

# 「陸軍是你正確選擇」還是只是一句口號？ 美軍招募廣告選擇性需求與初級需求運用 之說服傳播策略

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## 摘 要

美軍招募廣告之主要目標為鼓勵及影響當代青年在面臨眾多的職業選項時，選擇投身軍旅服務。初級需求（Primary Demand）與選擇性需求（Selective Demand）說服策略被廣泛運用於當代廣告中，以增進其企圖影響閱聽人的效果。而此一說服策略在美軍隊募兵廣告中亦是扮演顯著之角色。本研究聚焦於分析美國陸、海、空軍以及海軍陸戰隊，如何使用初級需求與選擇性需求說服策略，進而影響其軍種各自選定的目標受眾，以增進其從軍的意圖（Propensity），本研究分析美軍自 1973 年至 2010 年所製播之 584 則軍隊招募廣告為樣本，並在結論時提出運用此說服策略之建議。

**關鍵詞：**軍隊、招募、廣告、說服策略、需求

# **An Army of One or Simply another Recruit? Primary and Selective Persuasive Strategies in U.S. Military Advertising**

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## **Abstract**

Primary and selective persuasive strategies have been widely used in the contemporary advertising industry for amplifying advertising efforts. In this regard, U.S. military advertising has represented a case in which a government agency is attempting to encourage a general behavior ( enlistment ) while the individual branches compete for a finite pool of potential enlistees. Thus, this paper examines two persuasive strategies in U.S. military recruitment advertising: the identification of the target audience for each service branch( Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marines ) and the employment of persuasive cues to increase the propensity of potential enlistees. Based on an investigation of coding television commercials ( n=584 ) that appeared from 1973 to 2010, the findings show that the majority of the practices focused on primary demand, whereas in some types of cues, selective/competitive cues were more common. Finally, the implications of this research are discussed.

**Keywords: Military, Recruiting, Advertising, Persuasive Strategies, Demands**

## 1. Introduction

In 2010, the U.S. Department of Defense (DoD) spent \$514 million on recruitment advertising (Farrell, 2011). In general, the primary purpose of military recruitment advertising is to attract American youths to serve their country and if necessary, find those willing to put themselves in harm's way. Army or the Marines, rather than the military as a whole. In order to examine this phenomenon, the present study conducts a quantitative content analysis of the selective and primary cues used in U.S. military recruitment television advertising from 1973 to 2010. More specifically, this study investigates how U.S. military recruitment advertising influenced the propensity of its target audience through primary and selective demands.

Primary demand and selective demand are two important types of advertising strategies used in the commercial industry (Chakravarti & Janiszewski, 2004). Numerous studies have indicated that these strategies can amplify advertising efforts for specific brands (e.g., Borden, 1965; Frazer et al., 2002; Chakravarti & Janiszewski, 2004; Dung & Lei, 2006; Morgan et al., 2009). However, there has been limited research on how primary and selective demand cues had been used in U.S. military recruitment advertising to attract American youths.

### (1) Development of U.S. Military Recruitment Advertising

After the U.S. government chose to transform its military services into an all-volunteer force (AVF) in 1973, the U.S. DoD allowed each military branch to determine and attract its own target audience (Bailey, 2007) rather than promote the military as a whole. As a result, the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marines each had to identify its own needs and resources in order to increase its enlistment numbers. In this regard, each military branch believed that advertising could influence public attitude and behavior towards military service (Moskos, 2005). Previous military recruitment advertising intended to increase the proportion of the population that had the propensity to enlist at any given point in time or increase the likelihood that those with the propensity to serve would actually enlist (Dertouzos, 2009). Meanwhile, the U.S. DoD believed that maintaining the propensity to voluntarily enlist among the members of the youth was the primary responsibility of military recruitment advertising (Hosek & Francisco, 2009). However, instead of allocating advertising

expenditures based on immediate recruiting goals, advertising was deployed more effectively as a means of supporting and maintaining the propensity to enlist.

Each military branch was free to employ different persuasive strategies that were adapted to its individual service features (GAO, 2003). For example, Air Force advertising primarily focused on its technology and equipment. The different service branches could also adapt their advertising patterns after identifying their target audiences. Previous studies of military recruitment advertising (see NRC, 2003) have shown that the majority of researchers only examined the relationship between the proportion of people with the propensity to enlist (or those who have actually enlisted) and demographic and psychosocial variables (e.g., percentage of the unemployed, civilian/military pay differentials, educational benefits offered, percentage of the population holding a given belief, attitude or value) (See Figure 1). The recruiting model that the U.S. DoD utilized was an alternative model of the Theory of Planned Behavior in which attitude is a significant variable for influencing American youth's propensity toward military service (Ajzen et al., 2011). Moreover, the story-telling strategies in U.S. military recruitment advertising advocated increasing target audiences' propensity to serve their country (Chu, 2005).

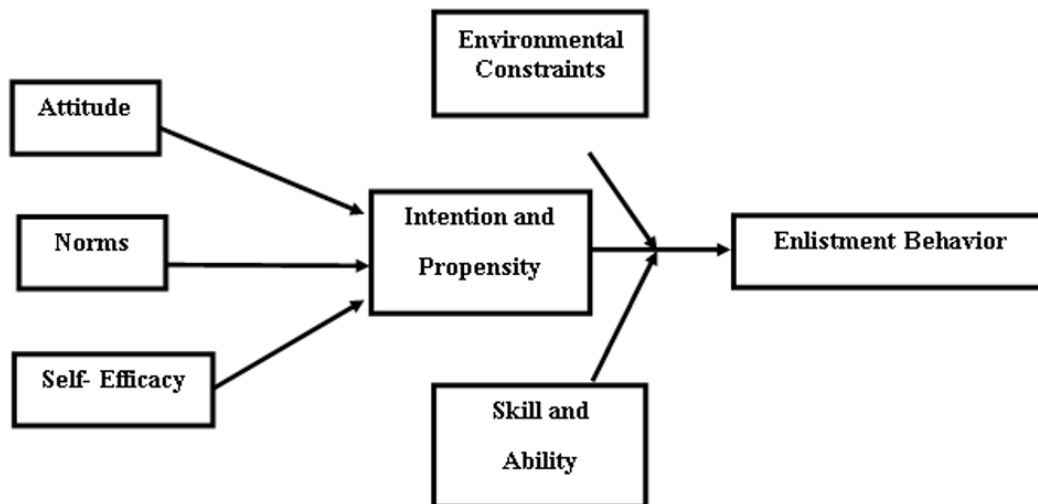


Figure 1 Determinants of enlistment behavior Reproduced from *Attitude, Aptitudes, and Aspirations American Youth: Implications for Military Recruitment* (p.117), by NRC(2003), Washington, D.C. Copyright 2003 by National Academies Press.

Complex storytelling approaches have been used in U.S. military recruitment advertising (Dung & Lei, 2006) in addition to image-building, attracting a qualified

target audience, and applying contemporary commercial strategies. For example, since conscription during the Vietnam era hurt the public image of the Army, recruitment that appeared early in the AVF era primarily focused on image restoration (Brockett, et al., 2008). In the 1980s, the Army found this strategy to be useful for improving its image with the general public and the U.S. DoD believed that a positive image of the military in the public mind would decrease its recruiting difficulties (Eighmey, 2006). They also found that advertising toward a broader market, which included their best prospects, was much more effective than only advertising toward American youths (Eighmey, 2006). For example, the Army found that those outside of the direct target audience, such as parents and friends, could be a strong influence on young people's propensity to enlist and this broader image-restoration strategy was seen as the way to reach both potential enlistees and their influencers (Eighmey, 2006).

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

## **2.Literature Review**

### **(1) Contemporary All-Volunteer Force Recruiting Research**

The current recruiting goals of the U.S. military suggest that approximately 200,000 enlistments are required each year in order to maintain an enlisted military force consisting of roughly 1.2 million active-duty members (Dertouzos, 2009). This represents a substantial recruiting challenge that is further complicated by the considerable percentage of youths pursuing higher education, cyclical fluctuations in the civilian job market, and the occurrence of international and domestic events that can lead to periods of heightened concern (Warner& Asch, 2001).

Since 1975, the U.S. DoD has relied on several research programs to determine its recruiting strategies, including the Youth Attitudinal Tracking Survey (YATS), Annual Report to the President and the Congress, and Monitoring the Future Project (MTF). These were supported by U.S. military recruitment opinion polls that

examined the willingness of youths to enlist in the Army during the early 1980s ( National Research Council, 2000 ) . Eventually, the U.S. military began experiencing difficulties achieving their recruiting goals in their target market, particularly among young people with high school diplomas ( National Research Council, 2003 ) . The YATS ( 1975-1990 ) and the Annual Report to the President and the Congress ( 1990-2002 ) provided one possible explanation for this decline: the increasing attractiveness of alternatives to military service ( Holman, 2005 ) . Although surveys indicated that the public had confidence in military leadership and the military as an institution, military service was not seen as one of the more attractive choices for young people after high school ( GAO, 2000 ) . In this case, while attitudes toward the military were improving, the propensity to enlist was not necessarily increasing.

In general, American youths were more interested in finding well-paying jobs or attending college instead of joining the military. In 1999, the Annual Report to the President and the Congress conducted by the U.S. DoD, asked respondents why they might consider joining the military and material concerns topped their responses. In addition, the most common reason cited for enlistment by 27.1% of respondents was to pay for their education while 6.6% stated that they would join the military in order to develop marketable work skills. Furthermore, 8.7% stated that pay was an important consideration while 1.9% cited job security, and 1.9% pointed toward retirement benefits. In 2000, only 2.3% of respondents cited duty to one's country as a reason for joining the military ( National Research Council, 2000 ) .

The goal of military recruitment advertising is to provide assistance to youths in meeting their educational and occupational goals as well as maintaining the propensity of potential enlistees to serve in the military ( Buddin& Roan, 1994 ) . Advertising expenditures increased considerably during the 1980s and 1990s, which may be due the U.S. DoD spending increasingly amounts of money to recruit those from a smaller demographic pool ( Sattar et al., 2002 ) . Moreover, military advertising expenditures and recruiting bonuses increased more than threefold from 1993 to 2006 ( Farrell, 2008 ) .

Between the 1970s and 2005, the U.S military struggled with recruitment ( even though its overall public image improved ) and its eventual image-building approach in military recruitment advertising was deemed effective ( Dertouzos& Garber, 2006 ) . The U.S. military earned greater public esteem than during the Vietnam War era, largely due to the messages presented by non-military sources. The U.S. military also

helped pay for the production costs of movies that presented the military in a positive light. However, this increased public esteem did not translate into increased enlistments (Farrell, 2008) .

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

## **(2) Primary Demand and Selective Demand**

One of the most important distinctions made in advertising and marketing is between primary demand and secondary (or selective) demand. Primary demand involves creating or increasing sales for an entire category of products (Semenik&Bamosy, 1995) .In addition, the focus of primary demand cues in advertising is on product categories or the types of products, instead of individual brands, for attracting new consumers and increasing the customer pool of a general product category (Borden, 1965) . In other words, primary demand advertising emphasizes the benefits of using a general product. For example, the advertising slogan "Got Milk?" is an attempt to increase consumers' general milk drinking behavior without discussing the particular benefits offered by a particular competitor or brand. Selective demand, however, is what is traditionally seen when a product category is well known and brands are competing for market shares within this category. In selective demand-driven commercials, consumers can distinguish between specific brand content and cues (Borden, 1965) .

When a category is considered as mature, it is rare to find primary demand appeals that change the consumption of a general category and most advertising in mature categories promote specific brands in an attempt to gain customers that already use the product category. As mentioned earlier, the California Milk Processor Board used the extremely popular and critically acclaimed "Got Milk?" campaign to increase primary demand for milk. However, the consumption of milk in the U.S. continued to decline (O'Guinn et al., 2009) . In fact, additional studies on overall industry ad expenditures have shown that this campaign had little or no effect on total product sales (Albion & Farris 1981) .

### **(3) Problem Statements**

As stated above, the U.S. DoD considered their goal of advertising as increasing general interest in the military as a category. Yet, each military branch was given a separate advertising budget and the branches often worked with different agencies to create their advertising. Since the branches were competing for the same “customers,” selective demand cues were used to promote their specific branch rather than primary demand cues ( promoting the military in general ) .

Previous research has rarely analyzed overall military recruitment advertising strategies on primary and selective demand cues by focusing on the relationships among military advertising cues, story-telling patterns, persuasive strategies, and advertising types. The National Research Council’s research project, “Evaluating Military Advertising and Recruiting” (2003) determined that youth attitudes, norms, and self-efficacy were the three primary factors that influenced prospective enlistees’ propensity towards military service. The researchers who conducted this particular study also demonstrated that the longitudinal attitudes of American youths toward military service did not significantly change during the past three decades and the socio-economic status and cultural value of military service retained a relatively high rank in U.S. society. However, since the 1990s, the percentage of enlistees has declined in all of the military branches. Therefore, this author analyzed the advertising content of U.S. military recruiting television advertising from 1973 to 2010 in the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marines in order to explore the primary demand and selective demand cues used in volunteer-recruitment advertising.

### **(4) Message Strategies and Typologies on Television**

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



and anomalous/affective strategies (Taylor, 1999) .

The generic approach involves making a general claim that all of the brands within a particular product category can achieve (Stone & Duffy, 1993) . For example, the coffee industry states that “coffee is a kind of beverage in their commercial” (Ruzich, 2008) .In this case, consumers do not acquire any additional information about coffee from the advertisement except for the name of the product itself (Ruzich, 2008) .

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

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

Persuasive strategies or so-called position strategies in advertising aim to have products occupy unique positions in consumers’ minds (Ries& Trout, 1986) . In addition, advertising that uses positioning strategies seek to have products occupy mental positions that are superior to the positions of competing brands. Ries and Trout (1986) stated that effective advertising and resonance advertising includes strong persuasive effect methods that help consumers believe that using a particular product can enhance their self-identification (Stewart &Koslow, 1989). *Apple* is a typical organization in which it uses affective advertising to make people feel good about its products. In fact, online virtual communities have been divided into two overall categories: “Apple users” and “non-Apple users.” This strategy often combines humor and unique consumer position cues in the advertising message in order to make such advertising possible. Another example is *State Farm* in which it states, “Like a Good Neighbor,” meaning friendly, honest,

and understanding. This message is intended to make consumers feel comfortable about purchasing insurance from this particular company. In regard to U.S. military recruitment advertising, message strategies and typologies can provide initial descriptions of the characteristics of the target market and researchers can recognize the analytical framework by identifying the storytelling features and tactics used in such advertising.

As stated earlier, the goal of the present study is to explore the primary and selective demand cues used in persuasive strategies of U.S. military AVF advertising from 1973 to 2010. In this case, the literature review examines the U.S. DoD's viewpoint on message creation and goals, how the primary and selective demand cues are used to construct the guidelines, appeals, and execution of the messages, and how the audio and visual characteristics of such message cues are used in military recruitment advertising. Based on the findings, the research questions and hypotheses are proposed as follows.

While the U.S. DoD has stated that the ultimate goal of military advertising is to improve overall opinion and the propensity to enlist in the military, the separation of the different military branches has created competition in attracting a limited target audience. The pool of willing recruits has also decreased due to numerous external reasons (e.g., more opportunities to attend college) and it has become increasingly difficult for each branch to achieve its overall recruiting goal. However, since there may be conflicting internal motivations in the source of the advertisements (military/primary versus specific branch/selective), it is important to better understand the employed cues. Therefore,

**RQ 1:** How are visual cues in U.S. military recruitment advertising during the AVF era used in selective demand strategies?

**RQ 2:** How are auditory/verbal cues in U.S. military recruitment advertising during the AVF era used in selective demand strategies?

**Hypothesis:** U.S. military recruitment advertising employs selective message strategies more frequently than primary demand message strategies.

### **3. Methodology**

The U.S. DoD produced hundreds of different television advertisements from 1973 to 2010 using various slogans, tactics, music, and incentives to attract the

military's potential audience. The central issue for these advertisements was to increase the propensity of American youths to enlist in the military and to improve the overall enlistment numbers. According to the Motion Picture, Sound, and Video Branch of the National Archives, which collected the majority of the U.S. military television advertisements, 584 military recruiting commercials were aired between 1973 and 2010 of which all were made available to the present author, in addition to a full listing of the ads, the military branch, and year created.

Based on the provided materials, primary and selective demand cues were coded within three subcategories: characters, music used, and slogans and spoken taglines. The persuasive appeals used in the U.S. military recruitment advertising during the AVF era included: general military images or military activities (through major and minor characters); music and jingles that did not mention a specific service branch; and general recruiting positions on slogans and spoken taglines, such as "Defend Your Country" and "Join the National Guard," were coded as primary demand cues. In addition, the persuasive strategies used in military recruitment advertising, such as uniforms of specific branches, unique weapons through major and minor characters, jingles and music used to represent a specific service branch, and slogans and spoken taglines that focused on uniqueness or competition, were explicitly coded as selective demand cues.

This study conducted a quantitative content analysis of the primary demand and selective demand strategies used in U.S. military recruitment advertising during the AVF era from 1973 to 2010. The quantitative content analysis examined the generic and branding cues used during this time period by the Army, Navy, Air Force and Marines, which enabled this author to determine the overall persuasive trends (primary and selective messages) used in such advertising and provide suggestions that can help develop persuasive strategies in the future.

In this study, four coders (undergraduate students; two advertising majors and two political science majors) assisted in the research. The four coders were divided into two pairs consisting of one person from each major. After their initial training in coding was completed as a larger group, each pair reviewed and coded half of the ads independently while the agreement rates were calculated within the pairs.

Five meetings, each lasting for approximately one to one-and-a-half hours, were arranged before the coding procedures began. The meetings included

discussions regarding the goals of the study, its procedures, and the definitions of each of the coding variables. One primary concern was maintaining that the coders' unawareness of the research hypotheses and questions. Each coder was instructed to code the U.S. military advertisements independently, based on the dominant variables in each coding subcategory. In this regard, initial training included a subset of ads ( 52 ads ) , which were completed by all four coders ( along with this author ) to help judge and identify the dominant message or cue. If no clear dominant cue was represented in an ad, then the "Cannot be coded" option was selected. Utilizing Krippendorff's alpha coefficient for the sections, the intercoder reliability for characters, music used, slogans, and spoken taglines were .75, .84, .74, and .75, respectively. These values were deemed sufficient and thus, two coders for each ad were used for the remaining ads.

The coders were given a coding instrument for all of the variables in each category. The coding instrument included a total of 31 subcategories selected from previous studies and the literature review. The coding categories were divided into four groups, which involved visual and auditory appeals and typologies of messages that were adapted from various television advertising studies as well as studies on military persuasive strategies ( Stewart & Koslow, 1989; Gagnard & Morris, 1988; Frazer et al., 2002; Morgan et al., 2009 ) . Such appeals and messages in recruitment advertisements included: adventure, civilian job training, military job training, credentials, educational benefits, material goods/services, camaraderie, physical development, social approval, travel/entertainment, memorable rhymes, slogans and/or mnemonic devices, spoken taglines, and comparative information. For each of the ads, it was determined whether primary or selective demand was utilized through the various cues. For example, primary demand cues were those that emphasized the military in general ( e.g., "Join the Military" and "Guard Your Country" ) while selective demand cues were those that specifically emphasized the military branch either by name ( e.g., "An Army of One" ) or a visual cues that indicated an aspect of a specific group ( e.g., vehicle, uniform or other branch-specific branded item ) ( for the operation definition, see Appendix A ) .

#### **4. Results**

U.S. military recruitment commercials (  $N=532$  ) were mostly produced in color

(84.9%) , while 12.5% were both in color and black and white, and 2.6% were in black and white. 98.7% of U.S. military recruitment advertising was paid for by the U.S. DoD while only 1.3% was provided as a public service announcement (PSA) . Of the 584 recruitment commercials, 38% were for the Army, 21% were for the Navy, 17% were for the Air Force, and 24% were for the Marines.

**(1) Research Question One (RQ 1)**

Research Question One (RQ 1) addressed the question of how image/visual cues in U.S. military recruitment advertising during the AVF era were used in selective demand strategies. As stated earlier, the selective images presented in military recruitment commercials presented major or minor characters. A chi-square test was employed to determine the ratio differences among the U.S. military recruitment commercials aired during the AVF era and the selective demand images used by the different branches. In this case, a chi-square test can help determine the ratio difference of selective demand images used by the various service branches, especially when the independent and dependent variables are both at a nominal level. The results of the chi-square test were Army (3,  $N=208$ ) = 25.4,  $p<.001$ ; Navy (3,  $N=110$ ) = 45.12,  $p<.01$ ; Air Force (3,  $N=87$ ) = 36.44,  $p<.01$ ; Marines (3,  $N=127$ ) = 34.39,  $p<.001$ .

Overall, in U.S. military recruitment advertising, 81.39% ( $N= 532$ ) of the commercials contained at least one selective demand message cue. Interestingly, individuals in the ads (e.g., “Main and minor characters look like Army soldiers”) were the dominant type of selective demand visual cues used in the recruiting commercials for the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marines. In addition, the percentage of these characters used in advertising for each military branch has increased every decade (see the frequency of distribution in Table 1) , which indicates that the four service branches are in accordance to the concept that presenting major and minor characters can highlight the unique features of each branch.

**Table 1** *Cross- tabulations of main and minor character that selective demand images that were used in U.S. military recruitment advertising during the AVF era*

	Main and minor character on selective demand cues	Broadcast Years				$\chi^2$
		1973-1980	1981-1990	1991-2000	2001-2010	
Army	Presence	26	28	56	66	25.4***
	Absence	7	5	9	13	
Navy	Presence	8	14	21	35	45.12**
	Absence	6	11	9	6	
Air Force	Presence	9	14	19	30	36.44**
	Absence	3	3	5	4	
Marines	Presence	8	25	34	40	34.39***
	Absence	2	1	5	12	

Note. \*\* =  $p < .01$ .

## (2) Research Question Two (RQ 2)

Research Question Two (RQ 2) examined the use of auditory devices and music for selective demand cues by each military branch during the AVF era. All of the auditory devices and music were analyzed, including spoken taglines, slogans, and jingles. A chi-square test was used to compare the ratio differences for each decade of recruitment advertising from 1973 to 2010 as well as the use of auditory devices and music on primary and selective demand cues by each military branch.

Regarding the ratio of spoken tagline strategies on selective demand cues used in advertising for the Army (3,  $N= 208$ ), Air Force (3,  $N= 87$ ), and Marines (3,  $N= 127$ ) by broadcast decade, the  $\chi^2$  values were 29.08 ( $p<.01$ ), 17.31 ( $p<.001$ ), and 13.82 ( $p<.001$ ), respectively. The percentages of Army advertising that employed spoken taglines on selective demand cues for each decade were 9% (1970s); 33% (1980s); 23% (1990s); and 27% (2000s). Air Force advertising that utilized spoken taglines on selective demand cues for each decade followed a similar pattern in the 1970s and 1980s, but it diverged in the 1990s. For example, the percentages were 8% (1970s); 35% (1980s); 83% (1990s); and 82% (2000s). Unlike the Army and Air Force, advertisements for the Marines used spoken taglines on selective demand cues, and the percentages for each decade were 0% (1970s); 77% (1980s); 53% (1990s); and 77% (2000s).

**Table 2** *Cross- tabulations of spoken taglines on selective demand cues used in military recruitment advertising during the AVF era*

	Spoken Taglines	Broadcast Years				$\chi^2$
		1973- 1980	1981- 1990	1991- 2000	2001- 2010	
Army	Presence	28	22	50	57	29.08**
	Absence	3	11	15	22	
Navy	Presence	11	10	6	20	8.11
	Absence	3	15	24	21	
Air Force	Presence	1	6	20	28	17.31***
	Absence	11	11	4	6	
Marines	Presence	0	20	21	40	13.82***
	Absence	10	6	18	12	

Note. \*\* =  $p < .01$ , \*\*\* =  $p < .001$ .

The chi-square analysis results show that the Army, Air Force, and Marines used spoken taglines on selective demand cues more frequently than primary demand cues. The percentages of selective demand cues used by the Army, Air Force, and Marines have increased since the 1970s. The ratios of slogans used in recruitment advertising for the Army (3,  $N= 208$ ) and the Marines (3,  $N= 127$ ) varied by broadcast year, and the  $\chi^2$  values were 49.08 ( $p < .001$ ) and 45.17 ( $p < .001$ ), respectively. The percentage of Army advertising that employed slogans in each decade were 83% (1970s); 75% (1980s); 78% (1990s); and 84% (2000s). For the Marines, the percentages were 90% (1970s); 92% (1980s); 89% (1990s); and 87% (2000s). The results of these analyses are presented in Table 3.

**Table 3** *Cross- tabulations of slogans on selective demand cues used in military recruitment advertising during the AVF era*

Slogans Used		Broadcast Years				$\chi^2$
		1973-1980	1981-1990	1991-2000	2001-2010	
Army	Presence	26	25	51	67	49.08***
	Absence	5	8	14	12	
Navy	Presence	9	10	15	25	30.75
	Absence	5	15	15	16	
Air Force	Presence	9	13	12	15	20.57
	Absence	3	4	12	19	
Marines	Presence	9	24	35	49	45.17***
	Absence	1	2	4	3	

Note. \*\*\* =  $p < .001$ .

The percentage of slogans used in recruitment advertising for the Army and Marines are in a relatively stable and high frequency basis. In addition, the results of the chi-square tests demonstrate that the Army and Marines used selective demand cues through slogans in their recruitment advertising significantly more than primary demand cues. However, there were no significant differences between each decade of the AVF era.

The ratios of jingles used in recruitment advertising for the Army (3,  $N= 208$ ), Navy (3,  $N= 110$ ), and Marines (3,  $N= 127$ ) varied by broadcast year, and the  $\chi^2$  values were 61.70 ( $p < .001$ ), 21.33 ( $p < .001$ ), and 34.62 ( $p < .05$ ), respectively. The percentages of Army advertising that employed jingles in each decade were 64% (1970s); 82% (1980s); 89% (1990s); and 96% (2000s). For the Navy, such percentages were 100% (1970s); 100% (1980s); 63% (1990s); and 76% (2000s) while for the Marines, the percentages were 100% (1970s); 100% (1980s); 79% (1990s); and 80% (2000s). Interestingly, the Air Force did not utilize this particular cue. Overall, the percentage of jingles used for the individual branches by decade remained at a high level during the AVF era. The results of the chi-square analysis also show that the Army, Navy, and Marines used the jingle strategy in recruitment advertising more often than other types of music. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 4.



**Table 4** *Cross- tabulations of brand jingle on selective demand cues used in recruitment advertising during the AVF era*

	Brand Jingles	Broadcast Years				$\chi^2$
		1973-1980	1981-1990	1991-2000	2001-2010	
Army	Presence	20	27	58	76	61.70***
	Absence	11	6	7	3	
Navy	Presence	14	25	19	25	21.33***
	Absence	0	0	11	16	
Air Force	Presence	0	0	0	0	43.5
	Absence	12	17	24	34	
Marines	Presence	10	26	31	42	34.62*
	Absence	0	0	8	10	

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

### (3) Research Hypothesis

The research hypothesis predicted that U.S. military recruitment advertising in the AVF era used selective demand message strategies more than primary demand strategies. As stated in the methodology section of this study, an independent-samples *t*-test was utilized to analyze the similarities/differences of the primary demand messages as well as the selective comparison demand cues used by each military branch.

The frequency of primary and selective comparison cues used in U.S. military recruitment advertising varied among the different service branches. For example, recruitment advertising for the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marines used primary demand cues (see the means in Table 1). The *t*-test results for primary versus selective demand cues within these four military branches were Army  $t(206) = 5.96, p < .001, d = .613$ ; Navy  $t(108) = 3.45, p < .001, d = .928$ ; Air Force  $t(85) = 4.51, p < .001, d = .883$ ; and Marines  $t(125) = 5.88, p < .001, d = .890$ . Thus, it appears that the hypothesis is confirmed. Each branch of the military used selective demand/competitive cues more often than primary demand message cues (general military messages). The results of these analyses are presented in Table 4.

**Table 5** *Means of selective comparison and primary demand cues used in military ads*

Dependent Variable	<u>Persuasive Strategies</u>		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
	Selective Comparison Demand Cues	Primary Demand Cues		
Army	0.93	0.11	5.96***	206
Navy	0.54	0.14	3.45**	108
Air Force	0.61	0.05	4.51***	85
Marines	0.87	0.11	5.88***	125

Note. \* =  $p < .01$ , \*\*\* =  $p < .001$ .

## 5. Discussion

The U.S. government accepted the Gates Commission's suggestions on its military manpower structure adjustment and indicated that each military branch could identify its own target audience and communicate with the public using suitable persuasive strategies (Gates, 1970) and since 1973; the four services of the U.S. DoD have annually increased their recruitment advertising (Chu, 2007). In this regard, the examination of the research hypothesis indicated that the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marines used selective comparison cues in their recruitment advertising. Due to the fact that the target audiences for each of the four service branches might overlap demographically, Eighmey (2006) suggested that military recruitment advertising planners should consider trade-offs between primary and selective demand. Moreover, military strategic communication policies should be developed regarding the proportion of military advertising devoted to supporting the overall propensity to enlist in the military (primary demand) and the proportion devoted to attracting recruits in the individual military branches (selective demand).

After the U.S. government decided to transform the military services into an AVF system in 1973, the U.S. DoD allowed each military branch to determine and attract its own target audience (Bailey, 2007). Consequently, the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marines each had to identify their own manpower needs and sources as well as devote the resources to increasing their respective enlistment numbers. The U.S. military believed that advertising could influence public attitude and behavior towards military service (Moskos, 2005). Previous military recruitment advertising intended

to increase the proportion of the population that had the propensity to enlist at any given point in time or increase the likelihood that those with the propensity to serve would actually enlist (Dertouzos, 2009) . Understanding what has occurred in U.S. military advertising over time and understanding what strategies may be successful as the category (volunteer military) matures is important for countries considering a change from mandatory military service to an AVF (e.g., Taiwan, South Korea) , especially since the military cannot succeed on a volunteer basis if it cannot meet its required recruitment goals.

The U.S. DoD believed that maintaining the propensity to enlist was the primary responsibility of military recruitment advertising and that advertising could be used to maintain the propensity to enlist among the members of the youth population who were interested in volunteer military service (Hosek & Francisco, 2009) . Instead, of allocating advertising expenditures based on immediate recruiting goals, advertising could be deployed more effectively as a means of supporting and maintaining the propensity to enlist. However, the allocation of separate funds to each branch, in addition to using separate ad agencies, increases the competition between each of these branches as they attempt to attract a shrinking, common pool of potential customers (enlistees) .

Concerning RQ 1, the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marines used visual appeals (in the form of major/minor characters) that featured selective demand cues significantly more than primary demand cues. In other words, the characters in U.S. military ads usually represented the specific service branches. In regard to RQ 2, the four service branches also used auditory devices, including spoken taglines, slogans, and jingles for selective demand cues. However, such devices were not used consistently by each branch. The presence of spoken taglines in selective demand cues were mostly used by the Army, Air Force, and Marines. For example, the Army used “Join the Army and You Can Learn Real Job Skills” and “Be All You Can Be” to present its unique benefits.

In terms of slogans used in selective demand messages, the Army and Marines used persuasive strategies to emphasize their unique positions compared to the other branches. For example, the Marines have used “The Few, The Proud, The Marines” as its commercial slogan since the 1980s to emphasize its service spirit and selective nature. Meanwhile, the Army, Navy, and Marines used jingle strategies in their selective demand messages significantly more than primary demand cues. For

example, the Army's "Be All You Can Be" also repeatedly used "Your Future in the Army" to convey its selective demand cues. In addition, the U.S. DoD also employed auditory devices to convey its persuasive strategies. For instance, the "Aim High" commercials broadcast during the 1980s used "Air Force, The Guard of the Country" as the spoken tagline when presenting the value of loyalty toward the country.

One can conclude that recruitment advertising by the U.S. DoD during the AVF era did not directly use comparative advertising. However, the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marines did conduct recruitment advertising with selective demand cues significantly more than primary demand message cues in certain cue categories, thus indicating that there was some interest in both differentiating and competing with one another. What remains unknown is how optimal this particular combination can be. In this regard, future studies should examine the success of various cues over time. Additionally, since primary demand was the overall message focus in the majority of ads, how the category was viewed should be the subject of attention. One way to increase use in a mature category may be to expand the customer base. In terms of the military, this may mean increased efforts to attract women or other groups that were not previously pursued for enlistment.

Concerning persuasive strategies, the Army is a valuable case of recruiting success by its use of appropriate persuasive strategies for primary and selective demand cues. For example, in the 1980s, the Army became one of the most attractive military branches (Chu, 2005), which was a significant improvement from the early 1970s, when it lost the public's support due to drug abuse and racial discrimination scandals during that time (Hammond, 1998). During this transition into the AVF era, the Army began treating recruitment as a marketing mission, which meant that the military had to compete with other job categories (Eighmey, 2006). Moskos (2005) indicated that U.S. military recruiting in the AVF era had shifted from an institutional job, which emphasized self-sacrifice and duty toward the country, to an occupational job, which focused on benefits and external incentives. Chu (2007) believed that the focal point that drove the Army's recruiting success during the late 1970s was that it conducted research on understanding its target audiences and changed its persuasive strategies to represent the Army's unique value and position in order to distinguish the differences between serving in the Army and other job categories. Moreover, the Army achieved a successful recruiting record during the 1970s and 1980s by presenting clear external incentives such as increased salaries, educational opportunities, and job

training that were special benefits provided by this military branch (Rostkerand, 2006) .

In sum, military recruitment advertising should consider that primary and selective demand cues are valuable variables. In addition, military strategic communication policies should be developed in regard to the proportion of military advertising devoted to supporting the overall propensity to enlist in the military on primary demand, and the proportion devoted to attracting recruits to each military branch on selective demand.

## **6.Limitations**

This research examined the primary and selective demand cues in U.S. military recruitment advertising in order to investigate the persuasive strategies used by the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marines. However, it did not examine American soldiers' reactions to military recruitment advertising. Thus, future research should conduct experiments (or quasi-experiments) in order to obtain soldiers' reactions to primary and selective cue strategies and clarify the overall effectiveness of U.S. military persuasive advertising.

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## Appendix A CodeBook

### Selective and Primary Demand Persuasive Strategies in U.S. Military Advertising

**Unit of Data Collection:** Code each complete commercial

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

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

**Ad Title:** The name show up at document

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

**Publish Year:**

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

**Publish Institute:** Institute paid the commercial: DoD or PSAs

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

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

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## Comparisons

Themes	Operational Definition
Service categories- differentiating message	The content of commercial provides comparison between military and other jobs or specific service branch.

## Typology of Recruiting Campaign Messages

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

## Auditory Devices and Music

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

### Advertising Setting

The dominant environment in the advertising content.

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