy a perceived discrepancy between the current motivational state and the desired motivational state" (p. 132). They suggested that although not everyone has a particular category need (e.g., swimming lessons) at every given moment, an organisation's communication efforts "could have some influence in stimulating [the] need" (Rossiter & Percy, p. 132). For example, Jacqui, an adult non-swimmer may not have a perceived need for "learn to swim lessons" however, after seeing the local pool's poster outlining the dangers of being a non-swimmer, Jacqui may feel a category need for swimming lessons. In this sense, an organisation's communication efforts can be equated with Crompton and Lamb's (1986) objective of educating.

Rossiter and Percy (1987, p. 132) defined 'brand awareness' as the "buyer's ability to identify (recognize or recall) the brand within the category in sufficient detail to make a purchase." For example, through the communication efforts of the park and recreation department, Jacqui may be able to identify that it offers swimming lessons at its municipal pool. Jacqui, because she recognises the municipal pool's offerings, has become brand aware and presumably has all the information required to purchase a set of swimming lessons if she desires. Brand awareness can, therefore, be equated with Kotler's (1980) objective of informing.

The third communication effect, as outlined by Rossiter and Percy (1987) is 'brand attitude' which they define as "the buyer's overall evaluation of the brand with respect to

its perceived ability to meet a currently relevant motivation" (p. 132). Rossiter and Percy argued that brand awareness is typically not enough to cause a person to make a purchase. Rather, consumers must both be aware of the product or service and develop a positive or favourable attitude towards the product or service before they will make a purchase. Rossiter and Percy noted that advertising is typically more effective than the other communication modes for establishing brand attitude

Continuing with the example, before Jacqui will sign up for swimming lessons at the municipal pool, she must develop a favourable attitude toward the municipal pool. The municipal pool's communication efforts "can be highly instrumental in creating, increasing, maintaining, modifying, and changing [Jacqui's] brand attitude" (Rossiter & Percy, 1987, p. 134). However, Jacqui may also solicit other forms of information. For example, she may ask friends, relatives, or co-workers what they think of the municipal swimming pool and how they would compare it to other pools. In addition, she may ask staff at the municipal pool to give her information on schedules, prices, class sizes, and lesson content. Organisations must therefore use their communication efforts in order to create a positive brand attitude which, in turn, will help *persuade* consumers to purchase their particular product or service.

The fourth communication effect that Rossiter and Percy (1987) outlined is brand purchase intention. They define this effect as a "buyer's self-instruction to purchase the brand or to take purchase-related action" (p. 132). They noted that consumers may have a positive attitude toward many brands however, they will do not necessarily intend to purchase many of the brands. For example, Jacqui may have a positive brand attitude

toward swimming lessons provided by the Private Country Club however, she will not seriously consider applying for a membership in order to take swimming lessons.

Rossiter and Percy (1987) suggested that advertising and promotion are both key elements in eliciting brand purchase intention. For example, Jacqui may develop a positive attitude to the municipal pool's offering through its communication efforts and other information source. However, she must still be motivated to purchase the swimming lessons. The municipal pool may therefore institute a promotion in which, for a limited time, consumers receive 50% off their first purchase of swimming lessons. This promotion may entice Jacqui to sign up for the next session of swimming lessons. Thus, Jacqui has been persuaded to purchase swimming lessons, in the immediate future, at the municipal swimming pool.

The final communication effect that Rossiter and Percy (1987) outlined is purchase facilitation. They defined this effect as the "buyer's perception of other marketing factors (the "4 P's") that can hinder or stimulate purchase" of a particular product or service brand (p. 132). In order for a consumer to make an actual purchase the other elements of the marketing mix must reasonable. For example, if Jacqui is to purchase swimming lessons from the municipal pool, the marketing mix must fit Jacqui's needs and wants. The municipal pool must offer lessons specifically geared to adult non-swimmers, at a reasonable price, and at a time and place that are convenient for Jacqui. Furthermore, the other aspects of the promotion/communication mix (e.g., the staff member who registers Jacqui for lessons is, in a sense, a salesperson) must be viewed as positive by Jacqui.

2.3 Message Execution

Researchers have used negative, sexual, emotional, and rational appeals in their communication efforts. Still others have attempted to communicate using positively or negative worded messages. Huhmann and Brotherton (1997) suggested that there are many forms of negative appeals including fear, anger, insecurity, envy, regret, shame, and guilt and that these appeals "have long been recognized as an important method of persuasion" (p. 35). Huhmann and Brotherton stated that fear appeals have been the most widely studied of the negative appeals in advertising.

Although fear appeals have been studied for over 40 years, researchers are still uncertain as to the persuasiveness of these appeals (Keller & Block, 1995). For example, some researchers found that too strong of a fear appeal can decrease the persuasiveness of a message (Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953) whereas in other cases fear appeals can increase the persuasiveness of a message (King & Reid, 1990). Eagly and Chaiken (1993) noted that "the persuasive impact of fear tends to be stronger on attitudes (toward behavior) and intentions than on behavior itself" (p. 443).

Although there appears to be a lack of consensus on the persuasiveness of fear appeals, there are many possible causes for our lack of a complete understanding of fear appeals. Eagly and Chaiken (1993) noted that many studies utilised only low or moderate levels of threat/fear and, as such, there is little evidence as to the persuasiveness of extreme fear. Differing levels of fear make studies somewhat inconsistent and difficult to compare. Furthermore, it has been suggested the more time people have to process a fear appeal the greater the elaboration of the message (Keller & Block, 1996). Therefore, studies that use different viewing intervals may achieve divergent results.

There are both many critics and many advocates of fear appeals in promotion. For example, the Advertising Council advocates a blunter-is-better approach to promotional messages particularly as they relate to serious issues such as those affecting life or health (King, 1989). In contrast, some argue that fear appeals may induce an avoidance response due to the excessive levels of anxiety caused by these promotions (Henthorn, LaTour, & Nataraajan, 1993). This anxiety can cause a negative attitude toward the advertisement thereby limiting the persuasiveness of fear appeals (Moore & Harris, 1996).

Bennett (1998) stated that guilt appeals are of great importance to social marketers and as such are used regularly. Huhmann and Brotherton (1997), in an analysis of advertisements in 24 magazines, found that guilt appeals are used most often in advertisements for charities and health-related products. Although marketers use guilt appeals, the objective of such appeals is to *persuade* citizens *not* to do a particular activity or action such as "don't drink and drive" or "don't litter," or to do an activity or action such as "using a condom" or "give to charity" (Bennett).

The use of sexual appeals has become more common in print and other forms of advertising (LaTour, Pitts, & Snook-Luther, 1990) however, the use of these appeals remain controversial (LaTour & Henthorne, 1994). Gould (1992) suggests that sexual appeals can be viewed as being on a continuum. At the one end are communication efforts that show nudity or the act of sex, and at the other end are communication efforts that, while not explicit in nature, may sexually stimulate some individuals (e.g., attractive individual dressed in "sexy" attire). LaTour and Henthorne (1994) found that highly sexual appeals were not well received and elicited ethical concerns by both men and women.

Emotional and rational appeals have also been widely studied in the promotion literature. Rational appeals typically "contain factual information presented in a straightforward manner" (Stafford & Day, 1995 p. 62) whereas emotional appeals are "designed to generate positive emotions and create warm feelings" (Stafford & Day, p. 62). The advertising literature supports the notion "rational appeals are likely to be effective for utilitarian/functional products and emotional appeals are likely to be effective for sensory/experiential products" (Stafford & Day, p. 60).

However, Stafford and Day (1995) found that, at least in terms of services, rational advertisements worked for both utilitarian (e.g., camera store) and experiential (e.g., restaurant) services. Follow up responses to the advertisements by respondents suggested that emotional appeals lack information whereas rational appeals are very informative (Stafford & Day, 1995). Stafford and Day's findings as well as those of other researchers (e.g., Zinkhan, Johnson, & Zinkhan, 1992) suggest that rational appeals should be used in communication efforts for services. For products, however, it appears that the best message execution is dependent, at least in part, on the type of product.

Another method for framing the communication message is to word it in a positive manner or a negative manner. The theoretical basis of this message framing method is based on Prospect Theory, developed by Kahneman and Tversky (1979). Positively framed messages typically outline the benefits that a consumer receives if s/he purchases the product or service. In contrast, negatively framed promotional messages typically outline the losses of adverse consequences a consumer faces if s/he does not use the product or service (Ganzach & Karsahi, 1995; Homer & Yoon, 1992; Smith, 1996).

Smith (1996) noted that most of the research into message framing as been in health-related areas such as cancer and sexually transmitted diseases. Research has provided evidence that people react differently to messages framed in terms of a loss as compared to those framed in terms of a gain. More recently, researchers have studied the effects of message framing on consumer purchase decisions for products and services. For example, in a study conducted by Ganzach and Karsahi (1995), consumers who had not used their credit card in the past three months received a communication outlining either the benefits that could be received from using the card or the losses that could be suffered from not using the card. Ganzach and Karsahi found that a message framed in terms of a loss has a stronger effect on behaviour then did a message framed in terms of a gain.

2.3.1 Choosing the Appropriate Appeal

Harmeson and Elbert (1996) argued that one of the most important, yet challenging, tasks faced by organisations is getting the right message to the right people. Although they were speaking about small businesses in particular, they pointed out that this challenge is faced by businesses of all sizes. Further, it might be argued that public agencies, including park and recreation departments, have even greater difficulties targeting the message to the right market(s) for a variety of reasons. Johnson Tew et al. (1999) pointed out that public leisure agencies face obstacles not found in most organisations including the history of professional judgement, politics, and a mandate to serve under-represented and/or non-responsive markets.

However, Johnson Tew et al. (1999) suggested that a number of key questions, based on the message, media, and market, must be answered if communication by public leisure agencies is to be effective. In terms of message and market, public leisure service

agencies, in fact all organisations, must ensure that the message content and execution is appropriate for, and will be well received by, the intended recipients of the communication effort.

Although fear appeals have been used in social marketing, it is probably not an appropriate message execution strategy for the majority of communication efforts by public leisure service agencies. A few exceptions, such as the use of fear appeals for communicating about water safety, do exist. Guilt appeals may be appropriate for some programmes and services offered by public leisure service agencies (e.g., fitness, health, and wellness) however, these appeals are unlikely to have wide spread acceptance among citizens. Sexual appeals can be deemed as inappropriate for use by public leisure service agencies for both ethical reasons and because these appeals are controversial even within commercial sector communication efforts (LaTour & Henthorne, 1994). Rational or emotional appeals however, would be appropriate execution strategies. Rational appeals provide factual information, something that public leisure service agencies currently do whereas emotional appeals can be used to outline the benefits of participating or "why" citizens should perform certain actions or behaviours (e.g., register for fitness classes so you can increase your cardiovascular fitness).

2.4 Communication Messages and Public Leisure Services

Public and not-for-profit agencies face a unique communication challenge. Many members of these agencies' target markets are unresponsive. Although the private sector also has unresponsive segments, it is often the mandate of public and non-for-profit agencies to serve unresponsive markets or unresponsive segments of a market. For example, a municipal recreation department may design a fitness programme for middle-

aged, overweight men, who have no interest in physical activity. As such, this market would be defined as an unresponsive market.

Many studies have attempted to increase understanding of why some people or segments are unresponsive, thereby enabling organisations to remove constraints. For example, Jackson and Dunn (1988) distinguished between three forms of nonparticipants in terms of demand: potential demand (e.g., economic barriers), deferred demand (e.g., barrier in the form of lack of knowledge), no demand (i.e., no interest). Although communication objectives may differ significantly for unresponsive markets as compared to responsive markets, few studies have looked at the best way of reaching these markets.

In their study of municipal recreation agencies in Ontario, Johnson Tew et al. (1999) investigated the most important message that agencies wanted to convey to participants and potential participants. Respondents' comments were evaluated, by two of the authors, based on the communication objectives outlined by Crompton and Lamb (1986): inform, educate, persuade, and remind. Inter-rater reliability was high. Johnson Tew et al. found that all four of the communication objectives were used by at least some of the agencies. Furthermore, they found that over half of the messages were comprised of a combination of two or more communication objectives.

The most important communication objective found, in the study by Johnson Tew et al. (1999), was that of persuasion with approximately two-thirds of the messages containing a persuasive element. It must be noted, however, that communications objectives were only asked with respect to a new or innovative programme offered by the agency. As Kotler et al. (1999) suggested, communication objectives may change depending on the maturity or the product or service and competition. Therefore, the

messages that were analysed by Johnson Tew et al. may not be representative of the entire number of messages the agencies convey. Further, Johnson Tew et al. asked respondents to indicate the most important message that they wanted to convey about the product or service however, this message was not necessarily present in communication efforts related to the programme or service.

2.5 Communication Effort and Receipt of the Effort

An organisation's communication effort is the culmination of four steps as outlined in Figure 1.3; after objectives have been set, political/budget decisions have been made, the media has been chosen, and the message has been generated, an organisation's communication effort is finalised. The next step in the framework is the receipt of the communication effort by the intended audience. The intended audience should receive the communication effort as the campaign itself is launched; newspaper advertisements are published, the website is online and functioning, and brochures have been mailed to the target market. The launching of a communication efforts does not ensure that the target market receives the intended communication (e.g., some may be on vacation, the mailing list is outdated).

2.5.1 Involvement with the Communication Effort

Although an organisation's communication effort may reach an individual, there is no guarantee that the individual will pay attention. For example, a public leisure service agency may put an advertisement in the newspaper letting citizens know that the last day to register for yoga classes is August 25th. Although an individual reads the newspaper there is no guarantee that s/he will see the advertisement (e.g., may skip that page with the

advertisement, may forget to read the section with the advertisement). Furthermore, an individual may read the advertisement but may be distracted while doing so (e.g., children crying, phone rings, excessive background noise) and therefore may not fully process the message. Therefore, the degree to which an individual is involved with the communication effort (e.g., paying attention, not paying attention) mediates his/her processing of the communication effort and its content.

An individual's "motivation to process information has been conceptualized by most researchers in terms of [his/her] *involvement* with the informational stimuli" (Celsi & Olson, 1988, p. 210, emphasis in the original). Not only do consumers have different levels of involvement with products or services (Vaughn, 1986) but consumers also have different levels of involvement with the communication messages they receive. Involvement with products and services will be discussed in a subsequent section.

The effort that a person puts into thinking about or elaborating on a message can be equated with the level of involvement a person has with the message. For example, an individual who is interested in improving his/her cardiovascular fitness will be more highly involved in processing the information contained in a message that states that participating in aerobics can increase cardiovascular fitness. In contrast, an individual who is involved in aerobics or believes s/he has "adequate cardiovascular fitness" likely will be less involved in processing the same message.

Costley (1988) and Laaksonen (1994) suggested that definitions of involvement could be divided into three categories. The first two series of involvement definitions (cognitively-based definitions and individual-state definitions) will be discussed in a later section. The third series of involvement definitions was labelled "response-based" (p. 52-

64). Costley (1988) suggested that, as a content dimension, the response-based approach to involvement is conceptually weak. She argued that "involvement should . . . be expected to correlate with responses" (p. 554) because, in theory, they are related. However, Costley added that if involvement and responses "are the same, then the term 'involvement' is unnecessary" (p. 554). However, Costley appeared to accept involvement with an advertisement (or communication effort) as an approach to involvement based on the object dimension.

Although Laaksonen (1994) denoted the third series of definitions as response-based, she appears to agree with Costley's (1988) conceptualisation of involvement with something (i.e., involvement with the communication effort). Although it is typically studied in terms of an advertisement, involvement with a communication effort stems from Krugman (1965) who proposed that consumers have a level of personal involvement with organisations' communication efforts. Krugman described personal involvement not as "attention, interest, or excitement but [as the] the number of conscious 'bridging experiences', connections, or personal references per minute that the viewer makes between his [sic] own life and the stimulus" (p. 355).

Table 2.1 outlines examples of involvement definitions that Laaksonen (1994) categorised as response-based. Laaksonen conceptualised this series of definitions as "an actualized response specified in terms of extensiveness and/or temporal pattern of mental and/or physical behaviour devoted to a task of information processing and/or brand choice" (p. 62). However, it appears that only the second definition is consistent with Costley's view of involvement with communication efforts.

Table 2.1 Response-Based Definitions of Involvement

Term	Definition	Researcher(s)
Message Response Involvement	"in the communication and advertising context involvement may usefully be conceptualized and operationalized as the depth and quality of message-evoked cognitive responses"	Batra & Ray (1983, p. 309)
Audience Involvement	"is the allocation of attentional capacity to a message source, as needed to analyze the message at one of a series of increasingly abstract representational levels"	Greenwald & Leavitt (1984, p. 591)

Adapted From: Laaksonen (1994, p. 55).

Although the concept of involvement with informational stimuli (or a communication effort) is considered important to understanding communication effectiveness (e.g., Bucholz & Smith, 1991; Celsi & Olson, 1988; Shimp, 1981), Greenwald and Leavitt (1984) noted that "there is little agreement on what cognitive processes correspond to variations in involvement, or on the consequences of these variations for communication effectiveness" (p. 581). Shimp (1981, p. 10), based on Mitchell's (1979) work, defined involvement with an advertisement as "[representing] the amount of arousal or interest evoked by a particular advertisement." He further noted that "the amount of arousal or interest determines the degree of *attention* devoted to an advertisement and also influences the *processing strategy*" (Shimp, p. 10, emphasis in the original).

Shimp (1981) suggested that processing strategy refers to brand information and non-brand information. Brand information is that information contained in the communication that directly relates to the brand such as price or colour. Non-brand information, in comparison, is the communication effort (or advertisement) itself such as the media used (e.g., newspaper, television), the background music, or the spokesperson.

Therefore, the level of involvement with a communication effort and the processing strategy results in a matrix of four potential attitude formations as depicted in Figure 2.1. The matrix proposed by Shimp (1981) suggests that, depending on what part of the whole communication effort is processed (i.e., brand information and non-brand information), there is potential for a consumer to develop an attitude toward the communication effort itself (e.g., I didn't like the advertisement because print was too small to read), to the brand (e.g., Rossignols are high-performance skies), or both.

High involvement processing (1) occurs "when advertising receivers are both attentive to an advertising message and employ a brand evaluation strategy" (Shimp, 1981, p. 10). In contrast, when attention and processing strategy are absent, low involvement results. Shimp argued that there are two forms of low involvement. The canonical form (4) occurs when "receivers attend neither the brand-specific information nor any other information contained in the advertisement" (Shimp, p. 10). The result is no attitude formation.

The other form of low involvement processing (3) is "strategy-limited [and is] characterized by high attention to non-brand features and limited, if any, attention to brand specific information" (Shimp, 1981, p. 11). The result is attitude toward the advertisement (A_{ad}) formation only (A_{ad} will be discussed in Section 2.7). Finally, moderate involvement

(2) occurs when brand information is processed but processing of non-brand information does not occur. Shimp suggested that this situation is unlikely to occur expect when a consumer wants to obtain specific facts about a particular brand (e.g., price). In this case, when that consumer sees an advertisement for the brand of interest, s/he looks only for the information required (e.g., price) and "[disregard] anything else" (Shimp, p. 11).

Figure 2.1 Four Types of Potential Attitude Formation that Result from Processing an Advertisement

	Non-Brand Information Processed?	
Brand Information Processed?	Yes	No
Yes	Potential for attitude toward brand and attitude toward ad to form 1	Potential for attitude toward brand to form 2
No	3 Potential for attitude toward ad to form	4 No potential for attitude toward brand or attitude toward ad to form

Adapted From: Shimp (1981, p. 11).

Miller, Maruyama, Beaber, and Valone (1976, p. 623) noted that "it may be irrational to scrutinize the plethora of counterattitudinal messages received daily. To the extent that one possesses only a limited amount of information-processing time and capacity, such scrutiny would disengage the thought processes from the exigencies of daily life." Although Miller et al. referred to counterattitudinal messages specifically, their argument can apply to the number of communication messages consumers encounter every

day. Petty and Cacioppo (1981) noted that because most communication messages are irrelevant or trivial, "it doesn't make sense for a person to think carefully about every message received daily" (p. 263). Therefore, persuasion (e.g., attitude change, behaviour), resulting from a communication message, appears to be dependent on the effort a person puts into thinking about, or elaborating on, the arguments presented in the message (Petty & Cacioppo, p. 263).

Petty and Cacioppo (1981) presented the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) and suggested that people process information in one of two ways (i.e., there are two routes to attitude change). As the name suggests, the degree to which a receiver of a message elaborates on the message varies. First, the central route to attitude change occurs "when persuasion results from thinking about the issue or arguments under consideration" (Petty & Cacioppo, p. 262). This route corresponds with high message involvement. When involvement in processing the message is high, attitudes toward the brand (A_B) that is advertised will be "formed after diligent consideration of the message points of an ad" (Laczniak & Carlson, 1989, p. 303). The central route as defined by Petty and Cacioppo can be equated with brand information processing as defined by Shimp (1981).

The second route to attitude change, the peripheral route, "results when persuasion results from non-issue-relevant concerns" (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981, p. 262-263). This route corresponds with low message involvement. Laczniak and Carlson (1989) suggested that "when involvement with a message is [low], the receiver is thought to give greater credence to 'peripheral' aspects of the ad" (p. 303). Buchholz and Smith (1991, p. 6) noted that this type of "processing occurs when uninvolved consumers lack sufficient motivation to pay close attention message points." For example, a consumer will look at the type of

media used, the type of appeal used (e.g., emotional, humourous), or the source of the message. Therefore, A_B will be formed based on the receiver's A_{ad}. The peripheral route as defined by Petty and Cacioppo can be equated with non-brand information processing as defined by Shimp (1981).

The ELM proposed by Petty and Cacioppo (1981) views the central and peripheral routes as alternative paths to persuasion however, "recent conceptualizations and empirical findings suggest that the central route may *supplement* rather than replace the peripheral route under some conditions" (Gardner, 1985, p. 193, emphasis in the original). The influence of A_{ad} on A_B has been established in low message-involvement conditions (e.g., Gardner, Mitchell, & Russo, 1985; Park & Young, 1986). However, as Gardner (1985) pointed out, support has also been found for the positive influence of A_{ad} on post-exposure A_B in high message-involvement conditions. For example, Muehling and Laczniak (1988) found that A_{ad} influences post-exposure A_B in both low and high involvement conditions. Gardner suggested that the findings by Muehling and Laczniak and others (e.g., Gardner, 1985; Lutz, MacKenzie, & Belch, 1983; Park & Young) "provide support for the idea that the central route to persuasion supplements rather than replaces the peripheral route when consumers carefully evaluate advertised brands" (p. 197).

Lutz (1985) noted that "Petty and Cacioppo treated central processing as pertaining to message *content* and peripheral processing as related to the *context* of the message" (p. 56, emphasis in the original). He further argued because A_{ad} is comprised of five antecedents that relate, in varying proportions (refer to Figure 2.6), to the central and peripheral routes as defined by Petty and Cacioppo (1981), A_{ad} can "be seen as the culmination of central and peripheral processes" (p. 56).

Baker and Lutz (1988) later proposed that advertising involvement is comprised of two distinct components: advertising message involvement (AMI) and advertising execution involvement (AEI). The focus of AMI is on the content of the advertisement and, as such, is reflects involvement with an issue (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981). In contrast, the focus of AEI is on the effort the receiver puts into processing the non-message aspects of the advertisement or the "executional elements" (Shimp, p. 10, 1981). This relates directly to the cognitive dimension in the multidimensional conceptualisation of A_{ad}.

Many experiments have used what can be termed as "forced advertisement exposure." That is, the viewing conditions in many experiments force participants to process the communication effort. For example, Gardner (1985) asked participants to evaluate an advertisement as if they were going to make a purchase decision. In this case, participants were highly involved in processing the communication effort (i.e., they were paying attention to the advertisement itself and evaluating the claims made).

In a natural setting (e.g., at home, driving in the car, walking down the street) an individual has the ability to explicitly process communication efforts (i.e., pay attention to) or to ignore communication efforts. For example, an individual may pay attentionto an advertisement contained within the magazine s/he is reading or s/he can choose to turn the page and not process the advertisement. However, some researchers have argued that merely being exposed to a communication effort will cause an individual to process the communication on some level (e.g., Debraix, 1995; Krugman, 1965). For example, an individual may be sitting in a room where a television set is turned on. Although s/he are not watching television per se, s/he may unconsciously process the programming and the communication efforts because s/he may hear the television advertisement or see it "out of

the corner of his/her eye." This individual would have therefore, processed the communication effort at some level (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981).

Many researchers attempt to remove the mediating effects of level of involvement with a communication effort by altering instructions given to different groups of subjects (e.g., Gardner, 1985; Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983). Altering instructions results in high involvement for one group of participants and low involvement for the other group. For example, Gardner achieved high involvement processing by asking participants to evaluate the information in the communication effort as if they were going to make a purchase. In contrast, low involvement was achieved by asking the participants to evaluate the communication effort based on style. However, in this study, and others, participants knew that the main task in the experiment was processing the communication effort, albeit from different perspectives. As such, this manipulation does not accurately reflect what happens in a natural setting.

Other researchers have attempted to produce natural settings in laboratory experiments by "hiding" the true purpose of the experiment. A natural setting can be achieved by embedding the communication effort into other material (Laczniak, Muehling, & Grossbart, 1989), altering the stated purpose of the experiment (Homer, 1990; Madden, Allen, & Twible, 1988), and asking questions not related to the communication effort (Lord, Lee, & Sauer, 1995). For example, Laczniak et al. embedded a print advertisement into editorial content "thereby allowing other stimuli (ads and articles) to compete for subjects' attention" (p. 32). Lord et al. told participants that the purpose of the study was to learn the "[participants'] feeling about the quality and impact of [a radio station's] programming for a student audience" (p. 78). Furthermore, in order to corroborate the

stated purpose of the study, participants responded to a set of enjoyment measures in addition to the measures of interest (e.g., attitude toward the advertisement, brand attitude, purchase intention).

2.6 Potential Moderators

An individual's level of involvement with a communication effort will affect the degree to which the effort is processed as well as those elements of the communication effort that are processed (i.e., message aspects, non-message aspects). An individual's response to communication efforts can be measured in more ways than actual behaviour (e.g., purchase of the product or service). Response can be measured in terms of attitude toward the communication effort (A_{ad}), post-exposure attitude toward the product or service (A_B), recall of the communication effort, likelihood of future behaviour (i e., intent to purchase or participate), as well as, behaviour execution (i.e., purchase or participation). However, these responses will vary, by individual, based on a number of factors. These factors can also be viewed as filters through which an organisation's communication efforts must pass before any decision is formulated with respect to the communication itself. These potential moderators include: past experience with the product or service, involvement with the product or service, commitment to the sponsoring organisation (of the product or service), subjective norms (as they related to the product of service) and pre-exposure attitude toward the product or service. Refer to Figure 1.3 for a visual representation of how these moderators are incorporated into the study framework. The framework does not propose any hierarchy of moderators (i.e., one moderator does not necessarily affect the processing of an organisation's communication effort before another).

2.6.1 Past Experience

Sherif and Hovland (1961) suggested that individual differences are attributable to "previous encounters" (p. 68) or past experience with a stimulus (e.g., product or service). Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), in describing the components of the Theory of Reasoned Action, stated that an individual's beliefs about a product, service, or issue are formed through direct observation and direct experience. Similarly, Bagozzi, Baumgartner, and Yi (1991) suggested that past experience with a product or service is the primary way in which attitudes toward that product or service are formed; a contention that has been supported by other researchers (e.g., Bentlar & Speckart, 1979; Fredricks & Dosset, 1983; Sheeran et al., 1999). An individual who has had a positive experience with, for example, swimming lessons, in the past is more likely to have a positive attitude toward swimming lessons as compared to someone who had a negative past experience. Other research has shown that an individual's past experience has an affect on his/her commitment to (i.e., involvement with) an activity (e.g., Bryan, 1977) as well as preference for facilities, services and programmes (e.g., Hammit, Knauf, & Noe, 1989).

Individuals will also use their pre-existing information, which is based on past experience, when they process communication efforts (Manfredo & Bright, 1991). Indeed, Manfredo and Bright found that those individuals with prior knowledge were less responsive to information brochures compared to those individuals who had no prior experience. Further support for viewing past experience as a moderator comes from Roggenbuck and Berrier (1982) who found that wilderness campers who had less experience with the activity were influenced to a greater degree by communication efforts as compared to those campers who had more prior experience.

Studies have also shown that past experience increases a consumer's intention to participate or purchase in the future (e.g., Mazursky, 1989; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998). Sonmez and Graefe found that those individuals who had visited a geographical region (i.e., had past experience with a destination) were more likely to travel to that same region on their next trip. In contrast, those who had no experience with a region were less likely to travel to that same region on their next trip. Mazursky found that past experiences have more influence on future travel decisions as compared to communication efforts of organisations. Although Mazursky and Somez and Graefe conducted their studies on past travel experience, based on previous research (e.g., Watson, Roggenbuck, & Williams, 1991), their findings are likely applicable to past experience with a product or service.

2.6.2 Involvement with the Product or Service

Laaksonen (1994, p. 2) argued that "the conceptualization of involvement in consumer behaviour owes much to social psychology, where we can find the historical roots of involvement research." Sherif and Cantril (1947) have been credited with the conceptualisation of involvement and the development of involvement research (see for example Arora, 1982; Havitz & Dimanche, 1997; Kim et al., 1997; Laaksonen, 1994). Sherif and his colleagues developed the 'Social Judgement Theory' which deals with an individual's attitude (Sherif & Cantril; Sherif & Hovland, 1961; Sherif, C., Sherif, M., & Nebergal, 1965). The construct of involvement is based on Social Judgement Theory.

Sherif and Hovland (1961) suggested that Social Judgement Theory has implications for the effects of communication. They found that "the effect of communication depends upon the placement of communication relative to the individual's latitudes of acceptance and rejection" (p. 191). The more highly involved an individual is

with an issue, the smaller his/her latitude of acceptance and the larger his/her latitude of rejection. An individual who is highly involved with an issue will categorise all contrary viewpoints to his/her own "into a single category or into very few categories at the pole opposite his [sic] own position" (Sherif & Hovland, p. 194). Sherif and Hovland suggested that the latitudes of acceptance (small) and rejection (large) make it very difficult to change the position of an individual who is highly involved.

Numerous researchers in the leisure, marketing, and consumer behaviour fields have studied the concept of involvement. Involvement research became a focus of attention in the 1970s for many academics studying consumer behaviour and in the 1980s for those in the leisure field. Despite, or perhaps because of, the number of researchers, from an array of academic backgrounds, focussing on involvement, a universal definition of the concept has yet to be agreed upon. The lack of a universal definition leads to the concept of involvement being operationalised in different ways by different researchers. Laaksonen (1994, p. 6) noted that "the heterogeneity with regard to involvement makes it possible that researchers who emphasize different definitions or even different aspects of the same definitions in their evaluations end up with quite distinct understandings of the basic nature of the concept."

Mitchell (1979) suggested that empirical studies should not be undertaken without a clear conceptual definition of involvement and that until such a definition is agreed upon, "the quality of empirical research in [the area of involvement] will be limited" (p. 191). Despite Mitchell's warning, many researchers have attempted to incorporate the concept of involvement into their empirical studies "without much attention being given to defining it properly or developing a valid measure for it" (Laaksonen, 1994, p. 7). Muehling,

Laczniak, and Andrews (1993) suggested that "the abundance of involvement research has also likely contributed to a lack of definitional and operational clarity surrounding the construct" (p. 21).

In contrast, other researchers have dedicated much time and effort to developing valid scales for measuring involvement (see for example Laurent & Kapferer, 1986; McQuarrie & Munson, 1987; Zaichkowsky, 1985). However, Laaksonen (1994) suggested that the goal of these studies was not to define the concept of involvement, which, according to Mitchell (1979), is necessary to produce meaningful empirical research. Rather, the goal was to develop a valid measure for involvement.

Attempts to develop a valid measure for involvement without an agreed upon conceptualisation of involvement will, according to Mitchell (1979), lead to empirical research that is of limited quality. As Jacoby and Chestnut (1978) argued "when concepts are not clearly and precisely defined, we increase the possibility of their being misunderstood, carelessly used, and improperly measured" (p. 79). Laaksonen (1994) therefore suggested that "we cannot proceed in developing hypotheses about the role and function of involvement in consumer behaviour until we first clarify what is meant by the concept" (p. 10). She goes on to argue that only after a conceptualisation of involvement has been agreed upon can progress be made in developing and testing the concept of involvement as well as its relationship to other concepts.

2.6.2.1 Involvement Definitions

There have been numerous attempts to classify involvement definitions to determine the fundamental features or characteristics of the construct. However, this can be difficult due to the varying opinions (e.g., definitions) about what constitutes involvement

(Laaksonen, 1994) and the "different proposals and ideas for conceptualizing involvement" (Andrews, Durvasula, & Akhter, 1990, p. 27). The difficulty defining involvement is further exacerbated by the diverse applications of the concept (Day, Stafford, & Camacho, 1995; Laaksonen) including, but not limited to: involvement with products (e.g., Laurent & Kapferer, 1985; Gill, Grossbart, & Laczniak, 1988; Slama & Tashchian, 1985), response to the media or the message (e.g., Muehling & Laczniak, 1988; Zaichowsky, 1985), involvement with an activity, issue, or interest (e.g., Dimanche, Havitz, & Howard, 1991; Kim et al., 1997; Madrigal, Havitz, & Howard, 1992), involvement with an advertisement (e.g., Shimp, 1981); and involvement with purchase decisions (e.g., Mittal, 1989a; Reid & Crompton, 1993; Slama & Tashchian).

In her attempt to classify definitions of involvement, Laaksonen (1994) analysed the current involvement literature in order to develop a series of guidelines. However, she reported finding limited information for classifying involvement definitions. Laaksonen noted that the most common way of analysing involvement definitions is to use a "pot-pourri conceptualization of involvement . . . [subsequently increasing] the ambiguity" (p. 23) of the construct. This ambiguity may be overcome, in part, by classifying involvement into distinct categories.

In order to overcome the ambiguity associated with the conceptualisation of involvement Laaksonen (1994) classified involvement definitions into three categories. The first series of definitions were labelled "cognitively-based." These definitions propose a linkage between an individual and an object. Costley (1988) suggested that the cognitive approach to involvement is related to the content dimension of involvement. She suggested

that "involvement should be included as a covariate . . . especially [in] studies of advertising effectiveness" (p. 554).

Laaksonen conceptualised these definitions as "perceived personal relevance of the object derived from the relative importance of the object-related attitude/consequences and specified in terms of the structural characteristics of this object-related cognitive structure" (p. 34). Terms and definitions consistent with this conceptualisation are outlined in the Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Cognitively-Based Conceptualisations and Definitions of Involvement

Term	Definition	Researcher(s)
Ego-Involvement	"the degree of ego-involvement can be deteremined by the relative importance of an attitude that the individual holds regarding the object or activity"	Hupfer & Gardner (1971, pp. 262-263, as cited in Laaksonen, 1994)
Enduring Involvement	"is a long-term interest in and concern with the product which is independent of situational influence and is based on the strength of the product's relationship to individual needs and values"	Bloch (1981, p. 97, as cited in Laaksonen, 1994)
Involvement	"a person's perceived relevance of the object based on their needs, values, and interests"	Zaichkowsky (1985, p. 342)

Adapted From: Laaksonen (1994, p. 27)

The second series were considered to be individual-state definitions of involvement. These definitions "focus on the mental state of an individual evoked by a stimulus or stimuli when determining involvement" (Laaksonen, 1994, p. 37). However, Costley

(1988) suggested that this approach tends to be "defined in terms of other concepts" (p. 554) such as arousal, motivations, attention, and interest. Costley posited that "if involvement is any of these [concepts], it is not a unique construct and is therefore unnecessary" (p. 554).

Laaksonen (1994) subdivided individual-state definitions into three, more specific, characteristics of an individual's mental state: stimulus-centred; temporal-state, and enduring state definitions. In contrast to cognitively-based definitions, Laaksonen argued that this conceptualisation of involvement "[does] not require personal relevance or the arousal of central values as a necessary prerequisite for involvement to exist" (p. 37). Terms and definitions consistent with this conceptualisation are outlined in the Table 2.3.

Other researchers have conceptualised involvement as being comprised of a number of elements. Laurent and Kapferer (1985) conceptualised involvement as being constructed of five factors: importance, pleasure, sign, risk importance, and risk probability. In other papers, Kapferer and Laurent (1985 and 1993) used the term interest as opposed to importance although it appears, based on the definitions provided, to be the same factor.

Mittal (1989b) however, argued that only the 'importance' facet measured involvement. Mittal conceptualised the antecedents of involvement as consisting of two categories of goals, utilitarian, and psycho-social. He suggested that the remaining facets proposed by Laurent and Kapferer (1985) could be considered antecedents to involvement with pleasure and sign categorised as psycho-social and risk consequence and risk probability categorised as utilitarian goals.

Table 2.3 Individual-State Conceptualisation of Involvement

Sub-category	Term	Definition	Researcher(s)
Stimulus-centred	Involvement	"ability of a situation to elicit from individuals, concern for their behavior in that situation"	Houston & Rothschild (1978, p. 184, as cited in Laaksonen, 1994)
Temporal-state	Involvement	"an internal state variable that indicates the amount of arousal, interest or drive evoked by a particular stimulus of situation"	Mitchell (1979, p. 194)
	Involvement	"a motivational state that has been activated by a stimulus, situation, or a decision task"	Mittal (1989b, p. 699)
	Situational Involvement	"a temporary concern with a product based on the consumers' desire to attain a particular extrinsic goal which may derive from a purchase and/or anticipated usage situation"	Bloch (1981, p. 94, as cited in Laaksonen, 1994)
Enduring-state	Enduring Involvement	"an indiviudal difference variable representing an arousal potential of a product or activity that causes personal relevance"	Higie & Feick (1989, p. 690)

Adapted From: Laaksonen, 1994, p. 37-38.

It is important to note that Laurent and Kapferer (1985) used the terms facets and antecedents interchangeably which, according to Mittal (1989b), presents some problems. Mittal argued that if the factors are assumed to be antecedents then Laurent and Kapferer's scale does not measure involvement itself. Conversely, if the factors are assumed to be facets then involvement is determined to be multi-faceted. However, if one accepts Mittal's argument that the importance factor measures involvement while the other factors measure

antecedents then Laurent and Kapferer's scale is unidimensional. Mittal stated that it is not possible to empirically demonstrate that pleasure, sign, risk consequence, and risk probability are antecedents to involvement. However, structural equation modelling may provide answers to this problem.

2.6.2.2 Classification of Involvement Scales

Many attempts have been made to classify involvement scales based on one or more facets. Perhaps the most common, yet controversial, classification is that of multidimensional, or multifaceted scales, versus unidimensional, or single faceted scales. Although both multidimensional (e.g., CIP, RPII) and unidimensional scales (e.g., PII) have been used extensively in the literature, there is still no consensus as to whether involvement is actually multidimensional, as viewed by Laurent and Kapferer (1985), or whether it can be measured using a unidimensional scale as Zaichkowsky (1985) purported.

Havitz and Dimanche (1990) proposed that "multifaceted scales that portray the involvement construct as a profile of scores, rather than a single score, are most appropriate for measuring involvement" (p. 184). Although they were referring specifically to recreational and tourist experiences, it can be argued that multifaceted scales are appropriate for measuring involvement with other products and services (e.g., Laurent & Kapferer, 1993). However, Reid and Crompton (1993, p. 196) appeared to disagree with the proposition set forth by Havitz and Dimanche. Rather, Reid and Crompton argued that participants' decision-making processes (paradigms) are unlikely to be affected by a multidimensional involvement construct as compared to a unidimensional construct.

Havitz and Dimanche (1997) supported their contention that multidimensional scales are more appropriate and suggested that the two measures (multidimensional and unidimensional) "provide vastly different managerial and marketing information" (p. 272). More recently, Havitz and Dimanche (1999) argued that "cumulative evidence . . . suggests that involvement profiles provide vastly different information . . . than do unidimensional scales and global items" (p. 143). However, they noted that the discussion regarding unidimensional and multidimensional scales is not yet over. Despite this, they suggested that when multidimensional scales are used, segmentation techniques must be employed because different facets "appear to drive the behavior of some people more than others" (p. 144). Furthermore, they suggested that the mediating effects of other constructs should be investigated more thoroughly (e.g., commitment).

Day et al., (1995) classified involvement scales using a 5x2 matrix as depicted in Table 2.4. This matrix classifies type of involvement into enduring and situational, and object of involvement into activity/interest/issue, product, service, advertisement, and purchase/decision as opposed to whether the scale was multidimensional or unidimensional. Day et al. suggested that involvement type is comprised of a hierarchy wherein general involvement, as denoted by activity/interest/issue, leads to more specific involvement; product or service involvement. This product/service involvement subsequently leads to even more specific involvement in the form of involvement with advertisements (both media and message), and purchases and decisions.

Table 2.4 Classification of Involvement Scales

Involvement Object	Involvement Type: Enduring		Situational	
	Authors	**Context**	**Authors**	**Context**
Activity/ Interest/ Issue	Arora (1982) Oliver & Bearden (1985)	Education Body Weight	Unger & Kernan (1983) Norris & Coleman (1992)	Leisure Magazine Articles
Product	Higie & Feick (1988) McQuarrie & Munson (1986)	General General	Research needed	
Service	Research needed		Research needed	
Adver-tisement	Null cell[1]		Celsi & Olson (1988) Muehling & Laczniak (1988)	Message Message
Purchase/ Decision	Null cell[1]		Slama & Tashchian (1987) Zaichkowsky (1985)	General General

[1]Day et al. suggested that "there may be no need for a measure of enduring involvement with advertisements or with purchases/decisions" (p. 71)

Adapted From: Day, Stafford, and Camacho (1995, p. 71).

The classification scheme put forth by Day and her colleagues (1995) is an improvement on prior classification schemes as it distinguishes between involvement with a service and involvement with a product. Although they did suggest that some researchers may have used the term product in a generic sense, referring to both products and services, no scale to measure enduring or situational involvement with services was reported in their classification. Furthermore, no involvement scale exists for measuring situational involvement with a product. These are major gaps that future studies should attempt to close.

2.6.2.3 Involvement Scales in Leisure Research

Havitz and Dimanche (1997, 1999) summarised leisure-involvement research from 1988 through 1997 however, they also included research conducted in a *leisure context* and therefore included studies by researchers who do not typically conduct leisure research. Of the studies reported, 15 used single faceted scales (i.e., PII) whereas 27 used multi-faceted scales (i.e., CIP or RPII). In sum, Zaichkowsky's (1985) PII scale was used seven times, McQuarrie and Munson's RPII scale, an extension on PII, was used 11 times. Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) CIP scale was used 21 times, while the other scales (i.e., LRI, UNI, and a combined PII/RPII) were used only once each.

Kim et al. (1997) suggested the leisure researchers tend to use the involvement scales developed by Laurent and Kapferer (1985) and Zaichkowsky (1985) to measure social-psychological involvement. However, they noted that "there are no standard indices used by leisure researchers to measure behavioral involvement" (Kim et al., pg. 325). Therefore, in their study, Kim et al. developed a series of indicators in an attempt to develop a general measure of behavioural involvement.

Kim et al. (1997) submitted seventeen open-ended questions measuring the number of "behaviours" related to bird watching the respondent had (e.g., number of birding trips, number of days spent on birding trips, number of bird species identified, and number of pairs of binoculars owned) to a factor analysis. They also incorporated two additional measures of behavioural involvement including a composite score for the number of birding sites visited and number of times attending a bird-related celebration. However, behavioural involvement, as developed by Kim et al. (1997) may be a better measure of past behaviour/experience than behavioural involvement. Kim et al. (1997) found that, in

terms of predicting intentions to do something, behavioural involvement was better than social-psychological involvement and commitment.

2.6.3 Commitment

The concept of commitment has been studied in numerous fields (e.g., consumer behaviour, leisure, marketing, and social psychology) and from a number of different perspectives. The concept of commitment has been used in a diverse number of applications including, but not limited to: commitment to an issue (e.g., Hovland, Harvey, & Sherif, 1957), brand commitment (e.g., Beatty, Kahle, & Homer, 1987), relationship commitment (e.g., Morgan & Hunt, 1994), organisational commitment (e.g., Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mowday et al., 1979), and commitment to a course of action (e.g., Cialdini, Cacioppo, Bassett, & Miller, 1978). In a leisure context, commitment has been studied in the context of "personal and behavioural commitment to a leisure activity" (Kim et al., 1997, p. 324), psychological commitment to service alternatives (e.g., Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998), psychological commitment to an activity (e.g., Gahwiler & Havitz, 1998), investment of self to an activity (e.g., Haworth, 1984), and has been used to segment those who participate in an activity (e.g., Yair, 1992).

Given the wide application of commitment, it appears that no one single definition of the concept is adequate. Indeed, Pritchard, Havitz, and Howard (1999) suggested that "viewing commitment as a single general trait is somewhat problematic, given the multiple conceptual ingredients" (p. 334). Buchanan (1985) suggested that "the fact that commitment is often used in a nonanalytic ad hoc context has relegated it to a catch-all word synonymous with such terms as dedication, loyalty, devotion, and attachment" (p. 402).

It does appear however, that the definition and conceptualisation of commitment appears to depend, at least in part, on the perspective from which one is studying the concept. Keisler (1971) noted that "the connotations of the separate definitions [of commitment] can be quite different" (p. 25). These differences will be explored.

2.6.3.1 Commitment from a Social Psychological Perspective

Interest in the concept of commitment can be traced to sociology and psychology. Kiesler and Sakumura (1966, p. 349) and Keisler (1971, p. 30), from a psychological perspective, defined commitment as "the pledging or binding of the individual to behavioral acts." He further suggested that commitment can be viewed as being on a continuum, and stated that "people are referred to as more or less committed to some behavior, rather than being simply committed or not" (p. 30).

Drawing on his previous work, Keisler (1971) suggested that there are four underlying assumptions of commitment. First, Keisler and Sakumura (1966) suggested that an "individual attempts to resolve inconsistencies between the attitudes he [sic] holds and behavioral acts which he [sic] . . . is induced to perform" (p. 30). However, Keisler pointed out that this assumption has no other function than to acknowledge dissonance and consistency theories in the social psychology literature. Second, Keisler and Sakumura suggested that commitment to a behaviour, an issue, or an idea, in effect, increases resistance to change. The more committed someone is to, for example, an issue, the less likely s/he will change his/her mind about that issue. Keisler (1977) noted that "highly committed subjects . . . show greater resistance to subsequent attack on their beliefs" (p. 65).

Keisler (1971) outlined the relationship between commitment and the effects of commitment as the third assumption. He noted that "the magnitude of the effect of commitment should be positively and monotonically related to the degree of commitment" (p. 32). That is, greater commitment leads to greater effect. The final underlying assumption of commitment, as outlined by Keisler, is that commitment can be manipulated. Keisler (p. 33) suggested that commitment can be increased by one or more of the following: the publicness of the act, the importance of the act, the degree of irrevocability of the act, the number of acts performed by the subject, and the subject's perceived freedom (i.e., volition).

2.7.3.2 Commitment from an Organisational Behaviour Perspective

Mowday et al. (1979) noted that, from an organisational behaviour perspective, there are numerous definitions of commitment. McCaul and Hinsz (1995) pointed out that organisational commitment has been defined as attachment to the organisation (Buchanan, 1974), identification with the organisation (Lee, 1971), and involvement in the organisation (Steers, 1977). According to Mowday et al. and Allen and Meyer (1990), organisational commitment tends to be defined in terms of behaviour or attitude. Commitment-related behaviours "represent sunk costs in the organization where individuals forgo alternative courses of action and choose to link themselves to the organization" (Mowday et al., p. 225). Attitudinal commitment, in contrast, "represents a state in which an individual identifies with a particular organization and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in order to facilitate these goals" (Mowday et al., p. 225).

Based on these two aspects of organisational commitment, Mowday et al. (1979) defined organisational commitment as, "the relative strength of an individual's

identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (p. 226). They further suggested that the following three related factors underlie the definition: "a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; . . . willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization; . . . and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization" (p. 226).

As such, this definition of organisational commitment suggests that individuals are not passively loyal to the organisation but actively participate in activities that lead to the wellbeing of the organisation (Mowday et al., 1979). Further, the definition refers to commitment to the organisation at which one works, however, it does not preclude individuals from being committed to other organisations such as a political party, a union, or a religious institution (Mowday et al.).

Allen and Meyer (1990), although they were concerned with attitudinal commitment as opposed to behavioural commitment, conceptualised commitment in a somewhat different way than did Mowday et al. (1979). Allen and Meyer, suggested that attitudinal commitment is comprised of three themes. The first theme, affective attachment corresponds to Mowday et al.'s definition of commitment (i.e., identification with and involvement in the organisation).

The second theme, perceived costs, views commitment as a tendency to "engage in consistent lines of activity" (Becker, 1960, p. 33). Allen and Meyer (1990) suggested, however, that scores on a scale measuring perceived costs typically "reflect an unwillingness to leave the organisation, in spite of attractive inducements to do so" (p. 3). Based on these findings, Allen and Meyer and Meyer and Allen (1984) suggested that the scale may be measuring affective attachment. The third theme outlined by Allen and Meyer

is that of obligation or "a belief of one's responsibility to the organization" (p. 3). Meyer and Allen (1987, as cited in Allen & Meyer, 1990) defined the three themes as "affective," "continuance" (perceived costs), and "normative" (obligation) commitment.

Mowday et al. (1979) implied that organisational commitment is a global attitude however, they conceptualised it as consisting of three distinct parts (i.e., goal and value acceptance, motivation, and intention to stay). As such, their Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) probes these dimensions, however, as McCaul and Hinsz (1995) pointed out, factor analyses from Mowday et al. themselves indicated that there is only one factor as well as a high degree of internal consistency. McCaul and Hinsz therefore argued that the OCQ measures one dimension that represents a global construct of organisational commitment.

McCaul and Hinsz (1995) proposed, based on Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) Theory of Reasoned Action, that organisational commitment can be viewed as a global attitude toward the organisation. In brief, the Theory of Reasoned Action suggests that a person's beliefs about a behaviour influences his/her attitude toward that behaviour. An individual's attitude toward the behaviour (along with subjective norms) influences his/her intent to perform that behaviour, finally, intention to perform the behaviour leads to the likelihood that the behaviour will be performed. Based on this, McCaul and Hinsz postulated that a global measure of organisational commitment should include only measures of attitude toward the behaviour.

In order to test their proposition, McCaul and Hinsz (1995) administered a questionnaire containing five separate measures of organisational commitment (i.e., a version of Mowday et al.'s OCQ, a measure of respondents' global attitude toward the

organisation, a measure of respondents' willingness to work hard for the organisation, a scale measuring intention to leave the organisation, and a scale measuring respondents' acceptance or rejection of the organisation's goals and values) on two separate occasions to the same respondents. They reported that all of the scales used in the questionnaire had acceptable levels of internal consistency however, they did not report the alphas.

Based on their analyses, McCaul and Hinsz (1995) found support for their proposition that organisational commitment can be conceptualised as a global attitude toward the organisation. The global attitude measure explained 67% of the variance in the OCQ at time one and 70% at time two. Further, they found that the correlations between the global attitude measure and OCQ were stronger than the reliability of the OCQ in a test-retest situation. Lam (1998) also found that the test-retest reliability of OCQ, over 10 weeks, was moderate. He further found that reversed items generally had very low test-retest reliability. McCaul and Hinsz proposed that a global attitude measure is a more precise measure of organisational commitment than is Mowday et al.'s (1979) OCQ.

2.6.3.3 Brand Commitment

The terms commitment to a brand and brand loyalty are often used interchangeably. Schiffman and Kanuk (1994) defined brand loyalty as "consistent preference and/or purchase of the same brand in a specific product or service category" (p. 658). However, Schiffman and Kanuk noted that there is a debate around whether brand loyalty should be conceptualised as behaviour (i.e., repeat purchases) or attitude (i.e., a consumer's attitude toward the brand). Indeed, Robertson (1976) defined commitment as "the strength of the individuals' belief system with regard to a product or brand" (p. 19). Robertson further

noted that the "purchase of a brand, or even brand loyalty, may not involve commitment as such, if it is not associated with a closely held belief" (p. 19).

Lastovicka and Gardner (1978) defined brand commitment as an emotional or psychological attachment to a brand. They suggested that commitment causes a person's behaviour to be more resistant to change. This view appears to be consistent with Keisler (1977) who found that highly committed individuals were more resistant to change. Lastovicka and Gardner also viewed commitment as a component of involvement. Indeed, many authors concerned with commitment to a brand appear to interchange involvement and commitment. For example, Muncy and Hunt (1984) conceptualised commitment as a type of involvement.

Beatty et al., (1988) however, viewed "ego involvement, purchase involvement, and brand commitment as three distinctly different components of the involvement-commitment model" (p. 153). Indeed, using LISREL, they found that, at least for soft drinks, involvement and commitment (i.e., brand loyalty) are distinct constructs. Further, they found that ego involvement and purchase involvement are antecedents of brand commitment.

2.6.3.4 Commitment and Leisure/Tourism

Buchanan (1985) pointed out that because there is no agreed upon conceptualisation of commitment, "leisure researchers have made little attempt to integrate the concept of commitment with existing theories of leisure behavior" (p. 402). As such, leisure researchers tend to use the term commitment without defining or illustrating what it encompasses. In his attempt to clarify the concept, Buchanan suggested that commitment is comprised of three components. First, "commitment requires consistent or focused

behavior and implies a rejection of alternative behaviors" (p. 403). This conceptualisation of commitment appears to be consistent with brand loyalty. Just as an individual who is brand loyal and therefore purchases a particular brand with some degree of consistency, an individual can be committed to a particular leisure pursuit. Buchanan provides the example of a backpacker and suggests that "for a backpacker to be considered a committed participant, . . . there must be come indication that the individual's backpacking behavior has persisted over time" (p. 403).

The second component necessary for committed behaviour to exist, according to Buchanan (1985), is the notion of "side bets." This component was presented and described by Becker (1960). Based on Becker's description Buchanan suggested that "commitment . . . requires involving other interests (side bets) in the continuation of a specific behavior" (p. 404). These side bets, according to Buchanan, can take the form of effort, financial outlay, friendship, and self-perception.

The final component is that "commitment involves some degree of affective attachment to the goals and values of a role, an activity, or an organization" (Buchanan, 1985, p. 405). The component of affective attachment has been widely used in the organisational commitment literature (e.g., Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mowday et al., 1979). Buchanan suggested that there are three levels of affective attachment: continuance which is the lowest level, cohesion, and control which is the highest level of affective attachment.

Buchanan (1985) argued that "commitment has not been adequately examined or integrated into leisure behavior research" (p 407). Recently however, many leisure researchers have attempted to define commitment as it applies to leisure and investigate the consequences of committed leisure behaviour. Kim et al. (1997), in their study of

birdwatchers, found that commitment was correlated with social psychological involvement and behavioural involvement. They called for further research to "test the efficacy of the involvement and commitment scales in predicting behavioral intentions" (p. 338).

Iwasaki and Havitz (1998) developed a "conceptual model of the relationships between involvement, psychological commitment, and behavioral loyalty" (p. 259). They suggested that involvement leads to psychological commitment which increases an individual's resistance to change and subsequently leads to behavioural loyalty. As discussed previously, many consumer researchers tend to use commitment and loyalty interchangeably, as have leisure researchers. However, Iwasaki and Havitz make a clear distinction between commitment and loyalty. Based on their conceptual model, psychological commitment leads to behavioural loyalty, through an increase in resistance to change.

Pritchard et al. (1999) examined the relationship between commitment and loyalty. In order to do so "a valid and reliable measure of commitment needed to be developed" (p. 338). The development of the Psychological Commitment Instrument (PCI) resulted in four dimensions of psychological commitment: resistance to change, position involvement, volitional choice, and informational complexity.

2.6.4 Subjective Norms

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), in their Theory of Reasoned Action, suggested that, for every behaviour, an individual has what they term a subjective norm. A subjective norm comprised of two components. The first component, as discussed by Fishbein and Ajzen is

a person's evaluation of what s/he believes important people such as friends, family, or co-workers think about him/her engaging in a specified behaviour (normative belief).

Petty and Cacioppo (1981, p. 193) described normative belief as "a person's perceptions of the social pressures to perform or not perform the behavior in question." The second component of subjective norm is the person's motivation to comply with the expectations of these important people (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Petty and Cacioppo (p. 193) noted that "generally, people will perform behaviors . . . that are popular with others and will refrain from behaviors . . . that are unpopular with others." For example, Amanda may have a positive attitude toward registering for tennis lessons however, she will also estimate what other, important, people think about her registering for tennis lessons or their expectations of whether she should or should not perform the behaviour. However, she may or may not be motivated to comply with their expectations.

Research has suggested that an individual's subjective norms, as they relate to a particular product or service, are significantly related to both intentions and attitudes. The Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) does not show a link between subjective norms and attitudes however, it is reasonable to assume that an individual will develop attitudes toward something based, in part, on what others think about it. Indeed, Fredricks and Dossett (1983) and Sheeran et al. (1999) found a significant positive relationship between subjective norms and attitudes.

The Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) shows a link between subjective norms and intentions suggesting that if important others think an individual should do something, that individual's intentions, regarding that behaviour, increase. The

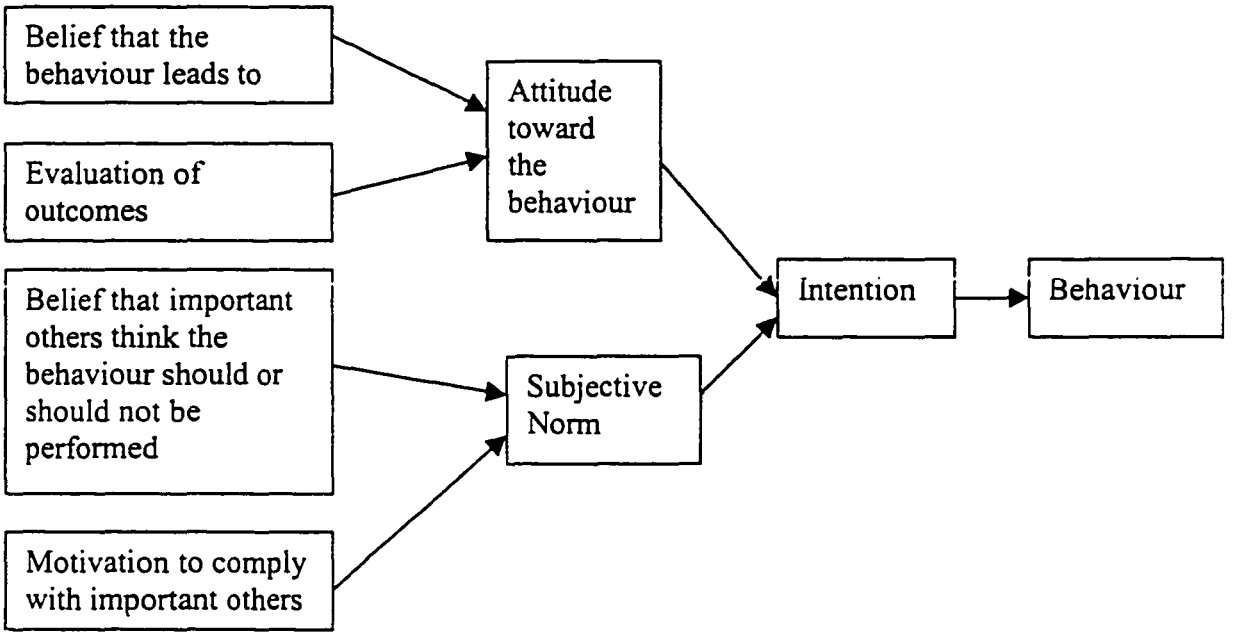
association between subjective norms and intentions has been confirmed by numerous researchers (e.g., Oliver & Bearden, 1985; Sheeran et al., 1999).

2.6.5 Attitude toward a Behaviour

The Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) integrates the concepts of beliefs, attitudes, subjective norms, and intention "into a structure that is designed to lead to both better explanations and better prediction of behavior" (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1994, p. 246). A simplified association between these concepts is depicted in Figure 2.2. Basically, a person holds beliefs about a behaviour (e.g., purchasing a product or service, participating in an event or activity) as well as beliefs about how important people view this behaviour (i.e., should or should not be performed). These beliefs, in turn, influence a person's attitude toward the product or service as well as his/her subjective norms. A person's subjective norms and attitude toward a behaviour influences his/her intent to engage in the behaviour. Finally, intent may or may not lead to action (i.e., performance of the behaviour).

The attitude toward the product or service can also be interpreted as a person's attitude toward the behaviour (i.e., attitude toward purchasing the product or service). Subjective norms are developed based on a person's assessment of what s/he expects important people or groups (e.g., family, co-workers) to think about the behaviour (e.g., approve or disapprove of taking a skydiving) and by a person's "motivation to comply with those expectations" (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, p. 302). This concept was discussed in Section 2.6.4. A person's attitude toward the behaviour plus his/her subjective norms affects his/her intention to purchase the product or service in the future (especially the near future, e.g., purchase a skydiving this afternoon).

Figure 2.2 Theory of Reasoned Action (simplified)



Adapted From: Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980

The Theory of Reasoned Action is concerned with a person's attitude toward a behaviour (e.g., registering for tennis lessons) as opposed to his/her attitude toward a person (e.g., the tennis instructor) or his/her attitude toward an object (e.g., the advertisement for tennis lessons). Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), based on Thurstone's (1931, cited in Fishbein & Ajzen) writings, suggested that "attitude may be conceptualized as the amount of affect for or against some object" (p. 11) or behaviour. Fishbein and Ajzen noted that affect is synonymous with evaluation. Therefore, a positive evaluation of a behaviour indicates a positive attitude toward that behaviour.

Based on this conceptualisation of attitude, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) argued that attitude should be measured using a bipolar scale (as opposed to a unipolar scale). The anchors of the scale must have affective or evaluative dimensions with respect to the attitude under investigation. For example, to directly measure a person's attitude toward

registering for tennis lessons, a bipolar scale could be anchored with the terms appealing and unappealing. This concept of attitude toward the brand will be discussed in further detail in Section 2.8.

2.7 Attitude toward the Communication Effort (A_{ad})

It was first suggested, in the 1970s, that research was required in order to increase understanding of how consumers respond to or evaluate organisations' advertising efforts (e.g., Holbrook, 1978). Studies in this area emerged in the 1980s when researchers such as Mitchell and Olson (1981) and Shimp (1981) introduced the concept of attitude toward the advertisement (A_{ad}) and suggested that it was an important construct for study within consumer behaviour. Mitchell and Olson found evidence that A_{ad} "partially mediated advertising effects on brand attitudes" (p. 330) thereby sparking further interest in the concept. It appears that interest in consumers' A_{ad}, by both academics and organisations (i.e., practitioners), is increasing as evidenced by the number of articles focussing on A_{ad} (e.g., Brown & Stayman, 1992; Bruner, 1998; Muehling & McCann, 1993).

A_{ad} however, cannot be equated to attitude toward advertising in general. Lutz (1985, p. 53) defined attitude toward advertising as "a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner to advertising in general." However, Bauer and Greyser (1968) found some evidence that how consumers evaluate an individual advertisement is related, at least in part, to their attitude toward advertising in general. Therefore, if a consumer has a negative attitude toward advertising in general, s/he is more likely to have a negative attitude toward a particular advertisement.

Lutz (1985) provides the following "syllogistic reasoning process" (p. 53) to summarise the relationship between attitude toward advertising and A_{ad}: "In general,

advertising is not credible; this is an ad; therefore, this ad is not credible" (p. 53). As such, attitude toward advertising is related to, but distinct from, A_{ad}. Pollay and Mittal (1993, p. 99) developed and tested "a comprehensive model of attitudes toward advertising [that] includes three personal utility factors (product information, social image information, hedonic amusement) and four socioeconomic factors (good for the economy, fostering materialism, corrupting values, falsity/no-sense)." In contrast, A_{ad} is concerned only with consumers' reactions to the advertisement under investigation, at the time of the study (i.e., not at another point in time, as with repeated exposures) (Lutz, 1985).

Shimp (1981) suggested that there are two distinct advertising approaches; attitude toward the brand (A_B) and attitude toward the advertisement (A_{ad}). In the A_B approach, positive consumer response to a particular brand is brought about through advertisements. Shimp (p. 9) noted that favourable consumer attitudes toward a brand are fostered "by structuring ads to influence consumers' beliefs and evaluations regarding the favorable consequences of consuming the brand." This influence is achieved, in part, by emphasising product (or service) attributes and benefits in advertisements.

Although A_B, as an advertising approach, had support from both practitioners and behavioural theorists (e.g., Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), Shimp (1981, p. 9) argued that use of this approach is limited to those brands that "truly [possess] relative advantages over competitive offerings." For parity products (i.e., a product that is equivalent to the competition), Shimp suggested that the A_{ad} advertising approach should be used. Mitchell and Olson (1981, p. 327) interpreted A_{ad} as a measure that "accurately reflects subjects' evaluations of the overall advertising stimulus." A_B will be discussed in greater detail in

section 2.8 however, because the two concepts are related, reference will be made to A_B throughout the current section.

In the A_{ad} approach, product or service attributes and benefits are not necessarily emphasised, rather, "effort is directed instead at creating a favorable attitude toward the advertisement in order to leave consumers with a positive feeling after processing the ad" (Shimp, 1981, p. 9-10). The assumption implicit in this type of advertising is that "consumers are hedonistically motivated by the desire to feel good" (Shimp, p. 10). In contrast, Shimp suggested that consumer decision making is assumed to be rational and systematic in the A_B approach to advertising.

Although there is no universally accepted definition, there appears to be two distinct ways of conceptualising A_{ad} (Muehling & McCann, 1993). Some researchers conceptualise A_{ad} as a unidimensional construct (e.g., Edell & Burke, 1987; Laczniak & Muehling, 1990) whereas others have conceptualised it as multidimensional (e.g., Burton & Lichtenstein, 1988; Shimp, 1981). However, Muehling and McCann found that many authors do not conceptually define A_{ad}, "electing instead to operationally define the construct in the Methods section of the paper" (p. 26). The lack of a universally accepted conceptualisation and definition of A_{ad} has led to diversity in the operationalisation of A_{ad} (Bruner, 1998). Madden, Dillon, and Twible (1986) noted that "the lack of congruence in operationalization may well reflect theoretical vagueness of the [A_{ad}] construct" (p. 75).

The conceptualisation of A_{ad} as unidimensional or multidimensional dictates the scale(s) used to measure the construct. Bruner (1998) pointed out that when A_{ad} is conceptualised as unidimensional, a general evaluative scale is used to measure A_{ad}. In contrast, when A_{ad} is conceptualised as multidimensional, two or more measures are used.

However, the conceptualisation of A_{ad} as unidimensional or multidimensional has not produced identical operationalisations. Rather, Bruner found that there tends to be a great diversity of scales used by researchers. For example, Bruner noted that Homer (1990) and Yi (1993) "appeared to embrace the single component model of A_{ad} and thereby employed one scale to measure it" (p. 2). However, Homer used three bi-polar adjectives in her scale whereas Yi used four. Furthermore, only one adjective was common between the scale used by Homer and the scale used by Yi.

2.7.1 A_{ad} as Unidimensional

Muehling and McCann (1993) noted that the unidimensional construct of A_{ad} used in studies is typically based on the definition offered by Lutz (1985) who defined A_{ad} as "a predisposition to respond in a favorable or unfavorable manner to a particular advertising stimulus during a particular exposure occasion" (p. 46). Lutz and his colleagues (e.g., MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989) argued that the conceptual definition proposed by Lutz is comprised of an affective or evaluative component (i.e., response to the communication stimulus) but, does not include a cognitive or behavioural component (i.e., the definition does not suggest that any action is taken as a result of exposure to the advertisement). MacKenzie and Lutz noted that "the distinctions between cognitive, evaluative, and affective reactions . . . are treated as antecedents to the general attitudinal response denoted as A_{ad}" (p. 49).

It must be noted that some authors explicitly use affect and evaluation interchangeably (e.g., Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) whereas others separate the concepts (e.g., Debraix, 1995; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Madden et al., 1988). Fishbein and Ajzen appeared to acknowledge that affect and evaluation are distinct concepts when they noted that

"although it might be argued that there is a difference between a person's judgement that an object makes him [sic] feel good and his evaluation that the object is good, there is little evidence to suggest that a reliable empirical distinction between these two variables can be made" (p. 11, footnote 2). Madden et al. however, found evidence that, at least in terms of advertising-response, there is a "conceptual distinction between cognitive evaluation and affective reaction" (p. 249).

Lutz (1985) and MacKenzie and Lutz (1989) suggested that the conceptual definition proposed by Lutz is consistent with Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) definition of attitude. Although they did not address why or how the definitions are consistent it can be assumed that a person's A_{ad} does not directly lead to behaviour or action. This assumption is consistent with Mitchell and Olson's (1981) interpretation of A_{ad}. In the same sense, Fishbein and Ajzen suggested that attitude toward performing a behaviour leads to the formation of intentions surrounding the behaviour which, in turn, correlate with actual behaviour or action. Therefore, there is not a direct link between attitude and behaviour, rather, the relationship is mediated by intent.

Those researchers who view A_{ad} as unidimensional tend to use the definition proposed by Lutz (1985) (e.g., Burton & Lichtenstein, 1988; Laczniak & Carlson, 1989; MacKenzie et al., 1986). However, other definitions, also based on a unidimensional view of A_{ad}, have emerged. These definitions appear to view A_{ad} as being comprised of only an affective component (Muehling & McCann, 1993). For example, Mitchell and Olson (1981, p. 327) suggested that "[a] straightforward interpretation of the A_{ad} measure is that it accurately reflects subjects' evaluations of the overall advertising stimulus." Similarly, Phelps and Thorson (1991, p. 202) suggested that A_{ad} is "a viewer's general liking of

disliking of an advertisement." Gardner (1983, p. 315), pointed out that A_{ad} can be "viewed as an indication of generalized affective reaction to the ad."

2.7.2 A_{ad} as Multidimensional

Percy and Lautman (1986) noted that despite more attention being given to measures of A_{ad}, and with the exception of Shimp (1981), "one troubling aspect has been a seeming reliance upon only the 'evaluative' or affective related scales to measure an attitude toward advertising" (p. 59). In fact, Muehling and McCann (1993) noted that the multidimensional view of A_{ad} stems from Shimp's (1981) proposition that A_{ad} is comprised of both a cognitive dimension and an emotional dimension. Shimp stated that the two dimensions are distinct and "non-equivalent in their impact on consumers, due to the different underlying mechanisms" (p. 10).

With the cognitive dimension, consumers develop A_{ad} "by consciously processing [the] executional elements" (Shimp, 1981, p. 10) of the advertisement itself. Muehling and McCann (1993) noted that executional elements include source characteristics, use of humour or fear, and other elements. For example, a consumer may like one advertisement because it is humourous and dislike another because s/he did not find the spokesperson attractive. In contrast, the emotional dimension does not require conscious processing of executional elements, and attitudes are formed based on the emotional response evoked by the advertisement. For example, an advertisement may evoke a feeling of happiness, love, or sadness.

Although Muehling and McCann (1993) suggested that the unidimensional construct of A_{ad} used in studies is typically based on the definition offered by Lutz (1985), others, who view A_{ad} as multidimensional, also use the definition proposed by Lutz (e.g.,

Burton & Lichtenstein, 1988). Other multidimensional conceptualisations of A_{ad} have been developed in addition to cognitive and emotional. Olney, Holbrook, and Batra (1991) proposed a multidimensional view of A_{ad} that incorporated three elements: hedonism, utilitarianism, and interestingness. They defined hedonism as 'entertaining' and suggested it represented an evaluation of pleasure. Utilitarianism, in contrast, evaluates the advertisement's usefulness. Olney et al. suggested that the utilitarian component incorporates factors found by other researchers such as relevant news (Schlinger, 1979) and personal relevance (Wells, Leavitt, & McConville, 1971).

Olney et al. (1991, p. 442) included an interestingness component based on "the frequent use of interestingness as part of a multi-item measure of global [A_{ad}]" (e.g., Gardner, 1985; MacKenzie et al., 1986). They further based the inclusion of interestingness on work by Berlyne (1960) who consistently found that the relationship between interestingness and overall liking is nonmonotonic (inverted-U-shaped). They based the inclusion hedonism and utilitarianism as elements on research conducted by Batra and Ahtola (1991) who found that attitude is comprised of two dimensions 'hedonic' and 'utilitarian.'

Miniard et al. (1990) viewed A_{ad} as being comprised of two components. The first, claims made in the advertisement, represented an evaluation of the advertisement based on the strength of the claims made (e.g., low in calories). The second component was other elements or non-claims such as colour, pictures or illustrations, and font. In addition to measuring respondents' attitude toward claims and non-claims, Miniard et al. measured respondents' overall A_{ad}. The overall A_{ad} was measured a semantic differential scale with five items. Four items were cognitive elements and the remaining item was evaluative in

nature. Miniard et al.'s classification has been criticised, most notably by Percy and Rossiter (1992), because it does not take into account that respondents may equate non-verbal advertisement elements (e.g., pictures) with claims. Furthermore, it does not account for the fact that "verbal copy claims are capable of producing purely affective imagery effects apart from their production of attribute-related beliefs" (Muehling & McCann, 1993, p. 27).

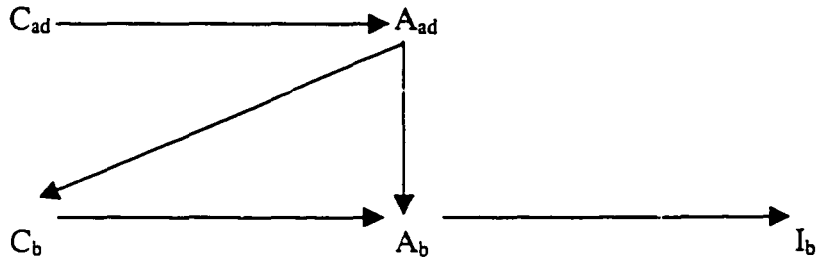
2.7.3 Consequences of A_{ad}

The role of A_{ad} in studies related to advertising effectiveness is typically one of a mediator of A_B and/or of purchase or behavioural intentions (Dröge, 1989; Moore & Hutchinson, 1983). It can be argued that the main purpose of an advertisement is to persuade consumers not only to purchase the advertised product or service or perform a certain behaviour (e.g., stop smoking, get fit) but also to purchase the advertised *brand* of product or service. As Dröge suggested, "advertisers often hope that a consumer's positive attitude toward the ad (A_{ad}) will be transferred to that individual's attitude toward the brand (A_B)" (p. 193). This statement can be extended to include advertisers' hope that consumers' positive A_B will lead to purchase or behaviour intentions.

Based on A_{ad} as a causal mediator, MacKenzie et al. (1986) developed four alternative models depicting the mediating role of A_{ad} with respect to A_B and purchase intentions. MacKenzie et al. suggested that each of the models "can be regarded *in its entirety* as a hypothesis about the role of A_{ad}" (p. 133, emphasis in the original). The models were developed based on theoretical and some empirical research (MacKenzie et al.). MacKenzie et al. tested each of the models using two separate experiments and found

that the Dual Mediation Hypothesis (DMH) was superior to the three competing hypotheses. As such, only the DMH model is presented in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3 Dual Mediation Hypothesis Model



Source: MacKenzie et al. (1986, p. 131)

Key: C_{ad} represents advertisement cognitions (beliefs about the advertisement)
C_b represents brand cognitions (beliefs about the brand)
A_{ad} represents attitude toward the advertisement
A_b represents attitude toward the brand
I_b represents intentions to purchase the brand

Adapted From: MacKenzie et al. (1986, p. 131)

Lutz (1985) suggested that the Dual Mode Persuasion (DMP) model, which is identical to DMH with the exception of an antecedent to A_{ad} (to be discussed), is characterised by central processing of advertisement content and contextual factors. Lutz suggested that the DMP model fits when the consumer is highly involved and seeking information. Therefore, a consumer with low involvement and/or who is not seeking information about a product or service may not process an advertisement based on the process outlined by the DMP and DMH models. However, MacKenzie et al. (1986) noted that in many experimental situations (i.e., those that approximate a pretest of an advertisement or advertisements) "participants are likely to be processing the ad's content and its execution with reasonable vigilance" (p. 140). Therefore, the DMH process fits

these situations (MacKenzie et al.) but may not apply in other situations (e.g., low consumer involvement).

Homer (1990) examined the results of MacKenzie et al.'s (1986) findings and suggested that "limitations in the research design may have biased the results" (p. 78). First, Homer suggested that some subjects could have guessed the experiment hypothesis because questions designed to measure the dependent variables (e.g., A_{ad} and A_B) were collected after the last advertisement exposure without the use of filler questions (i.e., questions designed to elicit information not relevant to the dependent variables). Therefore, it is possible that some subjects responded the way they thought the experimenters wanted them to respond and "some individuals may have been motivated to generate brand cognitions that really were not present during the exposure" (Homer, p. 79).

The experimental advertisement was not of professional quality but was embedded into a 'real' one hour television programme (i.e., Quincy) however, MacKenzie et al. (1986) do not indicate if other commercials were also embedded. Homer (1990) suggested that the lack of a professionally designed commercial in a setting that approximated what subjects would typically see on television may have led to hypothesis guessing. Furthermore, the experimental commercial was repeated four times which would have increased respondents' awareness of the commercial (Homer, 1990). Petty and Cacioppo (1986) found that recall of a message increased with repeated exposures which indicates that respondents have more opportunity to process the information contained in the advertisement.

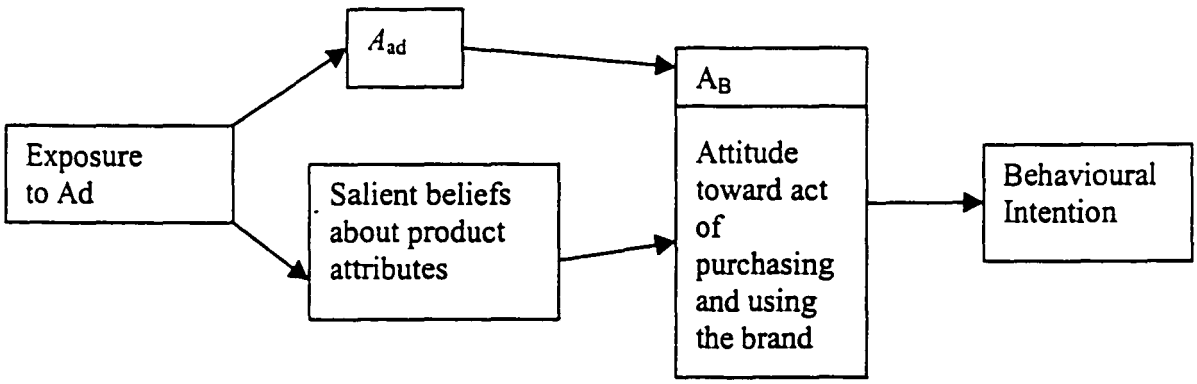
Finally, Homer (1990) noted that the name of the hypothetical brand of toothpaste in the experiment conducted by MacKenzie et al. (1986) was Shield. However, Shield soap

was being test marketed at the same time as the experiment was conducted. The identical names may have confused respondents or caused some to generate brand inferences based on prior knowledge of Shield soap.

In order to further test the fit of the DMH model and to overcome the limitations of the original experiment, Homer (1990), using independent data sets, replicated the original study by MacKenzie et al. (1986). Based on her findings, and consistent with MacKenzie et al., the DMH model provided the "best" fit.

The DMH model, as developed by MacKenzie et al. (1986), corresponds closely to Mitchell and Olson's (1981) interpretation of A_{ad}. Mitchell and Olson suggested that A_{ad} had a mediating effect on A_B and attitude toward purchasing and using the brand. Further, Mitchell and Olson (p. 327) argued that the A_{ad} "accurately reflects subjects' evaluations of the overall advertising stimulus." Mitchell and Olson's original model is depicted in Figure 2.4.

Figure 2.4 Observed Mediators of Advertising Content on Cognitive Variables



Adapted From: Mitchell and Olson (1981, p. 327)

Edell and Burke (1986) noted that, although the link between A_{ad} and A_B has been established with many studies (e.g., Homer, 1990; MacKenzie et al., 1986; Mitchell & Olson, 1981), most of the studies involved brand new products or new advertisements for existing products. Under these conditions, Edell and Burke noted that "the potential for A_{ad} to influence A_B is great" (p. 93). When the product or service portrayed is novel then the advertisement is respondents' only source of information by which to develop A_B (Mitchell & Olson, 1981). When a new advertisement for an existing product or service is used, the 'set-up' parallels an advertising pretest situation. Under these conditions however, MacKenzie et al. (1986) noted that "participants are likely to be processing the ad's content and its execution with reasonable vigilance" (p. 140) as occurs in central processing (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) which may account for much of the impact of A_{ad}.

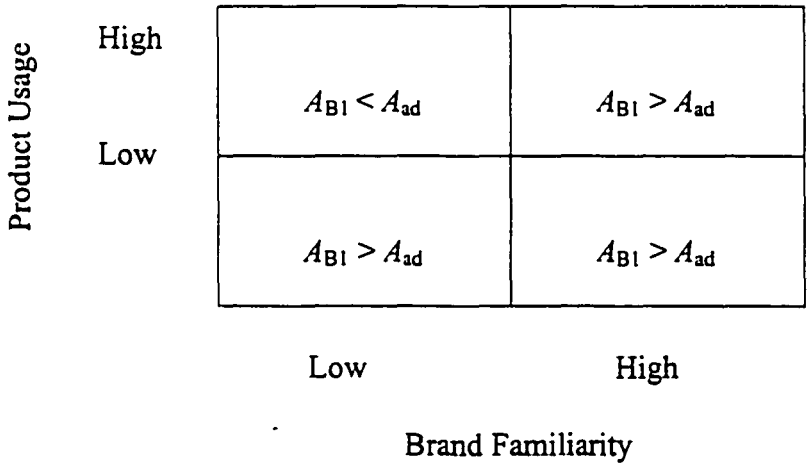
Edell and Burke (1986) suggested that because the conditions used in past studies (i.e., novel product or service; new advertisement for existing service) do not regularly occur outside the laboratory (e.g., most advertisements are for existing products; new advertisements are not new for very long), the impact of A_{ad} may be overstated. Some researchers have attempted to conduct research in more natural settings thereby overcoming the problems of forced exposure (e.g., Debraix, 1995). Furthermore, many of the studies did not test respondents' prior A_B. However, for existing products and services, many consumers have established an A_B through past experience, ads, or information relayed by others (e.g., word of mouth). Therefore, the impact of A_{ad} on post-exposure A_B must be viewed in light of respondents' pre-exposure A_B.

Edell and Burke (1986) noted that most research did not explore the direct impact of pre-exposure A_B on A_{ad} but tended to treat pre-exposure A_B as a moderator or

determinant of A_{ad} (e.g., Burke & Edell, 1985 as cited in Edell & Burke, 1986; Messmer, 1979; Moore & Hutchinson, 1983). In these studies, pre-exposure A_B was found to have a positive impact on A_{ad}.

In order to determine the pre-exposure A_B- A_{ad}- post-exposure A_B relationship, Edell and Burke (1986, p. 95) examined the impact of pre-exposure A_B and A_{ad} and A_B using four experimental conditions: (1) Low Product Usage, Low Brand Familiarity; (2) High Product Usage, Low Brand Familiarity; (3) Low Product Usage, High Brand Familiarity; and (4) High Product Usage, High Brand Familiarity. The results of their analysis are found in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.5 The Influence of Pre-Exposure A_B and A_{ad} on Post-Exposure A_B Based on Level of Product Usage and Brand Familiarity



Adapted From: Edell and Burke (1986)

In three of the four experimental conditions Edell and Burke (1986) found that "prior brand attitude is a better predictor of post advertising-exposure brand attitude than is attitude toward the ad" (p. 101). The only exception is when consumers have high product

usage but are not familiar with the brand. For example, a consumer may be a frequent user of tennis balls but may be unfamiliar with the advertised brand of tennis ball used in the experiment. Edell and Burke provided an interpretation of their results based on the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) developed by Petty and Cacioppo (1981).

ELM suggests there are two ways a message can lead to a change in attitude (i.e., persuade). The central route to persuasion occurs when a person is motivated and able to process the message. The peripheral route "results when persuasion results from non-issue-relevant concerns such as impression management motives [or] the attractiveness of the message's course" (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981, p. 262-263). Based on Petty and Cacioppo's arguments for two routes to persuasion, Edell and Burke (1986) suggested that with respect to advertising, "if consumers are not motivated or able to process an ad then their feelings about the ad should have little influence on [post-exposure Ab]" (p. 101).

For example, if a person who did not play tennis saw an advertisement for a brand of tennis racquet s/he had never heard of, s/he would have little motivation to process the advertisement or form post-viewing attitudes toward the brand. In contrast, if a tennis player saw an advertisement for a brand of tennis racquet s/he had never heard of, s/he would have more motivation (relative to the non-player) to process the advertisement and form post viewing attitudes about the brand. In the study by Edell and Burke (1986), this second example did not hold true (i.e., pre-exposure $A_B > A_{ad}$ but should expect pre-exposure $A_B < A_{ad}$). However, Edell and Burke do not acknowledge this discrepancy. Despite this, the notion of central and peripheral processing of advertisements leading to post-exposure A_B is intriguing. Edell and Burke (1986) noted that other variables may

influence A_B and suggested that "any characteristic that influences how the ad is processed has potential for influencing the impact of Aad on post-exposure A_B" (p. 103).

2.7.4 Antecedents of A_{ad}

Lutz et al. (1983) proposed a framework of antecedents that determine A_{ad}. This framework was comprised of five "first-order" antecedents and 13 "higher-order" antecedents (i.e., that are determinants of first-order antecedents). Lutz et al. portrayed these antecedents as being on a continuum corresponding with central and peripheral processing (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981). Figure 2.6 shows the antecedents and their relationship to central and peripheral processing.

Figure 2.6 Antecedents of A_{ad} Displayed on a Continuum of Routes to Persuasion



Central Processing **Peripheral Processing**

Ad Credibility	Ad Perceptions	Attitude Toward Advertiser	Attitude Toward Advertising	Mood

Adapted From: Lutz et al. (1983)

The framework proposed by Lutz et al. (1983) was expanded on by Lutz (1985) and MacKenzie and Lutz (1989) who defined the "first-order" antecedents and discussed possible relationships between antecedents (Lutz, 1989) by adding "some interrelationships among determinants that were not considered previously" (MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989, p. 51). Subsequent research has revealed that A_{ad} is influenced, to some degree, by one or

more of the antecedents (depending on which antecedents were included in the studies) outlined by Lutz and his colleagues.

2.7.5 Moderators of Attitude toward the Communication Effort (A_{ad})

Brown and Stayman (1992) conducted a meta-analysis of the antecedents and consequences of A_{ad} using 47 studies. Until their study "no systematic attempt [had] been made to investigate study characteristics that might account for the total variation in results across all available studies" (Brown & Stayman, p. 35). They identified 11 study characteristics that potentially could be moderator variables. Overall, the meta-analysis revealed that "the relationships between ad attitude and other variables are strong but vary according to a number of methodological factors" (Brown & Stayman, p. 49).

Brown and Stayman (1992) found that almost one half (43.48%) of the studies they analysed used consumer non-durable products (e.g., soft drinks, toothpaste). The remainder of the studies (26.62%) used other categories including mixed products (e.g., study included more than one type of product); durable products (19.57%; e.g., camera); services (6.52%; e.g., phone service); or social issues (2.17%) (e.g., Hill (1988) examined the relationship between AIDS related anxiety and evaluation of condom ads). They proposed that studies should be conducted that do not use consumer non-durable products, as this would negate any potential affects of prior familiarity and knowledge on the relationship between A_{ad} and outcomes (e.g., purchase intentions). This contention appears to be supported by Hoyer (1984) who suggested consumers' involvement with products differs as does their cognitive elaboration of products and affect toward the advertised information.

In terms of advertising medium, Brown and Stayman (1992) found that exactly half of the studies they analysed used print as the advertising medium. Print was followed closely by television, which was used in less than half (45.65%) of the studies. Radio was used slightly more than five percent (6.52%) of the time. Overall, there is an apparent lack of variety in the published studies, at least up to 1992, with respect to advertising medium. Brown and Stayman suggested that the choice of advertising medium "are seldom well justified with respect to research questions posed, [and that] meta-analytic findings suggest that such decisions may have important effects on the results obtained" (p. 48).

Based on the analysis conducted by Brown and Stayman (1992), there is an apparent need to test A_{ad} under different circumstances. Studies need to be designed using non-traditional media such as websites or banners and personal appeals as opposed to print advertisements or television commercials. Furthermore, different products or services, other than non-durable products, should be incorporated into future studies.

2.7.6 Definition and Operationalisation Decision

Muehling and McCann (1993) pointed out that although Shimp (1981) proposed that A_{ad} is comprised of two dimensions, he only provided examples of how the dimensions contribute to a consumer's A_{ad} but did not define the dimensions. Muehling and McCann therefore suggested that "it would appear that factors considered to be 'antecedents' of A_{ad} (such as ad cognitions and feelings) may be interpreted as representing 'dimensions'" (p. 51). In contrast, Lutz (1985) suggested that the cognitive and behavioural components of A_{ad} are considered antecedents in the unidimensional conceptualisation, as opposed to part of the construct. Muehling and McCann do not make a judgement as to the most appropriate definition. Rather, they suggested that more research is required to determine

"whether A_{ad} is an automatic, involuntary reaction to an ad or whether it is a conscious, more deliberate element (or both)" (Muehling & McCann, p. 51).

Muehling and McCann (1993) also called for the continued refinement of the definitions and descriptions of A_{ad}. They suggested that only after this occurs can the antecedents and consequences of A_{ad} be explored further. Bruner (1998) echoed the suggestions presented by Muehling and McCann and provided some further recommendations. First, he suggested that researchers should adopt the same theoretical framework for A_{ad} however, he noted that this is an unrealistic goal, at least in the short term. Second, he suggested that the same scale(s) should be used repeatedly in order to start a validation process, examine the generalisability of the scale(s), and develop norms for their use. Third, he recommended that "manuscript guidelines place greater emphasis on measurement justification" (p. 9) and that justification be given for the development of a new scale. Fourth, he called for the empirical comparison of A_{ad} scales with other A_{ad} scales and the comparison of A_{ad} scales with other, competing, scales such as A_B and purchase intent.

Finally, unlike Muehling and McCann (1993), Bruner (1998) offered "tentative recommendations" (p. 10) as to the scales that should be used to measure A_{ad}. He suggested that Mitchell and Olson's (1981) original scale be used if a global measure of A_{ad} is desired because it is "very well accepted (having been used much more than any other single scale) [and] there is even some limited evidence of its validity" (Bruner, p. 10). He also suggested that the scale developed by Madden et al. (1988) could be used for a global measure of A_{ad}. If a bi-dimensional measure is desired, Bruner noted that the decision is not as clear however, he recommended Burton and Lichtenstein's (1988) scale "because greater

evidence of the pair's [e.g., cognitive and affective] discriminant validity is available than for any other pair" (Bruner, p. 10).

2.8 Attitude toward the Brand (A_B)

An individual's A_B (i.e., attitude toward a product or service) can be measured at more than one point in time. However, researchers tend to operationalise A_B as an individual's attitude toward a given product or service after viewing a communication effort or post-exposure A_B (e.g., Debraix, 1995; MacKenzie et al., 1989; Mitchell, 1986; Shimp, 1981). In this sense, A_B is viewed as a consequence of A_{ad} (Brown & Stayman, 1992). In his early conceptualisation, Shimp, from whom much research on A_{ad} stems, viewed A_B as post-exposure. His model depicts all variables as "occurring" after viewing a communication effort.

The Dual Mediation Hypothesis (refer to Figure 2.3) incorporates a measure of post-exposure A_B which is mediated by an individual's A_{ad}. That is, if an individual has positive feelings towards a communication effort for a product or service, this will translate into positive feelings about the product or service itself. This relationship has been studied by numerous researchers and has found much support (e.g., Homer, 1990; Laczniak & Carlson, 1989; Miniard et al., 1990). Indeed, Muehling and McCann (1993) noted that "of all outcome variables Aad [sic] has been shown to influence, none has been more thoroughly investigated than brand attitude" (p. 47).

However, individuals typically have prior brand attitudes (i.e., pre-exposure A_B) except in the case of new products or services or those products or services of which the individual has no prior knowledge (e.g., a product or service that is available but which the individual does not know about or has not heard about). Very few studies include a

measure of pre-exposure A_B (Brown & Stayman, 1992; Muehling & McCann, 1993). Two notable exceptions are Messmer (1979) and Edell and Burke (1987) both of whom incorporated a measure of pre-exposure/prior A_B. In both cases there was a positive relationship between pre-exposure A_B and A_{ad}. Therefore, it appears that pre-exposure A_B has a mediating effect on A_{ad} which, in turn, influences post-exposure A_B.

In addition to pre-exposure and post-exposure A_B, A_B can be measured after the behaviour (i.e., after purchase and/or consumption of the product or service). Researchers have tended not to look at post-purchase/event A_B (note: this third measure of A_B will be denoted as post-event in the current study to reflect the properties of Homecoming) as a measure of actual behaviour is rarely included in studies. As such there is no empirical evidence by which to assess post-event A_B.

2.9 Intention

Intent to purchase a product or service has been the focus of many studies dating back at least 40 years. Consumers' buying intentions were surveyed by the U.S. Bureau of Census starting in 1959 (Juster, 1966) and interest in this area has remained a focus of consumer research in the 1990's (e.g., Fitzsimmons & Morwitz, 1996; Mathur, 1998). Many studies, by both academics and practitioners, use measurements of purchase intent in order to identify the market for a product (e.g., McQuarrie, 1988), predict purchase behaviour (e.g., Morrison, 1979), to forecast sales (e.g., Bemmaor, 1995), or "to serve as proxies for actual behaviour in theoretical studies" (McQuarrie, p. 407). However, intentions and subsequent behaviour or action cannot be studied in isolation from other associated factors such as beliefs, attitudes, and subjective norms.

The Theory of Reasoned Action (Figure 2.2) suggests that, based on the relative positions of attitude and intention to behaviour, intention has a much stronger link to behaviour than does attitude. However, Schiffman and Kanuk (1994) noted that, although intention may be a better predictor of behaviour than is attitude, intention does not explain "*why* customers act as they do" (p. 250, emphasis in the original). To answer the why question, researchers must investigate attitudes as well as the beliefs that underlie these attitudes (Schiffman & Kanuk). In addition, Foxall and Goldsmith (1994) pointed out that the Theory of Reasoned Action only predicts intention and not actual behaviour "but it is assumed that under the right conditions, intentions will approximate behavior" (p. 99).

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975, p. 293, emphasis in the original) suggested that "intentions involve four elements: the *behavior*, the *target* object at which the behavior is directed, the *situation* in which the behavior is to be performed, and the *time* at which the behavior is to be performed." The four elements, as they might relate to a leisure pursuit, are given in the following example based on one provided by Fishbein and Ajzen (p. 292). Charles may intend to *attend an aerobics class* (behaviour), with *Douglas* (target), at the *municipal recreation centre* (situation), at *6:00p.m on Tuesday* (time). Fishbein and Ajzen noted that, with respect to intentions, the degree of specificity can vary from very vague (e.g., some time in the future) to very specific (e.g., at 1:00 p.m. today).

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975, p. 369-372) suggested that the correlation between intention and behaviour is influenced by three factors: level of specificity, stability of the intention, and volitional control. Therefore, these factors must be taken into consideration when developing a measure of intent. First, the measure of intent must be the same level of specificity as the behaviour. Fishbein and Ajzen (p. 369) noted that "the greater the

correspondence in levels of specificity, the higher should be the correlation between intention and behavior." Second, intentions change over time due to a variety of factors (e.g., marriage/divorce, birth of children, lose of employment). Therefore, the smaller the time lapse between a measure of intent and a measure of behaviour, the higher the correlation will be between intention and behaviour because there is less time for a person's 'situation' to change in a short time period of time.

Stability of intentions is also affected by the number of steps that must be completed to perform the behaviour (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Therefore, the larger the number of intervening steps, the lower the correlation will be between intention and behaviour. The correlation between intention and behaviour will increase the less time that elapses between the measure and the behaviour. Finally, the Theory of Reasoned Action was developed to deal with behaviours (e.g., taking tennis lessons) rather than outcomes (e.g., learning to play tennis). Furthermore, it assumes that the behaviour is under a person's volitional control. The correlation between intention and behaviour is diminished for those behaviours that are not under the control of the person (e.g., tennis lessons are full therefore Amanda cannot register).

Foxall (1984) pointed that although there is a high correlation between intentions and subsequent behaviour in the Theory of Reasoned Action, it only occurs in limited circumstances. Indeed, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975, p. 369-372) acknowledged these limitations when they noted that the correlation between intention and behaviour is influenced by three factors: level of specificity, stability of the intention, and volitional control. Sheppard, Hartwick, and Warshaw (1988) summed up the assumptions inherent in the intention behaviour relationship of the Theory of Reasoned Action. They suggested that

"a behavioral intention measure will predict the performance of any voluntary act, unless intent changes prior to performance or unless the intention measure does not correspond to the behavioral criterion in terms of action, target, context, time-frame and/or specificity" (Sheppard et al., p. 325).

Furthermore, Ajzen (1985) suggested that only if two conditions are met will intentions predict behaviour. First, the researcher must measure intentions just prior to behaviour because intentions change over time however, Ajzen (p. 18) suggested that "this merely reflects the reduced accuracy of the available measure of intention [but that] it poses no challenge to the assumption that (current) intentions determine behavior." Second, the behaviour must be under the person's volitional control (i.e., the behaviour can be performed if the person wants to perform the behaviour). The second condition "imposes strict limitations on the theory's range of application" (Ajzen, p.18) because it will not function as well when there is low volitional control.

2.9.1 Issues with Measuring Intention

Mullet and Karson (1985) noted that scales measuring purchase intent are pervasive in the marketing literature and have been widely used by researchers. Typically, purchase intents are measured after a person evaluates one or more products or services. Johnson (1979 cited in Jamieson & Bass, 1989) found that the most widely used purchase intent scale was a 5-point scale consisting of the following statements: definitely will not buy, probably will not buy, might or might not buy, probably will buy, definitely will buy. This scale can be modified to reflect participation (in an event or activity) or any other behaviour by substituting the action word (e.g., definitely will attend, etc.).

Bemmaor (1995) noted that often a person's actual behaviour differs from his/her intended or planned behaviour so that the "predictive validity of purchase intents data remains questionable" (p. 176). This issue has been raised by other authors (e.g., Sheppard et al., 1988). Indeed, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) recognised this when they suggested that inconsistencies between intentions and behaviour can be accounted for, in part, by the time lapse between statement of intention and the behaviour, the number of steps needed to get to the behaviour, and the degree to which the steps or final behaviour are under the person's control.

Juster (1966) argued that there are two ways to measure the likelihood of future purchases, buying intentions and purchase probabilities, and suggested that caution must be used when predicting future demand based on consumers' *intent* to purchase an item. To determine which method, buying intentions or purchase probabilities, was the most accurate for predicting future purchase behaviour, Juster compared two surveys. One used a measure of buying intention and the other used a measure of purchase probability to predict future purchase behaviour. He found that the "purchase [probability measures] explain[ed] about twice as much of the cross-section variance in automobile purchase rates as buying intentions" (p. 658).

Juster (1966) suggested that intent measures were not as accurate for predicting future behaviour (compared to purchase probability measures) because the likelihood of the behaviour is not always taken into consideration. Rather, the answers given by some respondents may "reflect what they would like to do rather than what they are likely to do" (p. 663). Second, he provided the following example, "some will report that they 'definitely plan to buy within six months,' meaning that they have every intention of

buying provided everything works out – but it is highly unlikely that everything will work out within six months" (p. 663). Furthermore, he suggested that some people may misinterpret an intent questions as referring only to those decisions that have received detailed thought. Juster provided the following example of the different responses that will be given based on how an intent question is asked:

> To illustrate, while I have no present plans to take my wife and children on a vacation trip next summer, there is a high probability that I will do so. Assuming I take the question literally, if asked whether I "expect" to take a vacation trip, I would probably say yes; if asked whether I "intend" to, I would probably say that I don't know; if asked whether I "plan" to, I would say no; and if asked what the "chances are," I would pick a phrase like very good or a number like nine out of ten. (p. 664)

Juster (1966) pointed out that the last answer, a probability measure, provides the most useful information. It is based on this, and the empirical evidence provided by comparing the two intention studies, that Juster argued intent measurements are misleading and may not provide accurate information.

2.9.2 Measuring Intent and Its Affect on Behaviour

Although the relationship between intention and a subsequent purchase has been studied both empirically and from a theoretical perspective (e.g., Ajzen, 1985; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Sheppard et al., 1988), many researchers have questioned whether measuring intentions can affect the future purchase (e.g., Morwitz, Johnson, & Schmittlein, 1993). Morwitz et al. hypothesised that "merely measuring someone's intent to purchase can change his or her likelihood of purchase" (p. 46). This hypothesis may also extend to participating in a given activity. For example, based on the hypothesis posited by Morwitz et al., a citizen who receives a phone call asking them if s/he plans to participate in an upcoming event will be more likely to participate than if s/he did not receive the phone

call. Furthermore, the hypothesis can be expanded to include the proposition that a person who receives a call regarding his/her intent to participate will be more likely to participate than a person who did not receive a call.

Morwitz et al. (1993) had some support for their hypothesis based on previous empirical research. Gregory, Cialdini, and Carpenter (1982) found that purchase behaviour was higher for those people who were asked to imagine they subscribed to cable television as compared to those people who did not visualise themselves as cable television subscribers. Although Gregory et al. did not specifically measure intent, their findings suggest that consciously thinking about a future purchase can increase actual purchase behaviour. This outcome may be explained by the theory that beliefs, attitudes, and intentions "do not always exist in memory waiting to assessed but may be constructed on demand, in response to a query" (Morwitz et at., p. 46). The query can be internally generated by the person his/herself or externally imposed by someone or something else.

Feldman and Lynch (1988) suggested, for expample, that when completing a survey (an externally generated query), respondents will store answers to questions in their memory and retrieve these answers to generate responses to subsequent questions. Studies, particularly in social cognition, support the theory proposed by Feldman and Lynch. For example, Sherman (1980) found that people who stated their intentions about a particular behaviour were more likely to engage in that behaviour. This finding lends direct support to the hypothesis proposed by Morwitz et al. (1993). Feldman and Lynch proposed that, based on the social cognition studies (e.g., Sherman), "when any particular construct is measured in a questionnaire prior to another construct, multiple measures of the former will increase correlations with the latter" (p. 427).

Greenwald, Carnot, Beach, and Young (1987) conducted two experiments in which subjects either were asked or were not asked to predict their future behaviour. They found that, in both cases, predicting future behaviour (i.e., registering to vote and voting) increased the probability of doing the future behaviour by 10% and 25% respectively. However, only in the second experiment (i.e., voting behaviour) was the difference statistically significant. There were a number of weaknesses in the experiments conducted by Greenwald et al. that decrease the generalisability of the results. First, the experiment was conducted using only students who lived in a dormitory and therefore the respondents were not representative of University students in general or the general public.

Second, subjects were asked to state their full name and were told that they might be contacted in the future. Subjects may have modified their predictions of future behaviour in an attempt to portray a favourable image. Finally, the behaviours studied are unique because they do not occur on a regular basis, and there may be a degree of social desirability associated with the behaviour. Despite these shortcoming of their study, Greenwald et al. (p. 318) noted that, if done on a larger scale, even the "weak effect of Experiment 1 could be of great importance; and the effect of Experiment 2 is certainly large enough to alter the outcome of an election."

Morwitz et al. (1993) tested numerous hypotheses related to measurement affecting behaviour with a quasi-experiment using consumer panels. Three of their hypotheses are of interest for this current study. First, they studied the affects of measuring intent to purchase with actual purchase behaviour. Second, they studied the affects of measuring intent to purchase multiple times on subsequent purchase behaviour. Finally, they hypothesised that

those households with past experience with the product would be less influenced by a measurement of purchase intent.

Morwitz et al. (1993) found that those households, whose intent to purchase an automobile or personal computer was measured, were more likely to purchase the product as compared to those household whose intentions were not measured. The higher automobile purchase rates in households, whose intents were measured, were statistically significant. In contrast, although purchase rates were higher among those whose intentions were measured, the results were not statistically significantly higher for personal computers however, it does lend directional support to the hypothesis (i.e., measuring intent will increase behaviour).

With respect to their second hypothesis, Morwitz et al. (1993) found that the affect of measuring intent to purchase, on multiple occasions, was positive but not statistically significant. However, a statistically significant decrease in sales was observed for those households, with a low initial intent to purchase, that received multiple intent measures, as compared to low-intent households that received only one intent measurement. Finally, they found that "measuring intent once increased sales by 20.73 percent for households with past product experience and 45.27 percent for households without past product experience" (p. 54). This result was statistically significant. Therefore, it can be concluded that measuring purchase intent increases actual purchase behaviour however, the opposite is true for those who were asked on multiple occasions and who had no initial intent to purchase.

Due to the nature of the sample (i.e., panel members dropping out or joining), Morwitz et al. (1993) were unable to randomly assign members to treatment groups (e.g.,

no measure of intent, one measure of intent, multiple measures of intent). This weakness may be somewhat alleviated because the consumer panel used in the study was "designed to be representative of U.S. households, rather than an convenience sample" (Morwitz et al., p. 49). They noted that systematic differences in age, occupational status, and marital status for those households that remained in the consumer panel for the full length of the study (over two years).

2.10 Recall

Wells (1966) suggested that while no measure of the effectiveness (in terms of sales) is available for individual advertisements, advertisers and researchers attempt to measure the success of an advertisement using measures such as aided recall, recognition, and ratings by consumers. Zinkhan et al. (1986), twenty years later, noted that "recall and recognition measures have a long and detailed history of use in advertising as indicators of potential effectiveness" (p. 38). They did not include consumers' feeling toward organisations' communication efforts however, by 1986, consumers' attitude toward the advertisement had gained popularity as a mediator of brand attitude (e.g., Mitchell & Olson, 1981; Shimp, 1981). Therefore, Zinkhan et al.'s omission of attitude toward the advertisement (or ratings by consumers) is somewhat surprising.

Similar to A_{ad} being viewed as an intervening variable to brand attitude and subsequently purchase behaviour, recall and recognition have been used as measures of advertising effectiveness. The main goal of advertising is to persuade someone to perform a desired behaviour (e.g., purchase Adidas running shoes, stop smoking, register for swimming lessons at the municipal pool). Recall and recognition are used as indicators of *potential* effectiveness of communication efforts because it is believed that awareness of a

product, service, programme, or issue (and, with respect to a product, service, or programme, a particular brand thereof) will lead to the desired behaviour (Preston, 1982). For example, it is believed that recall or recognition of an advertisement, paid for by the municipal recreation department, for beginner running classes will translate into registration for the running classes conducted by the municipal recreation department as opposed to classes offered through the YMCA or other organisation. Proponents of the A_{ad} approach may argue that a person who responds favourably to the communication effort, discussed previously, will have a more positive A_B and subsequently will sign up for classes with the municipal recreation department and not the YMCA or elsewhere.

Biel (1993, cited in Du Plessis, 1994) suggested that the recall versus recognition debate is one of the oldest in advertising research. The debate dates back to the 1930's when measures of recall and recognition were introduced and has since extended into (i.e., become confused with) other areas such as persuasion (Du Plessis). Zinkhan et al. (1986) noted that numerous problems have arisen with respect to recall and recognition in advertising, which has probably fuelled some of the debate. They further noted that these problems have led to subsequent refinements of the measures. Du Plessis suggested that recall measures are lower than recognition measures "and people do not like low measures" (p. 79).

The decision however, may not be as simple as one is better than the other (recall versus recognition). In 1955 the Advertising Research Foundation and the Alfred Politz organisation conducted an experiment measuring recognition and aided-recall of print advertisements. Krugman (1986) described this study as a "one-time historic test of precision in the measurement of memory" (p. 83). The study suggested that "recognition

and recall measures were different in nature, and that one did not therefore have the simple choice of just which one was 'better', or more reliable. . . . in some advertising situations you needed one or the other, and in some you needed both" (Krugman, p. 83-84). Based on this, Krugman suggested the recall/recognition debate is immaterial.

Du Plessis (1994) noted that "most of the interpretation of recall and/or recognition measures involves the ability of a commercial to have attracted attention and to have entered into memory" (p. 82). Krugman (1986, p. 84) suggested that recall tests measure only advertising that "elicits fairly close attention" whereas recognition tests measure advertising to which close attention was paid (as with recall tests) as well as "advertising which elicits minimal attention" (p. 85). He further argued that with respect to advertising, to which close attention is paid, both tests "[measure] the same thing" (p. 85) but added that "recognition tests alone pick up the response to minimally attended advertising" (p. 85).

Krugman's (1986) analysis of the differences between recognition tests and recall tests appears to differ somewhat from that of Wells' (1964) description. Wells suggested that "to gauge interest in an advertisement, use the recognition method. To plum how meaningful the message is and how well the brand name registers, use recall. But to predict subsequent sales, just ask people to rate the ad." (p. 2). According to Wells, a measure is chosen based on the question to be answered therefore, the recall/recognition debate becomes immaterial.

2.10.1 Problems with Recall and Recognition

Zinkhan et al. (1986) suggested that one of the problems associated with recall is the doubt surrounding the ability of this measure to predict behaviour. However, they based this statement on an article written by Gibson in 1983. Gibson's article has, more recently, sparked a debate in the Journal of Advertising Research about the merits of recall (e.g., Dubow, 1994a, 1994b, 1994c; Gibson, 1983, 1994; Ross, 1982, 1994). Gibson (1983) cited numerous studies that provided evidence that recall is not a valid measure to predict behaviour. Dubow (1994a) however, argued that many of these studies were misinterpreted. Further, Gibson was comparing the effectiveness of recall measures and persuasion however, he failed to define how persuasion was measured or to provide any evidence supporting persuasion as a predictor of behaviour.

Zinkhan et al. (1986) further noted that the results of some recognition tests are artificially high because of response bias. Some respondents will indicate that they recognize an advertisement that they could not have seen. For example, respondents may not want to appear ignorant, others are overly eager to please the researcher and will therefore try to help the researcher by answering affirmatively (Du Plessis, 1994). Finally there is "the tendency of people to deny socially undesirable traits and to admit to socially desirable ones" (Singh, Rothschild, & Churchill, 1988, p. 74).

Kahneman (1973) suggested that how easily an individual is able to access an advertisement from memory is based, in part, on how much attention s/he paid to the advertisement. Krugman (1986) argued that when minimal attention is given to an advertisement, a recognition test is better however, if close attention is paid, both recall and recognition can be used. Often, exposure to a stimulus (e.g., an advertisement) in a

laboratory setting is considered a "forced exposure" (Debraix, 1995, p. 471). Newell and Henderson (1998) suggested that "gains in experimental control are potentially offset by losses in 'real world' validity" (p. 238).

Forced exposure might lead to more central processing (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981) of the advertisement. Consumers who follow a more central route when processing an advertisement would, it is believed, pay closer attention to the advertisement-content and contextual factors (Petty & Cacioppo). In contrast, when people in "natural" settings are exposed to advertising, they are not forced to view and may therefore engage in more peripheral processing (Petty & Cacioppo). As such, they may be less motivated to process the information contained in the advertisement (e.g., can leave the room) and may pay more attention to the executional elements of the advertisement.

2.10.2 Measures of Recall and Recognition

The fundamental difference between recall and recognition measures is the presence or absence of a stimulus or cue (Bettman, 1979). When a recall (of an advertisement) measure is used, the respondent must describe the advertisement (i.e., the advertisement is not present). Hutchinson, Raman, and Mantrala (1994) noted that recall can be viewed as "top-of-mind awareness." When a recognition (of an advertisement) measure is used, the respondent is shown various modifications and must indicate if s/he had seen (or heard) the stimulus previously.

To measure recall of advertisements aired during a Super Bowl game, Newell and Henderson (1998) "asked respondents to list and describe all the advertisements they remembered seeing during the game" (p. 242). Furthermore, to determine recall accuracy,

respondents were asked to list the names of all the brands for which they saw an advertisement and describe the advertisement.

Du Plessis (1994) suggested five "memory-dredging techniques" (p. 84) that researchers can use including full recognition, masked recognition, full description, masked description, brand prompted, and recall. Du Plessis noted that other techniques do exist and that each technique will yield varying results "dependent . . . on the degree of 'masking' – i.e., the richness of cueing" (p. 85).

Typical recognition tests involve showing respondents the advertisement as well as modifications in random order. Respondents are asked to indicate if they had or had not seen the stimulus before. In an attempt to overcome the problems associated with some recognition tests, Singh et al. (1988) employed a forced-choice test. In a forced-choice test respondents are presented with two or more advertisements at one time. One of the advertisements was seen in the experimental condition (stimulus advertisement) whereas the other advertisements were modifications (i.e., bogus). Respondents are asked to choose the stimulus advertisement. Singh et al. suggested that "forced-choice tests are most appropriate in reducing response biases because . . . the tendency to say 'yes' affects both the stimulus and distractors alike" (p. 74, footnote 2).

Wells (1964) suggested that the recall method is more objective because "the respondent does not seen the opened magazine as in the recognition methods, so he [sic] cannot prove recall of an advertisement he has not seen" (p. 4). In order to test recall of an advertisement, claims made in the advertisement are divided into "idea units" (Unnava, Brunkrant, & Erevelles, 1994, p. 487). Each idea unit represents an individual piece of information or "meaningful phrase that a subject could recall from the message" (Unnava

et al., p. 487). When this method of testing recall is utilised, respondents' recall of idea units are coded by two or more judges who determine if an idea unit was recalled and the total number of idea units that were recalled. A score of zero (did not recall) or one (recalled idea unit) is given to each respondent. The total is summed to produce a total recall measure (Unnava, Agarwal, & Haugtvedt, 1996, p. 86). For example, an advertisement may describe seven service attributes. These attributes would be divided into idea units. Based on these idea units, judges would code respondents' recall of the advertisement into specific idea unit recalled and total number of idea units recalled. If the first respondent recalled four attributes then his/her total recall score would be four. Unnava et al. (1994) noted that disagreements can occur pertaining to which idea unit was recall. For example, a product attribute of 'high gas mileage' may be recalled as 'good on gas'.

2.11 Behaviour

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) stated that behaviour refers to "observable acts that are studied in their own right" (p. 13). However, Fishbein (1973) argued that researchers tend to use three behavioural criteria: single act, repeated observations, multiple-act. When a single-act criterion is used, researchers are interested in whether or not the individual performed the behaviour. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) stated that "a single-act criterion is always specific in that it involves a directly observable response to a certain target, in a given situation, at a given point in time" (p. 352). The elements of behaviour then are the same as the elements of intentions (i.e., behaviour, target, situation, and time).

In contrast, a repeated-observation criterion is obtained "by observing the same specific behavior, directed at different targets, in different situations, or at different times"

(Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, p. 353). Finally, a multiple-act criterion is an index that is complied by observing "several behaviors with respect to a given target, in a given situation, at approximately the same point in time" (Fishbein & Ajzen, p. 353).

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

3.1 Outline

This chapter describes the experiment and is divided into six major sections. First, the research design will be outlined including the subjects, selection of the event, and the design of the experiment. Second, four experimental treatments are outlined. Third, the data collection instruments that were used and justification for the inclusion of the scales used in the instruments is addressed. Fourth, the procedure used to pretest the data collection instruments, written and verbal instructions, and treatments is outlined. Fifth, data collection procedures are described. Finally, the research questions and their related hypotheses (including expected direction) are presented.

3.2 Research Design

The following section outlines the basic research design. The subjects for this study, as well as the compensation for participation in the study, are discussed. The term subjects will be used to refer to those individuals who took part in the experiment. This term will avoid potential confusion resulting from the use of participant/participation when discussing the behavioural measure (i.e., participation in Homecoming) and past experience (i.e., those subjects who participated in Homecoming in past years). The selection of The University of Waterloo's Homecoming (1999) is outlined and justified. The outline of the experiment, including the timeline for the study, is presented.

3.2.1 Study Subjects

A convenience sample was used for this study. Subjects were drawn from four undergraduate level courses offered by the Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies at the University of Waterloo in the fall term of 1999. Consent of the instructors of REC 100, REC 205, REC 354, and REC 371 was obtained prior to the start of the study. Of the 424 students registered in these classes, 266 (62.74%) of these students participated in at least one phase of the study. Response rate will be discussed in greater detail in section 4.4.1.

3.2.2 Selection of Event

The University Of Waterloo's 1999 Homecoming was chosen for the event in this study for several reasons. First, because Homecoming is comprised of multiple and diverse events, it reflected, reasonably well, the variety and scope of what might be offered by a public leisure service agency. For example, Homecoming 1999 events designed specifically for students and alumni included Frosh Week Restoration/Alumni Extravaganza at Fed Hall. Furthermore, events such as the Naismith Classic Basketball Tournament appeal to students, alumni, staff, faculty, and the community. Similarly, municipal recreation departments offer a variety of programmes and activities that appeal to select members of the community (e.g., parent and child swimming lessons) as well as those with more universal appeal (e.g., open swims).

Second, it was anticipated that having a variety of events to choose from would increase the likelihood of participation by the subjects in this study than would a single event. This criterion was important because a wider range of events appeals to a greater number of respondents. For example, only using a dance for the focus activity (i.e., try to

increase participation at a dance) would exclude various students for whom dancing is not condoned or is not part of their leisure repertoire. Indeed, Homecoming consisted of events appealing to a variety of people and included the Naismith Classic Basketball Tournament and associated banner competition, the Yates Cup Football Tournament, the AHS 5 kilometre fun run, a concert featuring a swing/blues band, Frosh Week Restoration and Alumni Extravaganza (i.e., party at a student bar), and a guest lecture by a noted cultural anthropologist. There were additional Homecoming events not included in the study focus as they had limited appeal (e.g., class reunions, children's skating party) to the target market (i.e., students) in question.

Third, the student population at the University of Waterloo offered a relatively homogeneous sample in terms of age, income, and education level. Homogeneity is desirable in experimental contexts because it increases the likelihood that any differences found are attributable to the treatment received. Finally, alumni have traditionally received the most focus and the university is interested in increasing student participation in Homecoming. There was a very low rate of student participation Homecoming events in the year preceding the study (M. Hillier, personal communication, July 20, 1999).

3.2.3 Experimental Design

A 2x3 design was used in this research. The two factors were media vehicle and message type. Three media types were used: print, personal appeal, and a website. Two message types (i.e., communication objectives) were used: information only and information with a persuasive element. The selection of the messages is discussed in greater detail in a later section.

Subjects were randomly assigned to one of six groups; four treatment groups and two control groups. The independent variable is the communication effort (a combination of message and media). The four experimental groups differed based on the message they received and by what means they received this message. Furthermore, it was expected that subjects' processing of the communication effort would be influenced by six filters that represent moderating variables: past experience, involvement with Homecoming, commitment to the University of Waterloo, subjective norms, pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming (A_B), and pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming.

It was anticipated that the specific communication effort received by the subjects would influence their attitude toward the communication effort (A_{ad}), post-exposure A_B, recall, intent to participate, actual behaviour, and post-event A_B. There were, therefore, six dependent variables. The experimental groups (EG) and control groups (CG) are outlined in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Outline of Experimental and Control Groups

	Media Vehicle			
Communication Objective	Print Media	Website	Personal Appeal	No Media
Inform	EG1	EG3	EG4	n/a
Inform and Persuade	EG2	None	None	n/a
No Message	n/a	n/a	n/a	EG5 EG6

There were no groups assigned to receive the combination of personal appeal and informative/persuasive message or website and informative/persuasive message. These

exclusions were based on a number of factors. Print media/informative message represents the most common form of communication by public leisure service agencies. As such it served as a baseline against which other methods (both media and message) were compared. Treatments to which experimental groups two, three, and four were exposed represent possible and justifiable improvements on the treatment to which experimental group one was exposed (i.e., print media with information only). Informative and persuasive messages could be relayed through both a website and a personal appeal however, including persuasive messages would not allow a comparison to be made between the media types themselves (i.e., would be unclear if the media or the message caused differences in responses, if any). Two control groups were included in order to follow the Solomon Group Design as outlined by Campbell and Stanley (1966).

Although they were drawn from a convenience sample, each subject was randomly assigned to an experimental group or a control group. Furthermore, each subject was assigned to only one group. Therefore, this study used a between-subjects experimental design. The research design that was used is illustrated in Figure 3.1 using notation described by Campbell and Stanley (1966).

The experiment took place over a three-week period and involved two separate contacts with subjects in the experiment groups and control groups. The time line, including dates, is depicted in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.1 Experimental Design

EG1	R	I1→	X1→	I2→	H→	I3
EG2	R	I1→	X2→	I2→	H→	I3
EG3	R	I1→	X3→	I2→	H→	I3
EG4	R	I1→	X4→	I2→	H→	I3
CG1	R	I1→			H→	I3
CG2	R	I1m→			H→	I3

Where:
EG represents an experiment group
CG represents a control group
R represents random assignment
I1 represents Instrument One
I1m represents a modified version of Instrument One
X1 represents exposure to informative messages using print media
X2 represents exposure to informative and persuasive messages using print media
X3 represents exposure to informative messages using a personal appeal
X4 represents exposure to informative messages using a website
I2 represents Instrument Two
H represents the series of Homecoming events
I3 represents Instrument Three

Figure 3.2 Experiment Timeline and Associated Treatments and Instruments



Week of November 1st
- Random Assignment
- Instrument 1
- Treatment
- Instrument 2

November 12-14th
- Homecoming events

Week of November 15th
- Instrument 3

3.2.4 Compensation and Retention

Compensation for subjects was used in order to encourage participation in all three stages of experiment. Each time a subject completed an Instrument, his/her name was entered into a draw for a variety of prizes (i.e., gift certificates for coffee, CDs, etc.). Therefore, the more time a person invested in the experiment, the greater his/her chances

were of winning one of the prizes. For example, subjects in an experiment group received three ballots because they were asked to complete three questionnaires whereas subjects in a control group received two ballots because they were asked to complete two questionnaires. Subjects were advised of the compensation procedures during the introduction of the experiment. In addition to the random draw, gift certificates were randomly inserted into the phase two questionnaires (post-event). When the experiment was completed, thirty names were randomly drawn from the total ballots received. Each subject whose name was drawn was contacted in his/her class in order for his/her prize to be awarded.

3.3 Treatments

Four separate treatments were used in this experiment. Treatment One represented the current standard used in public leisure service agencies' communication efforts. Treatments Two, Three, and Four represented feasible improvements to the current standard. In order to remain consistent, each treatment contained the same basic information regarding what events were taking place, when they were scheduled, and the location of each venue. Treatment One, Three, and Four were rational appeals that presented factual information about the events surrounding Homecoming. Treatment Two included persuasive messages in addition to the basic information.

3.3.1 Media Development

Although the media types were predetermined (see Chapter One) the "executional elements" (Shimp, 1981) were developed using a method similar to that employed by the University of Waterloo recruitment department (M. Douglas-Mills, personal

communication, August 31, 1999). Six undergraduate students from the University of Waterloo were recruited to be part of a focus group and were informed of the purpose of the study. They were presented with various font styles, font sizes, colours, graphics, and pictures under consideration for the Treatments. The executional elements used in each Treatment were then based on the suggestions and recommendations of the focus group. They were also presented with a proposed script of the personal appeal. This script was given to the focus group in written and spoken form. The focus group then provided feedback and suggestions with respect to the script. These suggestions were incorporated into the final version of the personal appeal. Please refer to section 4.2 for greater detail on the development of the treatments.

3.3.2 Message Execution

The informative component of the communication effort was in the form of a rational appeal. A rational appeal provides the receiver of the message with factual information (Stafford & Day, 1995) and as such is a necessary element in many communication efforts. For example, without basic information an individual will not know (among other things) what is being offered, when or where s/he can participate, or how much it costs to participate. Therefore, informational elements must be included even if an organisation's objective is to educate, persuade, or remind.

Treatment Two included two communication objectives: to inform study subjects about the events for Homecoming and to persuade them to participate in Homecoming. Providing information alone may not be enough to encourage students to participate in Homecoming events. Therefore, persuasion was chosen as the second communication objective because it was deemed to be the logical next step in the hierarchy of

communication objectives. Most students will not need to be educated on the basic nature of Homecoming. First year students heard about Homecoming during Frosh week (M. Hillier, personal communication, July 20, 1999) whereas second, third, and fourth year students likely would have been on campus one or more times during Homecoming. Further, a reminder element was inappropriate because the subjects in experiment may not have been exposed to previous communication efforts for Homecoming 1999.

The persuasive message was delivered in the form of an emotional appeal. Stafford and Day (1995) noted that emotional appeals are intended to "generate positive emotions and create warm feelings" (p. 62). This appeared to be a reasonable message execution strategy given the nature of the venue. It is reasonable and likely that the elements underlying Homecoming such as school spirit, spending time with friends, and having a good time could be communicated through an emotional appeal.

Other appeal types (e.g., fear, sexual, guilt, benefits to be gained or lost) were not appropriate for the following reasons: Fear appeals are often used for serious issues such as stop smoking or anti-drinking and driving campaigns; in those terms, Homecoming cannot be viewed as a serious issue. Furthermore, fear appeals can cause anxiety (Henthorn et al., 1993) and may cause negative attitudes toward the communication effort (Moore & Harris, 1996) or the sponsoring organisation. Sexual appeals were deemed inappropriate for this study due to the venue (i.e., a University) and nature of the event (i.e., school spirit). Furthermore, this type of appeal would not be used by public leisure service agencies due to the controversy surrounding these appeals (e.g., degrading to women, not appropriate for children).

A guilt appeal was a viable option and is often used in social marketing. Although Homecoming promotion does not fall into the category of social marketing, a guilt appeal could have been used. However, it was not considered an appropriate message execution strategy because of the nature of the venue (e.g., school spirit, fun). A message worded in terms of benefits gained from participating or lost by not participating was also a viable option. However, this approach was not chosen because both framing orientations (i.e., positive and negative) would have to be tested using each of the media types selected for the study, therefore, increasing substantially the number of experimental groups. Co-ordination of more than six groups would require more facilitators, more facilities (this would be especially problematic for website treatment), and a greater number of subjects.

3.3.3 Message Development

In addition, to providing feedback regarding executional elements, focus group participants assisted in message development. The researcher and a faculty member from the Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies developed seven persuasive messages for use in Treatment Two (refer to Appendix B). Each of these messages were read and evaluated by the focus group. This procedure for developing messages was similar to that used by the recruitment office at the University of Waterloo (M. Douglas-Mills, personal communication, August 31, 1999).

The focus group participants were given a package that included an instruction page and questionnaire for rating the persuasiveness of each of the messages (refer to Appendix C). The questionnaire consisted of one page for each message. The message was written at the top of the page and a six-item semantic differential scale followed. Three of the items were randomly reversed, using a coin toss, to avoid "yea-saying response patterns"

(Bucholz & Smith, 1991, p. 11). The order of the messages in each package was randomised by shuffling the questionnaires.

Data from completed questionnaires were summed, using a scale of +2 to –2, to produce a holistic measurement of respondents' attitude toward the messages. A completely positive response (e.g., check the box closest to "Persuasive") was rated as +2 whereas a completely negative response (e.g., respondent checked the box closest to "Not Persuasive") was rated as –2. A neutral response (i.e., the middle box) was rated as 0 (zero). Therefore, a negative result indicated that the message was not persuasive and a positive result indicated that the message was viewed as being persuasive. Furthermore, an ANOVA was conducted on the persuasiveness of each of the messages to determine the level of agreement. Three persuasive messages, as determined by the holistic scores for each message and the focus group's input, and the researcher's best judgement were included in Treatment Two. Please refer to Section 4.2 for further details.

3.3.4 Treatment One

Treatment One consisted of a rational appeal presented through a print media vehicle (i.e., factual information in the form of an advertisement). This treatment represented the current standard in communication efforts by public leisure service agencies (i.e., print and information) with the exception that public leisure service agencies' communication efforts are typically presented in the form of seasonal programme brochures (Johnson Tew et al., 1999).

A seasonal programme brochure consists of broad activity/programme headings (e.g., swimming lessons, aerobics) under which is listed various sub-programmes and descriptions (e.g., listed under the broad heading of aerobics are specific aerobics

programmes such as step, low-impact, high-impact, aquafit). The days of the week each level is offered, time of day each is offered, and other related information is also contained in the programme brochure.

Homecoming, although it is a series of events, is not sufficiently extensive to warrant the development of a programme brochure. A smaller brochure (i.e., letter size paper, printed front and back), however, was reasonable given that there was a limited number of events associated with Homecoming. Therefore, a short brochure was used in Treatment One.

Public leisure service agencies likely would not include funds in an "advertising budget" for professional development of a communication effort (i.e., outsource to an advertising agency). Therefore, Treatment One was developed in-house, as opposed to using professionals, to more accurately reflect the constraints faced by public leisure service agencies. A sample of Treatment One is presented in Appendix D.

3.3.4 Treatment Two

Treatment Two consisted of a short brochure containing a rational appeal and an emotional appeal (in the form of three persuasive messages). Treatment Two was identical to Treatment One (e.g., same font style and size, graphics, and information) except for the inclusion of three persuasive messages. As with Treatment One the brochure was produced in-house. A sample of Treatment Two is presented in Appendix E.

3.3.5 Treatment Three

Treatment Three was in the form of a website containing a rational appeal. The content of the informative messages were identical to that found in Treatment One.

However, the website incorporated interactive elements (i.e., multiple screens, links to related pages), graphics, pictures, and colour. The various pages of the website are presented in Appendix F.

The website included a "Table of Contents" on the "first page" where visitors to the site could click on any entry in order to link to more detailed information including pictures, if applicable. For example, if a visitor wants more information on the concert, s/he can click on the title (e.g., "Big Rude Jake in Concert") which linked him/her to a page dedicated specifically to the concert that took place during Homecoming. The page contained information on the band, pictures, ticket costs, order information, and a link to associated website(s). As with Treatments One and Two, the website was constructed in-house. However, the advice of an expert (i.e., "webmaster") was sought during the construction of the website.

3.3.6 Treatment Four

Treatment Four contained the same basic information as Treatments One, Two, and Three however, the media type used differed from the other Treatments. The messages in Treatment Four were relayed through a personal appeal. Personal appeals may take the form of day-to-day interactions between staff and clients, a telephone call (McDonald, 1997), or a planned presentation. This study used a formal presentation in order to allow large groups of subjects to receive the message concurrently. A script of the personal appeal is presented in Appendix G. As discussed in section 3.3.1, the script was presented to the focus group for suggestions and recommendations.

In addition, to the personal appeal, subjects received a copy of Treatment One (brochure with information only) (see Appendix D). It was decided that this was a

reasonable inclusion because it represented "building" onto a more basic communication effort (i.e., Treatment One). For example, Vander Stoep and Gramann (1987), in their study of personally-delivered messages, built-up the messages. In their study the first message contained one persuasive element, the second contained the first persuasive element plus another, and the third contained the two persuasive elements plus an additional one. Furthermore, it is unlikely that an agency would use a personal appeal without supporting documentation as audience members may have difficulty remembering important information on a series of events (e.g., date, time, place). Subjects receiving Treatment Four were, in addition to the personal appeal and basic information, given an opportunity to ask questions they had about Homecoming.

Michelle Hillier, the special events co-ordinator for the Federation of Students, was recruited to be the presenter for the personal appeal. She was chosen due to her connection with Homecoming as well as her training in public speaking. Michelle, in conjunction with a member of Alumni Affairs, was in charge of planning and organising Homecoming at the University of Waterloo in 1999 and, as such, had detailed knowledge of the events.

3.4 Data Collection Instruments

The following section outlines the data collection instruments that were used in this study as well as justification for the use of various scales (i.e., when more than one scale was available). Survey questionnaires were used on each data collection occasion (refer to Figure 3.2). Although data were collected on two separate days, subjects completed two separate questionnaires on the first day (i.e., pre-exposure and post-exposure). A general outline of the data collection instruments is presented in Appendix H.

3.4.1 Instrument One

Instrument One, which was administered on the first day of the experiment, consisted of six parts. First, subjects were asked to complete a scale probing their commitment to the University of Waterloo. Second, subjects were asked about their past experience with Homecoming at the University of Waterloo or another Post-Secondary Education Institution (i.e., have they ever participated in Homecoming events). Third, subjects were asked to complete a series of questions with respect to their involvement with Homecoming. Fourth, subjects answered questions pertaining to their subjective norms (i.e., assessment of the beliefs of others) as they applied to their potential participation in Homecoming, and a series of questions probing subjects' pre-exposure A_B. Subjects then indicated their likelihood of participating in at least one of the events at Homecoming in 1999. Finally, subjects were asked to provide some demographic information. All groups, excluding CG2, completed Instrument One. However, CG2 completed a modified version of Instrument One containing only questions pertaining to demographic information. Please refer to Appendix I for a sample of Instrument One and Appendix J for a sample of the modified version of Instrument One.

3.4.2 Instrument Two

Instrument Two, which consisted of four parts, was administered on the first day of the experiment after exposure to a treatment (i.e., communication effort). First, subjects were asked to list what they remembered about the communication effort to which they had been exposed (i.e., recall). The second set of questions probed subjects' A_{ad}. Third, subjects' post-exposure A_B was probed. Finally, subjects were asked to indicate their intent to participate in each of the upcoming Homecoming. Only subjects assigned to one of the

experimental groups completed Instrument Two. Please refer to Appendix K for a sample of Instrument Two.

3.4.3 Instrument Three

Instrument Three consisted of four parts. First, subjects completed questions pertaining to their post-event A_B. In the second part, subjects were asked to indicate both if they planned to attend each of the listed Homecoming events and if they actually did attend each event. The third part of the questionnaire differed for those who attended at least one event compared to those who did not attend any events. Those who attended at least one event were asked to indicate what factors contributed to their decision to attend. Those subjects who did not attend any events were asked to indicate why they did not participate. Finally, subjects, excluding those in the control groups, were asked to list what they remembered about the communication effort to which they had been exposed (i.e., recall). All groups, including the control groups, completed Instrument Three. Please refer to Appendix L for a sample of Instrument Three.

3.4.4 Scale Choice Justification

There was more than one standardised scale available for assessing various components of the framework. Therefore, the following section presents justification for the choice of one scale over other options.

3.4.4.1 Attitude toward the Communication Effort (A_{ad})

Brunner (1998) identified 75 multi-item scales using 53 different bi-polar adjectives (i.e., semantic differential) to measure A_{ad} (Likert-type scales have never been used). Almost half of the scales had been used only once in previous studies. Brunner noted that

"it is not unusual for many apparently acceptable alternative measures to be ignored in favor of new scales being introduced with little, if any, published reasoning or validation" (p. 2). Based on his analysis of the multitude of scales, in terms of the number of times each had been used and their validation, Brunner tentatively recommended that researchers use one of three following scales: Burton and Lichtenstein, 1988; Madden et al., 1988; or Mitchell and Olson, 1981.

Mitchell and Olson's (1981) global measure of A_{ad} was used in this study. Their scale has been the most widely used and therefore appears to be well accepted (Brunner, 1998). Further, evidence of this scale's validity has been documented (Darley & Smith, 1993). Cox and Cox (1988) reported an alpha of 0.90 for this scale. Gardner (1985) used the scale developed by Mitchell and Olson to measure two different products and reported reliability coefficients of 0.78 and 0.86.

3.4.4.2 Attitude toward Homecoming (A_B)

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) suggested that a person's attitude toward something should be measured using a bi-polar scale (i.e., semantic differential scale). Their suggestion appears to have been accepted as is evidenced by the inclusion of semantic differential scales for attitude measurement in various texts (e.g., Schiffman & Kanuk, 1994) as well empirical studies (e.g., Peterson & Wilson, 1992).

A_B was measured using a semantic differential scale consisting of three semantic differential items. This scale has been used numerous times in studies (e.g., Cox & Cox, 1988; Gardner, 1985; Muehling & Laczniak, 1988) and has obtained reasonable alphas. Cox and Cox obtained an alpha of 0.94, Gardner tested two products and obtained alpha

coefficients of 0.71 and 0.77, and Muehling and Laczniak obtained a 0.93. The same scale, to measure A_B, was used on each survey instrument in the present study.

3.4.4.3 Commitment to the University of Waterloo

Pritchard et al.'s (1999) Psychological Commitment Instrument (PCI) was used to measure subjects' commitment to the University of Waterloo. Although this is a Likert-type scale, it was determined to be the most appropriate for studying commitment to an organisation that provides a service (i.e., education). Further, Pritchard et al. provided evidence of the validity and reliability of this scale based on two major studies using commitment to airline carriers and commitment to hotel brands.

The scale used in this study however, was modified from the original presented by Pritchard et al. (1999). Although measures relating to position involvement, volitional choice, and informational capacity was included (as outlined in Pritchard et al.), resistance to change was measured using only two of the four items. It is recognised that a student can transfer Universities however, this is not characteristic of the majority of students nor is it an easy task within the Canadian university system. Therefore, RC1 and RC3 were not used (see Pritchard et al., p. 345) because they assume a greater degree of volition than is currently present in the Canadian University system. RC2 and RC4 however, were included in Instrument One as these items probe subjects' beliefs about the service provider and, as such, were suitable for inclusion.

3.4.5.4 Involvement with Homecoming

McQuarrie and Munson's (1987) Revised Personal Involvement Inventory (RPII), which is based on the Personal Involvement Inventory (PII) developed by Zaichkowsky

(1985), was used to measure involvement with Homecoming. This scale was selected in order to maintain consistency in question type (i.e., semantic differential scale). In addition, the RPII has been used extensively in the leisure literature. Indeed, Havitz and Dimanche (1997) reported that the RPII was used in 11 of 42 studies. Sub-scale alphas in these 11 studies ranged to a high of 0.90 (Wiley, 1995) with the majority falling in the region of 0.85.

3.4.4.5 Intent to Participate

Juster (1966) found that a probability of purchase/participation measure was a better predictor of actual behaviour as compared to buying intentions. Despite his empirical evidence, researchers commonly measure purchase/participation intention with a single semantic differential scale (e.g., Peterson & Wilson, 1992) or Likert-type scales (e.g., Sheeran et al., 1999). Trafimow and Borrie (1999), in contrast, measured intention using a modified probability of purchase/participation scale (they measured intention to "take" an object) with extremely unlikely and extremely likely as the anchoring points. This form is based on the intention scales developed by from Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) and is similar to the form Juster (1966) recommended. However, Juster implied that the phrase "chances are" should be used in the question (e.g., What are the chances that you will attend the hockey game). This method allows the respondent to use a number (ratio level measure) such as "9 out of 10."

For the purposes of this study, an estimation question was used (e.g., "the chances that you will attend," ranging from 0% to 100%). Lord et al., (1995) found a correlation of 0.84 between a measure of estimation and a measure of intentions and Miniard et. al, (1990) obtained a correlation of 0.98. Therefore, due to the high correlation between

estimations and intentions, it was decided that only one measure was required. Indeed, Sheppard et al. (1988) argued that compared to a measure of intention, "a measure of estimation will likely provide the better prediction of performance" (p. 328).

3.5 Pretests

The three questionnaires, the information letter, the verbal instructions, and the written instructions were pretested prior to the study. Comments and suggestions arising from the pretest were incorporated where appropriate. Furthermore, the final treatments were given back to the original focus group to ensure that their comments and suggestions were accurately interpreted (refer to section 4.2.3).

Undergraduate and graduate students from the University of Waterloo, who were not eligible for inclusion in the main study or the focus group, were recruited for the pretest. The volunteers were asked to read the information letter and received verbal instructions (i.e., as in the true experiment), in addition to the instructions provided on the questionnaires, before they filled out each questionnaire. Pretest volunteers were also asked to record the number of minutes it took them to complete the Instrument. Furthermore, they were asked to note any instructions, questions, or wording that they found confusing or unclear. The comments and suggestions of the volunteers were incorporated into each of the Instruments as well as into the verbal and written instructions.

After completing Instrument One, volunteers were shown one of the four Treatments (randomly determined) before completing Instrument Two. Three days later, volunteers were asked to complete Instrument Three however, in the actual study, Instrument Three was completed two weeks after the treatment date. Although they did not

have a chance to attend Homecoming, volunteers were asked to read the instructions and questions, contained in Instrument Three, for clarity.

3.6 General data collection procedures

As outlined in Figure 3.2, the experiment took place over a three-week period and included data collection on two separate days. The data collection periods are discussed separately, in the following section, and include separate subsections for each EG and CG as required.

3.6.1 Facilitators

Three facilitators were required to run the first part of the experiment (i.e., data collection one and two). Facilitators were recruited from the graduate students in the Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies at the University of Waterloo. Each facilitator attended a "training session" that outlined the procedures of the experiment and the administering of the Instruments.

Due to the nature of the experiment, facilitators were required to conduct part of the experiment without the assistance of the primary researcher (i.e., facilitators and primary research were in separate rooms). It was therefore necessary to ensure that each facilitator was comfortable with the process by which the experiment was conducted (i.e., follow the outline of the experiment procedures as described in Appendix M). Facilitators were not made aware of the specific research hypotheses however, they were informed that the overall purpose of the experiment was to investigate subjects' responses to an organisation's communication efforts in the context of Homecoming. As such, facilitators were instructed to not disclose the nature of Homecoming prior to subjects being exposed

to a treatment. However, facilitators answered subjects' questions pertaining to their involvement in the experiment.

3.6.2 Data Collection One and Two

The instructor of each class in which the experiment was conducted introduced the researcher and briefly stated that she was asking for volunteers to take part in a study. The researcher then solicited participation from the class but did not disclose that the experiment involved Homecoming (refer to Appendix M). Please note that after reading the information letter (Appendix O) those subjects who volunteered to participate were aware that the experiment dealt with responses to communication efforts in the context of Homecoming (non-participants were not aware of this fact, as they did not receive the information letter).

All students who were willing to participate in the experiment were randomly assigned to either one of four treatment groups or to one of two control groups. Random assignment occurred by distributing envelopes (containing the Instruments and related information) to all willing subjects. Each envelope had a coloured sticker on the outside that identified to which group the subject was assigned. In addition, another sticker was placed over the opening of the envelope to discourage subjects from viewing the material contained inside prior to the experiment (refer to Appendix N).

Subjects were asked to report to a research facilitator, based on the coloured sticker on their envelope, and follow them to a specified location. The location depended on the communication effort to which the subject was exposed as well as classroom availability. The procedures for the experiment groups differed after the completion of the first Instrument. Therefore, procedures for each experiment group will be discussed separately.

However, EG1 and EG2 will be discussed together as the procedures for these groups are identical.

3.6.2.1 Procedures for Experiment Group One and Experiment Group Two

When the subjects in EG1 and EG2 arrived in the specified location they were asked to sit in the desks provided. The research facilitator then instructed the subjects to open the envelope and remove the contents. Each package contained an information letter (Appendix O), two questionnaires (Appendix I and K), and two ballots for the random draw (Appendix P). Subjects were asked to read the information letter. The facilitator requested that they not turn the page until instructed to do so. After subjects read the information letter and general instructions, any questions regarding their participation were addressed.

When all questions and concerns were adequately addressed, subjects were asked to turn to the first questionnaire. Subjects were asked to complete the questionnaire and were instructed to remain on the final page of the questionnaire until they received further instructions. However, in anticipation of some subjects not following the instructions, a "waiting page" was inserted between the first questionnaire and the Treatment (refer to Appendix Q).

After completing Instrument One, subjects were asked to turn the page and view the print advertisement (i.e., brochure). Subjects were given as long as they wanted to view the material. When finished viewing the brochure, subjects were asked to turn the advertisement over. They were also instructed not to turn back to Instrument One or the print advertisement and not to look forward in the package. At this point in the experiment "clutter" was used to emulate a real world situation.

After viewing the print advertisement and turning it over, the facilitator explained how the next part of the experiment would be conducted. The facilitator then told the subjects that they have been asked by the course instructor to remind the class about the next day's readings as well as upcoming topics to be discussed in class. However, in one of the classes, the subjects were reminded of the upcoming exam and outlets for extra help were discussed briefly. The clutter lasted between 45 seconds and 1 minute depending on the information relayed.

After the clutter, subjects were asked to turn the page to reveal Instrument Two. After completing this Instrument, subjects were reminded to fill in the ballots for the random draw and were asked to put everything back into the envelope however, they were told they could keep the brochure and information letter if they wished. The facilitator then collected the envelopes and ensured that each subject had recorded his/her student identification number on the front of the envelope. Subjects were then thanked for their time and were allowed to leave.

3.6.2.2 Procedures for Experimental Group Three

When the subjects in EG3 arrived in the specified location they were asked to sit at one of the computer terminals. The research facilitator then instructed the subjects to open the envelope and remove the contents. Each package contained an information letter (Appendix O), two questionnaires (Appendix I and K), and two ballots for the random draw (Appendix P). Subjects were asked to read the information letter and asked to not turn the page until they were instructed to do so. After the subjects read the information letter and general instructions, any questions regarding their participation were addressed.

When all questions and concerns were adequately addressed, subjects were asked to turn to the first questionnaire. Subjects were asked to complete the questionnaire and were instructed to remain on the final page of the questionnaire until they received further instructions. However, in anticipation of some subjects not following the instructions, a "waiting page" was inserted between the first questionnaire and the Treatment.

After completing Instrument One, subjects were asked to log onto the computer and go to the website that was listed on their waiting page (refer to Appendix R). Subjects were given as long as they wanted to explore the website. When they were finished exploring the website, subjects were asked to log off or exit the website. They also were instructed not to turn back to Instrument One and not to look forward in the package. At this point in the experiment "clutter" was used to emulate a real world situation (please refer to section 3.6.2.1).

After the clutter (i.e., the information was disseminated), subjects were asked to turn the page to reveal Instrument Two. After completing this Instrument subjects were reminded to fill in the ballots for the random draw and asked to put everything back into the envelope. The facilitator then collected the envelopes and ensured that each subject had recorded his/her student identification number on the front of the envelope. At this point subjects were thanked for their time and were allowed to leave.

3.6.3.3 Procedures for Experimental Group Four

When the subjects in EG4 arrived in the specified location they were asked to sit in the desks provided. The research facilitator then instructed the subjects to open the envelope and remove the contents. Each package contained an information letter (Appendix O), two questionnaires (Appendix I and K), and two ballots for the random

draw (Appendix P). Subjects were asked to read the information letter and were asked to not turn the page until they are instructed to do so. After subjects read the information letter and general instructions, any questions regarding their participation were addressed.

When all questions and concerns were adequately addressed, subjects were asked to turn to the first questionnaire. Subjects were asked to complete the questionnaire and instructed to remain on the final page of the questionnaire until they received further instructions.

After completing Instrument One, subjects were instructed not to turn back to Instrument One and not to look forward in the package. After these instructions were given, Michelle Hillier went to the front of the classroom while the research facilitator handed out the information portion of the presentation (i.e., Treatment One). Michelle then introduced herself and began the verbal portion of the presentation (refer to Appendix G). Michelle ended her presentation by asking for questions from the subjects. When all the questions were adequately answered Michelle left the room. At this point in the experiment "clutter" was used to simulate a real world situation (please refer to section 3.6.2.1).

After the clutter (i.e., the information was disseminated), subjects were asked to turn the page to reveal Instrument Two. After completing this Instrument subjects were reminded to fill in the ballots for the random draw and put everything back into the envelope. The facilitator then collected the envelopes and ensured that each subject had recorded his/her student identification number on the front of the envelope. At this point, subjects were thanked for their time and were allowed to leave.

3.6.2.4 Procedures for Control Group One

When the subjects in CG1 arrived in the specified location they were asked to sit in the desks provided. The research facilitator then instructed the subjects to open the envelope and remove the contents. Each package contained an information letter (Appendix O), one questionnaire (Appendix I), and one ballot for the random draw (Appendix P). Subjects were asked to read the information letter and general instructions and were asked not to turn the page until they are instructed to do so. After subjects read the information letter and general instructions, any questions regarding their participation were addressed.

When all questions and concerns were adequately addressed, subjects were asked to turn to the questionnaire. Subjects were then asked to complete the questionnaire. After completing this Instrument subjects received the same clutter as the experimental groups (please refer to section 3.6.2.1) because class related material was incorporated in the clutter (i.e., subjects did not miss potentially important information).

After hearing the clutter subjects were reminded to fill in the ballots for the random draw and were asked to put everything back into the envelope. The facilitator then explained how part two of the experiment would be conducted and collected the envelopes from each subject, ensuring that the subject had written his/her student ID number on the front of the envelope. At this point subjects were thanked for their time and were allowed to leave.

3.6.2.5 Procedures for Control Group Two

When the subjects in CG2 arrived in the specified location they were asked to sit in the desks provided. The research facilitator then instructed the subjects to open the envelope and remove the contents. Each package contained an information letter (Appendix O), one ballot for the random draw (Appendix P), and a modified version of Instrument One (Appendix J). Subjects were asked to read the information letter. After reading the information letter any questions regarding their participation were addressed.

When all questions and concerns were adequately addressed, subjects were asked to complete the modified version of Instrument One. Upon completion, subjects received the same clutter as the experiment groups and control group one (please refer to section 3.6.2.1) because class related material was incorporated in the clutter (i.e., subjects did not miss potentially important information).

After hearing the clutter subjects were reminded to fill in the ballots for the random draw and were asked to put everything back into the envelope. The facilitator then explained how the remainder of the experiment would be conducted and collected the envelopes from each subject, ensuring that each subject had recorded his/her student ID number on the front of the envelope. At this point subjects were thanked for their time and were allowed to leave.

3.6.2.6 Non-Participants

Those students who did not volunteer to take part in the study were asked to meet at the back of the classroom while those who volunteered to participate were proceeding to the designated experiment rooms (e.g., computer lab). When all volunteers had left, the non-volunteers received the same clutter as the experiment groups and control groups

(please refer to section 3.6.2.1) because class related material was incorporated in the clutter (i.e., non-volunteers did not miss potentially important information). After this information was disseminated, the students who did not volunteer for the study were allowed to leave.

3.6.3 Data Collection Three

Subjects were contacted for the second and final time during the week following Homecoming. At the very beginning of the class, the instructor introduced the principal researcher who then described the second phase of the study (refer to Appendix S). All subjects who had participated in the first phase were asked to fill out a final survey questionnaire. An envelope (refer to Appendix T) containing Instrument Three (refer to Appendix L) and one ballot for the random draw (refer to Appendix P) was distributed to all subjects including those in CG1 and CG2. It was expected that not all subjects would be in class during the second contact therefore, each class was contacted during their second session of the week, in the same manner as the first contact of phase two.

Subjects were asked to complete the survey contained in the envelope. They were reminded that they should fill out page one (white) and either the blue page (i.e., those who participated in at least one homecoming event) or the yellow page (i.e., those who did not participate in any homecoming events). When finished completing the survey, subjects were reminded to fill in the ballot and return the Instrument and the ballot to the envelope. The researcher then discussed when the draw for the prizes would be conducted and how the prizes would be distributed to the winners. Finally, the researcher collected the envelopes from each subject, ensuring that each subject had recorded his/her student ID

number on the front of the envelope. At this point subjects were thanked for taking the time to participate in the study.

3.6.4 Tracking Subjects

Throughout the course of the experiment it was required that each subject be tracked individually in order to answer a number of the research questions. For example, research question nine is concerned, in part, with the stability of attitude over time. In order to answer this question, a subject's attitude prior to the treatment (Instrument One) was compared to his/her attitude after the treatment (Instrument Two) as well as to his/her attitude after Homecoming (Instrument Three). Therefore, a number of mechanisms were put in place to facilitate the tracking of each individual subject. Subjects were made aware of the purposes of recording their student identification numbers on the envelope both verbally and in writing (refer to Appendices M and O).

Each Instrument was distributed in an envelope. When subjects completed the Instrument(s) they put completed Instrument(s) in the envelope. On the front of each envelope was a label with a space for subjects to write their student identification numbers (refer to Appendix O). As described in sections 3.6.2 through 3.6.5, experiment facilitators ensured that each subject had recorded his/her identification number on the envelope when s/he returned the Instrument.

In the interest of confidentiality, each student identification number was assigned a "study number" on a master list. This study number was used to track subjects throughout the course of the experiment. The master list with the student identification numbers and assigned study numbers was maintained until the data from Instrument Three was recorded, after which time the master list was destroyed.

The master list contained the student identification number of every subject who participated in the experiment. After the first phase of the experiment, a study number was assigned to each subject. This number was recorded on Instrument One and Two and corresponded to a student's identification number. When Instrument Three was received after the second phase was complete, the student identification numbers (recorded on the outside of the envelope) were used to determine the study number so that the study number could be recorded on Instrument Three.

The researcher used the study numbers recorded on each Instrument to input the data from the two (in the case of subjects in the control groups) or three (in the case of subjects in experimental groups) Instruments into a single record, in SPSS, for each subject. When the final Instrument was received and inputted into SPSS, the master list, which contained the student ID numbers and associated study numbers, was destroyed.

3.7 Research Questions

The following section outlines the research questions that guided this experiment. Based on the research questions, a number of hypotheses were formed that were used to test each research question. The hypotheses are presented in alternative format. Research questions are denoted by RQ and alternative hypotheses are denoted by Ha. Section 1.4 outlines the conceptual development of the framework that guided this study and provides reasoning for the nature and direction of the research hypotheses.

RQ1: What is the relationship between the potential moderators (i.e., past experience, involvement with Homecoming, commitment to the University of Waterloo, and subjective norms) and subjects' pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming?

Ha1: There will be a difference in pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming based on subjects' past experience with Homecoming.

Ha1a: Subjects who attended Homecoming in the past will have a more positive attitude toward Homecoming compared to those subjects who have never attended Homecoming.

Ha2: There will be a difference in pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming based on subjects' involvement with Homecoming.

Ha2a: Subjects with high involvement in Homecoming will have more a positive attitude toward Homecoming compared to those subjects who have low involvement.

Ha3: There will be a difference in pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming based on subjects' commitment to the University of Waterloo.

Ha3a: Subjects with high commitment to the University of Waterloo will have a more positive attitude toward Homecoming compared to those subjects who have low commitment.

Ha4: There will be a difference in pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming based on subjects' subjective norms

Ha4a: Subjects with positive subjective norms (i.e., friends and other important people think subject should attend Homecoming) will have a more positive attitude toward Homecoming compared to those subjects who have low commitment.

RQ2: What is the relationship between the potential moderators (i.e., past experience, involvement with Homecoming, commitment to the University of Waterloo, and subjective norms) and subjects' pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming with subjects' pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming?

Ha5: There will be a difference in pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming based on past experience.

Ha5a: Subjects who attended Homecoming in the past will report higher pre-exposure intent to participate compared to those subjects who have never attended Homecoming.

Ha6: There will be a difference in pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming based on subjects' involvement with Homecoming.

Ha6a: Subjects with high involvement in Homecoming will report higher pre-exposure intent to participate compared to those subjects who have low involvement.

Ha7: There will be a difference in pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming based on subjects' commitment to the University of Waterloo.

> **Ha7a:** Subjects with high commitment to the University of Waterloo will report higher levels of intent to participate compared to those subjects who have low commitment.

Ha8: There will be a difference in pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming based on subjects' subjective norms

> **Ha8a:** Subjects with positive subjective norms (i.e., subject believes friends and other important people think subject should attend Homecoming) will have higher pre-exposure intent to participate compared to those subjects who have low commitment.

Ha9: There will be a difference in pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming based on subjects' pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming.

> **Ha9a:** Subjects with a positive pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming will report a higher intent to participate compared to those with less positive pre-exposure attitudes toward Homecoming.

RQ3: What is the relationship between attitude toward the communication effort and its antecedents (i.e., the communication effort, pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming, pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming)?

Ha10: There will be differences in subjects' attitude toward the communication effort for those who receive a message through a personal appeal than those who receive a message through a website or through print media.

> **Ha10a:** Subjects who receive the message through a personal appeal will have a more positive attitude toward the communication effort than those who receive the message through a website.

> **Ha10b:** Subjects who receive the message through a website will have a more positive attitude toward the communication effort than those who receive the message through print media.

> **Ha10c:** Subjects who receive the message through print media with persuasive messages will have a more positive attitude toward the communication effort than those who receive the message through print media with information only.

Ha11: There will be a difference in subjects' attitude toward the communication effort based on their pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming.

Ha11a: Subjects with a positive attitude toward Homecoming will have a more positive attitude toward the communication effort compared to those who have a less positive attitude toward Homecoming.

Ha12: There will be a difference in subjects' attitude toward the communication effort based on their pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming.

Ha12a: Subjects with higher levels of intent to participate will have a more positive attitude toward the communication efforts compared to those who have lower levels of intent to participate.

RQ4: What is the relationship between the communication efforts as well as subjects' attitude toward the communication efforts and subjects' post-exposure attitude toward Homecoming?

Ha13: There will be differences in subjects' post-exposure attitude toward Homecoming for those who receive a message through a personal appeal than those who receive a message through a website or through print media.

Ha13a: Subjects who receive the message through a personal appeal will have a more positive post-exposure attitude toward Homecoming than those who receive the message through a website.

Ha13b: Subjects who receive the message through a website will have a more positive post-exposure attitude toward Homecoming than those who receive the message through print media.

Ha13c: Subjects who receive the message through print media with persuasive messages will have a more positive post-exposure attitude toward Homecoming than those who receive the message through print media with information only.

Ha14: There will be differences in subjects' post-exposure attitude toward Homecoming based on their attitude toward the communication effort.

Ha14a: Subjects who have a positive attitude toward the communication effort will have a more positive post-exposure attitude toward Homecoming compared to those who had less positive attitudes toward the communication effort.

RQ5: What is the relationship between subjects' post exposure recall of the communication efforts and its antecedents (i.e., communication effort and subjects' attitude toward the communication effort)?

Ha15: There will be differences in subjects' post-exposure recall of the communication effort for those who receive a message through a personal appeal than those who receive a message through a website or through print media.

Ha15a: Subjects who receive the message through a personal appeal will have a higher level of post-exposure recall than those who receive the message through a website.

Ha15b: Subjects who receive the message through a website will have a higher level of post-exposure recall than those who receive the message through print media.

Ha15c: Subjects who receive the message through print media with persuasive messages will have a higher level of post-exposure recall than those who receive the message through print media with information only.

Ha16: There will be differences in subjects' post-exposure recall of the communication effort based on subjects' attitude toward the communication effort.

Ha16a: Subjects' post-exposure recall will be higher for those subjects with a positive attitude toward the communication effort compared to those with a negative attitude toward the communication effort.

RQ6: What is the relationship between subjects' post-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming and its antecedents (i.e., the communication effort, post-exposure attitude toward Homecoming, and attitude toward the communication efforts)?

Ha17: There will be differences in subjects' post-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming for those who receive a message through a personal appeal than those who receive a message through a website or through print media.

Ha17a: Subjects who receive the message through a personal appeal will have a higher post-exposure intent to participate than those who receive the message through a website.

Ha17b: Subjects who receive the message through a website will have a higher level of post-exposure intent to participate those who receive the message through print media.

Ha17c: Subjects who receive the message through print media with persuasive messages will have a higher level of post-exposure intent to participate than those who receive the message through print media with information only.

Ha18: There will be differences in subjects' post-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming based on subjects' post-exposure attitude toward Homecoming.

Ha18a: Subjects' post-exposure intent to participate will be higher for those subjects with a positive post-exposure attitude toward Homecoming compared to those with a negative post-exposure attitude toward Homecoming.

Ha19: There will be differences in subjects' post-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming based on subjects' attitude toward the communication effort.

> **Ha19a:** Subjects' post-exposure intent to participate will be higher for those subjects with a positive attitude toward the communication effort compared to those with a negative attitude toward the communication effort.

RQ7: What is the nature of the relationship between the antecedents and potential moderators of subjects' behaviour?

Ha20: There will be differences in actual participation in a Homecoming event by subjects who receive a message through print media than those who receive a message through personal appeal or through a website.

> **Ha20a:** Those subjects who receive a message though a personal appeal will be more likely to participate in a Homecoming event than those who receive a message through a website.
>
> **Ha20b:** Those subjects who receive a message through a website will be more likely to participate in a Homecoming event than those who receive a message through print media.
>
> **Ha20c:** Those subjects who receive an informative and persuasive message through print media will be more likely to participate in a Homecoming event than those who receive an informative message through print media.

Ha21: Subjects' post-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming will be related to their participation in Homecoming.

> **Ha21a:** Subjects with higher post-exposure intent to participate will be more likely to participate in Homecoming compared to subjects with lower post-exposure intent to participate.

Ha22: Subjects recall of the communication effort will be related to their participation in Homecoming.

> **Ha22a:** Subjects with higher recall of content items and executional elements (i.e., total) will be more likely to attend Homecoming compared to subjects with lower recall.

Ha23: Subjects' post-exposure attitude toward Homecoming will be related to their participation in Homecoming.

> **Ha23a:** Subjects with a positive post-exposure attitude toward Homecoming will be more likely to attend Homecoming compared to subjects with a negative attitude toward Homecoming.

Ha24: Past experience will influence subjects' participation in Homecoming.

> **Ha24a:** Subjects with past experience with Homecoming will have higher levels of participation than those who do not have past experience with Homecoming.

Ha25: Subjects' level of involvement with Homecoming will influence their participation in Homecoming.

> **Ha25a:** Subjects with a high level of involvement with Homecoming will show higher levels of participation in Homecoming than those subjects who have a low level of involvement with Homecoming.

Ha26: Subjects' commitment to the University of Waterloo will influence their participation in Homecoming.

> **Ha26a:** Subjects with a high level of commitment to the University of Waterloo will show higher levels participation in Homecoming than those who have a low level of commitment to the University of Waterloo.

Ha27: Subjects' subjective norms will influence their participation in Homecoming.

> **Ha27a:** Subjects who participate in Homecoming will have more positive subjective norms, as they relate to Homecoming, compared to those who did not participate in Homecoming.

Ha28: Subjects' pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming will be related to their participation in Homecoming.

> **Ha28a:** Subjects who participate in Homecoming will have more a positive pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming compared to those who did not participate in Homecoming.

RQ8: What is the influence of behaviour on subjects' post-event attitude toward Homecoming?

Ha29: Subjects' behaviour will influence their post-event attitude toward Homecoming.

> **Ha29a:** Subjects who participate in Homecoming will have a more positive post-event attitude toward Homecoming than those subjects who do not participate in Homecoming.

RQ9: How do subjects' attitude toward Homecoming change over time?

Ha30: There will be differences in subjects' change in attitude toward Homecoming between pre-exposure and post-exposure for those who receive a message through a personal appeal than those who receive a message through a website or through print media.

> **Ha30a:** Subjects who receive a message through a personal appeal will have a greater increase (i.e., become more positive) in attitude toward Homecoming from pre-exposure to post-exposure than those who receive a message through a website.
>
> **Ha30b:** Subjects who receive a message through a website will have a greater increase (i.e., become more positive) in attitude toward Homecoming from pre-exposure to post-exposure than those who receive a message through print media.
>
> **Ha30c:** Subjects who receive an informative and persuasive message through print media will have a greater increase (i.e., become more positive) in attitude toward Homecoming from pre-exposure to post-exposure than those who receive an informative message though print media.

Ha31: There will be differences in subjects' change in attitude toward Homecoming between post-exposure and post-event for those who receive a message through a personal appeal than those who receive a message through a website or through print media.

> **Ha31a:** Subjects who receive a message through a personal appeal will have a greater increase in (i.e., become more positive) attitude toward Homecoming from post-exposure to post-event than those who receive a message through a website.
>
> **Ha31b:** Subjects who receive a message through a website will have a greater increase in (i.e., become more positive) attitude toward Homecoming from post-exposure to post-event than those who receive a message through print media.
>
> **Ha31c:** Subjects who receive an informative and persuasive message through print media will have a greater increase in (i.e., become more positive) attitude toward Homecoming from post-exposure to post-event than those who receive an informative message though print media.

Ha32: There will be differences in subjects' change in attitude toward Homecoming between pre-exposure and post-event for those who receive a message through a personal appeal than those who receive a message through a website or through print media.

> **Ha32a:** Subjects who receive a message through a personal appeal will have a greater increase (i.e., become more positive) in attitude toward Homecoming from pre-exposure to post-event than those who receive a message through a website.

Ha32b: Subjects who receive a message through a website will have a greater increase (i.e., become more positive) in attitude toward Homecoming from pre-exposure to post-event than those who receive a message through print media.

Ha32c: Subjects who receive an informative and persuasive message through print media will have a greater increase (i.e., become more positive) in attitude toward Homecoming from pre-exposure to post-event than those who receive an informative message though print media.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

4.1 Outline

Chapter Four presents the results of the experiment. First, it outlines the results of the focus group discussion as it related to the development of the treatments. The process of data input and cleaning is discussed in the second section. Third, the general results of the experiment are discussed including the response rate and characteristics of the subjects. The fourth section details the descriptive statistics for each question in the three survey instruments. This section is followed by a series of Factor Analyses for the five standard scales included in the survey instruments. Results of hypotheses testing are presented in the final section.

4.2 Focus Group

As discussed in Chapter Three, a focus group was conducted to develop the executional elements of the communication efforts as well as persuasive messages. The following section outlines the results of the focus group including both quantitative analysis (i.e., persuasive messages) and an analysis of the focus group discussion (e.g., executional elements).

4.2.1 Persuasive Messages

As described in Chapter Three, the focus group participants filled out a questionnaire relating to the perceived persuasiveness of seven messages. Originally, persuasive messages were going to be included after each activity and event. This would have entailed seven persuasive messages in total. However, the focus group participants

felt that three persuasive messages would be more affective. As one participant stated, a message after every activity and event would be "overkill." It was therefore decided, by the focus group, that three persuasive messages be strategically placed within the brochure.

Two separate analyses were conducted on participants' impressions of each of the seven persuasive messages. As outlined in Appendix C, in the first part of the questionnaire, participants responded to five semantic differential scales (e.g., likeable, persuasive, believable, interesting, and appealing). A composite measure of these five items (i.e., attitude) was produced which allowed a mean score for each persuasive message to be calculated. Second, a mean score for each persuasive message (i.e., likelihood), with respect to the likelihood of attending Homecoming based on an individual message, was obtained (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1 Mean Scores for Persuasive Messages

Message	Attitude[1]	Likelihood[2]
If you don't go to Homecoming you might as well go to Western!	6.57	1.57
Homecoming! It'll be a blast! This is your school, stand up and be counted!	3.14	1.00
You enjoyed it then, experience it again. Froshweek, relive the moment in Homecoming!	2.86	0.86
What do Einstein, Julia Roberts, Wayne Gretzsky, & Bill Gates all have in common? None of them would miss Homecoming!	2.14	0.29
Hope to See you at Homecoming!	0.86	0.57
Homecoming! You are Waterloo and Waterloo is you! Show your pride!	0.71	0.00
Homecoming, it'll be a blast! Don't get left in the cold!	0.43	0.00

[1]Possible Range: -10 to +10; [2]Possible Range: -2 to +2

Based on Table 4.1, the researcher's best judgement, and the focus group's input, three messages were chosen for inclusion in the communication efforts. The most persuasive message, ("If you don't go to Homecoming you might as well go to Western!") was inserted across the top of the inside of the brochure, the second most persuasive message, ("Homecoming! It'll be a blast! This is your school, stand up and be counted!"), was inserted across the bottom on the inside of the brochure. Finally, a third message ("Hope to see you at Homecoming!") was inserted on the back panel. Focus group participants suggested that this message be used as opposed to "You enjoyed it then, experience it again. Froshweek, relive the moment in Homecoming." In numeric terms, the third message chosen was not the third most persuasive message however, the focus group participants felt that it was "honest [and] believable." Furthermore, it was described as being "simple [and it] implies that you're wanted at Homecoming." Therefore "Hope to see you at Homecoming!" was inserted on the back panel of the brochure, based on the recommendation of the focus group.

4.2.2 Executional Elements

Focus group participants were asked to make a series of decisions regarding the executional elements for the brochures and the website. Elements that were discussed included the colour of the brochure, the pictures and graphics for the brochures and website, the layout of the brochure and website, and the font styles and colours for the website. Focus group members were shown different choices for each executional element. The decision as to which to include was determined by a majority vote after a brief discussion of the merits of each choice. In general, focus group participants had a high level of agreement on the elements.

4.2.3 Analysis of Completed Treatments

When the four Treatments were completed, the focus group reviewed and discussed the finished communication efforts. Each focus group member received a copy of the two brochures (Treatment One and Two) and accessed the website (Treatment Three). In addition, they each received an outline of the Personal Appeal (Treatment Four), however, the full speech was not "performed" as scheduling conflicts prevented the speaker from attending.

Each focus group member was given as much time as s/he required to review the Treatments. All focus group members completed their review in 30 to 45 minutes. After reviewing the Treatments, the focus group members provided feedback to the researcher in the form of a group discussion. Overall, the focus group members felt that their comments and suggestions were interpreted correctly (i.e., incorporated into each Treatment as required). They did not suggest any further changes to the Treatments.

4.3 Data Input

The researcher inputted the data from each questionnaire into SPSS over a period of three weeks. A two step "data cleaning" procedure was used. First, after the data input was completed, each variable was checked to ensure that the values were within acceptable ranges. For example, a percent is between 0 and 100 therefore any other data entry was considered an error whereas for a summated scale (prior to recoding) any value of zero or more than five was considered an error. Six errors were uncovered using this procedure. Second, 13 questionnaires (5%) were randomly drawn and each entry was checked for accuracy. One error was uncovered in the second step therefore, one additional questionnaire was randomly drawn and checked for accuracy; no errors were found.

4.4 General Results

The following section outlines the general results of the study in terms of total response rate, response rate by group, and the demographic characteristics of the study subjects. Where applicable, the means and standard deviations of the item are presented. Furthermore, ANOVA and chi-square tests were performed on the demographic characteristics of the randomly assigned groups.

4.4.1 Response Rate

Instructors of four classes at the University of Waterloo, Fall term 1999, were contacted regarding possible participation of their students in the present research. In total, 424 students were registered in these classes. Two students were determined to be ineligible for inclusion in the study because they had participated in the original focus group and thus had intimate knowledge of the purpose of the study. Furthermore, eight students were identified as being registered in two of the classes. Therefore, 414 students were eligible to participate in the study. As expected, not all students were present the day the experiment was conducted. Of those students who were present the day the experiment was conducted, approximately 65 declined to participate, therefore, it was estimated that 86 students were absent the day of the experiment. Thus, the total number of students eligible for inclusion in the study was 328. Of the 328 students who were eligible to participate in the study, 263 completed at least one phase of the study (80.18%).

Not all subjects completed each of the required questionnaires (i.e., two for subjects in a control group and three for subjects in an experiment group). First, 263 subjects (100.00% of those who volunteered) completed the pre-exposure questionnaire. Second, 171 of the expected 175 subjects (97.71%) completed the post-exposure questionnaire.

Only 175 subjects were expected to complete the post-exposure questionnaire because subjects in CG1 (n=46) and CG2 (n=42) were excluded from this phase. Finally, 239 of the 263 subjects (90.87%) completed the post-event questionnaire. In total, 237 students (90.11%) completed all of the required questionnaires (i.e., two questionnaires for CG1 and CG2 and three questionnaires for EG1, EG2, EG3, and EG4) whereas 26 subjects (9.89%) had incomplete data (i.e., subject did not complete the required number of questionnaires). In addition, three subjects completed the post-event questionnaire but were not assigned to a group on the first day (i.e., they were absent or chose not to participate). These subjects were not included in the subsequent analyses.

4.4.2 Experiment and Control Group Responses

As discussed in Chapter Three, subjects were randomly assigned to one of two control groups or one of four experiment groups. The sizes of each group ranged from 39 (14.83%) to 47 (17.87%). Table 4.2 outlines the size of each group as well as the percent of subjects who completed all required survey instruments (i.e., two for each control group and three for each experiment group). For example, just over 90% of subjects in EG1 completed each survey instrument.

Table 4.2 Response Rates by Group

Group	Number and Percent of Subjects Assigned to Each Group	Number and Percent of Subjects Who Completed Each Phase By Group
CG1	46 (17.49)	43 (93.48)
CG2	42 (15.97)	40 (95.24)
EG1	42 (15.97)	38 (90.48)
EG2	47 (17.87)	40 (85.11)
EG3	39 (14.83)	35 (89.74)
EG4	47 (17.87)	41 (87.23)

4.4.3 Characteristics of the Subjects

All subjects completed a series of demographic questions. The following is a summary of the demographic information (i.e., gender, age, place of residence, year, and major) collected in questionnaire one (pre-exposure). Almost two thirds (66.92%) of the subjects were female whereas just under one third were male (33.08%). A chi-square test was performed and revealed that the proportion of males and females did not differ significantly across the experiment and control groups ($\chi^2 = 6.232$, df = 5, p = .285).

The average age of subjects was 20.23 (sd = 1.80) and ranged from 16 to 29 with the majority of subjects being 19 (34.60%) The second largest age cohorts were 20 (21.29%) and 21 (13.68%). The remaining age cohorts were represented by 11% or fewer of subjects (10.15% to 0.38%). Table 4.3 outlines the average age of each group.

Table 4.3 Average Age by Group

Group	Average Age (years)
CG1	19.67
EG1	19.94
EG4	19.94
CG2	20.10
EG2	20.74
EG3	21.21

$F = 4.670$, $df = 5$, $p < .001$

ANOVA revealed that there was a statistically significant difference, in subjects' average age, between the groups. It appears that those subjects randomly assigned to EG3 were older than those assigned to CG1, EG1, and EG4. The most extreme difference was between EG3 and CG1. On average, subjects in CG1 were almost 20 years old whereas subjects in EG3 were, on average, just over 21 years old.

The majority of subjects (n=122; 46.34%) were in their first year of university. As expected, second year students comprised the second largest group (n=74; 28.14%) followed by third year students (n=45; 17.11%). Under 10% of subjects were in their fourth year (n=16; 6.84%) while three subjects (1.14%) stated they were in their fifth year. One subject reported being in his/her sixth year of university (0.38%). For the purpose of analyses, subjects were split into two groups. The first group was comprised of those subjects in their first year and the second group was comprised of those subjects in all other years (i.e., 2 through 6). This distinction was made because those subjects in their first year

were less likely to have been exposed to Homecoming in the past whereas those subjects in other years were likely to have been on campus, at least once, during Homecoming.

A chi-square analysis was performed and revealed that subjects' year of school differed significantly across the groups ($\chi^2 = 27.401$, $df = 5$, $p < .001$). It appears that subjects in their first year were under-represented in EG3 (77.90% fewer than expected) whereas subjects in the other years were over-represented in EG3 (67.46% more than expected). Furthermore, differences appear to exist in CG1. Subjects in their first year appear to be over-represented in CG1 (36.15% more than expected) whereas subjects in their second year appear to be under-represented in CG1 (31.17% fewer than expected).

The majority of subjects (77.19%) were recreation and leisure studies majors. Psychology majors comprised the next largest group (4.56%). The remainder (18.25%) were majors in a variety of other departments from across campus. Subjects were subsequently grouped into recreation and leisure studies majors and non-recreation and leisure studies majors. Using this breakdown, a chi-square analysis was performed and revealed that the proportion of recreation majors and non-recreation majors differed significantly across the groups ($\chi^2 = 14.524$, $df = 5$, $p = .013$). It appears that non-recreation majors were over-represented in CG2 (56.25% more than expected) and EG4 (49.53% more than expected). In addition, it appears that non-recreation majors were under-represented in EG2 (37.50% fewer than expected) and EG3 (66.29% fewer than expected).

Subjects were asked whether they lived on campus (i.e., in a student residence) or off campus. More subjects reported living off campus (61.98%) as compared to on campus (38.62%). A chi-square analysis was performed using place of residence and the group to which the subject was randomly assigned. This test revealed that the proportion of students

who lived on campus and off campus differed significantly in some of the groups ($\chi^2 = 20.589$, df = 5, p = .001). Subjects living on campus were over-represented in CG1 (63.74% more than expected) and under-represented in EG3 (52.70% fewer than expected).

Although subjects were randomly assigned to one of six groups, there appear to be some significant differences between the groups. In particular, those subjects assigned to EG3 tended to be older than were subjects in the other five groups. Indeed, subjects in their first year were under-represented in EG3 as would be expected given that EG3 group members were older. Furthermore, subjects living on-campus (i.e., in residence) were also under-represented in EG3 which was to be expected as older students and upper-year students are discouraged from living on-campus due to lack of residence spaces (i.e., first year students are given priority). The differences between the groups were not expected to confound the results of the study. Indeed, a chi-square analysis revealed that there was no differences between the groups in terms of their past participation in Homecoming (please refer to section 4.5.2). Furthermore, there were no differences between the groups in terms of their likelihood of participating in at least one Homecoming event (please refer to section 4.5.7).

4.5 Descriptive Statistics

The following section outlines the distribution of the questions and scales from the pre-exposure questionnaire, post-exposure questionnaire, and post-event questionnaire. Where appropriate, the distribution is presented for the six study groups. Please note that comparisons of the groups are also undertaken in section 4.7 (hypothesis testing).

4.5.1 Commitment

An eleven-item scale was used to measure subjects' commitment to the University of Waterloo. A response rate of 99.55% was achieved for this scale. In their recent work, Pritchard et al., (1999) divided the Psychological Commitment Instrument (PCI) into four factors. These factors, their associated items, and the item means and standard deviations from the current study are presented in Table 4.4. Two factor analyses was conducted on this commitment scale however, these analyses are presented in section 4.6.1. Please note, the PCI has four Resistance to Change items however, only two were included in this study.

Table 4.4 Commitment to the University of Waterloo (UW)

PCI Factor	Item	$\bar{x}$	sd
Volitional Choice	I controlled the decision on whether to attend UW	1.57	.85
	I am fully responsible for the decision to attend UW	1.54	.87
	My decision to attend UW was freely chosen from several alternatives	1.30	.94
Position Involvement	Attending UW reflects the kind of person I am	.26	1.05
	I prefer to attend UW because their image comes closest to reflecting my lifestyle	.19	.98
	I prefer to attend UW because their service makes me feel important	.14	.97
Information Complexity	I consider myself to be an educated consumer regarding UW	.71	.87
	I know a lot about UW	.60	.96
	I am knowledgeable about UW	.54	.88
Resistance to Change	To change my preference from UW would require major rethinking	.93	1.00
	It would be difficult to change my beliefs about UW	.53	.97

The total possible range for each item was –2 to +2. It appears that, overall, subjects were in agreement, to varying extents, with the items presented in the PCI. However, each item has a high standard deviation which indicates that, although the item means were positive (i.e., positive response indicates agreement with the statement), there was a lack of agreement by the subjects. Subjects tended to be most in agreement with the volitional choice items as compared to the other factors. It appears that, with Resistance to Change, subjects would require more rethinking to change their preference from the University of Waterloo but, in comparison, it would be less difficult to change their beliefs. Although the subjects tended to agree with the Position Involvement items, as evidenced by the positive scores, these items were all lower than the items in the remaining three factors.

4.5.2 Past Experience

Subjects were asked to record the number of times they attended Homecoming in the past at the University of Waterloo or another post-secondary institution. The response rate for this question was 100%. The majority of subjects (73.30%) had never attended Homecoming in the past. Just over one-quarter of subjects (26.70%) did participate in at least one previous Homecoming. There were no statistically significant differences between the four experiment groups and one control group ($\chi^2 = 8.569$, df = 4, p = .073) (CG2 did not complete this question). Past participants attended, on average, almost 2 previous Homecomings ($\bar{x} = 1.61$, sd = .83, range = 1 to 4). There was no significant differences between the groups (F = 1.958, df = 4, p = .102) in terms of the number of times they participated in previous Homecomings.

4.5.3 Involvement

A thirteen-item scale was used to measure subjects' involvement with Homecoming. A response rate of 99.55% was achieved for this scale. McQuarrie and Munson (1987) divided the Revised Personal Involvement Inventory (RPII), from which the scale in this study was drawn, into four factors. These factors, their associated items, and the item means and standard deviations are presented in Table 4.5. A factor analysis was conducted on this involvement scale however it is presented in section 4.7.2. Please note that McQuarrie and Munson's original RPII scale had two Sign items however, only one was included in this study.

Table 4.5 Revised Personal Involvement Inventory Means

Factor	Item	$\bar{x}$	sd
Importance	Relevant	-.13	1.19
	Important	-.26	1.17
	Matters to me	-.36	1.16
	Of concern to me	-.36	1.16
	Means a lot to me	-.50	1.07
Sign	Says something about me	-.52	1.11
Pleasure	Fun	.53	1.03
	Exciting	.35	1.02
	Interesting	.28	1.07
	Appealing	.20	1.17
Risk	Not risky	.90	.95
	Hard to go wrong	.36	.85
	Easy to pick	.24	.84

The total possible range for each item was –2 to +2. As displayed in Table 4.5, both the Importance factor and the Sign factor had negative means which indicates that subjects,

on average, tended to answer negatively on the summated scale (e.g., response was closer to irrelevant than to relevant). In contrast, subjects appeared to answer somewhat positively to the Pleasure items and Risk Items. However, in all cases, there were high standard deviations indicating some diversity in subjects' responses.

4.5.4 Attitude toward Homecoming

Subjects' attitude toward Homecoming was measured on three occasions (i.e., pre-exposure, post-exposure, and post-event). The response rates were 98.64% for the pre-exposure questionnaire, 97.14% for the post-exposure questionnaire, and 89.35% for the post-event questionnaire. On average, subjects had positive attitudes toward Homecoming at each data collection point (i.e., a response below zero was considered a negative attitude and a response above zero was considered a positive attitude). As expected, the pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming was the lowest of the three measures. In contrast, the post-exposure attitude toward Homecoming was the highest followed by the post-event attitude. Table 4.6 outlines the mean item scores and standard deviations at each data collection period as well as the mean overall score and standard deviation for each phase of the experiment. The total range for this series of measures was –2 to +2.

Table 4.6 Attitude toward Homecoming

Item	Pre-Exposure $\bar{x}$ (sd)	Post-Exposure $\bar{x}$ (sd)	Post-Event $\bar{x}$ (sd)
good/bad	.60 (.90)	.85 (.91)	.80 (.91)
like/dislike	.27 (.72)	.69 (.81)	.67 (.83)
pleasant/unpleasant	.50 (.84)	.91 (.76)	.82 (.84)
overall	.44 (.75)	.82 (.76)	.76 (.78)

4.5.5 Subjective Norms

Subjects were asked three questions that were intended to probe their subjective norms as they related to Homecoming. Overall, the subjective norms score, as an average of all three statements, was slightly positive. There appears to be a high level of variation among respondents as indicated by the high standard deviation. Subjects reported that their friends and other important people thought they should attend Homecoming as evidenced by the positive mean score. However, subjects reported that they typically do not do what their friends suggest, as evidenced by the negative score. Table 4.7 outlines the item means and standard deviations as well as the overall mean and standard deviation. The total possible range for all three statements was –2 to +2.

Table 4.7 Subjective Norms

Item	$\bar{x}$ (sd)
My friends think I should/should not attend Homecoming this year	.23 (.84)
Most of the people who are important to me think I should/should not attend Homecoming this year	.26 (.90)
Typically, I like to do what my friends suggest: always/never	-.10 (.87)
Overall	.13 (.69)

4.5.6 Knowledge

Subjects were asked, in the pre-exposure questionnaire, if they were aware of what events were scheduled for the University of Waterloo's 1999 Homecoming. A response rate of 100% was achieved for this question. Almost three-quarters (72.40%) of those

subjects who responded to this question did not know what events and activities were scheduled. Fewer than 10% (7.24%) of subjects knew what was scheduled while just over 20% (21.36%) reported that they were not sure what was scheduled. There was no significant difference between the groups ($\chi^2 = 11.850$, df = 8, p = .158).

4.5.7 Intent

At each stage of data collection (i.e., three times), subjects were asked if they intended to participate in Homecoming. On the pre-exposure questionnaire they were asked to estimate the chances that they would participate, from 0 to 100, in at least one Homecoming event. A response rate of 100% was achieved. There was a considerable range in responses. Indeed, subjects' responses ranged from 0 to 100 ($\bar{x} = 44.69$, sd = 33.04). Twenty-eight subjects responded that the chances of them attending was zero, 38 reported that there was a 50% chance of attending, and 19 reported that there was a 100% chance of attending at least one Homecoming event. There were no significant differences between the groups (F = 1.321, df = 4, 216, p = .263).

On the post-exposure questionnaire, subjects were asked to estimate the chances that they would participate, from 0 to 100, in each individual Homecoming event and activity. As with the pre-exposure questionnaire, there was a considerable range in responses. Table 4.8 outlines the response rate and average intent to participate, standard deviation, and range by Homecoming event. Also included in Table 4.8 is the overall mean intent to participate in all events as well as the response rate, standard deviation, and range.

Table 4.8 Post-Exposure Intent to Participate in Individual Homecoming Events

Event	Response Rate (%)	$\bar{x}$	sd	Range
Fun Run	96.00	30.95	30.24	0-100
Big Rude Jake Concert	96.00	26.80	27.03	0-90
Naismith Tournament	94.86	38.93	36.00	0-100
Banner Competition	96.00	20.83	29.36	0-100
Frosh Week Restoration	95.43	37.71	34.24	0-100
Yates Cup	96.00	48.30	38.57	0-100
Guest Speaker	96.00	14.18	21.21	0-80
Overall	94.29	30.94	20.68	0-81.57

The average intent to participate in the individual Homecoming events range from a low of just under 15% to a high of almost 50%. It appears that the two sporting events, Yates Cup (i.e., football game) and the Naismith Tournament (i.e., inter-University basketball tournament), elicited the highest levels of intent (48.30% and 38.93% respectively). These events were closely followed by the Frosh Week Restoration, which had an average intent of just under 40% (37.71%). The lowest level of intent was found for the Guest Speaker (14.18%).

On the post-event questionnaire, subjects were asked to indicate, with a yes or no response, if they had planned to attend each Homecoming event. The results of this question are outlined in Table 4.9. As shown in this table, the Yates Cup and the Naismith Tournament maintained the highest levels of intent by subjects (49.79% yes responses and 32.07% yes responses respectively). Again, the Guest Speaker elicited the lowest intent to participate by subjects (2.53% yes responses).

Table 4.9 Post-Event Intent to Participate by Homecoming Event

Event	Response Rate (%)	Yes (%)	No (%)
Fun Run	90.49	12.18	87.82
Big Rude Jake Concert	89.73	7.20	92.80
Naismith Tournament	90.11	32.07	67.93
Banner Competition	90.11	8.02	91.98
Frosh Week Restoration	90.49	27.31	72.69
Yates Cup	90.11	49.79	50.21
Guest Lecture	90.11	2.53	97.47

4.5.8 Recall

On both the post-exposure and post-event questionnaires, subjects in each of the four treatment groups were asked to write down everything they remembered about the communication effort to which they were exposed. Each item listed by subjects was then evaluated, by the researcher, to determine whether the item listed was a content item (e.g., Naismith Tournament) or an executional element (e.g., the brochure was yellow). Please refer to Appendix U for a list of recalled items by type (i.e., content or executional element) for each of the communication efforts. On average, subjects recalled more executional elements as compared to content items. Table 4.10 outlines the means, standard deviations, and ranges for content items and executional elements individually as well as for the total. Overall, subjects recalled less than 10% of the total number of content items and executional elements.

Table 4.10 Percent[1] of Content Items and Executional Elements Recalled

		Post-Exposure (%)	Post-Event (%)
Content Items	$\bar{x}$	5.88	3.23
	sd	3.81	2.44
	range	0.00-24.76	0.00-15.24
Executional Elements	$\bar{x}$	6.05	5.24
	sd	15.00	11.17
	range	0.00-100.00	0.00-57.14
Total	$\bar{x}$	5.84	3.33
	sd	3.63	2.78
	range	0.00-22.81	0.00-14.04

[1]Percent used because number of content items and executional elements differed between communication efforts.

4.5.9 Attitude toward the Communication Effort (A_{ad})

Subjects' A_{ad} to which they were exposed was measured on the post-exposure questionnaire. The response rate for this series of questions was 96.00%. On average, subjects had positive A_{ad} as is shown by the positive scores. However, the standard deviations were very large, in some cases larger than the mean, therefore, it appears that there was a lack of agreement between the subjects. The mean and standard deviation for each item, as well as the overall mean and standard deviation are outlined in Table 4.11. The total possible range for each item and the overall score was –2 to +2.

Table 4.11 Attitude toward the Communication Effort

Item	$\bar{x}$	sd
interesting/uninteresting	.74	1.22
good/bad	.82	.93
not irritating/irritating	.80	.99
like/dislike	.85	.97
overall	.80	.86

4.5.10 Participation in Homecoming

Subjects were asked to record, on the post-event questionnaire, the specific Homecoming events in which they participated. A response rate of 90.87% was achieved. Nearly 60% of subjects did not participate in any Homecoming events (59.00%) whereas just over 40% participated in at least one Homecoming event (41.00%). It appears that spectator sport events were the most popular. The most highly attended event, by subjects, was the Yates Cup (26.78%) followed by the Naismith Basketball Tournament (24.27%). Frosh Week Restoration was attended by just under 15% of subjects (14.23%) while the four remaining events were attended by fewer than five percent of subjects.

4.5.11 Factors Contributing to Participation in Homecoming

Those subjects who attended at least one Homecoming event or activity were asked to indicate, using a summative scale, which factors led to their decision to participate. They were given a list of ten options including an 'other' category. Table 4.12 outlines the total number of subjects who indicated that each option contributed to their decision to participate by at least 1% or more.

Table 4.12 Reasons for Attending

Contributing Factor[1]	Total
Brochure	33
Website	12
Personal Appeal	18
Newspaper(s)	25
Posters	37
Signs/banners	43
Booth	10
Went Last Year	11
Friends	85
Other	35

[1]Note: of the total sample, 33.83% were exposed to a brochure, 14.82% were exposed to the website, 17.87% were exposure to a personal appeal (this group also received a brochure)

Of the 11 subjects who indicated that they went to Homecoming last year as a reason for attending this year, one subject said that s/he had never attended Homecoming in the past. However, this subject reported being in third year therefore it was possible that s/he had attended in the past but did not realise the event in which s/he participated (i.e., the Naismith Tournament) was part of Homecoming. In addition, there were four subjects who indicated that a website had contributed to their involvement in Homecoming who were not randomly assigned to EG3. However, it was possible that they came across the website developed by the researcher or the alumni website. Furthermore, two of these subjects received a brochure, which had the website address on it, during the experiment. Four subjects, who did not receive a brochure, reported that a brochure contributed to their decision to participate. Those subjects assigned to EG1, EG2, and EG4 were given the opportunity to keep the brochure therefore it was possible that these subjects passed the brochure on to friends from other groups. However, in all cases, a subject's response may have been inaccurate.

4.5.12 Reasons Reported for Not Participating in Homecoming

Those subjects who did not attend any Homecoming events were asked to indicate why they did not participate. Subjects were given ten options including an 'other' category and were asked to check all that applied. Table 4.13 outlines the reasons subjects gave for not attending. Within the 'other' category, four responses: went home for the weekend; out of town; had to work; and had other plans were all given as reasons by more than five subjects therefore, they have been listed separately.

Table 4.13 Reasons for Not Attending Homecoming

Reason	Was a Factor # (%)	Was Not a Factor # (%)
I had too much school work to finish	68 (47.22)	76 (52.78)
I was studying	51 (35.42)	93 (64.58)
None of my friends were going	44 (30.56)	100 (69.44)
I didn't know about it	35 (24.31)	109 (72.22)
I forgot about it	27 (18.75)	117 (81.25)
None of the events or activities appealed to me	23 (15.97)	121 (84.03)
Homecoming is not by style	13 (9.03)	131 (90.97)
I couldn't get tickets	12 (8.33)	132 (92.36)
I was sick	5 (3.47)	139 (96.53)
Other:	73 (50.69)	71 (49.31)
I went home	29 (20.14)	
I was out of town	12 (8.33)	
I had to work	10 (6.94)	
I had other plans	7 (4.86)	

4.6 Factor Analysis

Five standardised scales were included in this study: involvement, commitment, attitude toward the brand (A_B), subjective norms, and attitude toward the communication effort (A_{ad}). Factor analysis was performed on each of these scales to confirm that the scales were valid in the context of this study. Each analysis will be discussed in the order in which the scale appears in the model (refer to Figure 1.3).

4.6.1 Commitment

As outlined in Chapter 3, subjects' commitment to the University of Waterloo was measured using the Psychological Commitment Instrument (PCI) developed by Pritchard et al. (1999). A response rate of 99.55% was achieved suggesting that item non-response and respondent fatigue were not problematic. An alpha of .86 was obtained. Principal component extraction using varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalisation was performed on the 11 items in the scale for the sample as a whole (n=221). The rotation converged in five iterations with three factors being extracted. Pritchard et al.'s (1999) original scale included four factors. Table 4.14 outlines the results of the factor analysis.

As can be seen in Table 4.14, Resistance to Change did not load into a single factor. Rather, the two Resistance to Change items included in this study were split between Position Involvement and Information Complexity (note: there are four items measuring Resistance to Change in the full PCI). Recent analysis by Pritchard et al., (1999) suggested that Resistance to Change may be a consequence of commitment rather than an antecedent. On this basis, the two Resistance to Change scale items were excluded and a second factor analysis was performed using nine scale items.

Table 4.14 Commitment to the University of Waterloo (UW) Factor Analysis

	1 Volitional Choice	2 Position Involvement	3 Information Complexity
I controlled the decision on whether to attend UW	.86	.07	.05
I am fully responsible for the decision to attend UW	.80	.07	.20
My decision to attend UW was freely chosen from several alternatives	.79	.26	-.01
I prefer to attend UW because their image comes closest to reflecting my lifestyle	-.10	.78	.26
Attending UW reflects the kind of person I am	.13	.77	.20
I prefer to attend UW because their service makes me feel important	.22	.61	.21
To change my preference from UW would require major rethinking[1]	.35	.61	-.03
I am knowledgeable about UW	.05	.16	.83
I consider myself to be an educated consumer regarding UW	.32	.20	.69
I know a lot about UW	.08	.39	.60
It would be difficult to change my beliefs about UW[1]	-.03	.07	.58
Eigenvalue	3.82	1.73	1.06
% Variance Explained	34.69	15.76	9.68
Cumulative Variance	34.69	50.46	60.13
Alpha	.80	.72	.68

[1]Resistance to Change item

An overall alpha of .80 was achieved. In this case the rotation converged in four iterations with three components being extracted. Each factor loaded as expected. Indeed, seven of the nine items had a higher loading than in the previous factor analysis and the remaining two had the same correlation. Please refer to Table 4.15.

Table 4.15 Commitment to the University of Waterloo Factor Analysis Excluding Resistance to Change

	1 Volitional Choice	2 Position Involvement	3 Information Complexity
I controlled the decision on whether to attend UW	.87	.07	.04
I am fully responsible for the decision to attend UW	.80	.22	.06
My decision to attend UW was freely chosen from several alternatives	.80	.02	.23
I am knowledgeable about UW	.02	.87	.14
I know a lot about UW	.05	.73	.26
I consider myself to be an educated consumer regarding UW	.20	.71	.20
I prefer to attend UW because their image comes closest to reflecting my lifestyle	-.07	.27	.81
Attending UW reflects the kind of person I am	.16	.22	.77
I prefer to attend UW because their service makes me feel important	.25	.12	.71
Eigenvalue	3.43	1.67	1.01
% variance explained	38.07	18.61	11.20
Cumulative variance	38.07	56.67	67.88
Alpha	.80	.73	.71

The factor analysis with the Resistance to Change items excluded resulted in a stronger scale. Each of the three factors had eigenvalues over 1.00 and the alpha level increased slightly for both Position Involvement and Information Complexity. The factor scores presented in Table 4.15 will be used in subsequent analyses. The factor scores were saved as variables using the regression method as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (1989).

4.6.2 Involvement

As outlined in Chapter Three, the Revised Personal Involvement Inventory (RPII) developed by McQuarrie and Munson (1987) was used in this study to measure involvement with Homecoming. A response rate of 98.19% was achieved for this scale. An overall alpha of .90 was obtained. Principal component extraction using varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalisation was performed on the 13 items from the involvement scale.

The rotation converged in five iterations with three factors being extracted. McQuarrie and Munson's (1987) original involvement scale consisted of four factors: importance, pleasure, sign-value, and risk. The sign-value factor in the original RPII is comprised of two items (says something/nothing about me and tells me about a person/shows nothing). Only the item "says something/nothing about me" was included in this study. Table 4.16 outlines the results of the factor analysis. Factor 1 is comprised of five importance items and the one sign-value, factor two is comprised of four pleasure items, and the third factor is comprised of three risk items. Please note that only the "positive" phrase used in each semantic differential statement is reported in Table 4.16, whereas both poles were included on the questionnaire. For example, "means a lot to me" and "means nothing to me" anchored the first item in Table 4.16.

Stevens (1986) argued that sample size must be considered when interpreting factor loadings. According to Stevens (p. 344), a critical loading for a sample size of 220, is .33. Stevens does not present the critical value for 220 but suggested that an approximation of the critical value can be made by averaging the critical values of 200 and 250, which were presented in his work. Furthermore, his examples suggest that if an item "barely" (p. 351) loads in terms of significance on one factor but is strongly associated with a second factor,

the item should be not be used for interpretation of the factor for which it is barely significant.

Table 4.16 Involvement with Homecoming Factor Analysis

	1 importance	2 pleasure	3 risk
Means a lot to me	.88	.22	.01
Matters to me	.82	.39	.03
Of concern to me	.82	.31	-.07
Important	.81	.34	-.00
Relevant	.77	.38	.02
Says something about me	.55	.49	-.08
Exciting	.35	.88	.11
Interesting	.32	.88	.02
Fun	.37	.84	.07
Appealing	.50	.70	-.02
Hard to go wrong	-.02	.20	.84
Easy to pick	.18	.08	.81
No risk	-.22	-.22	.52
Eigenvalue	6.96	1.70	1.02
% Variance Explained	53.51	13.10	7.85
Cumulative Variance	53.51	66.61	74.45
Alpha	.93	.94	.56

Given this, the items and their loadings were examined to determine if any changes should be made to the factor analysis. Although "matters to me," "of concern," "important," and "relevant" loaded significantly on factor one and two they will be used in first factor (i.e., importance) for two reasons. First, although the items loaded significantly on factor two, they were more strongly associated with factor one. Second, these items are conceptually consistent with the first factor (i.e., importance) as opposed to factor two (i.e., pleasure). In terms of "says something," this item was dropped from the second analysis as

it appears to load significantly on factor one and two with little difference between each loading (i.e., .55 and .49). The items "fun," "exciting," and "appealing" appear to load significantly on factor one and two as well. However, the items "fun" and "exciting" will be interpreted for factor two (i.e., pleasure) due to their stronger association with this factor. Furthermore, interpreting these items (i.e., "fun," "exciting") in this manner maintains conceptual consistency (i.e., better reflect pleasure than importance). Although "appealing" appears to load significantly on both factor one and two, it will be interpreted for factor two due to the relatively large difference in the loadings (i.e., difference of .20 compared to a difference of .06 for "says something" which was dropped from further analysis).

As before, principal component extraction using varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalisation was performed on the 12 remaining items from the involvement scale. The total converged in five iterations with three factors being extracted. The items loaded as expected (i.e., the same as Table 4.16) and as conceptualised by McQuarrie and Munson (1987). The results of this factor analysis are presented in Table 4.17.

The results of the second factor analysis (i.e., with "says something about me" dropped from analysis) appears to hold together well save for the alpha level of the risk factor. It appears that "no risk" does not correlate highly with the remaining two items in that factor loading. Indeed, the alpha level without the "no risk" item is .70. However, Havitz and Dimanche (1997) in their review of involvement research pointed out that risk items are often unreliable and suggested that further refinement of the scale is necessary. However, for the purposes of subsequent analyses the three factors presented in Table 4.17

will be used. The factor scores were saved as variables using the regression method as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (1989).

Table 4.17 Involvement with Homecoming Factor Analysis (Revised)

	1 importance	2 pleasure	3 risk
Means a lot to me	.88	.22	.01
Of concern to me	.83	.32	.08
Matters to me	.82	.39	.02
Important	.81	.34	.00
Relevant	.78	.38	.01
Exciting	.35	.89	.10
Interesting	.32	.88	.01
Fun	.37	.84	.06
Appealing	.50	.70	.02
Hard to go wrong	-.02	.21	.84
Easy to pick	.18	.08	.81
No risk	-.23	-.23	.53
Eigenvalue	6.46	1.705	1.02
% Variance Explained	53.80	14.13	8.50
Cumulative Variance	53.80	67.93	76.43
Alpha	.93	.90	.56

4.6.3 Attitude toward Homecoming (A_B)

The third scale used in this study was attitude toward the brand (A_B) or Homecoming in the current study. As noted in Chapter Three, this scale was used three times in the study. A response rate of 98.64% was achieved on the pre-exposure questionnaire and on the post-exposure questionnaire a response rate of 97.14% was obtained. On the post-event questionnaire the response rate was 98.74%. The response rates suggest that item non-response and respondent fatigue were not problematic on any of

the questionnaires. Reasonable alphas were achieved in each case. Please refer to Table 4.18 for the factor scores, alphas, and eigenvalues.

Table 4.18 Attitude toward Homecoming Factor Analysis

Questionnaire	Item	
Pre-Exposure A_B	Good/bad	.93
	Like/dislike	.92
	Pleasant/unpleasant	.92
	Eigenvalue	2.56
	% Variance Explained	85.19
	Alpha	.91
Post-Exposure A_B	Good/bad	.93
	Like/dislike	.90
	Pleasant/unpleasant	.90
	Eigenvalue	2.50
	% Variance Explained	83.32
	Alpha	.90
Post-Event A_B	Good/bad	.90
	Like/dislike	.93
	Pleasant/unpleasant	.93
	Eigenvalue	2.52
	% Variance Explained	84.10
	Alpha	.90

As expected, the three scale items loaded into a single factor on all three occasions. Overall, the scale used to measure A_B was very strong and had high internal consistency as evidenced by the high alpha values (i.e., .90 to .91). The individual factor scores (i.e., pre-exposure, post-exposure, and post-event) were saved as variables using the regression method as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (1989). In subsequent analyses, either the mean score or the factor score for each scale were used. However, justification is provided for the use of one over the other.

4.6.4 Subjective Norms

Three items were included in the pre-exposure survey instrument to measure subjects' subjective norms as they related to participation in Homecoming. A response rate of 98.64% was achieved for this scale. Therefore, it appears that respondent fatigue and item non-response were not an issue. An alpha of .68 was obtained which is somewhat low. Principal component extraction using varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalisation was performed on the scale. As expected, only one component was extracted therefore, the solution was not rotated. Please refer to Table 4.19.

Table 4.19 Subjective Norms Factor Analysis

Factor	1
My friends think I should/should not attend Homecoming this year	.93
Most of the people who are important to me think I should/should not attend Homecoming this year	.92
Typically, I like to do what my friends suggest I do (always/never)	.47
Eigenvalue	1.92
% Variance Explained	63.87
Alpha	.68

Although it has been suggested that subjective norms be measured using three items as described above (e.g., Schiffman & Kanuk, 1994), a subsequent factor analysis was performed on the scales with the third item ("typically, I like to do as my friends suggest, always/never") dropped. This reanalysis was done for three reasons. First, it appears that a social desirability bias, with respect to the third item ("typically, I like to do what my friends suggest"), may have been a factor in reducing the alpha level. Second, the response

set for this item was worded differently from the first two items ("should/should not" as "compared to always/never"). Third, although the third item had a significant loading (Stevens, 1986), its loading was much lower compared to the other two times. Indeed, when two factors were forced, item one and two load significantly on factor one (.94 and .95 respectively) and item three loads significantly on the second factor (.99). However, the eigenvalue for factor two (i.e., "do as my friends suggest"), in a two-factor solution, was less than 1.00 (.88).

An alpha of .89 was achieved for the revised scale two-item scale measuring subjective norms. Principal component extraction using varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalisation was performed on the revised scale. As expected, only one component was extracted therefore, the solution was not rotated (Table 4.20).

Table 4.20 Subjective Norms Factor Analysis (Revised)

Factor	1
My friends think I should/should not attend Homecoming this year	.95
Most of the people who are important to me think I should/should not attend Homecoming this year	.95
Eigenvalue	1.80
% Variance Explained	89.89
Alpha	.89

The revised scale (i.e., with two items as opposed to three) will be used given the much higher alpha value (.89 as compared to .68). The factor score was saved as a variable using the regression method as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (1989). In subsequent analyses, either the mean score for the scale or the factor score will be used as appropriate.

4.6.5 Attitude toward the Communication Effort (A_{ad})

As outlined in Chapter Three, a four item scale to measure subjects' A_{ad} (i.e., Treatment One, Two, Three, or Four) was included on the post-exposure questionnaire. A response rate of 96.00% was achieved for this scale which suggests that respondent fatigue and item non-response were not an issue. Principal component extraction using varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalisation was performed on the scale. As expected, each of the items loaded into a single factor therefore the solution was not rotated. Please refer to Table 4.21 for an outline of the factor loading, eigenvalue, and alpha.

Table 4.21 Attitude toward the Communication Effort Factor Analysis

	1
Good/bad	.93
Like/dislike	.89
Interesting/not interesting	.87
Not irritating/irritating	.68
Eigenvalue	2.87
% Variance Explained	71.63
Alpha	.86

Overall, the scale used to measure A_{ad} was very strong and had high internal consistency as evidenced by the high alpha value. No modifications (e.g., dropping of items) were made to the scale. The factor score was saved as a variable using the regression method as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (1989). In subsequent analyses, either the mean score for the scale or the factor score will be used where appropriate.

4.6.6 Summary

Factor analysis was conducted on the five standardised scales that were included in the study. These analyses suggested that the scales are valid in the context of this study. As such, each scale will be used in subsequent analyses. In some cases the mean scale scores will be used, as the scores tend to be easier to compare and interpret as compared with factor scores. However, justification will be made for the use of the mean scale score(s) instead of the factor scores that were produced.

4.7 Hypothesis Testing

The hypotheses outlined in Chapter Three were tested and the results of these tests are presented in the following section. This section is comprised of eight parts. Hypotheses related to pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming and pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming are presented. Following this, hypotheses for each "outcome" outlined in the "Framework for Analysing Organisational Communication Strategy and Outcomes" (refer to Figure 1.3) are presented. These outcomes are attitude toward the communication effort, post-exposure attitude toward Homecoming, post-exposure recall of the communication effort, post-exposure intent to participate, behaviour (i.e., participation or non-participation), and post-event attitude toward Homecoming.

4.7.1 Pre-Exposure Attitude toward Homecoming (A_B)

Subjects' pre-exposure, post-exposure, and post-event attitudes toward Homecoming (A_B) were measured using the identical scale. In the framework presented in Chapter One (Figure 1.3), four variables were identified as being potential moderators of a subject's pre-exposure A_B. A series of hypotheses relating to the relationship of the

potential moderators to subjects' pre-exposure A_B are presented in the following section. Hypotheses related to subjects' post-exposure and post-event A_B are presented in sections 4.7.4 and 4.7.8 respectively. Please note that the hypothesis related to the change, over time, in subjects' A_B is presented in the final section (4.7.8).

4.7.1.1 Affect of Past Experience on Subjects' Pre-Exposure A_B

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to evaluate the hypothesis that subjects who had past experience with Homecoming would have a more positive pre-exposure A_B than would those subjects with no past Homecoming experience. The test was significant ($t = -3.017$, $df = 216$, $p = .003$) and supported the hypothesis. Subjects who had past experience with Homecoming, on average, had a more positive pre-exposure A_B ($\bar{x} = .69$, $sd = .69$) compared with those who had not attended Homecoming in the past ($\bar{x} = .35$, $sd = .75$).

Subjects were asked how many times they had attended Homecoming, at the University of Waterloo or another post-secondary institution, in the past. Using this response, Pearson's correlation coefficient was conducted to determine if there was a relationship between the number of past experiences subjects had with Homecoming, if any, and their pre-exposure A_B. It was hypothesised that the more experience a subject had with Homecoming (i.e., the more times s/he had attended) the more positive would be his/her pre-exposure A_B. There was a statistically significant positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .181$, $p = .007$). As expected, an increase in the number of past experiences is correlated with a more positive pre-exposure A_B.

4.7.1.2 Affect of Involvement on Pre-Exposure A_B

A forward multiple regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the extent to which involvement with Homecoming predicted pre-exposure A_B. The predictors were the three involvement facets (i.e., importance, pleasure, and risk) whereas the criterion variable was subjects' pre-exposure A_B. One nonordered set of predictors was used in this analysis. Table 4.22 displays the correlations between the predictors and the criterion variables as well as the correlation between the predictors. Also included in this table are the means and standard deviations of each predictor, the unstandardised coefficients (B), and the standardised coefficients (β). As can be seen in the table, each of the involvement factors was significantly correlated with subjects' pre-exposure A_B.

Table 4.22 Multiple Regression of Pre-Exposure A_B and Involvement Factors

	Pre-exposure A_B (DV)	Importance	Pleasure	$\bar{x}$ (sd)	B	β	t
Importance	.41*			0.00 (1.00)	.305	.407	16.397*
Pleasure	.67*	.00		0.00 (1.00)	.503	.671	9.958*
Risk	.18**	.00	-.00	0.00 (1.00)	.132	.176	4.297*

*p < .001, **p < .01

The linear combination of the three involvement facets was significantly related to pre-exposure A_B ($F = 128.724$, $df = 3, 211$, $p < .001$). The sample multiple correlation coefficient was .80 indicating that approximately 65% of the variance of pre-exposure A_B can be accounted for by the linear combination of involvement facets ($R^2 = .65$, adjusted $R^2 = .64$). As can be seen in Table 4.22, pleasure contributed the most to the prediction of pre-exposure A_B followed by importance and finally by risk. Altogether, 65% of the variability

of subjects' pre-exposure A_B can be predicted by knowing scores of the involvement factors (i.e., importance and pleasure).

To further investigate the relationship between involvement and pre-exposure A_B, a series of three Pearson's correlation coefficients were conducted. It was hypothesised that more pleasure, more importance, and less risk associated with Homecoming by a subject would be positively correlated with a positive pre-exposure A_B. As expected, the test revealed a positive correlation between each involvement factor and pre-exposure A_B. The highest correlation was with the pleasure facet ($r = .671$, $p < .001$), followed by the importance facet ($r = .407$, $p < .001$), and finally the risk facet ($r = .175$, $p = .010$). The data suggest that higher involvement in Homecoming is positively associated with positive pre-exposure A_B.

4.7.1.3 Affect of Commitment on Pre-Exposure A_B

A forward multiple regression analysis was conducted to evaluate how well commitment to the University of Waterloo predicted subjects' pre-exposure A_B. The predictors were the three commitment factors (i.e., volitional choice, position involvement, information complexity) and the criterion variable was subjects' pre-exposure A_B. In this analysis, one nonordered set of predictors was used. Table 4.23 presents the correlations between the predictors and the criterion variable as well as the correlations between the predictors. Also included in this table are the means and standard deviations of each predictor, the unstandardised coefficients (B), and the standardised coefficients (β). As can be seen in the table, only information complexity was significantly correlated with pre-exposure A_B.

Table 4.23 Multiple Regression of Commitment Factors and Pre-Exposure A_B

Predictors	Pre-Exposure A_B (DV)	Volitional Choice	Position Involvement	$\bar{x}$ (sd)	B	β	t
Volitional Choice	.067			-.01 (1.00)			
Position Involvement	.066	.005		.01 (1.00)			
Information Complexity	.181*	.001	.001	.00 (.99)	.135	.181	2.692*

*p < .01

Only information complexity was significantly related to pre-exposure A_B ($F = 7.247$, $df = 1, 214$, $p = .008$) and therefore was the only factor included in the final model. The sample multiple correlation coefficient was .20 indicating that approximately four percent of the variance of pre-exposure A_B can be accounted for by information complexity ($R^2 = .04$, adjusted $R^2 = .03$).

To further investigate the affects of commitment on pre-exposure A_B, Pearson's correlation coefficient was conducted. It was hypothesised that the less information complexity that subjects associated with the University of Waterloo the more positive their pre-exposure A_B would be. As expected, the test revealed a positive correlation between information complexity pre-exposure A_B ($r = .181$, $p = .008$). Please note that in coding the responses less information complexity resulted in a positive score, thus resulting in the positive correlation. The data suggest that less information complexity is positively associated with positive pre-exposure A_B.

4.7.1.4 Relationship between Subjective Norms and Pre-Exposure A_B

Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to determine if there was a relationship between subjects' subjective norms, as they related to Homecoming, and their pre-exposure A_B. It was hypothesised that more positive subjective norms would be correlated with a more positive pre-exposure A_B. There was a statistically significant positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .502$, $p < .001$).). As expected, positive subjective norms (i.e., subject believes friends and important others think subjects should attend Homecoming) were correlated with a more positive pre-exposure A_B.

4.7.2 Pre-Exposure Intent

Before being exposed to a treatment, subjects were asked to indicate the chances that they would attend at least one Homecoming event. Although there was no hypothesis related to pre-exposure intent, ANOVA was conducted to determine if there differences between the randomly assigned groups prior to the treatment. As expected there were no statistically significant differences between the groups in terms of their pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming ($F = 1.321$, $df = 4, 216$, $p = .263$).

Hypotheses related to pre-exposure intent are presented in the following section (i.e., where pre-exposure intent is the dependent variable). As with pre-exposure A_B, it was expected that four variables (i.e., past experience, involvement, commitment, and subjective norms) would act as moderating variables for pre-exposure intent. Further, it was anticipated that pre-exposure A_B would also affect subjects' pre-exposure intent.

4.7.2.1 Past Experience and Pre-Exposure Intent

It was hypothesised that those who had attended Homecoming in the past would report a greater chance of attending Homecoming again. In order to test this hypothesis, an independent-samples t-test was performed. The test was significant ($t = -3.628$, $df = 219$, $p < .001$) and supported the hypothesis. Subjects who had past experience with Homecoming, on average, reported a greater chance of attending the upcoming Homecoming ($\bar{x} = 57.69$, $sd = 31.38$) compared with those who had not attended Homecoming in the past ($\bar{x} = 39.95$, $sd = 32.44$).

Subjects were asked how many times they had attended Homecoming, at the University of Waterloo or another post-secondary institution, in the past. Using this response, Pearson's correlation coefficient was conducted to determine if there was a correlation between the number of past experiences subjects had with Homecoming, if any, and their reported chances of attending the University of Waterloo's upcoming Homecoming. It was hypothesised that the more experience a subject had with Homecoming (i.e., the more times s/he had attended) the greater would be his/her pre-exposure intent to participate in the next Homecoming. There was a statistically significant positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .223$, $p = .001$). As expected, an increase in the number of past experiences was correlated with a greater reported pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming.

4.7.2.2 Involvement and Pre-Exposure Intent

A forward multiple regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the extent to which involvement with Homecoming predicted pre-exposure intent. The predictors were the three involvement facets (i.e., importance, pleasure, and risk) whereas the criterion

variable was subjects' pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming. In this analysis, one nonordered set of predictors was used. Table 4.24 outlines the correlations between the predictors and the criterion variable as well as the correlations between the predictors themselves. Also included in this table are the means and standard deviations of each predictor, the unstandardised coefficients (B), and the standardised coefficients (β).

Table 4.24 Multiple Regression of Pre-Exposure Intent and Involvement Factors

Predictors	Pre-Exposure Intent (DV)	Importance	Pleasure	$\bar{x}$ (sd)	B	β	t
Importance	.48*			0.00 (1.00)	15.753	.480	8.815*
Pleasure	.37*	.00		0.00 (1.00)	12.136	.370	6.791*
Risk	.04	.00	.00	0.00 (1.00)			

*p<.001

The linear combination of two involvement facets, importance and pleasure, was significantly related to pre-exposure intent ($F = 61.912$, $df = 3, 213$, $p<.001$). The sample multiple correlation coefficient was .61 indicating that approximately 37% of the variance of pre-exposure intent in the sample can be accounted for by the linear combination of involvement factors ($R^2 = .37$, adjusted $R^2 = .362$). As can be seen in Table 4.24, importance contributed the most to the prediction of pre-exposure intent followed by pleasure. Altogether, 37% of the variability of subjects' pre-exposure A_B was accounted for by knowing the pleasure and importance scores.

To further investigate the relationship between involvement and pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming, two Pearson's correlation coefficients were conducted. It was hypothesised that more importance and pleasure associated with Homecoming by a

subject would be positively correlated with a positive pre-exposure intent to participate. As expected, the test revealed a positive correlation between the involvement factors and pre-exposure intent The highest correlation was with the importance factor ($r = .480$, $p < .001$). The pleasure factor was also positively correlated ($r = .370$, $p < .001$). The data suggest that higher involvement in Homecoming, as measured by importance and pleasure, is positively associated with positive pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming.

4.7.2.3 Commitment and Pre-Exposure Intent

A forward multiple regression analysis was conducted to evaluate how well commitment to the University of Waterloo predicted pre-exposure intent. The predictors were the three commitment factors (i.e., volitional choice, position involvement, information complexity) and the criterion variable was subjects' pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming. In this analysis, one nonordered set of predictors was used. Table 4.25 outlines the indices to indicate the relative strength of the individual predictors.

Table 4.25 Multiple Regression of Commitment Factors and Pre-Exposure Intent

Predictors	Pre-Exposure A_B (DV)	Volitional Choice	Position Involvement	$\bar{x}$ (sd)
Volitional Choice	.087			.00 (1.00)
Position Involvement	.111	.00		.00 (1.00)
Information Complexity	.099	.00	.00	.00 (1.00)

The linear combination of commitment factors was not significantly related to pre-exposure intent ($F = 2.1851$, $df = 3, 215$, $p = .091$) therefore no model was produced. None

of the commitment factors contributed significantly to predicting subjects' pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming.

4.7.2.4 Subjective Norms and Pre-Exposure Intent

Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to determine if there was a relationship between subjects' subjective norms, as they related to Homecoming, and their pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming. It was hypothesised that more positive subjective norms (i.e., subject believes friends and important people think subject should participate in Homecoming) would be positively correlated with a greater pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming. There was a statistically significant positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .583$, $p < .001$). As expected, as subjective norms increased (i.e., became more positive) so to did subjects' pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming.

4.7.2.5 Pre-Exposure A_B and Pre-Exposure Intent

It was hypothesised that a subject's pre-exposure A_B would be positively correlated with his/her pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming. Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to test if there was a relationship between pre-exposure A_B and pre-exposure intent. There was a statistically significant positive correlation between the two variables ($r = .505$, $p < .001$). As expected, as pre-exposure A_B increases (i.e., becomes more positive) pre-exposure intent to participate also increases (i.e., reported chances of participating increase).

4.7.3 Attitude toward the Communication Effort (A_{ad})

The following section presents the results of the hypotheses related to attitude toward the communication effort (A_{ad}). There were three hypotheses for which A_{ad} was the dependent variable. However, A_{ad} was used as an independent variable in other hypothesis tests.

4.7.3.1 Affect of Treatments on A_{ad}

It was expected that there would be differences in subjects' A_{ad} based on their treatment group. The following relationship was hypothesised:

EG4>EG3>EG2>EG1

Where > indicates that the group would have a more positive A_{ad}. It was hypothesised that subjects in EG4 (i.e., personal appeal) would have a more positive A_{ad} than would subjects in the remaining three treatment groups. Furthermore, it was hypothesised that those subjects who were exposed to the website would have a more positive A_{ad} than those subjects who were exposed to one of the brochures. Finally, it was hypothesised that those subjects who were exposed to a brochure with information and persuasion would have a more positive A_{ad} compared to those subjects who were exposed to a brochure with information only.

ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the relationship between treatment and A_{ad}. The independent variable was the treatment group to which subjects were randomly assigned. The dependent variable was subjects' mean A_{ad} (range –2 to +2). Mean A_{ad} scores are reported as opposed to the factor scores, because means are easier to interpret. Similar results were obtained using the factor scores in the ANOVA ($F = 5.16$, $df = 3, 164$, $p =$

.001) as opposed to the mean scores. Table 4.26 outlines the mean A_{ad} scores and standard deviations by treatment group.

Table 4.26 Differences in A_{ad} by Group

Treatment Group	$\bar{x}$ (sd)
EG1	0.47 (.92)
EG2	0.62 (.75)
EG3	0.99 (.89)
EG4	1.10 (.75)

F = 5.563, df = 3, 164, p = .001
Where: -2 = negative A_{ad} and +2 = positive A_{ad}

As shown in Table 4.26, there was a statistically significant difference between the treatment groups in terms of their A_{ad}. As expected, the mean score for the personal appeal was the most positive of the four groups while the mean score of the brochure with information only was the least positive. However, subjects in each of the experiment groups had a positive A_{ad}.

Post-hoc analyses were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the means. The standard deviations of the mean A_{ad} scores range from .75 to .92 and the variances range from .56 to .84, indicating that the variances were somewhat different from each other. The test of homogeneity of variance was not statistically significant (p = .202) therefore the Scheffe test (equal variance assumed) was used for the post hoc analysis. There were significant differences in the means between EG1 and EG3 as well as between EG1 and EG4. Subjects assigned to EG1 had a significantly lower mean A_{ad} in comparison to those in EG3 and EG4.

4.7.3.2 Pre-Exposure Attitude toward Homecoming (A_B) and Attitude toward the Communication Effort (A_{ad})

Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to determine if there was a relationship between subjects' pre-exposure A_B and their A_{ad}. It was hypothesised that a subject's pre-exposure A_B would be positively correlated with his/her A_{ad}. Indeed, there was a statistically significant relationship between the two variables ($r = .310$, $p < .001$). As expected, as pre-exposure A_B increased (i.e., more positive) subjects' A_{ad} also increased (i.e., more positive).

4.7.3.3 Pre-Exposure Intent to Participate in Homecoming and A_{ad}

It was hypothesised that the higher a subject's reported chances of attending Homecoming, the more positive would be his/her A_{ad}. Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to determine if there was a positive correlation between pre-exposure intent and A_{ad}. Although there was a slight positive correlation between the two variables, it was not statistically significant ($r = .093$, $p = .232$). The data suggest that a change in pre-exposure intent does not necessarily result in a change in A_{ad}.

4.7.4 Post-Exposure Attitude toward Homecoming (A_B)

Post-exposure A_B was measured immediately following exposure to the treatment using the same series of questions as for pre-exposure A_B. The following section presents two hypotheses related to post-exposure A_B in which post-exposure A_B is the dependent variable.

4.7.4.1 Affect of Treatment on Post-Exposure A_B

It was expected that there would be a difference in subjects' post-exposure A_B based on their treatment group. The following relationship was hypothesised:

EG4>EG3>EG2>EG1

Where > indicates that the group would have a more positive post-exposure A_B. It was hypothesised that subjects in EG4 (i.e., personal appeal) would have a more positive post-exposure A_B than would subjects in the remaining three treatment groups. Furthermore, it was hypothesised that those subjects who were exposed to the website would have a more positive post-exposure A_B than those subjects who were exposed to one of the brochures. Finally, it was hypothesised that those subjects who were exposed to a brochure with information and persuasion would have a more positive post-exposure A_B compared to those subjects who were exposed to a brochure with information only.

ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the treatment and subjects' post-exposure A_B. The independent variable was the treatment group. The dependent variable was subjects' mean post-exposure A_B (range –2 to +2). The mean post-exposure A_B score was used, as opposed to the factor score, because it is easier to interpret. Similar results were obtained using the factor score ($F = 2.903$, $df = 3, 166$, $p = .035$) in the ANOVA as opposed to the mean score. However, the Table 4.27 outlines the mean scores for post-exposure A_B by treatment group.

Table 4.27 Differences in Post-Exposure A_B by Group

Treatment Group	$\bar{x}$ (sd)
EG1	.61 (.74)
EG2	.73 (.60)
EG3	.90 (.82)
EG4	1.04 (.80)

F = 2.903, df = 3, 166, p = .037
Where: -2 = negative A_B and +2 = positive A_B

As shown in Table 4.27, the ANOVA was significant. There was a statistically significant difference between the treatment groups in terms of their post-exposure A_B. As expected, the mean score for the personal appeal was the most positive of the four groups while the mean post-exposure A_B score of the brochure, with information only, was the least positive. However, on average, subjects in each of the experiment groups had a positive post-exposure A_B.

Post-hoc analyses were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the means. The standard deviations of the mean post-exposure A_B scores range from .60 to .82 and the variances range from .36 to .67, indicating that the variances were somewhat different from each other. The test of homogeneity of variance was not statistically significant (p = .260) therefore the Scheffe test (equal variance assumed) was used for the post hoc analysis. The post hoc analysis revealed that no two pairs of means were different enough to be statistically significant. However, the initial ANOVA (F = 2.903) lends moderate support to the hypothesis that subjects in EG4 would have the most positive post-

exposure A_B followed by EG3, EG2, and finally EG1 (see above for explanation of hypothesis).

4.7.4.2 A_{ad} and Post-Exposure A_B

Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to determine the nature and direction of the relationship between subjects' A_{ad} and their post-exposure A_B. It was hypothesised that the more positive a subject's A_{ad} was, the more positive would be his/her post-exposure A_B. There was, indeed, a statistically significant positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .654$, $p < .001$). As expected, as A_{ad} increased (i.e., more positive), post-exposure A_B also increased (i.e., more positive).

4.7.5 Recall

After exposure to a treatment, subjects in the four experiment groups were asked to recall details about the communication effort to which they were exposed. The following section presents two hypotheses in which post-exposure recall is the dependent variable.

4.7.5.1 Affect of Treatments on Level of Post-Exposure Recall

Subjects in each experiment group were asked to recall as much about the communication effort to which they were exposed. This question was asked immediately after exposure (i.e., post-exposure). It was hypothesised that subjects exposed to the personal appeal would recall the most items followed by those exposed to the website. It was further hypothesised that subjects exposed to the brochure with persuasive messages would recall less than those in exposed to the website. Finally, it was hypothesised that subjects exposed to the brochure with information only would recall the least about the communication effort as compared to the other three experiment groups.

ANOVA was conducted to compare the mean percent of items recalled by subjects in each group. The results of these analyses are outlined in Table 4.28. The ANOVA did not support the hypothesis that the groups would recall different numbers of elements and items (i.e., total recalled) as a percentage of total items and elements available for recall.

Table 4.28 Affect of Treatment on Level of Post-Exposure Recall

Group	Percent Recalled $\bar{x}$ (sd)
EG2	4.98 (3.11)
EG4	5.76 (2.97)
EG1	6.02 (4.49)
EG3	6.62 (3.68)
$F = 1.410$, df = 3, 167, $p = .242$	

The hypothesis, using percentages, was not supported either descriptively or statistically. However, as can be seen in Appendix U, the total number of items and elements subjects in EG3 and EG4 had the potential to recall was much higher than the number of items and elements for subjects in EG1 and EG2. Furthermore, subjects in each of the experiment groups spent similar lengths of time completing the post-exposure recall question. It is possible that any differences between the groups were masked by converting the post-exposure recall scores into a percent as was done in Table 4.28 (above).

Given this, the above analysis was conducted again using the total number of items and elements recalled by subjects as opposed to the percentage of the total number available for recall (as was done in Table 4.28 above). The results of the subsequent

analyses, based on total number, are presented in Table 4.29. In this case the ANOVA supported, in part, the original hypothesis as outlined above.

Table 4.29 Affect of Treatment of Post-Exposure Recall Level

Group	Total $\bar{x}$ (sd)	Content Items $\bar{x}$ (sd)	Executional Elements $\bar{x}$ (sd)
EG2	5.88 (3.67)	5.70 (3.64)	.18 (.50)
EG1	6.87 (5.12)	6.53 (5.06)	.33 (.74)
EG4	8.98 (4.64)	8.38 (5.45)	.60 (.85)
EG3	9.97 (5.53)	8.97 (5.45)	1.00 (1.91)
	F = 6.316 df = 3,167 p < .001	F = 4.400 df = 3, 167 p = .005	F = 4.230 df = 3, 167 p = .007

The hypothesis (i.e., there will be significant differences between the groups in the number of items and elements they recall) was supported, in part. There were statistically significant differences between the groups. Subjects in EG3 recalled the most items and EG4 recalled the second most. It was originally hypothesised however, that EG4 would recall the most followed by EG3. Furthermore, EG2 recalled the fewest items while EG1 recalled the second fewest. It was however, hypothesised that EG1 would recall the fewest items.

Post-hoc analyses were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the means. The standard deviations of the recall scores range from 3.67 to 5.53 and the variances range from 13.47 to 30.58, indicating that the variances were somewhat different from each other. The test of homogeneity of variance was not statistically significant (p =

.298) therefore the Scheffe test (equal variance assumed) was used for the post hoc analysis. There were significant differences in the means between EG2 and EG3 as well as between EG2 and EG4. The post hoc test also revealed that there was a significant difference between EG1 and EG3. Subjects assigned to EG2 had lower recall of the communication effort, to which they were exposed, than did subjects in EG3 and EG4. Further, subjects in EG1 had lower recall than did subjects in EG3.

4.7.5.2 A_{ad} and Post-Exposure Recall

Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to determine if there was a relationship between subjects' A_{ad} and their post-exposure recall. It was hypothesised that a positive A_{ad} would be positively correlated with post-exposure recall (i.e., recall more items and elements). Indeed, there was a statistically significant positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .268$, $p < .001$). An increase in the number of items and elements recalled is correlated with an increase in subjects' A_{ad} (i.e., more positive).

4.7.6 Post-Exposure Intent

The following section presents hypotheses related to subjects' post-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming. Post-exposure intent was measured immediately following exposure to the communication effort in the same way as pre-exposure intent was measured.

4.7.6.1 Affect of Treatment on Post-Exposure Intent to Participate

It was expected that there would be differences in subjects' post-exposure intent to participate in one or more Homecoming events based on the communication effort to which they were exposed. The following relationship was hypothesised:

EG4>EG3>EG2>EG1

Where > indicates that the group reported higher levels of post-exposure intent to participate. The expectation was that those subjects who were exposed to the personal appeal would report higher levels of post-exposure intent than those who received the other treatments. Furthermore, it was hypothesised that those subjects who were exposed to the website would report higher levels of post-exposure intent than those who received one of the brochures. Finally, it was hypothesised that those subjects who were exposed to a brochure with information and persuasion would report higher levels of post-exposure intent than those who received a brochure with information only.

ANOVA was performed on the average post-exposure intent to participate in the seven Homecoming events. The ANOVA revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between the treatment groups in terms of their intent to participate in Homecoming subsequent to treatment exposure. Table 4.30 outlines the means and standard deviations of the subjects' average intent to participate in the seven Homecoming events.

Table 4.30 Post-Exposure Intent to Participate by Treatment Group

Group	$\bar{x}$ % (sd)
EG3	26.50 (14.88)
EG1	28.23 (16.78)
EG2	29.90 (20.77)
EG4	37.88 (25.75)
$F = 2.705, df = 3, 162, p = .047$	

The ANOVA was statistically significant however, the results only partially support the hypothesis. It was anticipated that EG3 would exhibit the second highest post-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming however, as can be seen in Table 4.30, these subjects exhibited the lowest post-exposure intent. The remaining three groups responded as expected.

Post-hoc analyses were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the means. The standard deviations of the mean post-exposure A_B scores range from 14.88 to 25.75 and the variances range from 221.41 to 663.06, suggesting that the variances were different from each other. The test of homogeneity of variance was statistically significant ($p < .001$) therefore equal variances was not assumed. As such, Dunnett's C test was used for the post hoc analysis. The post hoc analysis revealed that no two pairs of means were different enough to be statistically significant. However, the initial ANOVA ($F = 2.705$) lends moderate support to the hypothesis that subjects' post-exposure intent to participate differs by treatment.

4.7.6.2 Post-Exposure A_B and Post-Exposure Intent

Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to determine the nature and direction of the relationship between subjects' post-exposure A_B and their post-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming. It was hypothesised that subjects' post-exposure A_B would be positively correlated with their post-exposure intent. There was, indeed, a statistically significant positive relationship between the two variables ($r = .420$, $p < .001$). As such, an increase subjects' post-exposure A_B is correlated with an increase in their post-exposure intent.

4.7.6.3 Attitude toward the Communication Effort (A_{ad}) and Post-Exposure Intent

Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to determine if there was a relationship between subjects' A_{ad} and their post-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming. It was hypothesised that subjects' A_{ad} would be positively correlated with their post-exposure intent. Indeed, this hypothesis was supported ($r = .353$, $p < .001$). It appears that an increase in A_{ad} (i.e., more positive) is correlated with an increase in post-exposure intent.

4.7.7 Behaviour

In this study, behaviour was defined as participation in one or more Homecoming events. It was designated as a level two outcome, to separate it from level one outcomes, as it represented that for which the sponsoring organisation is ultimately striving. The following section outlines the hypotheses relating to subjects' participation, or lack thereof, in one or more Homecoming events.

4.7.7.1 Relationship between Treatment and Behaviour

It was hypothesised that there would be significant differences in subjects' actual participation in Homecoming based on the communication effort to which they were exposed. Once again, the following relationship was hypothesised:

EG4>EG3>EG2>EG1

Where > represents a greater level of participation in Homecoming. The expectation was that subjects exposed to a personal appeal would be more likely participate in Homecoming as compared to subjects in the other three groups. Furthermore, it was hypothesised than those subjects who were exposed to the website would be more likely to participate in Homecoming that those subjects who were exposed to one of the brochures. Finally, it was

hypothesised that those subjects who were exposed to a brochure with information and persuasion would be more likely to participate in Homecoming compared to those subjects who were exposed to a brochure with information only.

A chi-square was performed to determine if, indeed, the groups differed in their participation in Homecoming. This test revealed that, in fact, there were no differences between the groups in terms of their participation. Therefore, it appears that the communication effort to which subjects were exposed had no affect on their participation in Homecoming. Participation in Homecoming by group is presented in Table 4.31.

Table 4.31 Participation in Homecoming by Group

Group	Yes (%)	No (%)
CG1	46.51	53.49
CG2	37.50	62.50
EG1	40.00	60.00
EG2	37.50	62.50
EG3	40.00	60.00
EG4	43.90	56.10
Total	41.00	59.00

$\chi^2 = 1.119$, df = 5, p = .952

A subsequent chi-square analysis was performed to determine if the control groups differed from the experiment groups in terms of their participation in Homecoming. It was hypothesised that the experiment groups, as a whole, would exhibit a higher level of participation than those subjects in the control groups. The test revealed that, in fact, there

were no statistically significant differences between the control groups and the experiment groups in terms of their participation. The participation rate of subjects in the experiment groups compared to those in the control groups is presented in Table 4.32.

Table 4.32 Participation by Experiment Groups and Control Groups

Group	Yes (%)	No (%)
CG	42.17	57.83
EG	40.38	59.62
Total	41.00	59.00

$\chi^2 = 0.071$, df = 1, p = .789

4.7.7.2 Post-Exposure Intent and Behaviour

An independent samples t-test was conducted to evaluate the hypothesis that those subjects who participated in Homecoming had higher post-exposure intent levels (i.e., to attend Homecoming in 1999). Levene's test for equality of variance was not statistically significant (F = .598, p = .444) therefore the t value for equal variances was interpreted. The test was statistically significant (t = -4.197, df = 133, p < .001) and supported the hypothesis. Subjects who attended Homecoming had, on average, higher post-exposure intent to participate ($\bar{x}$ = 40.66, sd = 19.24) compared with those subjects who did not attend Homecoming ($\bar{x}$ = 25.10, sd = 19.56).

4.7.7.3 Relationship between Post-Exposure Recall and Behaviour

An independent samples t-test was conducted to evaluate the hypothesis that those subjects who participated in Homecoming had higher recall of the communication effort to

which they were exposed compared to those who did not participate in Homecoming. Levene's test for equality of variance was not statistically significant ($F = 2.634$, $p = .107$) however, because it was close to .10, the t value for unequal variances was interpreted. The test was not statistically significant ($t = -.738$, $df = 146.661$, $p = .462$). It appears that those subjects who attended Homecoming did not recall significantly more about the communication effort, to which they were exposed, ($\bar{x} = 8.44$, $sd = 4.56$) compared to those who did not attend Homecoming ($\bar{x} = 7.84$, $sd = 5.44$).

4.7.7.4 Affect of Post-Exposure A_B on Behaviour

It was hypothesised that subjects who attended Homecoming would have more positive post-exposure A_B compared to those who did not attend Homecoming. An independent samples t-test was conducted to evaluate this hypothesis. Levene's test for equality of variance was not statistically significant ($F = .503$, $p = .479$) therefore the t value for equal variances was interpreted. The test was statistically significant and supported the hypothesis ($t = -3.821$, $df = 151$, $p < .001$). Those subjects who attended had a significantly more positive post-exposure A_B ($\bar{x} = 1.13$, $sd = .68$) than those subjects who did not attend Homecoming ($\bar{x} = .68$, $sd = .73$).

4.7.7.5 Affect of Past Experience on Behaviour

It was expected that those subjects with no past experience with Homecoming would be less likely to participate in Homecoming. Conversely, it was hypothesised that subjects with previous Homecoming experience would be more likely to participate in another Homecoming. In order to test this, a chi-square test was performed. The chi-square test revealed that there were significant differences in participation by subjects based on

their past experience with Homecoming ($\chi^2 = 18.974$, $p < .001$). The number of subjects who had past Homecoming experience and participated in Homecoming was higher than expected (60% more). The number of subjects with past Homecoming experience who did not participate in Homecoming was much lower than expected (43.89% fewer). Similar results were found, to a lesser degree, with subjects who did not have past Homecoming experience.

4.7.7.6 Relationship between Involvement in Homecoming and Behaviour

A forward multiple regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the extent to which involvement with Homecoming predicted participation in Homecoming. The predictors were the three involvement factors (i.e., importance, pleasure, and risk) whereas the criterion variable was subjects' behaviour. In this analysis, one nonordered set of predictors was used. Table 4.33 displays the correlations between the predictors and the criterion variables as well as the correlation between the predictors. Also included in this table are the means and standard deviations of each predictor, the unstandardised coefficients (B), and the standardised coefficients (β). As can be seen in the table, importance and pleasure were significantly correlated with subjects' participation.

Table 4.33 Multiple Regression of Behaviour and Involvement Factors

Predictors	Participation (DV)	Importance	Pleasure	$\bar{x}$ (sd)	B	β	t
Importance	.18**			.01 (.94)	.092	.175	2.523***
Pleasure	.21*	.03		-.01 (1.00)	.103	.209	3.013**
Risk	.04	.04	-.03	-.03 (.99)			

*p < .001, **p < .01, ***p < .05

The linear combination of two involvement facets, importance and pleasure, was significantly related to participation in Homecoming ($F = 7.952$, $df = 2, 192$, $p < .001$). The sample multiple correlation coefficient was .28 indicating that approximately eight percent of the variance of participation can be accounted for by the linear combination of involvement factors ($R^2 = .076$, adjusted $R^2 = .067$). As can be seen in Table 4.33, pleasure contributed the most to the prediction of behaviour followed by importance. Altogether, eight percent of the variability of subjects' behaviour was predicted by knowing scores of pleasure and importance.

To further investigate the affects of involvement on behaviour, two Pearson's correlation coefficients were conducted. It was hypothesised that more importance and pleasure, associated with Homecoming by a subject, would be positively correlated with participation in Homecoming. As expected, the test revealed a positive correlation between the involvement factors and participation The highest correlation was with the pleasure factor ($r = .214$, $p = .003$). The importance factor was also positively correlated ($r = .181$, $p = .011$). The data suggest that higher involvement in Homecoming, as measured by importance and pleasure, is positively associated with participation in Homecoming.

4.7.7.7 Relationship between Commitment and Behaviour

A forward multiple regression analysis was conducted to evaluate how well commitment to the University of Waterloo predicted subjects' participation in Homecoming. The predictors were the three commitment factors (i.e., volitional choice, position involvement, information complexity) and the criterion variable was subjects' behaviour. In this analysis, one nonordered set of predictors was used. Table 4.34 presents the correlations between the predictors and the criterion variable as well as the correlations

between the predictors. Also included in this table are the means and standard deviations of each predictor, the unstandardised coefficients (B), and the standardised coefficients (β). As can be seen in the table, only position involvement was significantly correlated with participation.

Table 4.34 Multiple Regression of Commitment Factors and Behaviour

Predictors	Pre-Exposure A_B (DV)	Volitional Choice	Position Involvement	$\bar{x}$ (sd)	B	β	t
Volitional Choice	.044			.04 (.95)			
Position Involvement	.213*	.017		-.00 (.98)	.108	.213	3.042**
Information Complexity	.111	-.010	.050	.05 (.94)			

*p < .001, **p < .01

Only position involvement was significantly related to participation in Homecoming (F = 9.254, df = 1, 195, p = .003) and therefore was the only factor included in the final model. The sample multiple correlation coefficient was .213 indicating that approximately five percent of the variance of participation can be accounted for by position involvement (R^2 = .05, adjusted R^2 = .04).

To further investigate the affects of commitment on behaviour, a Pearson's correlation coefficient was conducted. It was hypothesised that greater position involvement would be positively correlated with participation in Homecoming. As expected, the test revealed a positive correlation between position involvement and participation (r = .213, p = .003). The data suggest that greater position involvement with the University of Waterloo is positively associated with participation in Homecoming.

4.7.7.8 Relationship between Subjective Norms and Behaviour

It was hypothesised that those subjects who attended one or more Homecoming events would report more positive subjective norms, as they relate to Homecoming, compared to those subjects who did not attend Homecoming. An independent samples t-test was conducted to test this hypothesis. Levene's test for equality of variance was statistically significant ($F = 28.322$, $p < .001$) therefore the t value for unequal variances will be used in the interpretation. The test was statistically significant and supported the hypothesis ($t = -4.587$, $df = 141.659$, $p < .001$). It appears that those subjects who attended Homecoming had more positive subjective norms (i.e., subject believes friends and other important people think s/he should attend Homecoming) ($\bar{x} = .54$, $sd = .91$) compared to those who did not attend Homecoming ($\bar{x} = .00$, $sd = .66$).

4.7.7.9 Relationship between Pre-Exposure A_B and Participation in Homecoming

An independent samples t-test was conducted to test the hypothesis that those subjects who attended one or more Homecoming events would report more positive pre-exposure A_B compared to those subjects who did not attend Homecoming. Levene's test for equality of variance was statistically significant ($F = 4.292$, $p = .040$) therefore the t value for unequal variances was interpreted. The test was statistically significant and supported the hypothesis ($t = -3.838$, $df = 164.611$, $p < .001$). It appears that those subjects who attended Homecoming had more positive pre-exposure A_B ($\bar{x} = .66$, $sd = .76$) compared to those who did not attend Homecoming ($\bar{x} = .25$, $sd = .68$).

4.7.8 Post-Event A_B

The following section outlines the hypotheses for which post-event A_B is the dependent variable. The measure for post-event A_B was identical to that for pre-exposure and post-exposure A_B. Subjects' post-event A_B was measured between two and four days after Homecoming was complete.

4.7.8.1 Relationship between Participation and Post-Event A_B

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to evaluate the hypothesis that subjects who participated in Homecoming would have more positive post-event A_B than would those who did not participate in Homecoming. Levene's test for equality of variance was not statistically significant ($F = .592$, $p = .443$) therefore the t value for equal variances was used in the interpretation. The test revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups ($t = -6.651$, $df = 233$, $p < .001$). The results were consistent with the hypothesis. Subjects who attended Homecoming ($\bar{x} = 1.13$, $sd = .76$) had more positive post-event A_B than subjects who did not attend Homecoming ($\bar{x} = .50$, $sd = .69$).

4.7.8.2 Relationship between Treatment and A_B Over Time

Subjects' A_B was measured at three points in time: pre-exposure, post-exposure, and post-event. ANOVA was conducted to determine if there were significant differences between the groups at each point in time. It was hypothesised that there would be no differences between the groups in terms of their pre-exposure A_B. It was further hypothesised that there would be differences in terms of subjects' post-exposure and post-

event A_B. The relationship, for both post-exposure and post-event, was hypothesised as follows:

EG4>EG3>EG2>EG1

Where > indicates a more positive A_B. Specifically, it was hypothesised that subjects in EG4 would have a more positive A_B than those in EG3. Further, it was hypothesised that subjects in EG3 would have a more positive A_B than those in EG2. Finally, it was expected that subjects in EG1 would have the least positive A_B as compared to the other three experiment groups.

Table 4.35 outlines the results of the three ANOVA. As expected, there were no statistically significant differences between the groups in term of their pre-exposure A_B. As shown in this table, the differences in subjects' post-exposure A_B were statistically significant ($F = 2.903$, $df = 3, 166$, $p = .037$). However, contrary to what was expected, there were no statistically significant differences between the groups in terms of their post-event A_B.

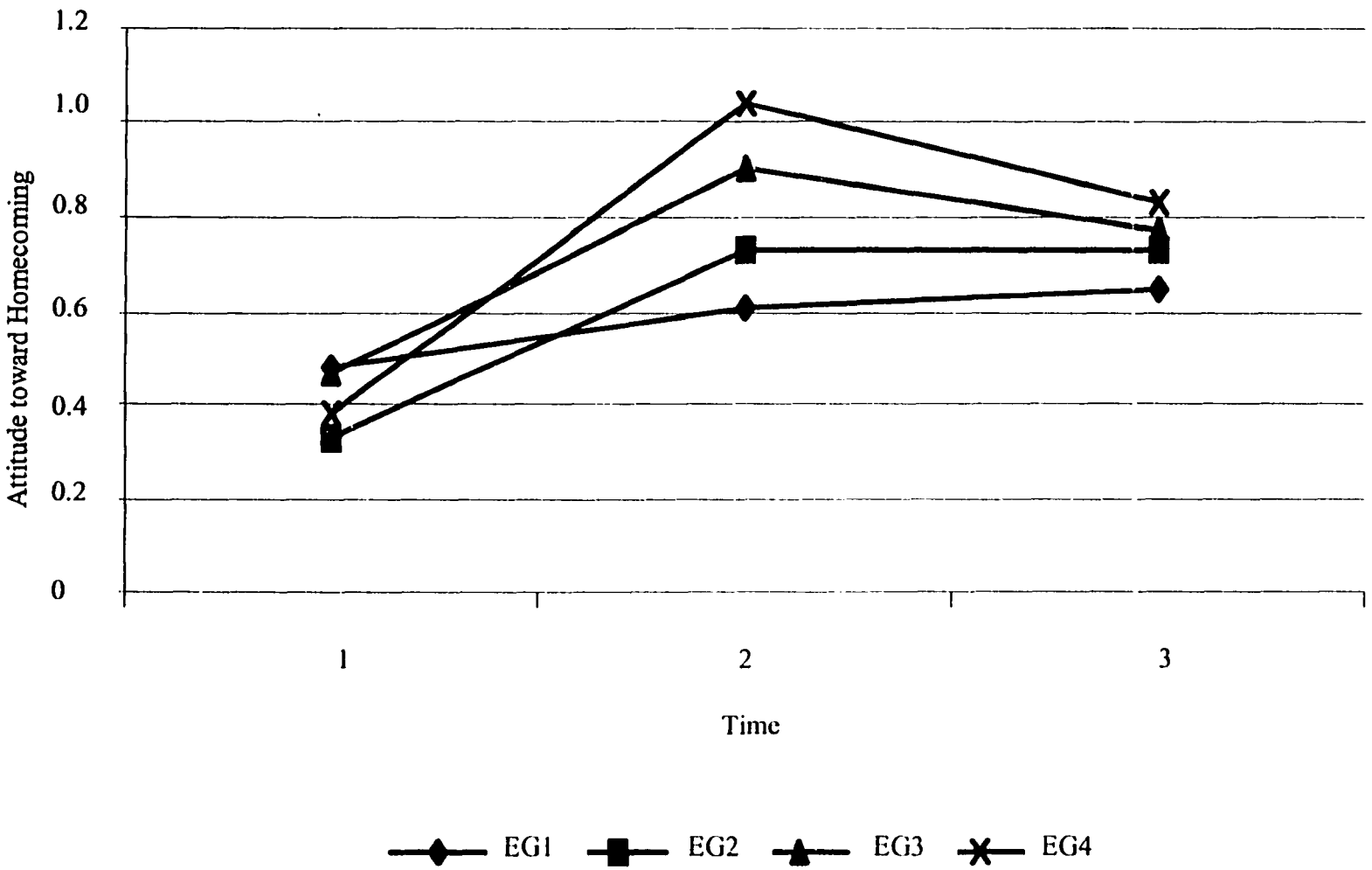
It appears that the A_B of subjects in each of the experiment groups increased from pre-exposure to post-exposure. There was a slight decrease from post-exposure to post-event A_B for EG3 and EG4. In contrast, A_B from post-exposure to post-event increased slightly for EG1 but remained constant for EG2. The post-event A_B was higher than the pre-exposure A_B for each of the experiment groups and CG1. The change in A_B over time by group is presented in Figure 4.1.

Table 4.35 Comparison of Pre-Exposure, Post-Exposure, and Post-Event A_B by Group

	Pre-Exposure A_B	Post-Exposure A_B	Post-Event A_B
CG1[1]	.55		.70
CG2[2]			.91
EG1	.48	.61	.65
EG2	.33	.73	.73
EG3	.47	.90	.77
EG4	.38	1.04	.83
	F = 0.612 df = 4, 213 p = .654	F = 2.903 df = 3, 166 p = .037	F = 0.581 df = 5, 229 p = .715

[1]Subjects assigned to CG did not complete the post-exposure questionnaire.
[2]Subjects assigned to CG2 completed a modified version of the pre-exposure questionnaire and did not complete the post-exposure questionnaire.

Figure 4.1 Change in Attitude toward Homecoming over Time by Group



To further examine the change in A_B over time and the differences in these changes across groups, a 2-way ANOVA with repeated measures was conducted. The between-subjects factor was the group to which the subject was assigned and the repeated measures factor was subjects' A_B. The between-subjects affect suggests that regardless of the time, there was not a significant between the groups ($F = 1.305$, $df = 3$, $p = .275$). This finding may be a function of the similarity between groups at pre-exposure and post-event. The means and standard deviations for the A_B scores by group at each time period were presented, previously, in Table 4.35.

In terms of within-subjects contrasts for the group as a whole, the linear measure of A_B was statistically significant ($F = 23.430$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$). The data suggest that overall there was a significant change in A_B over time. The quadratic measure of A_B ($F = 8.064$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$) suggests that this significant difference was due to time (i.e., the curve).

In comparison, the linear measure of the group/factor (i.e., A_B over time) was not statistically significant ($F = .824$, $df = 3$, $p = .483$), suggesting that there were no differences between the groups in terms of their A_B over time. However, the quadratic measure was statistically significant ($F = 3.417$, $df = 3$, $p = .019$) suggesting that an interaction affect may be disguising any statistically significant differences within groups. In order to determine if there was any interaction affect, four separate repeated measures ANOVA were performed (i.e., one for each experiment group) to determine if there was a statistically significant change, over time, in subjects' A_B. The results of the repeated measures ANOVA, for each group, are presented in Table 4.36. Also included in this table are the results of a repeated measures ANOVA for CG1 however, only the pre-exposure and post-event A_B were included in the analysis (i.e., post-exposure A_B was not measured).

Table 4.36 Repeated Measures ANOVA for A_B

Group	Repeated Measures ANOVA for A_B
EG1	F = 1.733, df = 1, p = .196
EG2	F = 7.972, df = 1, p = .008
EG3	F = 4.708, df = 1, p = .037
EG4	F = 12.853, df = 1, p = .001
CG1	F = 1.985, df = 1, p = .166

As can be seen in Table 4.36, there were statistically significant differences in subjects' A_B over time for three of the four experiment groups. The changes in A_B for EG2, EG3, and EG4 were all statistically significant however, the changes in EG1 were not. In comparison, and as expected, there was not a statistically significant change in A_B for CG1.

A series of paired-samples t-tests were conducted to determine where the significant differences in subjects' A_B occurred (i.e., between pre-exposure and post-exposure as well as post-exposure and post-event). The results are presented in Table 4.37. Furthermore, paired-samples t-tests were conducted to evaluate whether there was a significant difference in subjects' A_B between pre-exposure and post-event (i.e., an overall change in attitude toward Homecoming). These results are presented in Table 4.38.

Table 4.37 Paired-Sample T-Tests for Differences A_B Over Time

Group	Pre-Exposure to Post-Exposure A_B	Post-Exposure to Post-Event A_B
EG1	t[1] = -1.384, df = 44, p = .173	t = -.161, df = 38, p = .873
EG2	t = -2.709, df = 39, p = .010	t = -.072, df = 37, p = .943
EG3	t = -3.646, df = 37, p = .001	t = 1.874, df = 33, p = .070
EG4	t = -6.333, df = 45, p < .001	t = 2.545, df = 38, p = .015

[1]A negative t score indicates that the mean A_B for the second measure (i.e., post-exposure A_B or post-event A_B) was higher than the mean A_B for the first measure (i.e., pre-exposure A_B or post-exposure A_B).

As shown in Table 4.37, four of the paired-samples t-tests were statistically significant. Consistent with the results of the repeated measures ANOVA presented in Table 4.36 above, none of the paired-sample t-tests were statistically significant for EG1. The change in A_B was statistically significant for both paired-samples for EG4. This group experienced a statistically significant increase in its A_B from pre-exposure to post-exposure however, this was followed by a decrease in their A_B from post-exposure to post-event. Subjects in EG3 was similar to those in EG4 in their changes in A_B however, although their post-event A_B was less positive compared to their post-exposure A_B, the difference was not statistically significant. Finally, the change in A_B from pre-exposure to post-exposure was statistically significant for subjects in EG2 however, there was no significant difference in their A_B from post-exposure to post-event.

Table 4.38 Paired Samples T-Test for Pre-Exposure to Post-Event A_B

Group	Pre-Exposure to Post Event A_B
EG1	$t^1 = -1.316$, df = 38, p = .196
EG2	t = -2.966, df = 36, p = .005
EG3	t = -2.079, df = 34, p = .045
EG4	t = -3.585, df = 37, p = .001
CG1	t = -1.409, df = 41, p = .166

[1] A negative t-score indicates that the mean post-event A_B was higher than the mean pre-exposure A_B

Overall, subjects in EG1 did not exhibit a statistically significant difference in their A_B from pre-exposure to post-event. In contrast, subjects in EG2, EG3, and EG4 all experienced a statistically significant increase in their A_B between pre-exposure and post-event. As expected, subjects in CG1 did not experience a statistically significant difference between their pre-exposure and post-exposure A_B.

CHAPTER FIVE: RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of the present study was to investigate individuals' responses to an organisation's communication efforts. This chapter assesses the findings of the present study regarding consumers' pre-existing position, as it related to Homecoming, as well as their responses to an organisation's communication effort. Specifically, six responses were investigated and evaluated. These responses are included: attitude toward the communication effort (A_{ad}), post-exposure attitude toward the brand/Homecoming (A_B), post-exposure recall, post-exposure intent, behaviour, and post-event attitude toward the brand/Homecoming (A_B).

Also of interest in this study was the function of consumers' pre-exposure attitudes toward the brand/Homecoming (A_B) and their pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming. Although these are not outcomes, as a result of exposure to a communication effort, their potential role in influencing outcomes was explored. Finally, four potential moderating variables were identified: past experience, involvement with Homecoming, commitment to the University of Waterloo, and subjective norms (as they related to Homecoming). The relationship that these variables had with pre-exposure A_B and pre-exposure intent was evaluated. In addition, the relationship between the moderating variables and behaviour was explored.

Overall, the "Framework for Analysing Organisational Communication Strategies and Outcomes," as was presented in Chapter One, held together reasonably well. Twenty-two of 32 research hypotheses outlined in Chapter Three were supported, six were

supported in part and four were not supported. Appendix V provides an outline of each research hypothesis and the degree of support that was found (i.e., supported, partially supported, not supported).

5.2 Summary and Discussion

Hypothesis testing is discussed in the following section. The organisation of this section will mirror the order of the research questions presented in Chapter Three. This section will conclude with a modified conceptual framework, based on the outcomes of the hypotheses. Implications for public leisure service agencies will be presented and discussed in a later section, as will limitations and recommendations for future research.

5.2.1 Research Question One: The Relationship between Potential Moderators and Pre-Exposure Attitude toward Homecoming

In the original framework, four variables were presented as having the potential to moderate or influence subjects' pre-exposure attitude toward a special event: past-experience, involvement with the event, commitment to the sponsoring agency/organisation, and subjective norms as they relate to the event. There is much support, in the advertising literature, for the inclusion of moderating variables.

Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) suggested that, "the consumer's mind is not a blank sheet awaiting advertising but rather already contains conscious and unconscious memories of product purchasing and usage" (p. 27). Although their research was conducted in the context of frequently purchased packaged goods, it can be argued that consumers of other "types" of products and services (e.g., recreation and leisure services) also have conscious and unconscious ideas, feelings, thoughts, and beliefs about the

product or service that is being "promoted." These ideas, feelings, thoughts, and beliefs may be present whether or not the consumer has purchased or participated in the past.

For example, in the current study, subjects who had never attended Homecoming in the past may have had an impression (whether accurate or not) of what Homecoming entails based on, among other things, Hollywood movies, television programmes, books, or magazines. Subjects who have attended Homecoming in the past will also have had a conscious idea of what they believe Homecoming to be based, on their own experiences. However, these conscious ideas may be combined with impressions formed, consciously or unconsciously, from media sources (as with non-participants). An organisation's communication efforts are "filtered" through past experience and other factors which in turn can influence, alter, or change the consumer's reaction to the communication effort (Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999).

In the case of research question one, three of the hypotheses were supported and one was supported in part. The analysis suggests that past experience, involvement, the information facet of commitment, and subjective norms are all related to a consumer's pre-exposure attitude toward a brand (i.e., Homecoming). Volitional choice and position involvement, the two remaining facets of commitment that were included in this study, did not have a strong relationship with pre-exposure attitude.

Subjects who had past experience with Homecoming, either at the University of Waterloo or with another post-secondary institution, had more positive pre-exposure A_B. This finding is consistent with past research which suggested that individuals will use past experience with a product or service to form beliefs about (e.g., Bentler & Speckart, 1979) and attitudes toward (Bagozzi et. al., 1991) that product or service. Fredricks and

Dosset (1983), in their comparison of attitude/behaviour models, found that the path between prior behaviour (i.e., past experience) and attitudes was statistically significant in all four models. In a more recent study, Sheeran et al., (1999) found a significant positive correlation between subjective norms and attitude. However, they did not assess which variable influenced the other.

In the present study, subjects with past Homecoming experience had a positive A_B. This finding would suggest that subjects' past experience tended to be positive thus leading to positive thoughts and feelings about Homecoming. Alternately, this finding may suggest that previous experience, whether positive or negative, will contribute to the formation of positive attitudes toward that experience (i.e., Homecoming). However, this study did not probe whether subjects' viewed their past experience with Homecoming as positive or negative.

Involvement, as expected, accounted for a large amount of variance in subjects' pre-exposure A_B. Indeed, the results indicated that approximately 65% of the variance in pre-exposure A_B can be explained by the three involvement facets (i.e., importance, pleasure, and risk). The most important predictor was pleasure, followed by importance and finally by risk. It therefore appears that knowing an individual's involvement with a product or service will enable one to predict, with some accuracy, that individual's pre-exposure attitude toward the product or service.

Further analysis to determine the nature and direction of the association of involvement with pre-exposure A_B revealed that each involvement facet was positively correlated with subjects' pre-exposure A_B. This finding suggests that the more involved (i.e., low risk and positive importance and pleasure scores) a subject is with

Homecoming, the more positive will be his/her pre-exposure A_B. Although causality was not determined, it makes intuitive sense that subjects who are highly involved with a product or service (e.g., Homecoming) will hold more positive attitudes toward that product or service.

This finding is supported by previous involvement research. Zaichkowsky (1985) suggested that several items in the Personal Involvement Inventory "appear to be similar to a measure of attitudes" (p. 349). For example, Celuch and Evans (1989) found that components of the Consumer Involvement Profile (i.e., interest, pleasure, self-image, risk importance, and probability of mispurchase for a high involvement product) were significantly related subjects' attitude toward that product. As such, high involvement may be correlated with positive brand attitudes. Further, it is reasonable to assume that if an individual is highly involved with a product or service, s/he will also have a positive attitude toward that product or service.

Although it was expected that psychological commitment to the University of Waterloo (i.e., sponsoring organisation), and more specifically the commitment facets of volitional choice, position involvement, and information complexity, would account for pre-exposure A_B, this hypothesis was only partially supported. Only information complexity contributed to the prediction of A_B. As discussed in Chapter Two, commitment is defined and conceptualised differently, depending on the perspective from which one is studying the concept. In this study, commitment was conceptualised as commitment to the sponsoring organisation or brand. This conceptualisation is consistent with that of Pritchard et al., (1999). It was hypothesised, based in part on Mowday et al.'s (1979) definition, that the more committed an individual is to the sponsoring

organisation, the more likely it is that s/he would view any organisation-sponsored product or service in a positive manner. This hypothesis held true, but only for information complexity. There are a number of reasons that commitment to the University of Waterloo may not have translated into more positive pre-exposure A_B.

In the context of this study, the link between commitment to the University of Waterloo and pre-exposure A_B may "suffer" from a University of Waterloo effect. There are a number of factors that contribute to this effect. First, the University of Waterloo is relatively new in comparison to other institutions of higher learning. As such, there is a shorter history with which students can identify (e.g., myths and legends of former students and professors, traditions that have developed, and sporting exploits). This is not to suggest that no history has developed rather, that which has developed is comparatively less than for other, older universities.

The University of Waterloo effect is further intensified by the co-operative education system (i.e., co-op programme). Over 50% of the student body is involved in the co-op programme. Although the schedule varies by department and by student, the co-op programme requires that students spend approximately every second term in a job placement (i.e., work term). Students may therefore be off-campus, and far removed from Kitchener-Waterloo, during their work term for two out of four Homecomings (i.e., fall term) of their undergraduate programme. As such, they have less opportunity to develop an association between the University of Waterloo and Homecoming than might be the case at more traditional universities.

Homecoming also tends to have a low profile at the University of Waterloo (M. Hillier, personal communication, July 20, 1999). Indeed, some focus group members

were unaware that the University of Waterloo had a Homecoming. Although Homecoming is sponsored, in part, by the University of Waterloo, subjects may not have made a connection between the sponsoring organisation (i.e., their educational institution) and a series of recreation activities (i.e., Homecoming). Subjects may not have been aware that the University itself is a Homecoming sponsor. As such, commitment to one's place of education may have little or no bearing on one's pre-exposure A_B. Rather, commitment to the University of Waterloo may be more able to predict those actions or thoughts that are seen to directly impact the University of Waterloo itself (e.g., opinions related to the University's role in the community, participating in fundraising efforts, acting as an "ambassador" for high school students).

Finally, the scale developed by Pritchard et al., (1999) measures commitment to an organisation. In the present study, the assumption was that individuals who were highly committed to the sponsoring organisation (i.e., the University of Waterloo) would support activities sponsored by that organisation (i.e., Homecoming). It is reasonable to assume that commitment to something (in this case the sponsoring organisation) develops over time. However, the majority of subjects who took part in the present study were first year students (46.43%) and second year students (17.11%). Therefore, it is likely that these subjects had not yet developed a high level of commitment to the University of Waterloo.

Despite this, it is unclear why information complexity accounted for variance in subjects' pre-exposure A_B. Pritchard et al. (1997) implied that a person with greater commitment, in terms of information complexity, finds it difficult to change his/her mind as it relates to, for example, the organisation or brand. In this study, subjects who had

high information complexity (e.g., know a lot about UW, educated consumer regarding UW, knowledgeable about UW) had more positive pre-exposure A_B. This finding suggests that, in terms of information complexity, subjects may not be influenced by the University of Waterloo affect as described previously. Those with high information complexity presumably would be aware of what Homecoming entails.

It was further anticipated that subjects' subjective norms, as they related to Homecoming, would influence their pre-exposure A_B. As expected, subjective norms and pre-exposure A_B were highly correlated. This result suggests that if subjective norms are positive (i.e., friends and important people believe you should do something), pre-exposure A_B will be positive as well (i.e., as one increase, so does the other).

In their Theory of Reasoned Action, Fishbein and Ajzen (1980) do not show a link between attitude and subjective norms. In contrast, the Bentler-Speckart (1979) model shows a link between subjective norms and attitude toward the behaviour (e.g., Homecoming). In support of the Bentler-Speckart model, it makes intuitive sense that if friends and important others think the subject should participate, the A_B of those friends and other important people should be positive. A reasonable extension of this line of thinking would suggest that subjects may be influenced by their friends and other important people and therefore develop, consciously or unconsciously, a similar attitude (i.e., positive A_B).

Contrary to the Ajzen and Fishbein (1980), Liska (1984) suggested that subjective norms do indeed influence attitudes. He suggests that there is a "causal relationship between attitudes and social norms" (p. 69). In their comparison of four models of attitude/behaviour relations, Fredricks and Dossett (1983) found significant positive

relationship between subjective norms and attitudes (in all four models). Sheeran et al. (1999) also found a positive correlation between subjective norms and attitude however, they did not test causality, in their study, for these two variables.

However, not all research supports the contention of Liska (1984) and the findings from the study by Fredricks and Dossett (1983) and Sheeran et al., (1999). Indeed, much research tends to support the independence of subjective norms from attitude, however, Liska suggests that the design of these studies (behaviour is under volitional control) can account for these findings. Further, it appears that most researchers use the Theory of Reasoned Action in their conceptualisation of linkages between variables and in their hypothesis development. Therefore, because the Theory of Reasoned Action does not include a path from subjective norms to attitudes, this link is neither hypothesised nor tested.

5.2.2 Research Question Two: The Relationship between Potential Moderators and Pre-Exposure Intent to Participate in Homecoming

Prior to viewing the communication effort, subjects were asked to estimate their chances of participating in one or more Homecoming events. It was expected that this measure, pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming, would be influenced by the four potential moderators outlined in the original framework as well as subjects' pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming. It can be assumed that the moderator variables and pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming influenced each group (i.e., experiment groups and control group) in the same manner, as there was no statistically significant differences in their pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming.

Overall, for research question two, three research hypotheses were supported, one was supported in part, and one was not supported. It appears that there is a relationship between past experience, the importance facet of involvement, subjective norms, and a subject's pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming. In contrast, the pleasure and risk facets of involvement and the three commitment facets (i.e., volitional choice, position involvement, information complexity) had little or no relationship with a subject's pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming.

Subjects who had past experience with Homecoming reported significantly higher pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming compared to those subjects who had never attended Homecoming in the past. This finding is consistent with previous research. For example, Sonmez and Graefe (1998) found that those individuals who had visited a geographical region were more likely to visit this region in a subsequent trip. Similar findings were reported by Mazursky (1989) who suggested that past experience may have a greater influence on future behaviour than does the acquisition of outside information (e.g., promotion, advertising, general information).

Previous research to tends to ignore the potential role of past experience in developing intention to do something (e.g., participate in Homecoming, purchase a product or service). This oversight may be a result of the use of the Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Ajzen, 1985) as it does not include past experience as an influence on attitudes or intentions. The Bentler-Speckart model (1979) however, includes a direct path from prior behaviour to behavioural intentions. In their comparison of four models, Fredricks and Dossett (1983) found a significant correlation between prior behaviour and intentions in three of the four models that they examined (this link

was not proposed in the fourth model). This correlation is also supported by McQuarrie (1988) who found a positive correlation between past behaviour and intentions to purchase a computer systems and software. In addition, Sheeran et al. (1999) found a significant positive correlation between past behaviour and intentions to perform that behaviour in the future.

Although it was not probed in the questionnaire, the data would suggest that subjects' previous experiences with Homecoming were positive. It is reasonable to assume that if an individual had a negative past experience with a product or service, it would follow that s/he would not indicate a high likelihood of repeating the behaviour (e.g., low chance of repurchase, low chance of participating in the future). However, if an individual had a positive experience with a product or service, the likelihood of repeating the behaviour would be higher (i.e., compared to a negative experience).

As with past experience, there was a strong, positive relationship between subjects' pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming and their subjective norms. Although causality was not determined, it is reasonable to assume that subjects who believe their friends and other important people think they should attend Homecoming will report higher levels of intention (in this case, pre-exposure intention). Such thinking is consistent with previous research that suggests subjective norms influence intentions.

Oliver and Bearden (1985) for example, found that subjective norms influenced intention to use weight-loss programmes. In their meta-analysis of studies using the Theory of Reasoned Action, Sheppard et al. (1988) found that there was a significant correlation between subjective norms and intention. However, it must be noted that the combined effect of attitude and subjective norms on intention was used in the meta-

analysis. As such, the results may not completely support the findings in the current study (i.e., if the contribution of subjective norms is much less than that of attitude). However, Sheeran et al. (1999) found a significant positive correlation between subjective norms and intention to perform a behaviour. Further, Mathur (1998) found a significant direct path from subjective norms to intentions for all eight behaviours that he investigated.

Not all research supports the relationship between subjective norms and intent. Fredricks and Dossett (1983) found that the effect of subjective norms on intent was not significant. They noted that this finding contradicts the Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) as well as the model by Bentler and Speckart (1979) both of which include a path from subjective norms to intent. However, Fredricks and Dossett acknowledged that the studied behaviour (i.e., attending class) may have caused the non-significant path because friends and important others are "not directly involved in the target behavior" (p. 511).

A positive correlation between pre-exposure A_B and pre-exposure intent was hypothesised and supported. It appears that as a subject's pre-exposure A_B increases (i.e., becomes more positive) his/her pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming also increases. Intuitively this makes sense and, although causality was not investigated in this study, one would expect that more a positive pre-exposure A_B would result in increased expectations of attending Homecoming (i.e., subject has a positive attitude about Homecoming therefore plans/expects to attend).

Oliver and Bearden (1985) found support for a direct link between attitude and intentions. However, because they did not employ an intervening communication effort, attitude and intention can be equated with pre-exposure attitude and pre-exposure

intention (as in the present study). Given the structure of the model employed by Oliver and Bearden (the Theory of Reasoned Action) and their use of structural equation modelling their findings lend support to the assertion that attitude affects intention (as opposed to intention affecting attitude). They also note that "attitude played a greater role in intention formation than did subjective norm, although both relationships were significant" (p. 332, 334). MacKenzie and Spreng (1992) also reported a significant correlation between attitude and intentions. Indeed, based on their analysis using structural equation modelling, it appears that, as with Oliver and Bearden, attitudes influence intentions.

Involvement was found to predict over one-third (37%) of the variance in subjects' pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming. Unlike pre-exposure A_B, only importance and pleasure contributed to the explanation of variation in pre-exposure intent whereas risk did not contribute enough, to the variance, to be included. In terms of the contribution of each factor, importance explained more variation than did pleasure however, both contributed significantly. Further analysis revealed that higher importance was related to a higher pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming. The same was true of the pleasure facet. These findings suggest that higher involvement in Homecoming is associated with increased reported likelihood of attending Homecoming.

McCarville et al. (1993) found that highly involved individuals were more likely to "anticipate participating" (p. 127) than those with lower levels of involvement. Assuming that anticipating and intending to do something are conceptualised similarly, the findings by McCarville et al. support the findings (i.e., relationship between involvement and intention) in this study. Kim et al. (1997) proposed a model in which

involvement (behavioural and social-psychological) are related to behavioural intentions. They found that both behavioural involvement and social-psychological involvement were important in predicting intentions thus lending added support to the findings in this current study. Research conducted in leisure contexts has consistently revealed significant relationships between various involvement facets and behaviour (Havitz & Dimanche, 1999)

Commitment to the University of Waterloo did not predict subjects' pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming. Although subjects exhibited moderate to high commitment to the University of Waterloo (varied by facet) this commitment does not appear to translate into increased pre-exposure intentions to participate in Homecoming. As suggested earlier, subjects may be influenced by a University of Waterloo affect. As such, students may make little connection between the University itself and Homecoming. Therefore, any commitment they feel toward the University of Waterloo may manifest itself in ways that support the University directly in terms of research and academic excellence (e.g., fundraising, encouraging others to attend) but not in intent to participate in a series of leisure activities.

Despite the findings of the current study, there is some support for the relationship between commitment and intentions. Kim et al. (1997) found that commitment, although it was not the most important variable studied, did contribute to predicting intentions. The major difference between the study by Kim et al. and the current study is the question of commitment to what. In the present study commitment to a sponsoring organisation was examined whereas Kim et al. examined commitment to a leisure activity. Such a distinction may have contributed to the difference in findings between the two studies.

5.2.3 Research Question Three: The Relationship between Attitude toward the Communication Effort (A_{ad}) and Its Antecedents

Subjects' A_{ad} was identified, in the initial framework, as a level-one outcome. That is, A_{ad} occurs after exposure to a sponsoring organisation's communication effort(s). It was hypothesised that subjects' A_{ad} would differ based on the treatment to which they were exposed. As previously suggested, consumers process information in the context of their beliefs, attitudes, and feelings. As such, it was expected that subjects' A_{ad} also would be related to their pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming (i.e., individuals who have positive views of Homecoming may transfer these views to the communication effort itself). The same was hypothesised for pre-exposure intent (i.e., subjects use the communication effort as confirmation of their intent to participate). Overall, two of the hypotheses related to attitude toward the communication effort were supported and one was not supported.

Subsequent to exposure, each of the four experiment groups had a positive A_{ad} (i.e., mean score was greater than zero). As expected, subjects exposed to the personal appeal had the most positive A_{ad} followed by subjects exposed to the website. Subjects given a brochure had the least positive attitude toward the communication effort with those who received the brochure with information and persuasion having a more positive attitude toward the communication effort than those subjects who received the brochure with information only.

It therefore appears that subjects responded more favourably to a personal appeal and website as compared to printed material. Further, subjects responded more favourably to printed material that was persuasive and informative as opposed to printed material that was solely informative. To date, there does not appear to be any studies that

have compared attitude toward the communication effort between two or more of the media types present in this study. Previous studies have tended to use print as the advertising medium (e.g., newspaper or magazine) followed by television and radio (Brown & Stayman, 1992). Further, there is a lack of research comparing the different advertising mediums, at least in the context of A_{ad}.

Instead, researchers tend to look at advertisement-related factors such as the use of music (e.g., MacInnis & Park, 1991; Sullivan, 1990), the context of the advertisement including number of competitive ads (e.g., Keller, 1991) and the type of programme (e.g., Kamins, Marks, & Skinner, 1991), and the content of the advertisement (e.g., Kamins et al.; Olney et al., 1991). A notable exception is the study by Bucholz and Smith (1991) which compared radio and television formats.

Bucholz and Smith (1991) found that television advertisements resulted in a significantly more positive A_{ad} compared to radio advertisements. Edell and Keller (1989) reported similar findings for television and radio advertisements. Bucholz and Smith postulated that "TV is destined to be a more effective advertising medium than radio" (p. 6) because it uses visual and audio (compared to just audio), it can present more information in the same time span, and recipients are less likely to be distracted. However, Edell and Keller (1989) argued that television might require more effort to process, the combination of visual and audio may inhibit learning (due to an interference affect), and time is required to go from processing visual stimuli to processing audio.

Some may argue that a personal appeal can be equated with television because of its use of visual and audio modes. However, television is not interactive, a key distinguishing factor in the personal appeal. As such, television lacks a key element of a

personal appeal (i.e., opportunity for interaction between speaker and audience). Further, although the website and brochures both present information using text and pictures, the website incorporates colour, more information, and a degree of interactivity (e.g., switch between screens). These differences may explain its superiority over a brochure, at least in terms of subjects' A_{ad}.

Perhaps the main difference between a personal appeal and a website is that a personal appeal, as noted previously, is interactive and, to some degree, can be controlled by the audience (particularly in small groups) through asking for clarification, questions, and expansion of various points. It appears that the high level of interaction may cause subjects' A_{ad} to become more positive. In comparison, although it is interactive to a degree, the website lacks two-way interaction (individual can control the process by which s/he views the website but cannot ask and receive instant answers). Therefore, subjects' A_{ad} is less positive than for personal appeal but more positive than for printed material.

As expected, there was a significant positive correlation between a subject's pre-exposure A_B and his/her A_{ad}: an increase in one (i.e., as one becomes more positive) is reflected by an increase in the other. This result would suggest that consumers may use their pre-existing attitudes toward the object (i.e., product or service) of the communication effort in order to develop an attitude (e.g., like or dislike, find interesting or uninteresting) toward the communication effort itself.

Many researchers (e.g., Homer, 1990; Lord et al., 1995; Yi, 1990) tend to omit or ignore the influence that pre-exposure A_B (e.g., Homecoming) may have on subsequent A_{ad}. However, it must be noted that for new products or services, consumers

cannot/should not have a pre-exposure attitude toward the communication effort therefore, in these cases, it cannot be an antecedent of A_{ad}.

MacKenzie and Lutz (1989) examined antecedents of A_{ad} in order to "explain the origins of A_{ad}" (p. 48). In their conceptual framework they included five antecedents of A_{ad}: advertisement credibility, advertisement perceptions, attitude toward advertiser, attitude toward advertising, and mood. Although they acknowledged that there are potential moderators of A_{ad}, MacKenzie and Lutz did not give reference to a consumer's pre-exposure A_B.

There is however, support in the literature for the positive association between A_B and A_{ad}. For example, Messmer (1979) found a positive relationship between A_B and A_{ad}. Moore and Hutchinson (1983) reported that prior A_B (i.e., pre-exposure A_B) can affect an individual's A_{ad}. Edell and Burke (1987) reported that there was a positive relationship between an individual's prior A_B and their A_{ad}. Machleit and Wilson (1988) found that prior A_B is correlated with A_{ad} through emotional feelings that are evoked by the communication effort. In the current study however, emotional feelings were not probed therefore, Machleit and Wilson's findings lend only partial support to the current findings.

The third antecedent of A_{ad} investigated in the present study was that of pre-exposure intent. It was hypothesised that the higher a subject's pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming was, the more positive would be his/her reaction to the communication effort. This expectation however, did not prove to be the case in this study. There is little or no support in the literature for intent as an antecedent or "influencer" of A_{ad}. Indeed, in their review of A_{ad}, Muehling and McCann (1993) did not

report any study that investigated the effect of pre-exposure intent on A_{ad}. Further, in their meta-analysis of antecedents and consequences of A_{ad}, Brown and Stayman (1992) did not include any studies that looked at the relationship between pre-exposure intent and A_{ad}. Lord et al. (1995) did not include this hypothesis in their study of antecedents of A_{ad}.

5.2.4 Research Question Four: The Relationship between Post-Exposure Attitude toward Homecoming (A_B) and Its Antecedents

Immediately after being exposed to the communication effort, subjects were asked about their A_B (designated as post-exposure A_B). A change in A_B was expected due to the communication effort and subjects' A_{ad}. One goal when communicating with consumers and potential consumers is to do it in such a manner that the means used are viewed as positive by the receiver of the communication (e.g., enjoy reading the brochure, not irritated by the speaker) and that the receiver's attitude toward that which was communicated becomes more positive. It is therefore reasonable to assume that the type of communication effort used and his/her reaction to that communication effort (A_{ad}) may influence a receiver's post-exposure A_B. Indeed, both hypotheses related to subjects' post-exposure A_B were supported.

Findings from the current study suggest that subjects' post-exposure A_B is influenced by the communication effort to which they were exposed. This is a very important finding as it suggests that some methods of communication are better at eliciting positive views, thoughts, and feelings about a particular product or service. The liking of something may be considered a precursor to a desired action (e.g., participate in Homecoming, purchase the product or service).

Each experiment group had a positive post-exposure A_B. This is an interesting finding in itself as it suggests that, as least in the context of the present study, individuals reacted positively to the sponsoring organisation's communication efforts (as indicated by their positive post-exposure A_B). More specifically, the most positive post-exposure A_B was found in the group exposed to the personal appeal, followed by the website, and finally by the brochures. This result was anticipated and lends support to the notion that mixed communication efforts (i.e., audio and print) are superior to single media formats (e.g., Lord & Putrevu, 1998; Moore & Reardon, 1987). However, as discussed below in Section 5.2.5, the brochures, website, and personal may all be considered multiple source formats given the use of text and pictures in the brochures and website. Nevertheless, the combination of types of media formats may be responsible for the differences found in subjects' post-exposure A_B (e.g., colour versus black and white).

As expected, there was a positive relationship between subjects' A_{ad} and their post-exposure A_B. That is, the more positive a subject's attitude toward the A_{ad} was, the more positive was his/her post-exposure A_B. This positive correlation makes intuitive sense. It is reasonable to expect that if an individual's A_{ad} is positive, this attitude might then affect his/her attitude toward that which has being "communicated" (i.e., object of the communication effort; Homecoming in the present study).

The evidence of the correlation between A_{ad} and post-exposure A_B, has been mixed. Recently, Lord et al. (1995) found that A_{ad} did not significantly impact subjects' A_B. However, this finding is inconsistent with previous literature. Numerous researchers (e.g., Gardner, 1985; Laczniak & Muehling, 1989; MacKenzie et al., 1986; Miniard et al., 1990; Mitchell & Olson, 1981; Park & Young, 1984) have reported evidence supporting

the relationship between A_{ad} and post-exposure A_B. Their research suggests that A_{ad} has a positive influence on the formation of A_B and that individuals' A_B may be formed, in part, by their A_{ad} (MacKenzie et al., 1986). Further, Miniard et al. (1990) stated that "A_{ad} serves as a significant antecedent of A_B" (p. 301).

This is an important finding as it suggests that if an individual has a positive A_{ad}, it will translate into positive thoughts and feelings (i.e., attitudes) toward the object of the communication effort (i.e., post-exposure A_B). This finding further suggests the need for communication efforts that are likeable and that conjure positive thoughts about the object of the communication effort due to the influence of A_B on intentions (refer to section 5.2.6). Thus, a positive A_{ad} translates into a positive A_B, which in turn increases an individual's intention to do something. Finally, intentions are thought to be a good predictor of actual behaviour (e.g., Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Sheppard et al., 1988). Therefore, a positive A_{ad} could ultimately translate into behaviour.

5.2.5 Research Question Five: The Relationship between Post-Exposure Recall of the Communication Effort and Its Antecedents

The fifth research question was used to probe the relationship between post-exposure recall of the communication effort and those variables that may have influenced subjects' levels of recall. The variables investigated were the communication effort itself and subjects' attitude toward the communication effort. Both hypotheses posed to answer research question five were supported. The results suggest that both the communication effort and subjects' attitude toward the communication effort (A_{ad}) are related to subjects' post-exposure recall of the communication effort.

It was expected that subjects' post-exposure recall of the communication would be influenced by the communication effort to which they were exposed. The results revealed that the experiment groups recalled different amounts from the communication effort. As expected, subjects exposed to print media recalled the least about the communication effort however, those subjects in EG2 (brochure with information and persuasive messages) recalled less than those subjects in EG1 (brochure with information only). This result was surprising especially given that subjects in EG2 had a more positive A_{ad} than those subjects in EG1. However, the difference between the two groups was small. Another surprising result was that subjects in EG3 (website) recalled more than did subjects in EG4 (personal appeal). This result was not anticipated. Similar to EG1 and EG2, subjects in EG4 had a more positive A_{ad} than those in EG3, however this difference did not translate into increased recall.

Lord and Putrevu (1998) compared the amount of information a subject recalled from a single media format (e.g., advertisement only) versus from a multiple media format (e.g., advertisement, article, and photo). They found that those subjects exposed to multiple media format recalled more than those exposed to a single media format. In the context of the present study, the personal appeal can be considered a multiple media format as it incorporated audio and visual (the speaker herself and the brochure). The website also incorporated multiple media (text and pictures). However, using Lord and Putrevu's reasoning, the brochures are also a multiple format as they contained both text and pictures.

It is therefore unclear how the communication effort content influenced recall. One explanation for the differences in recall by multiple media formats is the form that

these media take (e.g., colour pictures on the website versus black and white in the brochures). If this reasoning is accurate it suggests that individuals' recall is dependent, to some degree, on the form that the media takes.

In contrast to the findings in the present study, past research has indicated that more is recalled about a communication effort when that effort is in print form (e.g., newspaper advertisement, brochure) as compared to an audio format such as radio (Unnava et al., 1994). It is generally thought that this occurs because an individual can spend as much time processing the print information as s/he want which leads to increased learning of the communication (e.g., Chaiken & Eagly, 1976). Individuals have no control over the amount of time they can process a communication effort in audio form which last a set length of time, typically 30 or 60 seconds.

Furnham and Gunter (1989) however, found that individuals still recalled more print information compared to radio information (i.e., audio) when processing times were controlled. In addition, Unnava et al. (1994) found that subjects exposed to a print advertisement recalled more than those exposed to a radio advertisement, even when exposure time was limited for those viewing the print advertisement. The research by Furnham and Gunter and Unnava et al. suggests that subjects in EG1, EG2, and EG3 should have recalled more than did those subjects in EG4 however this was only the case for EG3 (i.e., subjects in EG1 and EG2 recalled less than those in EG4).

Subjects in EG1 and EG2 were given as much time as they required to process the information contained in the brochure and were also given the opportunity to take the brochure with them. Subjects in EG4 were also given the same brochure as EG1 thus, these subjects had the ability to process basic information for as long as they wanted

including taking the brochure with them. Further, subjects in EG3 were given as much time as they wanted to process the information contained in the website. As such, the four experiment groups had equal opportunity to process the information. However, because the personal appeal was "finished" in a set amount of time, it is possible that subjects ceased viewing the brochure after the completion of the personal appeal.

In addition to the communication effort itself, it was also expected that subjects' A_{ad} would influence their recall of the communication effort. Specifically, it was hypothesised that the more a subject liked the communication effort (i.e., positive A_{ad}), the more items and elements s/he would recall. Indeed, this assertion held true in the present study (i.e., a more positive A_{ad} corresponded to a higher recall level). This finding makes intuitive sense; if we like something we tend to remember things about it (e.g., people, books, movies, vacations) and there is little reason to assume that the same does not hold true for communication efforts. However, there are very few studies that examine the affect of A_{ad} on recall.

Muehling and McCann (1993), in their review of A_{ad} cited only one study that examined A_{ad} and recall/recognition. Zinkhan et al. (1986) found a correlation between subjects' A_{ad} and their recall and recognition of brand names and facts. However, their measure of recall differed from that used in the present study (refer to Chapter Two for a review of the recall/recognition debate). Despite this difference, Zinkhan et al's data. lend support to the finding in the present study. In fact, much advertising research focuses on the recall and/or recognition of the product, brand, or claims made. Further, studies using recall tend to examine the effect of such variables as repetition (e.g., Newell &

Henderson, 1998), order of argument (e.g., Unnava et al., 1994), and attribute prominence (e.g., Gardner, 1983).

5.2.6 Research Question Six: The Relationship between Post-Exposure Intent and Its Antecedents

Research question six was posed to determine the relationship, if any, between subjects' post-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming and those variables that may act as antecedents of post-exposure intent. All three hypotheses posed for this research question were supported. It appears that subjects' post-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming was related to the treatment to which they were exposed, their A_{ad}, and post-exposure A_B.

The data support the relationship between post-exposure A_B and post-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming. Although causality was not determined in this study, it is reasonable to assume that an individual's post-exposure intent was driven by his/her post-exposure A_B. Indeed, Gill et al. (1988) found that, in terms of subjective messages and a combination of subjective and objective messages, "attitude had a strong, direct effect . . . on purchase intention" (p. 38). Although they used path analysis, Gill et al. stated that causality cannot be proved but that "consequences of causal assumptions" (p. 38) can be identified. Other factors that were included in their regression analysis (i.e., involvement, familiarity, commitment to the brand, and a function of beliefs and evaluations of the brand) were not significantly related to attitude. Although Gill et al. manipulated claim strategy (subjective only versus objective and subjective claims), a technique not used in the current study, their findings still lend support to the contention

that post-exposure attitudes are directly related to post-exposure intent (e.g., participate in Homecoming).

A recent study by Lord et al. (1995) lends further support to the finding that post-exposure A_B is positively correlated with post-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming. Using structural equation modelling, Lord et al. found that post-exposure attitude A_B "significantly affect[ed]" post-exposure intent (p. 80). Indeed, this relationship held true for one exposure versus three and for those highly involved in processing the commercials versus those with lower levels of processing involvement. This study, coupled with the findings of Gill et al. (1988), suggest that there is, indeed, a strong correlation between post-exposure A_B and post-exposure intent to participate.

The relationship between post-exposure A_B and post-exposure intent is also supported by the Dual Mediation Hypothesis (e.g., Homer, 1990; MacKenzie et al., 1986) as well as The Theory of Reasoned Action (e.g., Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Using the Theory of Reasoned Action, Chan (1998) found a strong positive correlation between business travellers' and pleasure travellers' attitude toward staying in a luxury hotel and their intentions to do so on their next trip. Homer's research (using path coefficients) supports the causal link between post-exposure A_B and post-exposure intent proposed in MacKenzie et al.'s Dual Mediation Hypothesis.

The present study supports the contention that consumers' intentions to do something are related to the type of communication effort used to relay information. Specifically, findings from the present study suggest that subjects' level of intent to participate in Homecoming was related to the communication effort to which they were exposed. However, the findings are somewhat surprising. Subjects in EG4 (the personal

appeal) reported the greatest intent to participate, compared to the other groups, after exposure to the personal appeal. Although it was hypothesised that subjects exposed to the website would exhibit the second highest intent to participate, they in fact had the lowest level of intent of the four experiment groups. As expected the intent level of EG2 (brochure with information and persuasion) was greater than EG1 (brochure with information only) however, as noted, both groups exhibited higher levels of intent than did EG3.

There is no evidence in the literature to suggest that intentions to do something vary by type of communication effort. Indeed, much research concerning intentions has focused on the intention behaviour link (e.g., McQuarrie, 1988). For example, researchers have developed models to estimate the probability of actual "purchase" based on intent (e.g., Bemmaor, 1995; Manski, 1990; Mullet & Karson, 1985). As such, there is little research with which to compare the present findings (as they relate to the effect of treatment on post-exposure intent).

As suggested earlier, it is unclear why subjects in EG3 reported the lowest levels of intent to participate in Homecoming. This finding is further confounded by the fact that subjects in EG3 exhibited a more positive post-exposure A_B compared to subjects who received one of the brochures. Previous research suggests that positive A_B leads to increased purchase intentions (e.g., Homer & Yoon, 1992; Lord et al., 1995; Yi, 1990). Indeed, this relationship was supported in the present study. It appears that, at least for subjects in EG3, a positive attitude did not translate into increased intentions, as would be expected given past research. However, for the remaining three groups, a more positive

the attitude translated into a higher level of intent. Nevertheless, it is unclear why the path from attitude to intention did not hold true for subjects in EG3.

Based on the findings in the present study it appears that an individual's A_{ad} also has a positive relationship with his/her post-exposure intent to perform a behaviour (e.g., attend Homecoming, purchase a product or service). This finding is supported by previous research. In particular, Lord et al. (1995) found that A_{ad} had a significant and direct affect on intent. Indeed, they found that the impact of A_{ad} on intent was much greater than was the impact of A_B on intent (although this relationship was still significant). However, the path between A_{ad} and intent was not significant for those individuals who were highly involved and who were exposed to the commercial three times. Lord et al. noted that this finding may be due to hypothesis guessing. Even so, this should not diminish the support for the relationship.

MacKenzie et al. (1986), in their comparison of four models to explain A_{ad} as a mediator of advertising effectiveness, presented data which appears to support a positive correlation between A_{ad} and post-exposure intent to participate however, this link was not included in the model of best fit (i.e., Dual Mediation Hypothesis). However, the study by MacKenzie et al. lends some support to the findings in the present study. It is important to note however, that MacKenzie et al. suggested that future research examine, in greater depth, the relationship between A_{ad} and other variables, including intent.

5.2.7 Research Question Seven: The Relationship between Behaviour and Its Antecedents as well as Moderator Variables

It can be argued that, from an organisation's perspective, behaviour (or, in the current study, participation/non-participation), is the most important of the consumer

responses for commercial organisations, not-for-profit organisations (e.g., increase memberships at the YMCA), and public organisations (e.g., behaviour desired by "Participaction" is active physical participation and the behaviour desired by Health Canada is smoking cessation). Numerous variables were identified that may influence consumers' behaviour. These variables were divided into two separate categories, moderators and antecedents. The antecedent variables were subjects' post-exposure intent to participate, subjects' post-exposure A_B, and their post-exposure recall of the communication effort. The moderator variables were those variables that may influence subjects' pre-exposure A_B (i.e., past experience, involvement, commitment, and subjective norms), pre-exposure A_B itself, and the communication effort (i.e., treatment).

In total, support was found for five of the hypotheses were supported whereas two were partially supported and two were not supported at all. It appears that post-exposure intent, post-exposure A_B, past experience, the importance facet of involvement, the pleasure facet of involvement, the position involvement facet of commitment, subjective norms, and a subjects' pre-exposure A_B were all related to a subjects' behaviour. In contrast, the treatments had no relationship with subjects' eventual behaviour nor did subjects' post-exposure recall of the communication effort.

The ultimate goal of the majority of communication efforts is to elicit an action or behaviour (e.g., purchase something, change something, behave in a certain manner) by the intended recipient. In this study the ultimate goal was to induce participation by recipients of the communication effort however, this does not diminish the importance of the other outcomes (e.g., post-exposure intent, post-exposure A_B).

It was expected that the experiment groups would differ in their participation in Homecoming. Furthermore, it was expected that subjects who were exposed to a communication effort would have higher levels of participation in Homecoming compared to those subjects in a control group (i.e., not exposed to a communication effort in an experimental setting). Contrary to expectations, neither of these hypotheses were supported. There were no significant differences in the participation rates of members in the experiment groups versus the control groups nor were there differences between the experiment groups themselves.

Although this lack of participation was not expected there are numerous explanations for why it occurred. Liska (1984) pointed out that although people may intend to do something, they often do not due to constraints (e.g., time, money). The time constraint appears to have played a large role in the lack of participation by subjects.

Homecoming, because it is set within a narrow and specific timeframe (i.e., one weekend), required that participation occur within that timeframe. Unlike frequently or even infrequently purchased consumer products or services (e.g., toothpaste, ski boots), if the Homecoming timeframe is violated, the behaviour cannot occur. In contrast, other products and services may be purchased within a larger timeframe (e.g., next day, next week, next month, next year). It appears that this inflexible timeframe may have contributed to the lack of participation.

Homecoming took place on the second weekend of November, which was two week prior to the completion of the fall school term. It appears that, based on the reasons subjects gave for not attending, subjects involved in the present study may have been too busy to attend any of the Homecoming events. Subjects who did not participate in

Homecoming were asked to indicate one or more reasons why they did not participate. The two most common reasons given for not participating were "too much school work" and "studying."

The majority of subjects (94.74%) indicated, post-exposure, that they intended to attend at least one Homecoming event. Therefore, it appears that although the majority of subjects in the experiment groups intended to participate in Homecoming activity, schoolwork, studying, and other factors inhibited their participation. Indeed, of those subjects who indicated that they did not know about Homecoming, less than ten percent (8.26%) were in an experiment group. Further, of those subjects who indicated that they forgot about Homecoming, less than 15% (14.79%) were in an experiment group.

Ajzen (1985, 1991) noted that not all behaviour is under volitional control. Although it seems reasonable that Homecoming would have had higher volitional control, intervening circumstances (i.e., schoolwork, upcoming exams) prevented subjects from carrying out their planned intentions. It appears that the amount of schoolwork and studying that would be required in the second week of November was unforeseen by subjects who estimated that they would likely participate in Homecoming.

Although the treatment to which subjects were exposed did not appear to have an impact on their eventual participation in Homecoming, post-exposure intent appears to have an impact on participation. Subjects who participated in Homecoming expressed higher levels of intent to actually do so (after exposure to the communication effort) compared to those who did not participate in Homecoming.

An individual's intent to perform some behaviour (e.g., purchase a product or service; participate in a leisure activity) is thought to be indicative of subsequent

behaviour (e.g., Ajzen, 1985, 1991). However, few studies have attempted to look at the actual relationship between intentions and behaviour (i.e., is actual behaviour consistent with intentions). Baron and Kenny (1986) noted that researchers have not paid enough attention the intentions-behaviour link. Indeed, Mathur (1998) stated that "the weakest area of the previous research has been the . . . intention-behavior . . . link" (p. 242). There are a number of reasons for this omission in the literature. In advertising research, most studies take place in a laboratory setting (i.e., forced exposure) as opposed to a more natural setting (Debraix, 1995). Indeed, MacKenzie and Lutz (1989) suggested that more advertising research take place in natural settings. Furthermore, researchers often use products not yet available to the public or products and brand names that are bogus (e.g., Burton & Lichtenstein, 1988; Madden et al. 1988). Under such circumstances, actual behaviour cannot be determined.

However, some studies have attempted to overcome this exclusion be including a measure of actual behaviour. Sheeran et al. (1999) measured the link between intentions and behaviour and found a significant correlation between the two variables. Indeed, they reported that intentions explained 34% of the variance in behaviour. It therefore appears that the intention to do something is significantly related to actually doing it. Mathur (1998), using structural equation modelling, found that for three of eight activities, there was a significant path from intentions to behaviour.

In Mathur's (1998) study, the path between intentions and behaviour was significant for all eight activities if trying was included as a mediating variable between them (i.e., trying is measured as the attempt to perform a behaviour whether of not the behaviour was actually performed). As such, Mathur's (1998) research lends partial

support the findings in this study. It appears that, at least for some activities, intentions have a direct affect on behaviour. A measure of trying was not included in this study however, the inclusion of this variable might have produced some interesting findings.

As discussed previously, there were no differences between the experiment groups themselves in terms of their participation in Homecoming, nor were there differences between the experiment groups and control groups. One potential reason for this was the lack of volitional control (as discussed above) that subjects had over their behaviour. Additional insights might have been gained if trying, as a mediating variable between intentions and behaviour, was included in this study, especially with respect to the lack of control that subjects may have experienced.

Further to the finding that higher intention levels were associated with participation in Homecoming, so too was positive post-exposure attitude toward Homecoming as well as pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming. In fact, the affect of pre- and post-exposure attitude toward Homecoming was almost identical.

Although both participants and non-participants had positive post-exposure attitudes toward Homecoming, those who participated had significantly more positive attitudes toward Homecoming. However, researchers tend not to examine the link between attitudes and behaviour. This exclusion is probably a result of the reliance on the Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) as a conceptual model as this theory does not include path from attitude to behaviour. The Dual Mediation Hypothesis (MacKenzie et al., 1986), which is also widely used in the advertising literature, also does not incorporate a link between attitude and behaviour.

The lack of attention to an attitude-behaviour link is further confounded by the design of many studies, which do not allow for the testing of actual behaviour. Instead, only intentions can be measured. Refer to the discussion on the link between post-exposure intent and behaviour for an outline of the issue of the failure to measure behaviour. As noted previously, at least two studies have attempted to measure actual behaviour (e.g., Mathur, 1998; Sheeran et al., 1999). However, only one study looked at the possible link between attitudes and behaviour.

Sheeran et al. (1999) found that attitudes were significantly associated with behaviour (even excluding the mediating effects of intentions). Although intentions explained more of the variance in behaviour than did attitudes, the addition of attitudes contributed significantly to the explanation of variance in behaviour. Based on the findings by Sheeran et al., there appears to be a significant relationship between attitudes and behaviour; which, as noted previously, has been left out of many theories and studies. However, the study by Sheeran et al. lends support only to the affect of pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming, as their study did not include exposure to a communication effort.

In addition to the relationship between attitudes and behaviour, it was hypothesised that recall would be associated with behaviour. Costley and Brucks (1992) noted that recall is important because there is typically a delay between when a consumer receives a communication effort and when s/he actually purchases the product or service or, in the case of the present study, participate. Therefore, consumers must rely on their memory of a product or service in order to make a purchase (or to participate). There are however, some exceptions (e.g., point of purchase displays). They further argued that

"recall is critical in order for advertised information to be used as inputs to purchase decisions" (p. 464). In the present study however, those who participated in Homecoming did not exhibit higher levels of recall compared to those who did not participate. This result was unexpected as it was thought that subjects would draw on their memory of the communication effort, to which they were exposed, when making their purchase decision so that those who recalled more would be more likely to participate.

Analysis of the reasons given for not participating revealed some interesting findings. Just under 20% (19.00%) of respondents noted that they forgot about Homecoming when asked why they did not participate. Of the individuals who forgot about Homecoming, over three-quarters (77.78%) were in one of the four experiment groups. Overall, just under 15% (14.79%) of the subjects assigned to an experiment group stated that they forgot about Homecoming which suggests that information processed subsequent to being exposed to the communication effort was "lost." Costley and Brucks (1992) suggested, based on research by Biehal and Chakravarti (1983, 1986) and Feldman and Lynch (1988), that recall of communication efforts and the use of information contained in these efforts are "linked theoretically" (p.464). As such, it can be argued that individuals who forgot about Homecoming could not draw on information, from the communication to which they were exposed, to make a decision to attend Homecoming.

Although recall of the communication effort did not appear to be associated with participation in Homecoming, past behaviour was found to be highly associated with participation. More subjects who had past experience actually participated in Homecoming than was expected. In contrast, fewer subjects than expected, who did not

have past experience with Homecoming, actually participated. Therefore, it appears that past experience with a behaviour increases the likelihood that an individual will perform a specified behaviour in the future. Indeed, McQuarrie (1988) found that consumers who purchased in the past were more likely to purchase again regardless of their stated buying plans.

A number of studies have revealed that past behaviour is a better predictor of future behaviour than are intentions (e.g., Bentlar & Speckart, 1979; Norman & Smith, 1995). Sheeran et al. (1999) found that when individuals' intentions are stable, past behaviour did not account for significantly more variance in behaviour however, when intention are unstable, past behaviour is better than any other variable (e.g., subjective norms, intentions, attitudes) for predicting behaviour. This research suggests that once an individual gains experience with a product or service by way of purchase or participation, s/he will likely repeat the behaviour in the future (i.e., purchase or participate again).

Subjects' involvement with Homecoming was found also found to predict, to some extent, their behaviour (i.e., participation or non-participation in Homecoming). As with pre-exposure intent, only importance and pleasure contributed to the explanation of variance in behaviour with pleasure being the stronger predictor variable. The predictor capability of involvement on behaviour was stronger than for pre-exposure A_B and pre-exposure intent. It appears that the more highly involved an individual is with Homecoming, the more likely s/he is to participate in Homecoming.

Havitz and Dimanche (1999) suggested that involvement "affects our behavior" (p. 123). This contention appears to be supported in the current study as well as by previous research findings (e.g., McCarville, 1991; Park, 1996). Indeed, Havitz and

Dimanche (1999) stated that the proposition "participants' involvement profile scores will be positively related to their frequency of participation, travel, or purchase" (p. 127) has received the most subsequent support (i.e., of the thirteen propositions outlined in Havitz & Dimanche, 1990).

In contrast to previous findings in the current study, commitment to the University of Waterloo contributed to the explanation of behaviour. Specifically, position involvement was positively correlated with a subject's participation in Homecoming (as opposed to non-participation). Volitional choice and information complexity did not contribute to the explanation of variance in participation. Consumers associate values and self-images with such things as brands and ideas (Pritchard et al., 1999). The position involvement facet of commitment is evaluate by consumers "to determine whether their public association with the brand in question is consistent with certain values and self-images" (Pritchard et al., p. 336). It therefore appears that, to some extent, subjects feel that by participating in Homecoming they are making public the values and self images that they associate with the University of Waterloo.

The Theory of Reasoned Action does not include a path from subjective norms to behaviour (e.g., Fishbein & Ajzen, 1980). Instead, Fishbein and Ajzen proposed that subjective norms affect behaviour through intentions (i.e., subjective norms affect intentions which, in turn, predict behaviour). In the present study however, those subjects who did attend Homecoming had significantly more positive subjective norms (defined as friends and important others thinking subject should attend Homecoming) than did those who did not participate in Homecoming.

This finding suggests that subjective norms might be related to behaviour exclusive of intentions. However, this does not preclude the indirect affect that subjective norms may have on behaviour through their influence on intentions. There is little or no support for this relationship in the literature. This lack of support could be caused, in part, by the use of the Fishbein-Ajzen model for predicting behaviour. As noted previously, the Theory of Reasoned Action does not include a direct path from subjective norms to behaviour rather. Instead, behaviour is predicted by intentions, which are a function of subjective norms. Therefore, researchers tend not to analyse the potential path from subjective norms directly to behaviour. In addition, many researchers do not include a measure of behaviour in their studies.

Nevertheless, a direct relationship between subjective norms and behaviour seems plausible. In studies of the antecedents (or predictors) of behaviour, subjects are typically asked what their intentions are for a particular product, service, or action (e.g., purchase, participate in, vote, attend, use). Thus, analysis of behaviour centres, at least to some degree, around these stated intentions. However, a consumer may not verbally state his/her intentions to do/not do something unless asked. Nor does s/he always consciously develop intentions (e.g., I will sign up for swimming lessons next week) rather, behaviour may occur "at the spur of the moment" with little or no conscious thought. However, consumers may be unconsciously led to a particular behaviour based on subjective norms, past experience, or other non-verbalised cues. In situation where intentions are not verbalised, the link between subjective norms and behaviour would appear to be the direct route of influence.

Sheeran et al., (1999) who conducted one of the few studies that actually measured behaviour found a significant positive correlation between subjective norms and behaviour. Indeed, subjective norms significantly increased the explained variance of behaviour however, intentions still accounted for the majority of the explanation. Although Mathur (1998) measured both subjective norms and behaviour, he did not include a direct link between the two variables in his structural equation modelling. This omission was likely due to the focus of the study on trying as a mediating variable between intentions and behaviour.

5.2.8 Research Question Eight: The Relationship between Post-Event Attitude toward Homecoming and Its Antecedents

Subjects' A_B was measured for a third time after Homecoming was complete. This measure, post-event A_B, was taken for all subjects whether or not they participated in Homecoming. Although over half of the subjects did not participate in homecoming such a measure is valid for three reasons. First, subjects may have been exposed to Homecoming without participating (e.g., hear other people talk about it, hear results of basketball game or football game). Second, it allowed the post-event A_B of participators and non-participators to be compared. Finally, measuring post-event A_B enabled a change in A_B over time to be determined (this is investigated further in section 5.2.9).

It was expected that subjects' post-event A_B would be related to their behaviour (i.e., participation or non-participation). Indeed, subjects' behaviour was positively related to their post-event A_B. Although both groups had positive post-event A_B, those subjects who participated in Homecoming tended to have a more positive post-event A_B toward Homecoming compared to those who did not participate in Homecoming. A

comparison of subjects' post-exposure and post-event A_B, based on their behaviour, or eventual behaviour in the case of post-exposure A_B, revealed some interesting findings. In both cases, those subjects who participated Homecoming had a significantly more positive A_B, at all three times, compared to those who did not participate in Homecoming. It therefore appears that subjects who would eventually participate in Homecoming began (pre-exposure) with more positive attitudes compared to those who would not eventually participate.

5.2.9 Research Question Nine: The Affects of Treatment on Attitude toward Homecoming over Time

The final research question that guided the present study was concerned with the influence of the treatments on subjects' A_B over time. Specifically, subjects' A_B was measured prior to being exposed to the communication effort (pre-exposure), after viewing the communication effort (post-exposure), and after Homecoming was complete (pot-event).

All subjects began the experiment with similar A_B (pre-exposure) however, as a result of the communication effort, their A_B increased significantly for each group except those in EG1. Although subjects in EG1 reported a more positive post-exposure A_B (compared to their pre-exposure), the increase was not sufficient to be statistically significant as it was with the remaining three groups. After Homecoming was completed, subjects in EG1, EG3, and EG4 exhibited a slight decrease in their A_B (post-event) however, this decrease was significant only for those in EG4 (A_B for subjects in EG2 remained constant between post-exposure and post-event).

This statistically significant decrease for EG4 probably occurred because the A_B of subjects in EG4 increased very dramatically between pre-exposure and post-exposure and as such was much higher than the post-exposure A_B for EG1, EG2, and EG3. It appears that there was difficulty maintaining such a positive A_B. Furthermore, the post-event A_B for subjects in EG2, EG3, and EG4 was significantly higher than it was at pre-exposure. Therefore, it appears that either the communication effort or Homecoming (or a function of both) contributed to a more positive A_B over the course of the experiment. In contrast, the post-event A_B of subjects in EG1 and CG1 was not significantly different than their pre-exposure A_B suggesting that neither Homecoming nor the communication effort was sufficient to create a change in A_B over the course of the experiment.

Machleit and Wilson (1995) hypothesised that prior brand attitudes would influence post-exposure attitudes. Indeed, they found that prior brand attitudes had a direct effect on post-exposure attitudes. Edell and Burke (1986) reported similar findings. However, neither study investigated the differences based on the communication effort to the subjects were exposed. Rather, these studies looked at familiar versus unfamiliar brands.

5.2.10 Modified Conceptual Framework

Based on the results of the hypothesis tests, the conceptual framework presented in Figure 1.3 was modified to reflect the positive associations between variables. In recognition of the number of variables included in this study, the updated conceptual framework is presented in two sections. The links between the moderator variables, pre-exposure intent, and pre-exposure A_B and the level one outcomes are presented in Figure

5.1. Also included in this figure are the associations between the level one outcomes themselves. Behaviour and post-event A_B are presented in Figure 5.2.

Overall, the original Framework presented in Chapter One (Figure 1.3) held together reasonably well. As can be seen in Figure 5.1, pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming was influenced by four moderators: past experience, the importance and pleasure facets of involvement, and subjective norms. None of the commitment facets nor the risk facet of involvement significantly influenced pre-exposure intent, as was originally hypothesised.

In terms of pre-exposure A_B, past experience, all of the facets of involvement included in this study (i.e., importance, pleasure, risk), the information complexity facet of commitment, and subjective norms influenced subjects' pre-exposure A_B. The remaining two facets of commitment that were investigated in the current study (i.e., volitional choice and position involvement) did not have a statistically significant influence on subjects' pre-exposure A_B therefore, this part of the original framework was not supported.

Pre-exposure A_B and pre-exposure intent to participate were found to be associated. It is reasonable to assume that subjects' pre-exposure A_B influenced their pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming, as depicted in the original framework, however, causality was not determined in the present study. As expected, pre-exposure A_B influenced subjects' A_{ad}, however, subjects' pre-exposure intent to participate did not influence their A_{ad}, as was originally anticipated. Further, subjects' A_{ad}, was influenced by the treatment to which they were exposed. Specifically, personal appeals elicited the

more positive response, followed by the website, the brochure with persuasive messages, and the brochure with information only.

The treatment to which subjects were exposed also influenced their level of recall, their post-exposure A_B, and their post-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming. These findings supported the original framework as did the finding that A_{ad} affected subjects' post-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming (i.e., the more positive a subject's A_{ad} was, the higher was their post-exposure intent to participate). Subjects' post-exposure A_B, was also associated with their post-exposure intent to participate, as was originally hypothesised.

With respect to Figure 5.2, behaviour was found to be influenced by subjects' past experience, the importance and pleasure facets of involvement, the position involvement facet of commitment, and their subjective norms. The original framework depicted additional influences on subjects' behaviour. Specifically, it was anticipated that the risk facet of involvement and the remaining facets of commitment (i.e., volitional choice and information complexity) would influence subjects' behaviour however, these influences were not supported by the data.

As expected, subjects' pre-exposure A_B, post-exposure A_B, and post-exposure intent to participate all had an influence on their behaviour. It was also expected that the treatment to which subjects were exposed as well as their level of recall of that communication effort, and their, A_{ad} would influence their behaviour, however, these hypotheses were not supported. Finally, subjects' post-event A_B was influenced by their participation in Homecoming (i.e., behaviour) as well as the treatment to which they were exposed.

Figure 5.1 Modified Conceptual Framework (Part One)

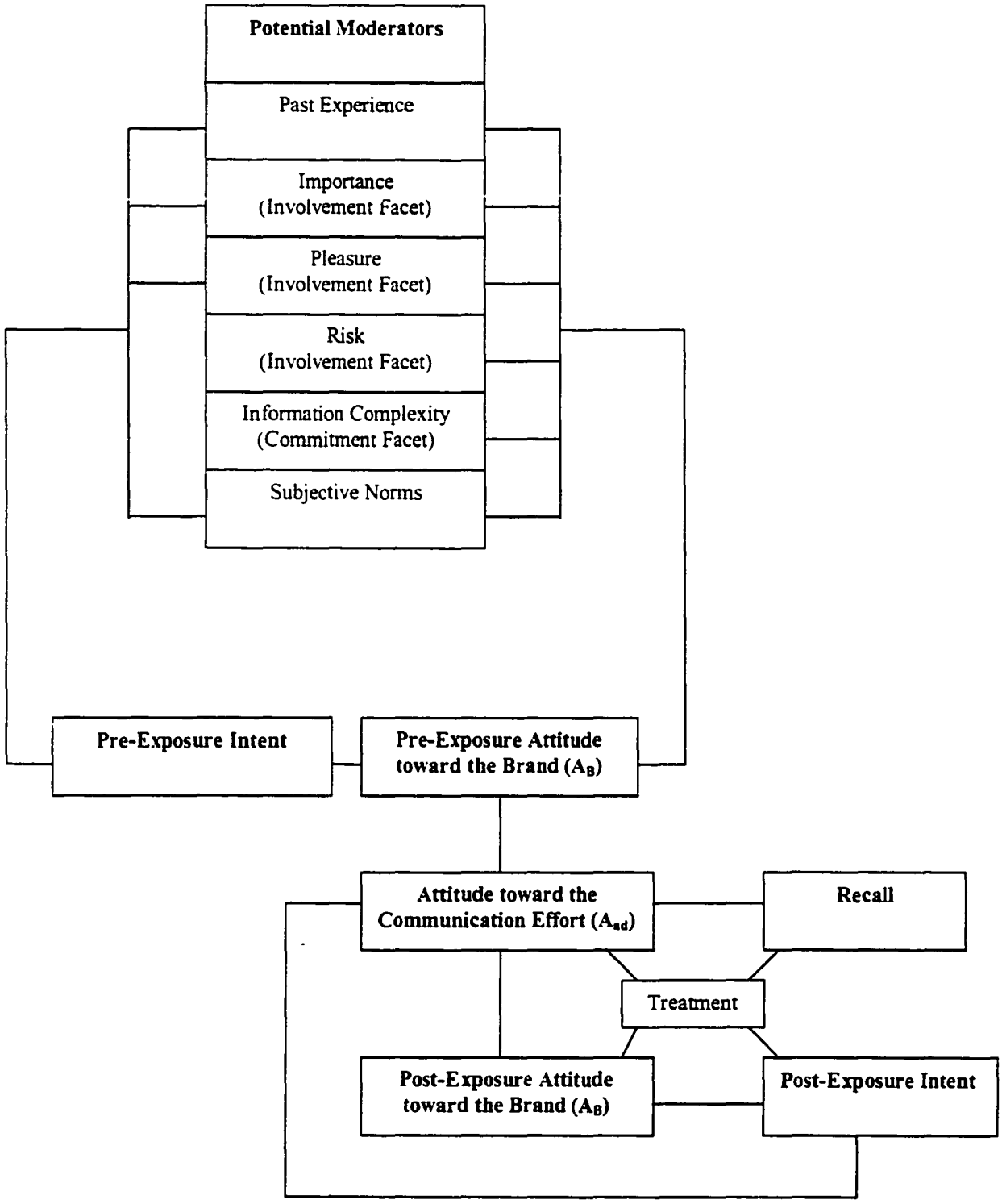
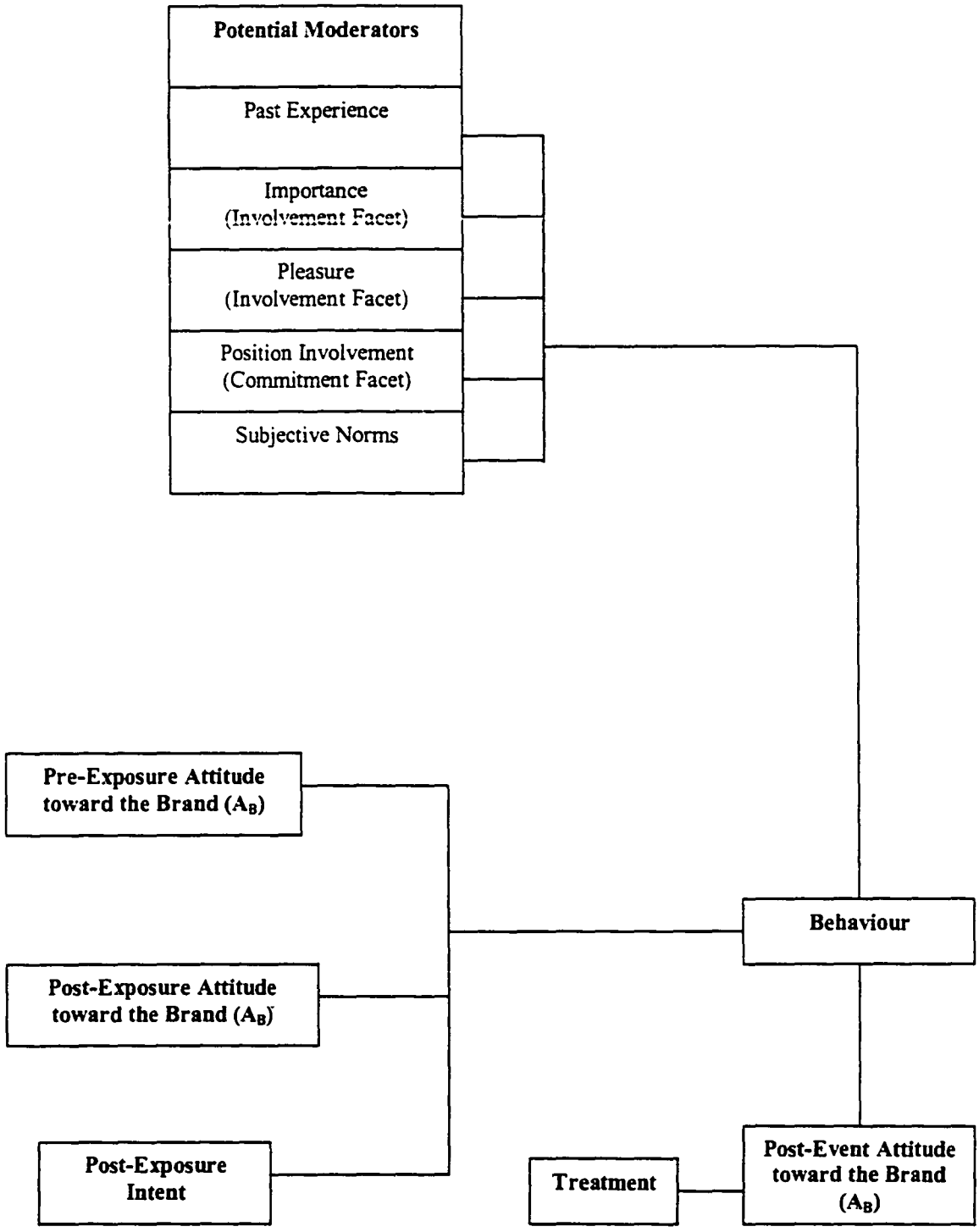


Figure 5.2 Modified Conceptual Framework (Part Two)



5.3 Limitations of the Study

The current study is not without its limitations. The generalisability of the current findings to the general population is limited by a number of factors. The study subjects were relatively homogeneous. Although this is desirable in the sense that it allows any differences found to be attributed to the treatments (e.g., Campbell & Stanley, 1966), the results may not extend to other groups (e.g., alumni, the general public) or, especially, to other settings. Subjects possessed characteristics that may not be representative of the general population. For example, they tended to be in their late-teens and early twenties, were well educated, literate, and presumably were proficient at the use of computers and the World Wide Web (all students at the University have access to computers and the Internet).

No assessment was made to determine if those students who agreed to participate in the study differed in any way from those students who declined to participate. Students were not informed of the purpose of the study prior to their consent (i.e., informed when they read the information letter) therefore the context of the study (i.e., Homecoming, responses to communication efforts) should not have influenced students' decision to participate. In addition, only those students who were present (i.e., in class) on the first day of the study were eligible to participate. It is possible that students who attend class differ from those who do not attend class.

Subjects specifically were asked to process the communication efforts therefore, they had higher task involvement than they might otherwise have in a natural setting. This circumstance limits the external validity of the findings (i.e., to instances where individuals are highly involved in processing the communication effort). However, there

is no reason to suspect that the treatment groups differed in their level of processing thus the results should be internally valid.

A fourth limitation of the study concerns the use of Homecoming. As discussed previously, Homecoming was a timebound event and, as such, subjects were limited to participating within a specific timeframe. Therefore, if subjects "violated" the timeframe (e.g., were sick, went away for the weekend), participation was not possible. In contrast, other products and services, including public leisure services, typically can be purchased on an ongoing basis. As such, the actual affect of the different treatments on encouraging participation may be understated. That is, had subjects had the opportunity to participate over a greater length of time, differences may have been found between the treatment groups.

A fifth limitation of the present study was the potential contamination of information sources. Subjects were not instructed to not talk to others about Homecoming therefore, control over the dissemination of information was lost. Had subjects been instructed to not talk about the experiment, some control over the dissemination of information would have been maintained however, due to the length of the study (i.e., spanned over three weeks), it is unclear to what extent these instructions would have been followed. Further, subjects were exposed to other communication efforts by the Federation of Students (e.g., information booth, posters, newspaper articles). However, given that the present study was a field experiment, exposure to additional communication efforts was unavoidable.

EG4 was described as a personal appeal however, group presentation may have been a more accurate description of this treatment. There were between 10 and 15

subjects present during each appeal. Although a group presentation can be considered personal, it does not possess identical characteristics to a one-on-one presentation or even a small group presentation. For example, it is more difficult for a personal relationship to develop between the presenter and each individual audience member when an appeal is presented to a small group. Findings from the present study may have differed had the personal appeal been one-on-one or to a small group (i.e., approximately five people).

Overall, there was a low number of subjects assigned to each experiment and control group (i.e., between 39 and 47). A low n increases the probability of a Type II error (i.e., failure to reject the null hypothesis when it is false). However, less than 15% (4 of 32; 12.50%) of the research hypotheses were not supported therefore, the extent to which Type II errors were made may be limited.

Finally, there are some limitations with respect to the persuasive messages used in treatment two (i.e., EG2). These messages were developed by the researcher with the assistance of a faculty member of the Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies without input from members of the target audience (e.g., undergraduate students at the University of Waterloo). Focus group members were given the opportunity to modify the messages or include their own however, only one minor modification was made (i.e., focus group changed one word). Further, the persuasive messages may have been inadequately tested. Only one focus group, consisting of six undergraduate students, was used to pretest the persuasiveness of the messages.

5.4 Implications for Public Leisure Service Agencies

Although it did not deal with public leisure and special programmes specifically, there are many implications for public leisure service agencies that can be drawn from

this research. Perhaps the most important, with respect to the type of communication effort, was that the current standard of practice in public leisure service agencies (i.e., print media with information only) scored the lowest, compared to the remaining three communication efforts, on almost all of the variables that were studied. Although subjects in the current study viewed the brochure, with information only, positively, it achieved the lowest A_{ad} score of the four treatments studied.

The current practice in public leisure service agencies with respect to communicating with citizens, comprehensive seasonal brochures distributed to an undifferentiated population of the whole, is reminiscent of an old fable. In a certain town there lived a man who everyday would go to his backyard, sit on a stool, and dangle his fishing rod in a pail of water. The man's wife thought that this was a curious practice so one day, she asked her husband what he was doing. "Why fishing of course," he replied. "But there are no fish in that pail, you must go down to the lake if you want to catch any fish," his wife responded. "I know," replied her husband, "but I am old and the lake is too far away."

Public leisure service agencies are often like the old man in the story, they know that their communication efforts are, for the most part, a wasted effort, but they seem unable or unwilling to change. In order to reach our diverse citizenry, we must change the ways by which we communicate. If we do not go to the lake, we will not catch any fish. However, it is not as simple as dropping the current standard by which public leisure service agencies communicate with their citizens.

Many citizens have come to rely on the comprehensive seasonal programme brochure as their source of information because the majority of public leisure service

agencies have used them for so long. Therefore, eliminating seasonal programme brochures altogether may confuse those who can effectively use them. However, continued exclusive reliance on this form of communication will mean ignoring the (usually much larger) population of non-participants and those unable to use the seasonal programme brochure.

Further, the seasonal programme brochure creates political awareness of the programmes and services offered by public leisure service agencies. In this sense the seasonal programme brochure is not a wasted effort. If the primary purpose of this method of communicating is to increase participation then it may well be a wasted effort. However, the seasonal programme brochure does serve an importance purpose; that of a tool to create awareness in potential consumers as well as elected officials. In this sense, it provides a justification for the continued funding of public leisure service agencies.

The process of adding persuasive messages to the identical communication effort (i.e., brochure with information and persuasion) resulted in a more positive A_{ad}. Although, as discussed, it is not feasible to eliminate the seasonal programme brochure altogether, the current study suggests that public leisure service agencies should investigate the possibility of expanding the variety of communication efforts they use. A website can contain identical information as is contained in a seasonal programme brochure however it can be updated on a daily basis if necessary. Further, it provides opportunities for improving and expanding services provided for citizens (e.g., on-line registration, leisure benefit of the day, notification of cancellations). As such, it could be an important *complement* to the seasonal programme brochure, especially as a higher

percent of the citizenry obtains access to the world wide web and becomes more proficient in its use.

The current study suggested that personal appeals are both the most well received (i.e., most positive A_{ad} scores) and influenced the greatest attitude change as compared to print media and the website. It is not feasible to use only personal appeals as a means of communicating with citizens (i.e., without using other methods) due to cost, difficulty in reaching all citizens, and time required. However, using personal appeals, in addition to more traditional forms of communication, could increase the effectiveness of a public leisure service agency's communication efforts.

Opportunities are available to use personal appeals to communicate with hard to reach segments of the community including citizens for whom English is a second language and those who are unwilling or unable to read more traditional forms of communication. It could also be a useful tool for communicating to large groups of similar citizens (e.g., parents' associations, clubs and organisations, corporations, schools). Although they are more costly than other forms of communication, public leisure service agencies could include the selective use of personal appeals as a complement to their ongoing communication efforts.

The present study also suggests that public leisure service agencies can improve citizens' attitudes toward the services that they provide just by communicating with citizens. In the current study, subjects' A_B improved (i.e., became more positive) after being exposed to a communication effort. This finding implies that public leisure service agencies may be able to improve their sense of worth in the eyes of the community by

communicating what it is they do (information) and why it is of benefit to the community (persuasion).

Public leisure service agencies should attempt to integrate their communication efforts as much as possible. Although not specifically addressed by the data, the integration of various methods of communicating would provide for a more comprehensive communication strategy. The comprehensive seasonal programme brochure should be maintained (with lesser emphasis on it as the major form of communication) and include reference to other aspects of the agency's communication strategy (e.g., list the website address, provide a contact name and number for those groups wanting a personal presentation). In addition, a website could provide information about personal presentations, phone numbers to call for additional assistance, and even an on-line order form for the comprehensive seasonal programme brochure.

The third implication of the current study for public leisure service agencies is that of citizen involvement in the development of communication efforts. Although the present study did not compare communication efforts developed by staff with those developed with input from target groups, using members of the target group(s) in the development of communication efforts is recommended. The focus group that was recruited to assist in the development of the communication efforts provided some interesting ideas and unique insights, particularly as they related to the persuasive messages, which may have been overlooked by the researcher.

5.5 Recommendations for Future Research

Based on the results of the current study, there are a number of recommendations for future research. These recommendations can be divided into four categories: media, message, design issues, and communication in general. With respect to the first three categories listed previously, additional research should both replicate and expand upon the current study. Future research should examine the use of different media forms beyond those included in the current study. This research should also focus on variations of the same media format (e.g., different design and layout of a website, different speakers for a personal appeal).

In terms of the messages included in the communication efforts, future research should incorporate varying message types and strategies. While the current study investigated the differences between informative messages and informative messages with persuasive elements, other options exist and should be compared. For example, future research could compare the use of subjective versus objective messages or the use of humour in communication efforts.

There are also a number of recommendations regarding the design of future research. First, subjects from the general public should be included in future studies. Further to this, the comparison of different groups of citizens in the community could be incorporated (e.g., parents, young singles, older adults, citizens for whom English is a second language) in order to determine the most appropriate method of reaching diverse groups of citizens. Second, different events and activities should be incorporated into future studies which would allow the relative effectiveness of various media types to be investigated for different types of activities (e.g., series of lessons versus general

admission activities such as open swims). Third, other variables that have the potential to moderate the effectiveness of communication efforts should be explored. It is likely that the importance of moderating variables differs for public services as compared to consumer durables (e.g., toothbrushes), the focus of the majority of past research.

Finally, the use of communication efforts by public leisure service agencies should be considered. Studies undertaking a comparison of the perceptions and views of various groups (e.g., citizens, elected officials, funding agencies, and agency staff and management), as it relates to "promoting public leisure services," is an important undertaking.

5.6 Concluding Remarks

There is a danger in staying with the status quo for communications efforts. Public leisure service agencies are faced with a number of obstacles that are not faced by, commercial organisations. Perhaps the most hindering is the tight financial restraints imposed on these agencies (Glover, 1999). Further, the public is often distrustful of promotion by public service agencies, including leisure service agencies (Johnson Tew et al., 1999). Despite these obstacles, public leisure service agencies must stop viewing promotion (i.e., communication efforts) as a cost and start viewing it as an investment. Until we do this, our efforts to communicate with citizens will be inadequate at best and wasted at worst.

Public leisure service agencies, as part of their mandate, often attempt to serve markets that are unresponsive (e.g., Johnson Tew et al., 1999; Schultz, McAvoy, & Dustin, 1988). Reaching these markets cannot be accomplished through the use of undifferentiated communication strategies (i.e., seasonal programme brochures).

Undifferentiated strategies do not encourage unresponsive markets to process (i.e., read) the information which they contain; a key variable in encouraging participation. However, despite the obstacles faced by public leisure service agencies, there are a number of changes that can be made to distance ourselves from the status quo and to begin to serve a greater percentage of citizens at a higher level.

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Appendix A: Glossary of Terms

4-C's
- customer value, cost to the consumer, convenience, communication

4-P's
- product/service, price, place (distribution), promotion

Advertising
- "any paid form of nonpersonal presentation and promotion of ideas, goods, or services by an identified sponsor" (Kotler et al., p. 1999)

Advertising Execution Involvement (AEI)
- effort an individual puts into process the non-message aspects of the communication effort

Advertising Message Involvement (AMI)
- an individual's level of involvement with the content of a communication effort

Attitude toward the Advertisement (A_{ad})
- an individual's feelings about the communication effort itself (i.e., executional elements) and the content (i.e., message, arguements)
- concept was developed in the advertising literature (e.g., Mitchell & Olson, 1981; Shimp, 1981) however it can be applied to the entire range of an organisation's communication efforts (e.g., attitude toward the sales presentation)

Attitude toward the Brand (A_B)
- what an individuals thinks and feels about a product, service, issue, event, etc.
- does not refer to a category of, for example, product (e.g., swimsuits) but refers to a specific product (e.g., attitude toward a Nike swimsuit, attitude toward a Body Glove swimsuit)
- pre-exposure attitude toward the brand (pre-exposure A_B) is the attitude an individual holds before processing an organisation's communication effort(s)
- post-exposure attitude toward the brand (post-exposureA_B) is the attitude an individual holds after processing an organisation's communication effort(s)
- post-behaviour attitude toward the brand (post-behaviour A_B) is the attitude an individuals holds after performing a behaviour

Communication Effect
- action caused by communication (Rossiter & Percy, 1987).
- these actions include category need, brand awareness, brand attitude, brand purchase intention, and purchase facilitation. Actual behaviour is a result of communication effects and will not occur without the communication effects
- for example, an individual may hear an advertisement on the radio from a sports shop located at 123 Any St. that sells CCM bicycles. This information will elicit a category need (e.g., I need a new bike), a brand attitude (e.g., CCM makes a good bike), brand

purchase intention (e.g., I will go to the sports shop to buy a bicycle tomorrow), and purchase facilitation (e.g., The advertisement said the store is located at 123 Any St. and is open from 9-5 tomorrow).

Communication Effort

- the *sum* of all of the organisation's activities that are visible to the individual (adapted from Crompton & Lamb, 1986)
- includes traditional promotional efforts (e.g., advertising, personal sales) and more non-traditional promotional efforts (e.g., training manuals, signage)

Content Items

- those aspects of a communication effort that are message related (e.g., price, persuasive message, where to purchase)

Executional Elements

- those aspects of a communication effort that are not message content (e.g., colour, pictures, background music)

Appendix B: Persuasive Messages

Persuasive Message One:
Homecoming, it'll be a blast! Don't get left in the cold!

Persuasive Message Two:
Homecoming! It'll be a blast! This is your school, stand up and be counted!

Persuasive Message Three:
You enjoyed it then, experience it again. Froshweek, relive the moment in Homecoming!

Persuasive Message Four:
Homecoming! You are Waterloo and Waterloo is you! Show your pride!

Persuasive Message Five:
If you don't go to Homecoming, you might as well go to Western!

Persuasive Message Six:
What do Einstein, Julia Roberts, Wayne Gretzsky, & Bill Gates all have in common? None of them would miss Homecoming!

Persuasive Message Seven:
Hope to see you at Homecoming!

Appendix C: Questionnaire for Persuasive Messages

I am interested in your impressions about following statements. Please read each one carefully and answer the questions that follow by checking the box that most closely reflects your feeling about the statement. I have also left additional space for you to make comments, if you want.

[*insert persuasive message here; repeat for each message*]

To me this message is:

Unlikeable	❒	❒	❒	❒	❒	Likeable
Persuasive	❒	❒	❒	❒	❒	Not Persuasive
Believable	❒	❒	❒	❒	❒	Unbelievable
Uninteresting	❒	❒	❒	❒	❒	Interesting
Unappealing	❒	❒	❒	❒	❒	Appealing

Based on this message, I would be:

More likely	❒	❒	❒	❒	❒	Less likely

to attend Homecoming.

Additional Comments:

Appendix D: Treatment One

Big Rude Jake

At Fed Hall on Friday, November 12 at 10:00pm (Doors open at 8pm)

BIG RUDE JAKE (a UW alumni) started out in Toronto some nine years ago, playing his brand of jazzy-jump-blues and cabaret-inspired tunes long before anyone ever heard of the new "Swing" movement.



BIG RUDE JAKE, singer-songwriter; band leader; blues shouter; pop-culture philosopher and highly opinionated loud-mouth.

Tickets: $6 for UW Students & Alumni and $8 for others; call 888-4567 x4042 for tickets and information

Yates Cup

★ If Waterloo wins their next few games, the Yates Cup will be hosted by the University of Waterloo on Saturday, November 13 at 1:00pm in Seagram Stadium

THE RECORD

presents

NAISMITH CLASSIC

★ the Naismith Classic is the University of Waterloo's annual basketball tournament
★ this year it features teams from Ontario, Michigan and Pittsburgh.
★ The Warriors play Friday and Saturday night at 8:00 pm in the PAC
★ Adults $7; Students and Seniors $4; Free to UW students & season ticket holders; tournament passes available
★ www.athletics.uwaterloo.ca

Naismith Classic Banner Competition

★ Design a banner (at least 4 feet long) supporting the UW Warriors
★ There is no need to sign up. Just show up at the Saturday game with your banner and "team" (up to 12 people).
★ the winning team will receives a VIP table with free food and drinks at Fed Hall on Saturday, November, 13

Frosh Week Restoration and Alumni Extravaganza

★ You enjoyed it then, experience it again. Froshweek, relive the moment in Homecoming!
★ Saturday, November 13 at Fed Hall
★ Doors open at 8pm
★ Cost is $3.00 for students and alumni, $5.00 for others; get tickets at the door
★ Retro Music

Corel AHS 5k Fun Run



★ November 13 in the BMH Foyer
★ Registration 9:30am
★ Free for AHS students, staff, and faculty
★ $6.00 for others
★ Participate or volunteer
★ www.ahs.uwaterloo.ca/funrun

Homecoming Guest Speaker

★ Wade Davis, Ph.D.
★ "Extinction or Survival: The Global Crisis of Diversity"
★ November 12 at 8pm in Hagey Hall
★ Admission is $15.00
★ Book signing will follow the lecture

What's happening for Homecoming this year . . .

Friday, November 12
7:30pm
★Naismith Classic

8:00pm
★Big Rude Jake

8:00pm
★Homecoming Guest Speaker

Saturday, November 13
9:30am
★Corel AHS 5k Fun Run

1:00pm
★Yates Cup (if Waterloo wins!)

7:30pm
★Naismith Classic
★Banner Competition

8:00pm
★Frosh Week Restoration and Alumni Extravaganza

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and

University of Waterloo

For more information please visit:

www.ahs.uwaterloo.ca/~cpjohnso

UNIVERSITY OF WATERLOO

HOMECOMING 1999

November 12-14

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Appendix E: Treatment Two

If you don't go to Homecoming, you might as well go to Western!

Big Rude Jake

At Fed Hall on Friday, November 12 at 10:00pm (Doors open at 8pm)

BIG RUDE JAKE (a UW alumni) started out in Toronto some nine years ago, playing his brand of jazzy-jump-blues and cabaret-inspired tunes long before anyone ever heard of the new "Swing" movement.



BIG RUDE JAKE, singer-songwriter; band leader; blues shouter; pop-culture philosopher and highly opinionated loud-mouth.

Tickets: $6 for UW Students & Alumni and $8 for others; call 888-4567 x4042 for tickets and information

Yates Cup

★ If Waterloo wins their next few games, the Yates Cup will be hosted by the University of Waterloo on Saturday, November 13 at 1:00pm in Seagram Stadium

THE RECORD

presents



★ the Naismith Classic is the University of Waterloo's annual basketball tournament
★ this year it features teams from Ontario, Michigan and Pittsburgh.
★ The Warriors play Friday and Saturday night at 8:00 pm in the PAC
★ Adults $7; Students and Seniors $4; Free to UW students & season ticket holders; tournament passes available
★ www.athletics.uwaterloo.ca

Naismith Classic Banner Competition

★ Design a banner (at least 4 feet long) supporting the UW Warriors
★ There is no need to sign up. Just show up at the Saturday game with your banner and "team" (up to 12 people).
★ the winning team will receives a VIP table with free food and drinks at Fed Hall on Saturday, November, 13

Frosh Week Restoration and Alumni Extravaganza

★ You enjoyed it then, experience it again. Froshweek, relive the moment in Homecoming!
★ Saturday, November 13 at Fed Hall
★ Doors open at 8pm
★ Cost is $3.00 for students and alumni, $5.00 for others; get tickets at the door
★ Retro Music

Corel AHS 5k Fun Run



★ November 13 in the BMH Foyer
★ Registration 9:30am
★ Free for AHS students, staff, and faculty
★ $6.00 for others
★ Participate or volunteer
★ www.ahs.uwaterloo.ca/funrun

Homecoming Guest Speaker

★ Wade Davis, Ph.D.
★ "Extinction or Survival: The Global Crisis of Diversity"
★ November 12 at 8pm in Hagey Hall
★ Admission is $15.00
★ Book signing will follow the lecture

Homecoming! It'll be a blast! This is your school, stand up and be counted!

What's happening for Homecoming this year . . .

Friday, November 12
7:30pm
★Naismith Classic

8:00pm
★Big Rude Jake

8:00pm
★Homecoming Guest Speaker

Saturday, November 13
9:30am
★Corel AHS 5k Fun Run

1:00pm
★Yates Cup (if Waterloo wins!)

7:30pm
★Naismith Classic
★Banner Competition

8:00pm
★Frosh Week Restoration and Alumni Extravaganza

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For more information please visit:

www.ahs.uwaterloo.ca/~cpjohnso

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HOMECOMING 1999

November 12-14

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Appendix F: Treatment Three

University of Waterloo Homecoming 1999

November 12-14

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What's happening for Homecoming this year

University of Waterloo

Friday, November 12

- 7:30 p.m. Naismith Classic
- 8:00 p.m. Big Rude Jake
- 8:00 p.m. Homecoming Guest Speaker

Saturday, November 13

- 9:30 a.m. Corel AHS 5K Fun Run
- 1:00 p.m. Yates Cup (if Waterloo wins!)
- 7:30 p.m. Naismith Classic
  Banner Competition
- 8:00 p.m. Frosh Week Restoration and Alumni Extravaganza

---

presents

The Naismith Classic Basketball Tournament is the University of Waterloo's annual basketball tournament.

The 32nd Naismith Classic features teams from Ontario, Michigan, and Pennsylvania.

Warriors' Schedule

- Friday, November 12 versus Point Park College at 8pm in the PAC
- Saturday, November 13 versus Consolation of Semi-Final of Games 3 & 4 at 8pm in the PAC

Ticket Information:

Admission per 2 games session:	
Adults	$7.00
Students (12 +)	$4.00
Seniors (65+)	$4.00
Tournament Pass:	
Adults	$20.00
Students (12+)	$15.00
Seniors (65+)	$15.00



FREE Entry For: UW Students with Valid W[illegible] UW [illegible]
Ticket Holders and Children 11 and under.

For Information Call: 888-4567 Ext. 5869 or visit www.athletics.uwaterloo.ca

Return to the Homecoming Schedule

FEDS
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University of Waterloo

Big Rude Jake

University of Waterloo



The Federation of Students is proud to present Big Rude Jake at Fed Hall on Friday, November 12, 1999 at 10pm, doors open at 8pm.

BIG RUDE JAKE (a UW alumni) started out in Toronto some nine years ago, playing his brand of jazzy-jump-blues and cabaret-inspired tunes long before anyone ever heard of the new "Swing" movement.

BIG RUDE JAKE, singer-songwriter; band leader; blues shouter; pop-culture philosopher and highly opinionated loud-mouth.

Tickets are only $6 for University of Waterloo students and alumni and $8 for others

Tickets can be purchased at the Federation of Students Offices in the Student Life Centre

For more information about BIG RUDE JAKE, visit www.bigrudejake.com

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Return to the Homecoming Schedule

Homecoming Guest Speaker

University of Waterloo



Harvard-trained cultural anthropologist, ethnobotanist, and photographer, Wade Davis explores and documents the diversity of various cultures and their relationship to their landscape - from the high Arctic and northern forests to the swamps of the Orinoco.

His Book "One River: Explorations and Discoveries in the Amazon Rainforest" was nominated for the 1997 Governor General's Literary Award for Non-Fiction. His Discovery Channel program "Earthguide: A Consumer's Guide to Saving the Planet" received critical acclaim.

He is best known for "The Serpent and the Rainbow", an investigation into the Voodoo culture of Haiti; later made into a movie of the same name.

Hagey Hall, Humanities Theatre
Book Signing to Follow
Saturday, November 12 at 8:00 pm $15.00

Return to the Homecoming Schedule



Corel AHS 5K Fun Run

University of Waterloo

- November 13 in the BMH Foyer
- Registration 9:30am
- Free for AHS students, staff, and faculty
- $6.00 for others
- Participate or volunteer
- http://www.ahs.uwaterloo.ca/funrun



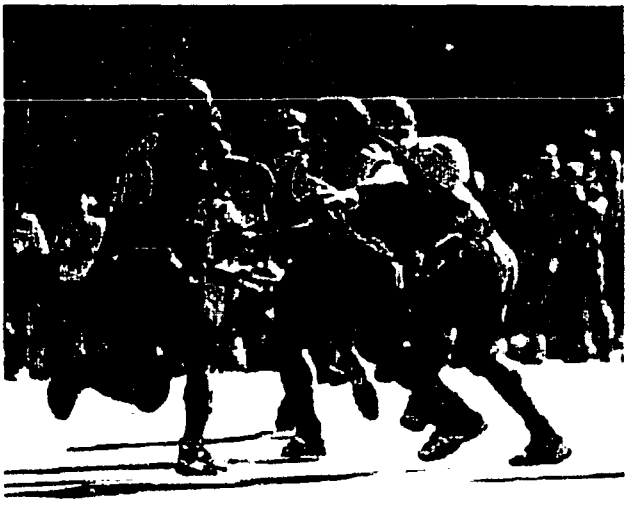
Return to the Homecoming Schedule

Yates Cup

University of Waterloo

If the Waterloo Warriors Football team wins their next few games, the Yates Cup will be hosted by the University of Waterloo. The game, if we host it, will take place on Saturday, November 13 at approximately 1pm in the Seagram Stadium.

Stay tuned!



Return to the Homecoming Schedule

FEDS
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University of Waterloo

Banner Competition

University of Waterloo



Design a banner that supports the University of Waterloo Warriors and you could win a VIP table with free food and drinks at Fed Hall on Saturday night.

There is no need to sign up. Just show up at the game with your banner and your team.

The winner of the Naismith Classic Banner Competition will be announced at half-time.

Just remember:

- banners must be at least four feet long
- banners should support the Warriors
- up to 12 people can be on the team

For more information, contact the Federation of Students at 886-4567 x4042

Return to the Homecoming Schedule

FEDS
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University of Waterloo

Frosh Week Restoration

University of Waterloo



- You enjoyed it then, experience again. Froshweek, relive the moment in Homecoming!
- Saturday, November 13 at Fed Hall
- Doors open at 8 p.m.
- Cost is $3.00 for students and alumni, $5.00 for others
- Retro Music

Tickets at the door

Return to the Homecoming Schedule

Appendix G: Treatment Four

- Hi! My name is Michelle Hillier, I'm the special events co-ordinator for the Federation of Students here at the University of Waterloo. I just want to take a few minutes to tell you about what we have scheduled for Homecoming this year. We have a lot of exciting events this year so you should plan to be there.

- On Friday, November 12th, Waterloo is hosting the Naismith Classic Basketball Tournament. This is Waterloo's annual basketball tournament. In fact, this is the 32nd year we are holding it. This year, teams from Ontario, Michigan, and Pennsylvania are coming to play. Tickets are free to UW students if you have a valid Watcard and the game starts at 7:30. So, come on out and cheer on the Warriors.

- For those of you who are not into sports, we have Big Rude Jake coming to play Fed Hall on Friday the 12th. Doors open at 8pm and Big Rude Jake goes on at 10. If you haven't heard Big Rude Jake you are in for a treat. He describes himself as a singer-songwriter, band leader, blues shouter, pop-culture philosopher, and highly opinionated loud-mouth. He plays jazzy-jumpy-blues and cabaret-inspired tunes. In fact, he is even a Waterloo alumni! So, if you don't go to the basketball game, be sure to catch Big Rude Jake at Fed Hall! Tickets are only $6 for students.

- Now, if basketball or blues aren't your style, you can always catch Homecoming's guest speaker at Hagey Hall on the Friday night. University of Waterloo is proud to bring you Wade Davis. You may have heard of him, he wrote "The Serpent and the Rainbow" which was later made into a movie. It's about the Voodoo culture in Haiti. Wade Davis is a Harvard-trained cultural anthropologist, ethnobotanist, and photographer. His main interest is in studying the diversity of various cultures and their relationship to their landscapes. He has even won the Governor General's Literary Award. So, 8pm at Hagey Hall on Friday the 12th – there's a book signing that follows the lecture.

- If you're in the mood for a little exercise, the annual Corel AHS 5k fun run is being held on the morning of November 13th, that's the Saturday. This annual run is a race around ring road. Registration starts at 9:30. If you like running or walking or rollarblading you won't want to miss this event. It's free for AHS students and only costs $6 for everyone else. What's best is that everyone gets a prize! Remember, that's the morning of November 13th, plan to be there.

- Now here's something that doesn't happen very often. If the Waterloo Warriors win their next few football games, UW will be hosting the Yates Cup. Yes, that's right, the Yates Cup. The football game, if we make it, will be held at 1pm on the 13th at Seagram's Stadium. We won't know for a couple of weeks if we actually get to host the Yates Cup but if we do, you won't want to miss it. Stay tuned for more information. Remember, that's 1pm on November 13th.

- Also on Saturday the 13th, the second half of the Naismith Basketball Tournament will be held starting at 7:30pm. Now, in conjunction with this we are holding a Banner Competition. All you need to do to participate is design a banner that supports the UW Warriors. There is no need to sign up, just show up at the game with your banner and you could win a VIP table at Fed Hall with free food and drinks all night. Yup, I said free. Now, your banner must be at least 4 feet long, it should support the Warriors, and up to 12 people can be on the team. The winner will be announced at half time so be listening. Remember, that's Saturday the 13th!

- After the basketball game, Fed Hall is playing host to a Froshweek Restoration and Alumni Extravaganza. You won't want to miss this. And even if you go to the basketball game, there is plenty of time to make it to the Froshweek Restoration at Fed Hall. The doors open at 8pm and the cost is only $3 for students and alumni. Fed Hall will be playing Retro Music all night, so be sure to be there.

- Well, that's what we have planned for Homecoming this year! Remember to mark November 12th and 13th on your calendars, you'll have a blast! I hope it all sounds fun and that you'll take the time come out for Homecoming. If anyone has any questions, the floor is yours.

Appendix H: General Survey Outline

Pre-Expsoure Questionnaire

- Commitment to the University of Waterloo
- Past Experience with Homecoming
- Involvement with Homecoming
- Subjective Norms
- Attitude Toward Homecoming
- Intent to Participate in One or More Homecoming Events and Activities

TREATMENT

Post-Exposure Questionnaire

- Recall of Communication Effort
- Attitude Toward the Communication Effort
- Attitude Toward Homecoming
- Intent to Participate in One or More Homecoming Events and Activities

HOMECOMING

Post-Event Questionnaire

- Recall of Communication Effort
- Participation in Homecoming
- Intent to Participate in Each Event
- Factors Leading to Decision to Participate or Factors Inhibiting Participation
- Attitude Toward Homecoming

Appendix I: Pre-Exposure Questionnaire

Introduction

There are five parts to this questionnaire. Instructions for filling out each part are provided at the beginning of each section. Remember, there are no "right" or "wrong" answers.

Part A

Please circle the number that most closely corresponds to how you feel about each statement.

	Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree
It would be difficult to change my beliefs about the University of Waterloo.	1	2	3	4	5
I prefer to attend the University of Waterloo because their image comes closest to reflecting my lifestyle.	1	2	3	4	5
My decision to attend the University of Waterloo was freely chosen from several alternatives.	1	2	3	4	5
I don't really know that much about the University of Waterloo.	1	2	3	4	5
To change my preference from the University of Waterloo would require major rethinking.	1	2	3	4	5
Attending the University of Waterloo reflects the kind of person I am.	1	2	3	4	5
I did not control the decision on whether to attend the University of Waterloo.	1	2	3	4	5
I am knowledgeable about the University of Waterloo.	1	2	3	4	5
I prefer to attend the University of Waterloo because their service makes me feel important	1	2	3	4	5
I am fully responsible for the decision to attend the University of Waterloo.	1	2	3	4	5
I consider myself to be an educated consumer regarding the University of Waterloo	1	2	3	4	5

Part B The next few sections refer to how you feel about Homecoming activities. Please complete all questions even if you have no interest in the University of Waterloo Homecoming.

1. How many times have you attended Homecoming at the University of Waterloo? ____ times

2. How may times have you attended Homecoming at another University or College? ____ times

Part C **For each of the following items, please put a checkmark in the box that most reflects how you feel about Homecoming.**

Important	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unimportant
Of no concern to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Of concern to me
Irrelevant	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Relevant
Means a lot to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Means nothing to me
Doesn't matter	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Matters to me
No Risk	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Risky
Easy to go wrong	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Hard to go wrong
Hard to pick	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Easy to pick
Appealing	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unappealing
Boring	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Interesting
Unexciting	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Exciting
Fun	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Not Fun
Says something about me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Says nothing about me
Good	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Bad
Dislike very much	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Like very much
Pleasant	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unpleasant

Part D **Please check the box that most closely corresponds to how you feel about each statement.**

1. My friends think I

Should ❒ ❒ ❒ ❒ ❒ Should Not

attend Homecoming this year.

2. Most of the people who are important to be think I

Should ❒ ❒ ❒ ❒ ❒ Should Not

attend Homecoming this year.

3. Typically, I like to do what my friends suggest I do.

Never ❒ ❒ ❒ ❒ ❒ Always

Part E

1. Do you know what events and activities will be part of Homecoming at the University of Waterloo this year? Please check only one response.

❒ YES

❒ NO

❒ Not sure

2. On a scale from 0 to 100, please estimate what the chances are that you will attend at lease one event or activity at the University of Waterloo's Homecoming in 1999. Zero (0) means you definitely WILL NOT attend and 100 means you definitely WILL attend.

The chances that I will attend at least one University of Waterloo Homecoming event or activity in 1999 are

_____ out of 100.

Part F

The following information is being collected for demographic purposes. This information will remain anonymous.

1. What are you majoring in at University (e.g., Accounting , Chemical Engineering, Computer Science, Recreation)?

   _____

2. What year are you in? _____

3. How old are you? _____

4. Do you live on or off campus? ❒ On Campus ❒ Off Campus

5. Are you male or female? ❒ Male ❒ Female

Thank-you, the research assistant will give you further instructions in a few moments. Please do not look ahead in the package.

Thank you for your time, the research assistant will give you further instructions in a few moments. (control group 1)

Appendix J: Pre-Exposure Questionnaire (modified)

The following information is being collected for demographic purposes only.

This information will remain anonymous.

1. What are you majoring in at University (e.g., Accounting , Chemical Engineering, Computer Science, Recreation)? _____

2. What year are you in? _____

3. How old are you? _____

4. Do you live on or off campus? ❒ On Campus ❒ Off Campus

5. Are you male or female? ❒ Male ❒ Female

Thank you for your time, the research assistant will give you further instructions in a few moments.

Appendix K: Post-Exposure Questionnaire

Introduction

There are four parts to this questionnaire. Instructions for filling out each part are provided at the beginning of each section. Remember, there are no "right" or "wrong" answers.

Part A **In the space below, please list everything you remember about the *[insert type of communication effort]* you reviewed. If you need more room, please use the back of this page.**

Part B

For each of the following items, please put a checkmark in the box that most reflects how you felt about the *[insert type of communication effort]* for Homecoming that you recently reviewed.

Interesting	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Not interesting
Bad	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Good
Irritating	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Not Irritating
Like	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Dislike

Part C **For each of the following items, please put a checkmark in the box that most reflects how you feel about Homecoming.**

Bad	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Good
Like very much	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Dislike very much
Pleasant	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Unpleasant

Part D **Please indicate what the chances are that you will attend, volunteer at, or participate in each of the following Homecoming events and activities where 0 means you definitely WILL NOT and 100 means that you definitely WILL attend, volunteer at, or participate.**

Participate in, watch, or volunteer at the Corel AHS Fun Run	_____ out of 100
Attend the Big Rude Jake Concert	_____ out of 100
Attend or volunteer at the Naismith Tournament	_____ out of 100
Participate in the "Banner Competition"	_____ out of 100
Attend the "Frosh Week Restoration"	_____ out of 100
Attend or volunteer at the Yates Cup (if it is held at Waterloo)	_____ out of 100
Attend the Homecoming "Guest Speaker Lecture" by Wade Davis	_____ out of 100

Thank you for taking the time to answer these questions. Remember to fill out the ballot for the prize draw and put it, along with the questionnaires, back in the envelope. Please put your Student ID number in the space provided on the front of the envelope. This is only for tracking purposes - your name or any other information **WILL NOT** *be matched to your ID number. If you have any questions please speak to the research assistant.*

Appendix L: Post-Event Questionnaire

Introduction
There are four parts to this questionnaire. Instructions for filling out each part are provided at the beginning of each section. Remember, there are no "right" or "wrong" answers.

Part A
For each of the following items, please put a checkmark in the box that most reflects how you feel about Homecoming.

Bad						Good
Like very much	❒	❒	❒	❒	❒	Dislike very much

Pleasant						Unpleasant

Part B
Briefly think back to the middle of last week (November 8th or 9th). For each of the following Homecoming events, please indicate if you planned to attend, volunteer at, or participate in each event *and* indicate if you actually did.

Please check a box in each row and each column.

Homecoming Event	Did you plan to go?	Did you go?
AHS Fun Run	❒ No ❒ Yes	❒ No ❒ Yes
Big Rude Lake Concert	❒ No ❒ Yes	❒ No ❒ Yes
Naismith Classic Basketball Tournament	❒ No ❒ Yes	❒ No ❒ Yes
Banner Competition at the Basketball Tournament	❒ No ❒ Yes	❒ No ❒ Yes
Frosh Week Restoration at Fed Hall	❒ No ❒ Yes	❒ No ❒ Yes
Yates Cup	❒ No ❒ Yes	❒ No ❒ Yes
Guest Lecture by Wade Davis "Extinction or Survival: The Global Crisis of Diversity"	❒ No ❒ Yes	❒ No ❒ Yes

If you **did** attend, volunteer at, or participate in at one or more events please fill out the **blue** sheet.

If you **did not** attend, volunteer at, or participate in any events please fill out the **yellow** sheet.

*Please fill out this part if you **did** attend, volunteer at, or participate in one or more Homecoming events or activities. If you did not attend please fill out the yellow sheet.*

Part C

Which of the following ten factors led to your decision to attend, volunteer at, or participate in Homecoming events and activities last weekend? Please distribute 100% among the responses and ensure your total equals 100 (please refer to the example provided for further clarification).

_____ I attended Homecoming last year
_____ My friends were going
_____ Newspaper Ad (Imprint or Gazette)
_____ Website
_____ Formal Presentation by Michelle Hillier
_____ Brochure/Pamphlet
_____ Poster
_____ Signs and Banners on Campus
_____ Information Booth in the SLC
_____ Other (Please specify) _____

100 TOTAL

Example:

10 I attended Homecoming last year
10 My friends were going
0 Newspaper Ad (Imprint or Gazette)
0 Website
0 Formal Presentation by Michelle Hillier
50 Brochure/Pamphlet
10 Poster
0 Signs and Banners on Campus
20 Information Booth in the SLC
0 Other (Please Specify) _____

100 TOTAL

Part D *Everyone* should fill out this part *except* for those who received the pink questionnaires (yellow sticker) last time.

Approximately two weeks ago some of you reviewed a promotion for Homecoming. Please list everything you remember about that promotion in the space below. Please use the back of this sheet if you require additional space.

Thank you for taking the time to answer these questions. Remember to fill out the ballot for the prize draw and put it, along with the questionnaire, back in the envelope. Please put your Student ID number in the space provided on the front of the envelope. This is only for tracking purposes - your name or any other information **WILL NOT** be matched to your ID number. If you have any questions please speak to the research assistant.

*Please fill out this part if you **did not** attend, volunteer at, or participate in one or more Homecoming events or activities. If you did please fill out the blue sheet.*

Part C

If you **did not** attend, volunteer at, or participate in any Homecoming events or activities last weekend, can you please tell us why? Please check **all** that apply.

- ❒ I was sick
- ❒ None of my friends were going
- ❒ I didn't know about it
- ❒ I forgot about it
- ❒ I couldn't get tickets
- ❒ None of the events or activities appealed to me
- ❒ Homecoming is not my style
- ❒ I had too much school work to finish
- ❒ I was studying
- ❒ Other (please specify)

_____

Part D *Everyone* should fill out this part *except* for those who received the pink questionnaires (yellow sticker) last time.

Approximately two weeks ago some of you reviewed a promotion for Homecoming. Please list everything you remember about that promotion in the space below. Please use the back of this sheet if you require additional space.

Thank you for taking the time to answer these questions. Remember to fill out the ballot for the prize draw and put it, along with the questionnaire, back in the envelope. Please put your Student ID number in the space provided on the front of the envelope. This is only for tracking purposes - your name or any other information **WILL NOT** be matched to your ID number. If you have any questions please speak to the research assistant.

Appendix M: Script for Phase One

Instructions for Study Assistants

For all:

[research assistants hand out envelopes while Paula introduces study]

Hi, my name is Paula Johnson Tew. I am PhD candidate in the department of Recreation and Leisure Studies. Dr. [*insert professor's name*] has agreed to let me use part of your class for a study that I am conducting. It will only take about twenty minutes of your time so I hope everyone will agree to stay and help me out. I would really appreciate it. Now remember, participation is strictly voluntary and you may stop participating at anytime during the study. Now, those of you who don't want to stay, please see [name of research assistant] at the back of the room, they have some important information for you.

[wait a few moments while non-participators leave]

Thank you so much for agreeing to help me out with my study. I really appreciate it. Now, everyone was handed an envelope. Please don't open it yet. On the front you will see a coloured sticker. In a few minutes I am going to ask some of you to meet one of my research assistants in the back of the class so they can take you to another room.

[put up overhead with colours, meeting locations, and names of research assistants]

Those of you who have an orange sticker on the front of your envelope, please meet [*insert name of research assistant*] in the back left corner. Those of you who have a blue sticker, please meet [*insert name of research assistant*] in the back right corner of the room. Those of you who have yellow stickers, please meet [*insert name of research assistant*] here at the front and those of you who have blue or green sticker, well, you get to stay here. If anyone has any questions, please let me know. Otherwise we can get started. Just meet the research assistant who is assigned to your sticker colour, if you have any questions or can't remember where to go, just ask.

For EG1, EG2:

[wait for other groups to leave]

Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in this study. My name is [give name]. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to ask.

Now, this should only take about 15 or 20 minutes however, some of you may finish earlier than others. There are basically three parts to this part of the study. I will explain these as we go along.

Please open the envelope and pull out the package of papers and remain on the page we are discussing. Please do not look ahead or back in the package.

On the top should be a short information letter that looks like this.

[hold up letter]

Paula went over some of this but if you'll just read it quickly and let me know if you have any questions.

[wait for questions]

Next in the package you should find a questionnaire that looks like this [hold up copy of pre-exposure questionnaire]. Please take a few minutes to fill this out. Once you have finished you can put it back in the envelope and please do not look forward in the package. I will give further directions when everyone has finished filling it out.

[wait for the students to complete questionnaire]

Next in your package you will find a brochure that looks like this [hold up the brochure]. Please take a look at it.

[wait while the look at the brochure]

Does anyone have any questions? There is one more questionnaire that we would like you to compete. Before you do so, please put the brochure underneath the envelope or somewhere you cannot see it. The next questionnaire in your package looks like this.

[hold up post-exposure questionnaire]

Please take a few minutes to complete the questions then put it back in the envelope. You may take the letter and brochure home it you want. Don't forget to fill out the ballots for the draw and put them in envelope. When you are finished, please write your student ID# on the outside of the envelope and bring it up to me.

WHEN STUDENTS BRING THE COMPLETED PACKAGES TO YOU ENSURE THAT THEY HAVE PUT THEIR STUDENT ID NUMBER ON THE FRONT AND THANK THEM "*VERY MUCH*" FOR THEIR HELP

If they ask, the ID numbers are for tracking purposes only and will not be linked to their questionnaire. If they still have questions please tell them to speak to Paula or Mark Havitz

For EG3:

Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in this study. My name is [give name]. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to ask.

We will be going to room [give room number] for our part of the study so if you don't mind, you can follow me.

[arrive in the room]

If you can all have a seat at one of the terminals we will get started. Actually, while I am explaining the first part of the study could you please log onto the computer. Your Polaris account will work here.

[if there are more people than terminals they can double up but this should not happen]

Now, this should only take about 15 or 20 minutes however, some of you may finish earlier than others. There are basically three parts to this part of the study. I will explain these as we go along.

Please open the envelope and pull out the package of papers and remain on the page we are discussing. Please do not look ahead or back in the package.

On the top should be a short information letter that looks like this.

[hold up letter]

Paula went over some of this but if you'll just read it quickly and let me know if you have any questions.

[wait for questions]

Next in the package you should find a questionnaire that looks like this [hold up copy of pre-exposure questionnaire]. Please take a few minutes to fill this out. Once you have finished you can put it back in the envelope and please do not look forward in the package. I will give further directions when everyone has finished filling it out.

[wait for the students to complete questionnaire]

For the next part of the study you will be looking at a website. The address of the site can be found on the green page that looks like this.

[waiting page] [the address is www.ahs.uwaterloo.ca/~cpjohnso]

After you have found the site please take a look at it. You can spend as much or as little time exploring the website as you like. When you have finished please log off the computer. If

you have any questions or if you are having trouble logging on or finding the site let me know.

[when everyone appears to be done go on to the final stage]

Before we go on I have a few things that Dr. [*insert professor's name*] wanted me to tell you.

[clutter]

Does anyone have any questions? There is one more questionnaire that we would like you to compete. Before you do so, make sure that you are logged off of the computer. The next questionnaire in your package looks like this

[hold up post-exposure questionnaire]

Please take a few minutes to complete the questions then put it back in the envelope. You may take the letter home it you want. Don't forget to fill out the ballots for the draw and put them in envelope. When you are finished, please write your student ID# on the outside of the envelope and bring it up to me.

WHEN STUDENTS BRING THE COMPLETED PACKAGES TO YOU ENSURE THAT THEY HAVE PUT THEIR STUDENT ID NUMBER ON THE FRONT AND THANK THEM "*VERY MUCH*" FOR THEIR HELP

If they ask, the ID numbers are for tracking purposes only and will not be linked to their questionnaire. If they still have questions please tell them to speak to Paula or Mark Havitz

For EG4:

Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in this study. My name is [give name]. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to ask.

We will be going to room [give room number] for our part of the study so if you don't mind, you can follow me.

[arrive in the room]

If you can all have a seat we will get started. Now, this should only take about 15 or 20 minutes however, some of you may finish earlier than others. There are basically three parts to this part of the study. I will explain these as we go along.

Please open the envelope and pull out the package of papers and remain on the page we are discussing. Please do not look ahead or back in the package.

On the top should be a short information letter that looks like this.

[hold up letter]

Paula went over some of this but if you'll just read it quickly and let me know if you have any questions.

[wait for questions]

Next in the package you should find a questionnaire that looks like this [hold up copy of pre-exposure questionnaire]. Please take a few minutes to fill this out. Once you have finished you can put it back in the envelope and please do not look forward in the package. I will give further directions when everyone has finished filling it out.

[wait for the students to complete questionnaire]

Next in your package you will find a brochure that looks like this [hold up the brochure]. Please take a look at it. While you are doing so I would like to introduce Michelle Hillier from the Federation of Students.

[Michelle will talk about Homecoming for about 5 to 7 minutes and will ask if there are any questions. When she is finished answering the questions. . .]

Thanks a lot Michelle. Before we go on I have a few things that Dr. [*insert name of professor*] wanted me to tell you.

[clutter]

Does anyone have any questions? There is one more questionnaire that we would like you to compete. Before you do so, please put the brochure underneath the envelope or somewhere you cannot see it. The next questionnaire in your package looks like this.

[hold up post-exposure questionnaire]

Please take a few minutes to complete the questions then put it back in the envelope. You may take the letter and brochure home it you want. Don't forget to fill out the ballots for the draw and put them in envelope. When you are finished, please write your student ID# on the outside of the envelope and bring it up to me.

WHEN STUDENTS BRING THE COMPLETED PACKAGES TO YOU ENSURE THAT THEY HAVE PUT THEIR STUDENT ID NUMBER ON THE FRONT AND THANK THEM "*VERY MUCH*" FOR THEIR HELP

If they ask, the ID numbers are for tracking purposes only and will not be linked to their questionnaire. If they still have questions please tell them to speak to Paula or Mark Havitz

For CG1 and CG2:

Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in this study. My name is [give name]. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to ask.

We will be going to room [give room number] for our part of the study so if you don't mind, you can follow me.

[arrive in the room]

If you can all have a seat we will get started. Now, this should only take about 15 or 20 minutes however, some of you may finish earlier than others. There are basically three parts to this part of the study. I will explain these as we go along.

Please open the envelope and pull out the package of papers and remain on the page we are discussing. Please do not look ahead or back in the package.

On the top should be a short information letter that looks like this.

[hold up letter]

Paula went over some of this but if you'll just read it quickly and let me know if you have any questions.

[wait for questions]

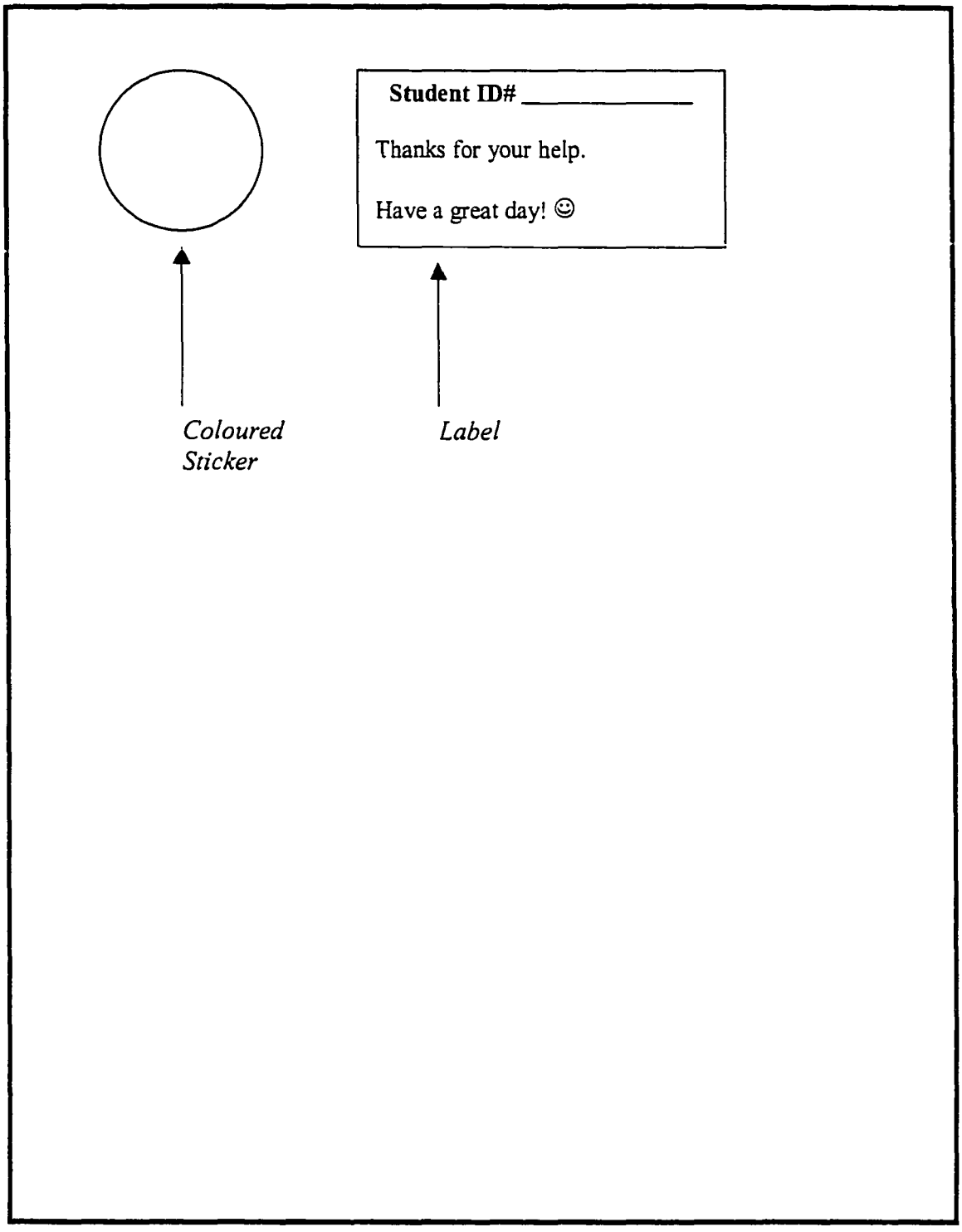
Next in the package you will find a questionnaire that looks like this [hold up pre-exposure questionnaire] or like this [hold up modified version]

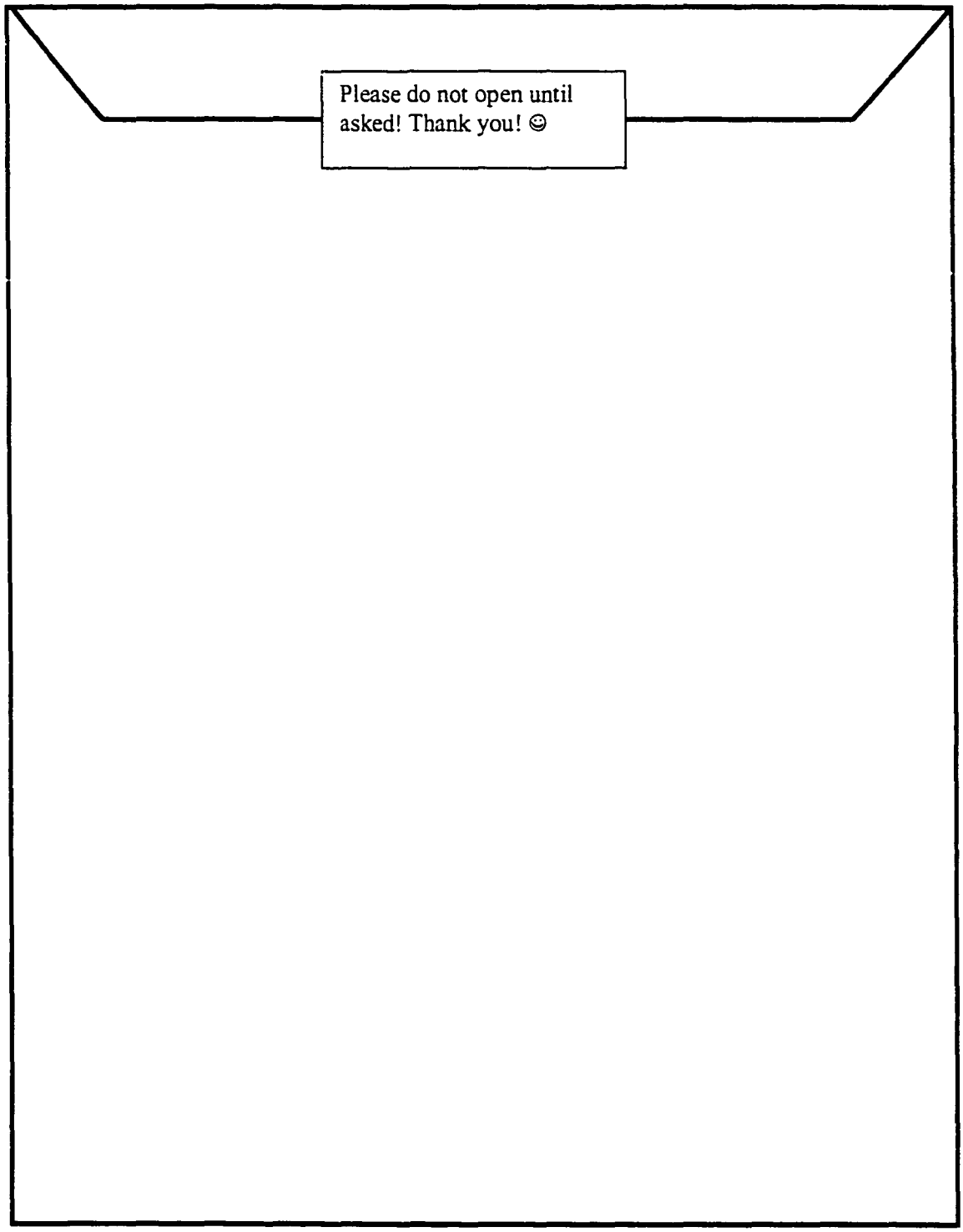
Please take a few minutes to complete the questions then put it back in the envelope. You may take the letter and brochure home it you want. Don't forget to fill out the ballots for the draw and put them in envelope. When you are finished, please write your student ID# on the outside of the envelope and bring it up to me.

WHEN STUDENTS BRING THE COMPLETED PACKAGES TO YOU ENSURE THAT THEY HAVE PUT THEIR STUDENT ID NUMBER ON THE FRONT AND THANK THEM "*VERY MUCH*" FOR THEIR HELP

If they ask, the ID numbers are for tracking purposes only and will not be linked to their questionnaire. If they still have questions please tell them to speak to Paula or Mark Havitz

Appendix N: Envelope for Phase One




Please do not open until
asked! Thank you! ☺

Appendix O: Information Letter

University of Waterloo

Waterloo, Ontario, Canada
N2L 3G1

Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies
519/885-1211

Fax: 519/746-6776
Telex: 069-55259

The main purpose of this research study is to investigate consumers' responses to an organisation's communication efforts (e.g., promotion, advertising). The underlying objective of the study is to determine the relative effectiveness of different methods of communicating with consumers and potential consumers of recreation and leisure programmes.

This study is being conducted by Paula Johnson Tew, a Ph.D. candidate in the Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies at the University of Waterloo, under the supervision of Dr. Mark Havitz. There are two stages to the study. The first stage, which will be completed today, consists of two questionnaires. The second stage will occur after Homecoming is completed and involves completing a short questionnaire.

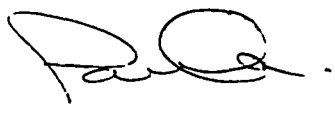
The information collected during the study will be used to determine the relative effectiveness of the communication efforts. You will be asked questions about your attitude toward Homecoming, your reactions to events portrayed in the communication effort, the communication effort itself, and your intent to participate in the events and activities.

You are not obligated to respond to any questions with which you are uncomfortable. Consent to participate, or for the use of the information you provided during the study, may be withdrawn at any time by indicating this to the researcher or one of her assistants.

This study has been reviewed, and received ethics approval, through the Office of Human Research at the University of Waterloo. Any comments or concerns about the study or your participation in it may be directed to this office at 888-4567, ext. 6005.

Thank you in advance for your assistance with this study. If you have any questions, please feel free to discuss them with Paula in person or at 888-4567, ext. 3894, or to contact Professor Mark Havitz at 888-4567, ext. 3013.

Thank you,



Appendix P: Ballot for Random Draw

[printed on pink paper]

Ballot for Random Draw

Name:

Class:

Phone Number Where You Can Be Reached:

Appendix Q: Waiting Page for EG1, EG2, EG4

Please wait for further instructions before proceeding!

Thank you.

If you have questions about the study, please ask the research assistant.

They will be happy to answer any questions you might have.

Appendix R: Waiting Page for EG3

Please wait for further instructions before proceeding!

Thank you.

If you have questions about the study, please ask the research assistant.

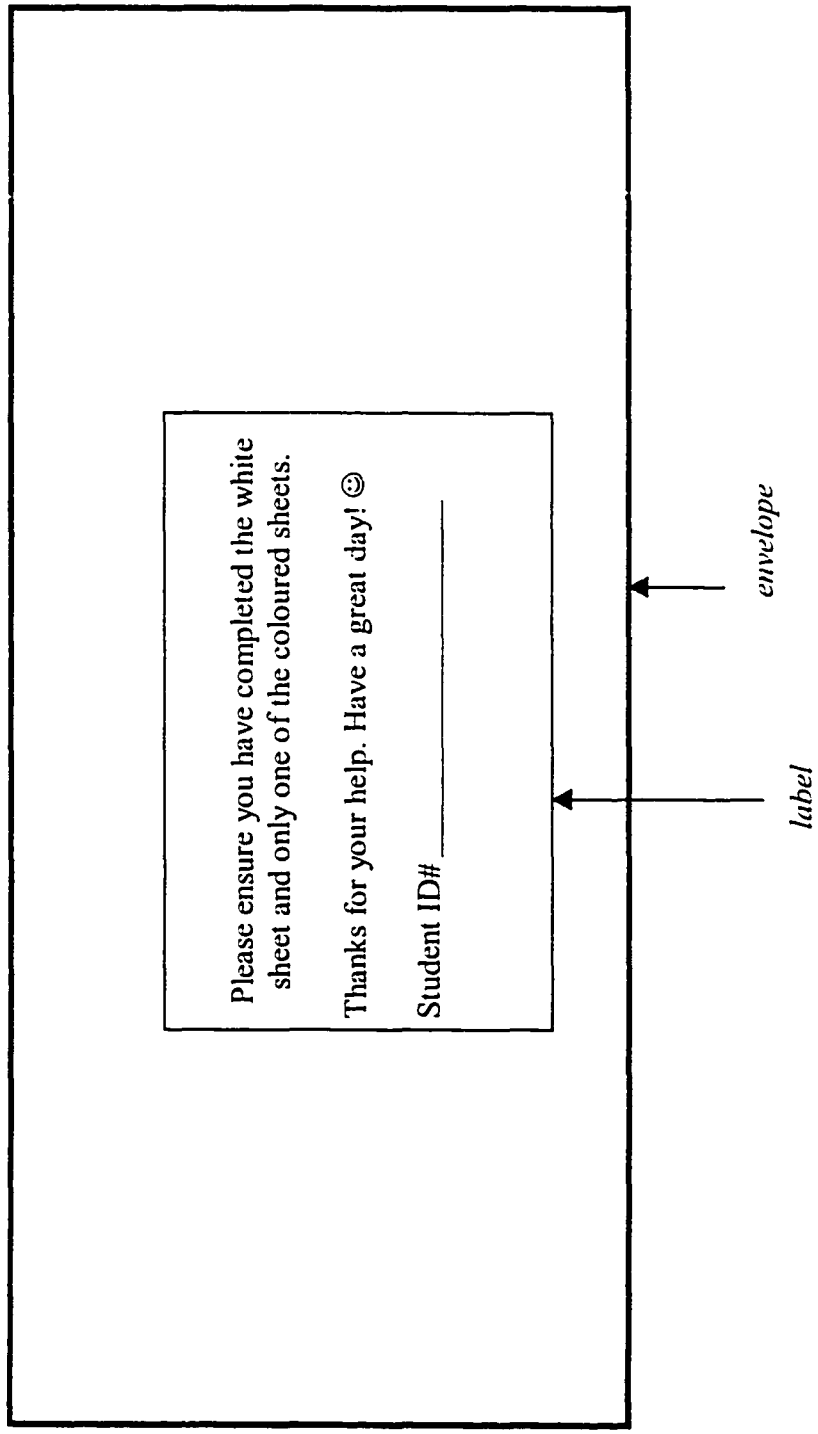
They will be happy to answer any questions you might have.

www.ahs.uwaterloo.ca/~cpjohnso

Appendix S: Script for Phase Two

Hello. I just wanted to say thanks again to everyone who participated in my study. Your assistance is greatly appreciated. It's now time for the second phase of my study. [Insert name of research assistant] is passing around an envelope with a questionnaire inside. If you participated last time please take a few minutes to fill it out. If you didn't participate, you don't need to bother completing it. Everyone should complete the white sheet and only one of the coloured sheets. So, if attended Homecoming, please fill in the yellow sheet and if you didn't go to Homecoming, please fill in the blue sheet. If you have any questions let me know. When you are all done, please put the questionnaire back into the envelope and remember to fill out the ballots for the prize draw and put your ID number on the front of the envelope. I'll be drawing names early next week and will get in touch with you in class or by phone if you win. Thanks again for all your help.

Appendix T: Envelope for Phase Two



Appendix U: Recall Items

Recall Items for Brochures (EG1 and EG2)

Executional Elements

- Colour of paper (goldenrod)
- Black graphics
- Black text
- Various font sizes
- Font all the same style
- Three-fold style
- Printed both sides
- Bullets
- Use of index

Content

- Front
  - University of Waterloo
  - Homecoming, 1999
  - Date (November 12-14)
  - Sponsored by Federation of Students
  - Sponsored by University of Waterloo
  - Graphic for Federation of Students
  - Graphic for University of Waterloo

- Inside
  - If you don't go to Homecoming, you might as well go to Western![1]
  - Homecoming! It'll be a blast! This is your school, stand up and be counted![1]

  - Big Rude Jake
    - Place (Fed Hall)
    - Date (Friday, November 12)
    - Time (10:00pm)
    - Doors open (8:00pm)
    - UW alumni
    - Started in Toronto
    - 9 years ago
    - style of music (jazzy-jump-blues)
    - tunes (cabaret-inspired)
    - started before new Swing movement
    - picture of Big Rude Jake

- Descriptives
  - singer-song-writer
  - band leader
  - blues shouter
  - pop-culture philosopher
  - highly opinionated loud-mouth
- Cost
  - $6 for UW students
  - $6 alumni
  - $8 for others
  - phone number for tickets and information

- Yates Cup
  - If Waterloo wins next few games
  - Will host Yates Cup
  - Date (Saturday, November 13)
  - Time (1:00pm)
  - Place (Seagram Stadium)

- Naismith Classic
  - Presented by The Record
  - Naismith logo
  - Held annually
  - basketball tournament
  - teams from
    - Ontario
    - Michigan
    - Pittsburgh
  - Warriors play Friday
  - Warriors play Saturday
  - Time (8:00pm)
  - Place (PAC)
  - Cost
    - Adults $7
    - Students $4
    - Seniors $4
    - UW students free
    - Seasons ticket holders free
    - Tournament passes available
  - Website address given

- Banner Competition
  - Design a banner
  - Size (at least 4 feet long)
  - Support UW Warriors
  - Don't need to sign up
  - Show up at game on Saturday
  - Team of up to 12 people
  - Winners get
    - VIP table
    - Free food
    - Free drinks
    - At Fed Hall
    - On Saturday, November 13

- Frosh week Restoration/Alumni Extravaganza
  - You enjoyed it then, experience it again. Froshweek, relive the moment in Homecoming! [1]
  - Date (Saturday, November 13)
  - Place (Fed Hall)
  - Time (8:00pm)
  - Cost
    - Students $3
    - Alumni $3
    - All others $5
  - Tickets at the door
  - Retro music

- Fun Run
  - Corel
  - AHS
  - 5k run
  - Pounce de Lion graphic
  - Date (November 13)
  - Place (BMH Foyer)
  - Cost
    - Free for AHS students
    - Free for AHS staff
    - Free for AHS faculty
    - Others $6
  - Participate
  - Volunteer
  - Website address

- Homecoming Guest Speaker
  - Wade Davis, PhD
  - Title (Extinction or Survival: The Global Crisis of Diversity)
  - Date (November 12)
  - Time (8:00pm)
  - Place (Hagey Hall)
  - Cost ($15)
  - Book signing
- Index
  - List of events
  - List of dates
  - List of times

♦ Back Panel
  - Federation of Students logo
  - University of Waterloo logo
  - Hope to see you at Homecoming! [1]
  - Website address

[1]Included in brochure with persuasive messages
♦ not included in the count of recall items

Recall Items for Website (EG3)

Executional Elements
- Multiple pages
- Colour graphics
- Colour pictures
- Colour fonts
- Individual pages had similar banners (two graphics and title of event)
- Index format for second page
- Links to other pages included in index

Content
♦ First Page
  - University of Waterloo
  - Homecoming, 1999
  - Date (November 12-14)
  - Sponsored by Federation of Students
  - Sponsored by University of Waterloo
  - Graphic for Federation of Students
  - Graphic for University of Waterloo
  - Continue button

- What's happening for homecoming this year?
  - Federation of Students logo
  - UW logo
  - Dates
  - Times
  - Events

- Naismith Classic
    - Presented by The Record
    - Naismith logo
    - Held annually
    - 32nd annual
    - basketball tournament
    - ♦ teams from
      - Ontario
      - Michigan
      - Pittsburgh
    - Warriors play Friday
      - Versus Point Park College
    - Warriors play Saturday
      - Versus consolation
      - 8pm
      - PAC
    - ♦ Info
      - 8pm
      - at the PAC
    - Cost/2 games
      - Adults $7
      - Students $4
      - Seniors $4
      - UW students free
      - Seasons ticket holders free
      - Children under 11 free
    - Tournament passes
      - Adults $20
      - Students $15
      - Seniors $15
    - Website address given
    - Phone number for more information
    - Photo of UW Warriors

    - Big Rude Jake
      - Federation of Students logo
      - UW logo

- Presented by Federation of Students
- place (Fed Hall)
- date (Friday, November 12)
- time (10:00pm)
- doors open (8:00pm)
- UW alumni
- started in Toronto
- 9 years ago
- style of music (jazzy-jump-blues)
- tunes (cabaret-inspired)
- started before new Swing movement
- picture of Big Rude Jake
- website address
- ♦ Descriptives
  - singer-song-writer
  - band leader
  - blues shouter
  - pop-culture philosopher
  - highly opinionated loud-mouth
- ♦ Cost
  - $6 for UW students
  - $6 alumni
  - $8 for others
  - purchase from Fed Offices
- link to Big Rude Jake's website

- Homecoming Guest Speaker
  - UW Alumni logo
  - UW logo
  - Photo of Wade Davis
  - Wade Davis, PhD
  - Harvard-trained
  - Cultural anthropologist
  - Ethnobotonist
  - Photographer
  - Explores cultures
  - Wrote book (One River: Explorations and Discoveries in the Amazon Rainforest)
  - Nominated for 1997 Governor General's Literary Award
  - Discovery Channel program (Earthguide: A Consumer's Guide to Save the Planet)
  - Wrote Serpent and the Rainbow
  - Voodoo culture in Haiti
  - Made into a movie
  - Title (Extinction or Survival: The Global Crisis of Diversity)

- Date (November 12)
- Time (8:00pm)
- Place (Hagey Hall)
- Cost ($15)
- Book signing

- Fun Run
  - Corel
  - AHS
  - 5k run
  - Pounce de Lion graphic
  - UW logo
  - Photo of runners
  - Date (November 13)
  - Place (BMH Foyer)
  - ♦ Cost of Fun Run
    - Free for AHS students
    - Free for AHS staff
    - Free for AHS faculty
    - Others $6
  - Participate
  - Volunteer
  - Website address

- Banner Competition
  - Feds logo
  - UW logo
  - Design a banner
  - Size (at least 4 feet long)
  - Support UW Warriors
  - Don't need to sign up
  - Show up at game on Saturday
  - Team of up to 12 people
- Winners get
    - VIP table
    - Free food
    - Free drinks
    - At Fed Hall
    - On Saturday, November 13
  - Number to call for more information

- Frosh Week Restoration
- Alumni Extravaganza

- You enjoyed it then, experience it again. Froshweek, relive the moment in Homecoming!
- Date (Saturday, November 13)
- Place (Fed Hall)
- Time (8:00pm)
- Cost
  - Students $3
  - Alumni $3
  - All others $5
- Tickets at the door
- Retro music DJ

- Yates Cup
  - If Waterloo wins next few games
  - Will host Yates Cup
  - Date (Saturday, November 13)
  - Time (1:00pm)
  - Place (Seagram Stadium)
  - Stay tuned!
  - Picture of football players
  - Warriors logo
  - UW logo

Personal Appeal (include count from brochure with information only) (EG4)

Executional Elements
- Speaker
- Speaker's outfit
- Colour of paper (goldenrod)
- Black graphics
- Black text
- Various font sizes
- Font all the same style
- Three-fold style
- Printed both sides
- Bullets
- Use of index

Total Number of Items and Elements Available to be Recalled

Brochure with Information Only
- 9 Executional Elements
- 105 Content Items

Brochure with Information and Persuasion
- 9 Executional Elements
- 109 Content Items

Website
- 7 Executional Elements
- 144 Content Items

Personal Appeal
- Executional Elements
- Content Items

Appendix V: Degree of Support for Research Hypotheses

Ha1: *(supported)* There will be a difference in pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming based on subjects' past experience with Homecoming.

Ha2: *(supported)* There will be a difference in pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming based on subjects' involvement with Homecoming.

Ha3: *(partially supported)* There will be a difference in pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming based on subjects' commitment to the University of Waterloo.

Ha4: *(supported)* There will be a difference in pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming based on subjects' subjective norms

Ha5: *(supported)* There will be a difference in pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming based on past experience.

Ha6: *(partially supported)* There will be a difference in pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming based on subjects' involvement with Homecoming.

Ha7: *(not supported)* There will be a difference in pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming based on subjects' commitment to the University of Waterloo.

Ha8: *(supported)* There will be a difference in pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming based on subjects' subjective norms

Ha9: *(supported)* There will be a difference in pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming based on subjects' pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming.

Ha10: *(supported)* There will be differences in subjects' attitude toward the communication effort for those who receive a message through a personal appeal than those who receive a message through a website or through print media.

Ha11: *(supported)* There will be a difference in subjects' attitude toward the communication effort based on their pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming.

Ha12: *(not supported)* There will be a difference in subjects' attitude toward the communication effort based on their pre-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming.

Ha13: *(supported)* There will be differences in subjects' post-exposure attitude toward Homecoming for those who receive a message through a personal appeal than those who receive a message through a website or through print media.

Ha14: *(supported)* There will be differences in subjects' post-exposure attitude toward Homecoming based on their attitude toward the communication effort.

Ha15: *(supported)* There will be differences in subjects' post-exposure recall of the communication effort for those who receive a message through a personal appeal than those who receive a message through a website or through print media.

Ha16: *(supported)* There will be differences in subjects' post-exposure recall of the communication effort based on subjects' attitude toward the communication effort.

Ha17: *(partially supported)* There will be differences in subjects' post-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming for those who receive a message through a personal appeal than those who receive a message through a website or through print media.

Ha18: *(supported)* There will be differences in subjects' post-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming based on subjects' post-exposure attitude toward Homecoming.

Ha19: *(supported)* There will be differences in subjects' post-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming based on subjects' attitude toward the communication effort.

Ha20: *(not supported)* There will be differences in actual participation in a Homecoming event by subjects who receive a message through print media than those who receive a message through personal appeal or through a website.

Ha21: *(supported)* Subjects' post-exposure intent to participate in Homecoming will be related to their participation in Homecoming.

Ha22: *(not supported)* Subjects' recall of the communication effort will be related to their participation in Homecoming.

Ha23: *(supported)* Subjects' post-exposure attitude toward Homecoming will be related to their participation in Homecoming.

Ha24: *(supported)* Past experience will have an affect on subjects' participation in Homecoming.

Ha25: *(partially supported)* Subjects' level of involvement with Homecoming will have an affect on their participation in Homecoming.

Ha26: *(partially supported)* Subjects' commitment to the University of Waterloo will have an affect on their participation in Homecoming.

Ha27: *(supported)* Subjects' subjective norms will have an affect on their participation in Homecoming.

Ha28: *(supported)* Subjects' pre-exposure attitude toward Homecoming will be related to their participation in Homecoming.

Ha29: *(supported)* Subjects' behaviour will have an affect on their post-event attitude toward Homecoming.

Ha30: *(supported)* There will be differences in subjects' change in attitude toward Homecoming between pre-exposure and post-exposure for those who receive a message through a personal appeal than those who receive a message through a website or through print media.

Ha31: *(supported)* There will be differences in subjects' change in attitude toward Homecoming between post-exposure and post-event for those who receive a message through a personal appeal than those who receive a message through a website or through print media.

Ha32: *(supported)* There will be differences in subjects' change in attitude toward Homecoming between pre-exposure and post-event for those who receive a message through a personal appeal than those who receive a message through a website or through print media.