To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Christopher A. B. Onunkwo entitled "The Role of Cost and Function in the Effectiveness of Specialty Advertising." I recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Communications.

Daniel S. Bagley III

Daniel S. Bagley III, Major Professor

Herbert H. Howard

Herbert H. Howard, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:

David J Bauch

Jack O Haskins

Accepted for the Council:

L Evans Roth

Vice Chancellor
Graduate Studies and Research

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THE ROLE OF COST AND FUNCTION IN THE EFFECTIVENESS OF SPECIALTY ADVERTISING

A Dissertation

Presented for the

Doctor of Philosophy

Degree

The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Christopher A. B. Onunkwo

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ABSTRACT

The purposes of this study were to determine (1) if including advertising specialties in a direct mail piece significantly increased response to the message of the mail, (2) if receiving specialties caused more invitees to attend a conference than did invitations alone, (3) if more expensive specialties were more persuasive than less expensive ones, (4) if two-function specialties were more persuasive than one-function specialties, and (5) if the effect of specialties was higher on male or female subjects, higher on subjects working in one occupation rather than another, and higher on subjects with positive prior attitude than those with neutral or negative attitudes.

Five hundred adults were randomly selected for a controlled field experiment. The adults were men and women in the state of Tennessee whose jobs involved training, counseling, or hiring of youth in the state. They were invited to a three-day conference to discuss problems related to their responsibilities. Data on response to message were collected in the form of completed and returned attitude questionnaire designed for this study. Data on conference attendance came from the conference register. Usable data were gathered from 180 subjects.

Data were reported in frequencies and percentages to compare treatment groups with the control group; two-function specialties with one-function; high-cost with low-cost; male subjects with female; and four occupational categories against one another. There were two dependent variables: completion/return of questionnaire and attendance at the conference.

The findings showed some noteworthy trends. A higher percentage of the treatment cases than the control completed and returned questionnaires and also attended the conference. The differences reached statistical significance at the .05 level on questionnaire return, but not on attendance.

One-function items attracted a higher percentage questionnaire return, but a lower rate of attendance than two-function items. The difference on questionnaire return reached significance level, but the difference on attendance did not attain significance, leaving an inconsistent picture of the effect of number of functions.

High-cost items elicited a higher rate of questionnaire return than low-cost items, and the difference reached statistical significance. On attendance, however, low-cost items did significantly better than high-cost, again showing the effect of cost as inconsistent.

Female subjects scored proportionately higher than male subjects on both questionnaire return and attendance. The difference on attendance was statistically significant, but the difference on questionnaire return was not. There were no significant differences among occupational categories.

There was some indication that subjects' prior attitude may have affected the influence of specialties, with positive cases having the highest rate of attendance. Neutral and negative cases were second and last, respectively, but the differences were not statistically significant.

It is concluded from the study that the positive persuasive impact of specialties is modest. It is worth emphasizing, however,

that even though statistical significance was not attained in some of the measures, trends of practical significance were observed: specialties attracted higher response than control on both dependent variables; female subjects were persuaded more than were male subjects, making the sex of an intended receiver an important factor in the choice of a specialty gift.

Finally, neither number of functions nor cost of specialties seemed to make any consistent difference in the effectiveness of specialties. Effectiveness does not seem to depend on sending complex or expensive gifts.

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CHAPTER I

PURPOSE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

I. INTRODUCTION

"One of our biggest problems is telling people what specialty advertising is" (R. C. Rollings, 1967).

The above regret was expressed twelve years ago by the president of the Specialty Advertising Association, Mr. R. C. Rollings. It is still true that relatively little is known yet about the role of specialty advertising in the marketing of products, ideas, and services. The purpose of this study was to determine the effectiveness, if any, of advertising specialties as a medium of persuasive communication, and to identify the circumstances in which the effects should be expected.

II. THE STUDY

The Energy Opportunities Consortium Manpower Group, Knoxville (EOC), was planning a statewide career education conference for November 15, 16, and 17, 1978, to be held at the Hyatt Regency Hotel in Knoxville, Tennessee. The conference objective was "to provide participants updated and innovative information about improving career opportunities and career education for youth" in Tennessee. A major problem for the conference organizers was how to communicate with specific target groups whose participation in the conference was particularly desired. These groups comprised administrators and counselors in career, vocational, technical,

and community colleges; job-related decision makers or advisers in business and industry, labor and government organizations. Thus the problem was how best to persuade these groups to agree to attend and contribute ideas and information to the conference.

Because of the busy nature of the work schedules of the intended target groups, the design of a persuasive message to them had to involve a personalized approach that had a way of constantly reminding them of the conference theme without appearing to intrude into their time for other matters. As a constant reminder of the sponsor's message, specialty advertising was considered appropriate.

Direct-mail messages were sent to these target groups, supplemented with advertising specialties that differed on two attributes—cost and number of functions—in order to test whether specialty advertising indeed works, and if a high-cost specialty item is more efficient than a low-cost one or if a two-function item persuades more than a one-function item.

III. IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

My interest in specialty advertising was aroused by Dr. Dan Bagley, Assistant Professor in the College of Communications, University of Tennessee. He raised discussions and questions on the need for scientific studies in specialty advertising. In addition, my own reading of what literature there is in this area of advertising has led me to the conclusion that research and scholarship can provide much needed guidance to users of specialty advertising. At the moment, it appears they go mainly by hunch and experience.

The present study is important for another reason. Specialty advertising has attained such high levels in volume and cost that scientific research into whether and how it works is long overdue. As Richard Y. Giles (1972) has stated, "Although advertising specialties are used to promote an enormous variety of business enterprises, they are a little understood form of advertising and possibly the least appreciated."

In nearly every home and office there is a piece of merchandise with advertising imprinted on it. On a daily basis people use a wall or desk calendar that carries some advertising message; jot notes with a ball-point pen imprinted with advertising copy upon a memorandum pad which contains some advertiser's address and telephone number. Ashtrays, book matches, mechanical lighters, rulers, toy balloons, and many more items bear advertising messages. In effect, advertising specialty items comprise an intimate part of our daily lives.

Besides the widespread use of advertising specialties, the volume of its sales is relatively big and has shown a steady growth since the SAAI began conducting sales volume surveys in 1966. According to the Specialty Advertising Business (May, 1978), total volume sales was $1.811 billion in 1976. By 1977 sales had reached $2.117 billion, representing a growth rate of 21 percent over 1976.

If these figures reflected the true picture, the 1977 figures meant that specialty advertising was the sixth largest medium of advertising in the United States, coming after newspapers, television, direct mail, radio, and magazines in that order, and surpassing the business press, outdoor and farm publications.

Despite this impressive volume and size of the specialty advertising business, little is known about it and how it works.

Professor Gaw (1972) has identified two obstacles to a better knowledge and understanding of the industry. First, a very small amount of serious literature exists on specialty advertising. According to Professor Gaw, of two advertising textbooks published since 1961, for instance, one devotes less than three pages out of 553 to specialty advertising, and the other gives it no space at all. The first comprehensive reference work on specialty advertising was published only in 1972.

The second reason for the absence of better understanding of specialty advertising identified by Professor Gaw is the very small amount of research so far done. This writer has found only limited amounts of well-designed study in this area. Most reported "research" which appears in trade journals, especially banking and insurance publications, makes claims of sales increases as a result of specialty advertising campaigns. For example, Lincoln National Life Insurance Company reported increasing insurance sales to the tune of $50 million dollars after a specialty advertising promotion. But these studies do not indicate any controls for possible confounding factors. This writer has found only two thesis studies conducted on specialty advertising (Schrot, 1976; Reinstein, 1974). One (Reinstein, 1974) was a critical description of how banks use specialty advertising, and the other was an experiment using specialties at the point of purchase.

This study is thus going to help fill a need for a better understanding of the effectiveness or lack of it of specialty advertising

to achieve the goals of its users. By the extent of its use alone, specialty advertising deserves to be understood.

It is expected that the results of this study will be beneficial in three main ways. First, they partially confirm, partially repudiate, and partially modify the gut claims of industry spokesmen who seem convinced that the use of specialty advertising makes a difference in the selling of goods and ideas. Second, since the focus of the study is on the relative impact of variables employed in creating advertising specialties—cost, utility, their combination—specialty creative people should benefit from knowing which variables work in which circumstances. Finally, the study helps to lay the much needed foundations of academic research in this area, raising pertinent questions that could be answered by further research.

IV. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

A major value of an advertising specialty item in achieving a sales purpose, whether of an idea or a product, centers around whether its recipient likes it enough to want to keep it over an extended period of time. They should thus create good first impression and act as reminders of the sponsor and his message. Creators of specialty items thus attempt to make them attractive, worthwhile, innovative, useful, or a combination of some or all of these.

These attributes of specialty advertising items—utility, innovativeness, worthwhileness, and attractiveness—serve as important criteria for winning awards for excellence of the Specialty Advertising Association International (SAAI).

In its annual awards for 1966, for instance, the SAAI awarded first place prize in one category to W. F. Gibbons Company, a specialty advertising distributor. A distributor acts as a manufacturer's representative or broker. W. F. Gibbons had sold to the electrical conductors division of Kaiser Aluminum and Chemical Sales Corporation, Oakland, a desk top pen holder with a pop-up panel that reveals, when the pen is removed, a printed reminder of the user's (Kaiser) sales goal (Advertising Age, 1966).

In another award category, Sel Mor Advertisers division of Adtech Industries, Peoria, Illinois, a distributor, won first prize. Sel Mor had sold to the Peoria Journal Star a phone dialer, phone shoulder rest, and a pen and holster attachable to the phone to encourage high school coaches to phone sports scores to the paper (Advertising Age, 1966).

More recently, in the 1973 SAAI annual competition, Eli Lilly's offer of a personalized key chain drew 33,000 physician requests. The offer was made as part of a promotion calling doctors' attention to a new, convenient dosage schedule for Lilly's 10-year old Ilosone (Product Management, 1974).

All of these help illustrate the importance specialty creators attach to those attributes of utility, innovation, and attraction.

Variations in these factors as well as the quality of raw materials result in varied costs of specialty goods. Some users of specialties, that is, individuals or organizations that send them to clients, send more expensive items than others. It is important to determine if higher expenditure guarantees higher effectiveness in the form of

achieving the user's objectives, that is, if effectiveness is related to cost and utility of item. The effects of cost and utility would probably vary according to target groups and the objectives of the advertiser.

The problem for this study could thus be asked in the following questions: Will a two-function specialty item make more recipients fulfill the advertiser's objectives than a one-function specialty would do? Does the cost of producing an item, that is, its money value, enhance its persuasiveness? Is there an interaction effect of cost with utility? If there are differences in the relative impact of these variables, what attributes of the recipient, such as sex or occupation type, can we associate with which variable? Does the use of advertising specialties to supplement other media yield higher positive results than without them? The findings in this controlled field experiment will, of course, have some application limitations which will be discussed in Section VII.

V. DEFINITION OF TERMS

A number of terms which appear throughout this study need specific definitions to clarify their meanings in the context of this dissertation.

Specialty advertising is an advertising medium which utilizes a useful article to carry a communicator's message to a target audience to which it is distributed as advertising. The article usually carries the communicator's name, address, and message to the target audience.

Advertising specialties are the items of useful merchandise that carry the advertisements to the target group. To fulfill the purposes of the advertiser, they must at least be of high enough quality, of some

use to the recipient, and interesting enough to be kept in view over an extended time period. The variety of items is limited only by the imagination of item creators. Industry estimates put the number of advertising specialties in the market between ten and fifteen thousand (Best's Review, May 1975, p. 98).

An advertising specialty is used to reach a preselected audience and does not carry any obligation or cost for the receiver. There is no contest involved. This distinguishes specialty advertising from premium promotions, contest promotions, and substantial business gifts. A premium rarely carries the name of the advertiser, and invariably requires the receiver to perform some act as a condition for getting it. Promotions use articles that carry no advertising, are relatively expensive, and require a recipient to participate in some contest. Advertising specialties are rarely of more than nominal monetary value, but instead possess intrinsic, often sentimental value.

However, an expensive item is sometimes used in sales promotion, public relations, birthday presents by organizations, and other anniversary distribution plans which qualify as specialty advertising. This means that cost alone does not distinguish specialty advertising from other promotions. The important points are use and aim of a program.

A supplier manufactures, imports, converts, imprints, or otherwise processes advertising specialties for sale through distributors.

A distributor develops ideas for the use of specialty advertisers under his own company name. He works as a manufacturer's representative or broker.

A direct selling house combines the functions of supplier and distributor within one organization. It manufactures its own products and sells them directly to advertisers through its own salesforce.

Utility means an item is designed and adapted to serve some purpose or worth. In this study, a plain ball-point pen serves the purpose of writing; another pen with a calendar imprint serves the additional purpose of showing dates. Thus, the second pen has two functions or higher utility than the first pen which has one function.

Attitude. A set of beliefs towards an event, "On the Way to Work in Tennessee" Conference, before the conference began, as measured by a specific attitude test based on the acceptance or rejection of opinions. In this study, attitudes were regarded as a predisposition for behavior and thus directly related to attendance at the conference. A score of 1-66 on the specific attitude scale represented a negative attitude; 67-109 represented a neutral attitude; and 110-154 represented a positive attitude.

Cost. Purchase price of a specialty item. In this study, low cost means twenty-six cents and under, and high cost means one dollar thirty cents and above.

Energy Opportunities Consortium (EOC). A nonprofit corporation established in Knoxville, Tennessee, in March 1976, and financed by business and industry, area chambers of commerce, professional people, national and municipal governments, and consumers. It organizes existing resources to solve regional and national energy conservation and development needs.

VI. ASSUMPTIONS

The following assumptions underlie the relationships investigated and the methodology used in this study.

1. The uncontrolled variables in the study population (intelligence, sex, race, temperament, etc.) have equally affected the control and experimental groups. It is expected that the procedure of randomization assigned these variables in about equal measure to all groups.

2. Subject variables of sex and occupational type can clarify circumstances in which any observed treatment effects should be expected.

3. Persuasive communication directed to recipients through direct mail would affect audience responses positively, and the inclusion of advertising specialties would increase attention to message, exposure to it, and rate of attendance at the conference.

4. Attitudes of subjects towards the conference are significant factors in determining their response to messages about the conference. If an individual holds a negative attitude towards the purposes of the conference, he will tend not to attend.

VII. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1. Because of the nature of the problem, the sample was drawn from a population likely to be above average in education, socioeconomic status, tastes, and sophistication. This limits generalization of results only to this category of people.

2. There was a response rate of 36 percent, i.e., 180 usable responses out of 500 in the sample. Ordinarily, this would be considered a low rate

of response. But an independent campaign by the EOC to attract the same population as the sample to the conference resulted in only 148 attendants out of 15,000 invitations.

3. This study is a one-shot attempt at persuasion. Ideally, persuasive communication efforts should be spread over a time span. Cost and time schedules made this ideal beyond the scope of this study.

4. Cut-off values of "high cost" and "low cost" above as one dollar thirty cents and twenty-six cents respectively were arbitrary figures. A pretest could have shown subjects' perceptions of price and cost differences, but cost of specialties made this approach untenable.

5. Because of the nature of the study, the specialty items were added without changing the accompanying copy to relate specifically to the items.

VIII. HYPOTHESES

The null hypotheses of this study are:

1. There is no significant difference in persuasiveness of messages supplemented with advertising specialties and the same messages without specialties.

2. There is no significant difference between the effects of advertising specialties with two practical use functions and the effects of the same basic advertising specialties with one function. One function in this study means writing. Two functions mean writing and calendar or writing and football schedule.

3. The persuasive effect of advertising specialties do not significantly vary according to sex or occupation type.

4. There is no significant difference in persuasiveness between a high-cost specialty and a low-cost one of the same generic type.

5. There would be no significant difference on attendance among different categories of attitude.

The main questions answered as a result of the study—they also clarify the hypotheses—are:

1. Did a higher percentage of subjects who received specialties respond to sponsor's message and/or attend the conference than of subjects who did not get specialties?

2. Was a two-function specialty more effective than a one-function specialty?

3. Was a high-cost specialty more effective than a low-cost one?

4. Was a higher percentage of women more persuaded than men?

5. Was there a correlation between the effect of specialties and a subject's occupational type?

6. What were the expressed attitudes of the subjects toward "On the Way to Work in Tennessee" conference?

7. Did a higher proportion of subjects expressing positive attitudes come to the conference than the proportion of subjects with less than positive predisposition?

IX. PROCEDURES

This study was undertaken between August and December, 1978. The following procedures were followed in order to gather the data.

1. Permission was obtained from the EOC in June, 1978, to use their conference in the study.

2. Four varieties of a specialty item (see Appendix C) which served as the four treatment variables were purchased from a specialty advertising distributor, Advertising Ideas of Knoxville. The distributor had a catalog of a wide range of items and the investigator made selections to suit the purpose of the study.

3. A systematic sample of 500 with a random start was selected from membership listings of seven Tennessee organizations. These listings were supplied to the researcher by the EOC.

4. Conference invitations and other literature (Appendix A), a semantic-differential questionnaire (Appendix B), and treatment items were mailed to subjects in the sample. Treatment items varied according to a subject's group in the study. The control group received no advertising specialties. Completion and return of the questionnaire was taken as a measure of voluntary exposure to the message in the mail. Scores of attitudes were also obtained from the completed questionnaire.

5. Data on conference attendance were obtained during the conference on November 15, 16, and 17, 1978. Records were kept by a secretary working for the EOC.

6. Data gathered from the questionnaire and at the conference were computed in frequencies and percentages and correlated where applicable to determine relationships. Computations were done at the University of Tennessee Computer Center.

X. ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

Chapter I includes the purpose and importance of the study, definition of terms, assumptions and limitations of the study,

hypotheses and questioms to be answered, as well as the procedures followed in gathering the data. Review of related literature is presented in Chapter II. Chapter III describes the methods and techniques used in gathering the data. The data collected are presented and analyzed in Chapter IV. Chapter V contains summary of findings, conclusions, and recommendations.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Literature of relevance to this study can be grouped around these terms: specialty advertising industry claims, habit and habituation, creativity and persuasion, and role of complexity in eliciting response.

I. SPECIALTY ADVERTISING INDUSTRY CLAIMS

Whatever anybody else might say, spokesmen for advertising specialties are convinced that they produce intended results, that is, build goodwill for the advertiser, and ultimately increase his sales, whether of goods or ideas. Abbott (1965) states that specialties are used: (1) to generate goodwill, and promote a company's image; (2) to announce a business event—openings, new products, anniversaries; (3) to present reference information that promotes the use of a product—useful charts, or dials, lists of lines carried, and lists of branches and phone numbers; (4) to announce and stimulate attendance at trade shows, special sales, annual meetings; (5) to act as "Thank You's" for employees on special occasions such as Christmas, birthdays, anniversaries; and (6) to present useful and interesting information that will be valuable to prospects and thus prolong the life of the specialty—local sports schedules, pocket calendars, memo pads.

Abbott (1965) and Wasem (1971) seem persuaded that once the right specialties are used for the right objectives, and are distributed in

the appropriate atmosphere, some advantages could be taken for granted:

1. Specialties are received with appreciation, since they are useful items given without obligation. They are usually kept and used frequently, have lasting value and repeat exposure and impact without repeat cost.

2. Specialties have no waste circulation. The advertiser's message is told directly to the target audience.

3. Specialties can achieve preferred position. They can be placed permanently in purses, pockets, on office walls, inside or on top of desks, in the home, and even in the boudoir, where no other promotional medium reaches.

4. Specialties do not create an atmosphere of invasion of privacy or annoyance or interruption, but rather convey a feeling of goodwill and appreciation.

5. They, in addition to getting the message read on initial impact, provide multiple impressions as the gift is kept and used.

6. They are relatively inexpensive and, because they are not competitive with other media, can be integrated into campaigns which use a variety of media.

7. Specialty advertising is a flexible medium in that the advertiser can select from a wide range of goods both as to price and to the use to which the specialty will be put.

Only rarely do industry writers and spokesmen acknowledge the possibility that specialty advertising does have some disadvantages. Wasem (1971) mentions some of these. The cost of the specialty, he says,

and the cost of its distribution may preclude the building of a list large enough to make the effort economically feasible. Moreover, because of space limitations, the specialty article usually carries nothing more than the advertiser's name and address. It is thus not an independent medium, Wasem argues, but must be supported by other medium or media in order to achieve any effectiveness.

Wasem might indeed be raising a weak objection here as industry leaders are quick to emphasize that specialties are almost never used as the sole medium. To this effect Professor Gaw (1972, p. 13) states that "the specialty item is frequently retained by the recipient . . . as a reminder of the advertiser and his product long after other enclosures of the (direct) mailing have been discarded. The letter, circular, booklet, or other enclosure which accompanies the advertising specialty provides the advertiser with space for a complete and detailed sales story and for illustrations not provided by the limited space available on most advertising specialties."

Other disadvantages have been mentioned by Wasem. Among them is the possibility that specialty advertising is just another instance of "buying business," which is not a true purpose of any advertising medium. Wasem's point is that an advertiser's services should have sufficient merit to sell themselves. If they don't, no "gimmick" is going to sell the service. And you cannot buy goodwill with "free" merchandise, he claims.

But there are possible disadvantages that are apparently more troubling. "Don't look! Tell me the advertiser's name on the ball-point

pen you have on your desk. Or the book matches in your pocket. Or the calendar in your wallet. Now what did they say about specialties being identifiers?" That's how Wasem puts it. In spite of assertions that specialties are used, and their message presumably read over long periods of time, it is hard to say how many people can indeed identify sponsors without looking. Only research can begin to answer such questions.

This problem will be addressed in greater detail below under "Habituation." There is a real possibility, through not conclusive, that recipients have formed habits or routines of referring to calendars, and writing with ball-points on notepads without caring in particular whose names, addresses, phone numbers, and sales themes happen to be on those items. In effect, the sales theme or logo may lose to habit in a contest for the recipient's consciousness.

Proponents of specialty advertising do not base their claims for its success only on gut feelings and experience. They report "research" and "studies" that mostly confirm what they believe: that specialty advertising is an effective medium. Many of these studies are discussed below, not for their methodological merits, since in some instances the study procedure is not even specified, but for the marketing implications of claimed results. It should be known that there has not been any tradition of academic research, or much of any other type of research, into specialty advertising. In fact, the first research in the area was done in 1964 (Sales Management, 1967, p. 100). All but three (Schrot, 1976; Bolen, 1972; Reinstein, 1974) of the several studies reported below were either sponsored by the SAAI or published by it. The reported results may or may not have been affected by this connection.

II. LITERATURE RELATED TO USE AND EFFECTIVENESS

Schrot (1976) found that 85.7 percent of the banks he studied use calendars to create goodwill, 38.5 percent say they use calendars to create an "identity." He also found that as much as 81.6 percent of his respondents believed that their calendars were accomplishing their set objectives. This seems to indicate to the reader that advertising specialties, in this case, calendars, must be doing a wonderful job in persuasion, until he examines the criteria these banks used to measure specialty effectiveness.

Criteria for measuring effectiveness suffer from (1) some objectives that are not measurable in quantitative terms, (2) objectives that can only be attained in conjunction with other bank activities, and (3) poor study design. Among commonly used objectives reported by Schrot are creating or maintaining goodwill, creating awareness-identity-image, rendering public service, selling services, maintaining a tradition, and showing appreciation.

As much as 69.2 percent of the respondents thought their use of calendars was effective because so many of their customers requested calendars each year that the banks always ran out of them. Therefore, for them, customer requests constituted their measure of effectiveness. Customer requests for specialties might, of course, be construed as evidence that the advertiser's image is in the customers' minds. But it might as well be that customers are interested only in getting something for nothing. Only a study designed to make a customer or specialty recipient respond in some way beneficial to the advertiser can indicate the true impact of specialties.

One more indication that better impact evaluation as well as better definition of objectives are sorely needed is Schrot's report that up to 23.1 percent of his respondents (banks) were afraid to discontinue the use of specialties because their customers had come to expect specialties. In effect, whether the items had impact or not was subordinate to a presumed backlash that their discontinuance would bring. That is a very rickety basis for claim to corporate budget, and leaves no doubt as to what service gets the axe in an austerity.

Despite shortcomings in some of the research techniques, a number of studies deserve attention. According to an SAAI brochure, Louis Cheskin Associates of Chicago did an attitude survey (1974) to compare specialty advertisement against print advertisements as to which portrayed a better image of the advertiser. They interviewed 1200 respondents and found that the majority consistently reported preference for a firm that uses specialties. Such a hypothetical firm was rated as giving "better service," and being more "reliable," more "efficient," more "up-to-date," more "inviting," and more "friendly." Sixty percent of these respondents said they would patronize the specialty-using store and recommend it to a friend.

If specialties can indeed demonstrate such superiority over magazine and newspaper advertisements, then they are truly valuable—especially for those goods and services in which maintaining the loyalty of a select target of customers is more important than mass appeal. However, we still do not know enough to come to such a conclusion.

Creative Research Associates, Inc., was reported in an SAAI brochure to have done a survey (1974) of attitudes of businessmen who receive specialties. The study sought to know how such businessmen felt towards firms that use specialties, if these businessmen could recall the advertiser's imprinted message on the specialties, and if the respondents patronized the advertiser. Results showed that specialties "effectively" communicated the advertiser's message and promoted the goods and services of the advertiser. Specialties also built goodwill.

Attitudes towards business gifts have also been studied. Business gifts—costing between five and ten dollars per piece—resemble specialties in one important respect. Both are given without any request that the recipient do some act as a condition for receiving. Business gifts are made primarily to "show appreciation," "build goodwill," and show "recognition" to employees. Both business gifts and advertising specialties are likely to evoke similar feelings in a recipient because both gifts are without obligation.

Communicator's Research Center, Chicago, found in a survey of businesses (1974) that over half of the surveyed businesses approved of the use of business gifts, or had neutral feelings towards such a practice. The survey found, interestingly, that advertisers had a desire to be guided in what, how, and when to give business gifts. In effect, there is an expressed need to better understand how both business gifts and specialties actually work.

The utlimate effectiveness of an advertising technique is ability to sell goods, ideas, or services. It is true that some advertising experts insist that advertising should be measured in terms of communication goals such as awareness and conviction. But it is equally true that these communication goals are merely a means to an end, increased sales. So, what has research found concerning the effectiveness of advertising specialties in increasing sales? Evidence is still scanty, but promising. William H. Bolen (1972) reported an experiment conducted in a drugstore over a thirteen-month period. He had a hypothesis that if the increase in sales following the introduction of specialties (keeping other variables the same) exceeded the expected normal sales increase (using trend line analysis), then the specialties can be said to have achieved sales effectiveness. His results showed that specialties generated sales well above sales projections, with the increase being greater than the cost of specialties.

While there may be questions concerning the accuracy of sales projections, and the degree of control of other market variables, the results are important for one reason: they extended over a long period of time, ruling out a chance, one-shot finding.

Alvin Reinstein (1974) did an experiment to see whether sales of one product advertised through point-of-purchase displays could be increased by adding a specialty item to the display. His test, which used the specialty item as the only marketing variable on an edible item in a food store, showed a significant increase in sales.

Whether the inclusion of specialties increases the effectiveness of direct mail has been tested by Rome Arnold and Associates, Chicago

(1975) according to the SAAI. They matched two groups and sent them exactly the same mailing, including a specialty within the mailing to the experimental group. After three months, the same two groups received a different mailing, but the specialty was sent this time to the group that did not receive it the first time. The results showed that the inclusion of specialties increased sales by about 75 percent.

Another test involved the General Electric Federal Credit Union. After failing to "generate satisfactory response" to a membership mailing designed to create an awareness of, and applications for a special loan program (Specialty Advertising Information Bureau, 1974), the organization repeated the mailing, this time including a specialty item. The second mailing went out six months after the first, and the result showed an increase in membership applications of some 200 percent. This would have been called a spectacular achievement, but for the absence of a control group. Yet, it is reasonable to suppose that a 200 percent increase might not be due to chance alone.

A similar example included in the report of the above one is of a land development company which ran one mailing with a specialty and a concurrent one without. Resulting inquiries showed that the mailing with a specialty was four times more effective than the one without. However, the report said nothing of the nature of the two samples.

One bank is reported to have experienced a 17 percent increase in deposits after a specialty advertising campaign promoting computerization of its accounts. Another bank realized $6 million new trust business (Rollings, 1976).

All of the reported studies point towards one conclusion, that is, that specialty advertising is effective in selling goods, services, and ideas. There is no indication yet what attributes of the specialties make them work, and what kinds of specialties work better than others. We still need to know whether specialties are effective simply because they come as free gifts, or because of some creative properties or even because of their monetary worth.

Schrot (1976) assumes that the inclusion of a specialty item in a direct mail "adds sufficient bulk to the envelope to encourage readership, and its provision without strings creates a psychological obligation to buy which results in increased response." Perhaps. More studies using controls, variations in the design of specialties, and replication of studies will go some way in confirming or questioning the reported findings.

Perhaps advertising specialties work "on the very advanced principle that a small pellet or pattern in a noisy, redundant barrage of repetition will gradually assert itself. Or, see the message enough times and you are bound to notice it" (Barber, 1975, p. 12). They may be effective simply because everyone likes to receive something for nothing, whether it is useful or merely amusing (Product Management, 1974).

III. LITERATURE ON HABIT AND HABITUATION

It bears repeating that the main impact of many advertising specialties is based on repeated and prolonged exposure before a recipient. Specialties, then, take the forms of calendars, notepads,

pens and pencils, bags, sharpeners, etc., which a recipient frequently uses. This attribute of specialties, that is, being frequently needed regardless of the advertiser's imprinted messages, might indeed be working against the comprehension of the advertising message. If a person refers to a calendar habitually to remind himself of appointments, or writes memos on imprinted notepads as part of his daily routine, he may indeed completely overlook which advertiser has sponsored his specialty item. If this is so, the specialties would serve very little purpose as carriers of messages.

Some psychological theories shed some light on how men are dominated by their habits. John Dewey (1950, p. 24) emphasized that habit "overrides our formal resolutions, our conscious decisions. When we are honest with ourselves we acknowledge that a habit has this power because it is intimately a part of ourselves." This raises a doubt as to whether the receiver of a specialty, who already has an habitual use of the generic item for the basic need it fulfills, would bother to read the accompanying advertising message, especially on a repeated scale.

The force of habit appears to be such that unless, perchance, a recipient's habit includes reading imprinted messages whenever he is using an item, such messages may indeed never be read after the first time, irrespective of the rate of usage of a particular item. What Dewey (p. 108) says about the extreme difficulty of modifying habits in any society bears relevance when applied to individuals. "Ways of belief, of expectation, of judgment," he says, "are not easily modified after they have once taken shape. The force of lag in human life is enormous." That is probably as true of a community as of persons.

Perhaps effective stimulus properties of specialties, such as novelty, gimmick, monetary worth, color, or any other attribute, can induce the recipient to pay attention to their messages, and possibly comprehend them. If so, it would be important to find out which properties of the specialty are most effective in which circumstances, and if the effectiveness is of short or long duration. These later could be subjects of further study.

For a specialty to be able to induce a nonreader of imprinted messages to become a reader of such messages, it must provide a meaningful reward or satisfaction, an acceptable alternative to the satisfaction supplied by the habit of not bothering to read labels or messages. As Mursell (1953) puts it: "We form a habit by discovering a method of achieving a purpose, a method of obtaining a satisfaction. The method we discover becomes standardized, i.e., habitual, because it is satisfactory, because it works well enough to suit us, or because it is the best method we can find, even if it works badly" (p. 30). The specialty advertiser may be consoled by the thought that not all of his targeted persons are prior habitual users of his item's generic type.

Yet, specialties should be chosen on the basis that they have enough stimulus properties to break old habits (say, of nonreading of labels while referring to a desk calendar) and replace these habits with new ones desired by the advertiser. Specialties, in effect, should possess not only the quality of novelty that attracts attention in the first place, but also the qualities that David Berlo (1960) calls "determinants of habit strength." We can look at Berlo's "five

principles of effective communication that can be drawn from research evidence on the determinants of habit strength in the individual" in terms of the probability that advertising specialties can fit into these principles.

The first of Berlo's principles states that the strength of a habit is determined in part by the frequency of rewarded repetition. If a stimulus (such as a specialty) is presented, a response is made, and if the response is rewarded, habit is strengthened. The more repetitions, the stronger the habit—if the response is rewarded, that is, if the user's need is fulfilled. The problem for specialty advertising seems to be that an item, say a pencil sharpener, might fulfill the recipient's need for sharpening without inducing him to read the advertiser's message on a repeated basis. However, the message may be read a sufficient number of times, though not all the time, to make the advertising worth its cost.

The second principle calls for the isolation of the S-R relationship, in other words, for the exclusion of competing stimuli." Specialties seem to fit very well in this particular. They are often delivered through mails and by hand, and spared the competition of other advertisements on printed pages and broadcast media.

The third Berlo principle states that the bigger the amount of receiver-perceived reward, the more the habit tends to be strengthened. Perhaps the more functions and the higher the monetary value of an item, the more welcome and persuasive to a receiver.

The fourth principle is that reward should follow response as soon as possible, the sooner the better. Valued specialties should, according

to this factor, be easy to use, so as to satisfy the user's need immediately.

Finally, the responses that are easy to make are more likely to be retained than are responses that are hard to make. The less the effort required of the receiver, the more often he tends to use it.

Manufacturers of specialties and advertisers do try to make specialties that score high on the Berlo factors, but they appear to face another problem, that is, "habituation" or "response decrement resulting from repeated stimulation" (Tighe & Leaton, 1976, p. ix). This phenomenon of habituation has been given much theoretical and experimental study by psychologists and neurophysiologists. Below is a review of the principal ideas on habituation selected on the basis of their possible implications for specialty advertising. Some of the theories and experiments sometimes produce contradictory or differing results. However, the differences are not on whether the construct "habituation" does indeed operate: they mostly conclude it does. But there is considerable divergence on the speculation about the internal mechanism of an organism (man, rat, etc.) that brings about habituation. For our purposes here, it may not be of much importance to detect which neurons actually activate habituation so long as we understand how it operates, and how to reduce its effects. Nevertheless, we need to review some of the speculations and subsequent experiments on what internal processes account for habituation for the light they throw on conceptualizing the phenomenon. Moreover, attempts to understand the internal processes suggest ways to minimize habituation when necessary.

Thorpe (1963) described habituation as a simple type of learning, in which the animal learns to stop responding to insignificant or irrelevant stimuli. Sokolov (1963) supplied a model of the neural processes that operate during habituation. According to Sokolov, when a novel stimulus is introduced into an organism's environment, an orienting response (OR) is elicited which consists of EEG (electroencephalogram, the alpha blocking response) activation and a complex of autonomic responses indicating arousal. Upon repeated stimulus presentations the brain forms a neuronal model which incorporates the salient features of the stimulus, such as intensity, duration, and its temporal relationship to other stimuli. There is then a negative feedback from the organism whenever a stimulus matches the model in the cortex. The effect of the stimulus is thus reduced by raising thresholds, and cortical activation is reduced by inhibiting sensory inputs to the recticular activating system. The result is habituation of the OR. Lewis (1971) and McCall (1971) support Sokolov's model. In contrast, Thompson and Groves (1973) view response habituation as an intrinsic property of certain neurons in the central nervous system, possibly operating in similar ways in both the spinal cord and the brain. The question of the correct model has not yet been settled (Graham, 1973).

Indeed, the general phenomenon of decreased responsiveness has been given varying constructs, examples of which are extinction (Pavlov, 1927), stimulus satiation (Glanzer, 1953), reactive inhibition (Hull, 1943), and fatigue (Sherrington, 1906). However, these constructs do not differ appreciably in terms of operational definitions from habituation (Thompson & Spencer, 1966).

Despite variations in construct, certain parameters have been identified as characterizing habituation. It is necessary to state those "parametric characteristics of habituation" relevant to our problem in order to clarify by what signs the construct could be identified. These common characteristics might also serve as the detailed operational definition of habituation. A single, generally accepted definition of habituation has not yet emerged, but there is widespread agreement from studies that habituation exhibits these characteristics (Thompson & Spencer, 1966).

1. If a particular stimulus elicits a response, repeated applications of the stimulus result in decreased response (habituation). The decrease is usually a function of the number of stimulus presentations. There has been a consistent finding of this phenomenon in several studies (Harris, 1943; Wendt, 1951; Hinde, 1954; Thorpe, 1956). For specialty advertising, this factor poses the question of how many exposures of an item would bring forth habituation.

2. If the stimulus is withheld, the response tends to recover over time (spontaneous recovery). This finding was essentially reported by the studies quoted above. Withholding the stimulus is possible in other media advertising, but perhaps not in specialty advertising. For example, television advertising campaigns can be arranged in discontinuous phases allowing for spontaneous recovery (of interest in the message, lyric, slogan, or whatever) intervals, whereas a specialty, once received, is kept constantly by the receiver for as long as he wants it. There could be no deliberate withholding of the specialty for the purpose of reactivating interest in it.

3. Other things being equal, the more rapid the frequency of stimulation, the more rapid and/or more pronounced is habituation (Harris, 1943; Glanzer, 1953; Welker, 1961). This is another problem about which specialty advertisers can do very little. The fact that specialties are exposed constantly is considered a virtue, while this constancy or frequency is found to accelerate habituation.

4. The weaker the stimulus, the more rapid and/or more pronounced is habituation. Strong stimuli may yield no significant habituation (Harris, 1943; Welker, 1961). It appears from this that the "stronger" the specialty, the more remote the habituation tendency. It remains to be known in each case what attributes of specialties and the audience make them strong stimuli.

Several studies of habituation, in general, have verified some widely known of its parameters (Askew, Leibrecht & Ratner, 1969; Corman, 1967; Dyal & Hetherington, 1968; Geer, 1966; Germana, 1968; Russel, 1967). Some of these parameters are of direct relevance to specialty advertising. The theories and studies reviewed below attempt to account for one or more of these parameters, and I shall try to relate the parameters to specialty advertising wherever applicable.

Sokolov's (1963) model of habituation, previously described, has been supported by several experiments (Zimny & Kienstra, 1967; Zimny & Miller, 1966; Zimny & Schwabe, 1966). According to this model, advertising specialties would cease to excite the desired response after repeated exposure. If this should happen, one major advantage of the use of specialties, repeated exposure without repeated cost, would be forfeited.

This model has some shortcomings. It does not, for example, specify the number of repetitions at which habituation sets in, for it is well known that some repetition is almost always necessary before individuals can learn or respond to a new stimulus. Moreover, it does not explain the effects of stimulus intensity: Does a bright color induce habituation more slowly than a dull color? Would it make a difference if one item portrays a more creative marvel than another mundane type?

Another theory of habituation has been proposed by Stein (1966). In his formulation the stimulus is said to affect two sorts of systems in the brain: an exciting system which subsequently engages an inhibitory system. Both of these systems affect response. As a stimulus is repeated, it becomes classically conditioned to the postexcitatory inhibition, and this inhibition moves forward in time with the consequence that aroused response is suppressed.

Like Sokolov's theory, Stein's classical conditioning theory has not addressed the element of stimulus intensity. In all of advertising, including specialty advertising, message intensity (pitch, color, size, distinctiveness, novelty, etc.) is a factor in effectiveness of the advertisement (the equivalent of stimulus). It may indeed be that after a new stimulus first evokes excitement, inhibition (habituation) then sets in. But we need to know if the onset of inhibition is uniform across all message or stimulus intensities, or if a higher arousal level induced by a higher intensity of stimulus would show an inverse relationship with habituation, that is, the higher the initial arousal, the less pronounced the subsequent arousal inhibition.

Hernandez-Peon (1960) states simply that habituation results from inhibition of sensory input which can occur as far peripherally as the first sensory relay nucleus (e.g., the cochlear nucleus). There is, however, no clear connection between habituation, which is a behavioral phenomenon, and the blockade (inhibition) of sensory peripheral parts. A study by Weinberger, Goodman, and Kitzes (1969) did not support the notion that behavioral habituation is a function of peripheral auditory system blockade.

This theory offers very little guide to a user of specialties. If indeed blockade of sensory input can start as far as the extremes of the senses, a communicator is helpless about that. It is unlikely, though, that conscious behavioral response, negative or positive, can ever occur without involving the brain.

Ratner (1970) proposed a theory of habituation based essentially on the notions of "response refractory period" and "competing response interference." Thus, a response is elicited by an "eliciting stimulus" and is followed by a "refractory period." Habituation involves the intrusion of competing responses that arise from the action of stronger eliciting stimuli during the refractory periods. Ratner suggests that the amount of habituation is greater for higher intensity stimuli.

If habituation is a result of the intrusion of competing responses, advertising specialties would have a clear advantage. They usually reach their targets without the clutter of competing messages. Of course, competing stimuli and corollary competing responses do operate all the time, especially during the "refractory periods." But competition is

more noticeable in other forms of advertising. Moreover, it appears that specialties possessing effective stimulus properties can elicit long-lasting responses, and thus less habituation, even during refractory times when other stimuli do compete.

One theory of habituation that attempts to account for most of the "parameters of habituation" is the dual-process theory (Groves & Thompson, 1970). The dual process theory makes some general assumptions:

1. Every stimulus that evokes a behavioral response has two properties: it elicits a response and influences the "state" of the organism. The stimulus-response pathway is called the most direct route through the central nervous system from stimulus to discrete motor response. This response may be direct, circuited, redundant, variable, learned or unlearned. "State" is the general level of arousal, excitation, tendency to respond, etc. of the organism. It is a sum of the factors that influence the organism in the direction of making a response. These two categories are not necessarily mutually exclusive, according to Groves and Thompson, and must indeed interact at some point to yield the net behavioral response tendency.

The influence of "state" on degree of response habituation has indeed been suggested by some studies of organisms and responses (Goodman, 1969; Brown & Marshall, 1967; Gogan, 1970; Glaser, 1966).

2. Repetition of an effective stimulus results in an inferred decremental process in the stimulus-response (S-R) pathway which may be termed habituation. The rate of development and degree of habituation are positively related to stimulus frequency and inversely related to

stimulus intensity. That is, frequency has a strong effect and intensity a weak effect on habituation. This contrasts with Ratner's (1970) suggestion that habituation is higher with higher intensity stimuli.

3. Presentation of an effective stimulus results in an inferred incremental process in a state of excitation or tendency to respond of the organism which may be termed sensitization. Sensitization is said to occur in "state" stystems but not in S-R pathways. The amount and duration of sensitization are directly related to stimulus intensity. At higher intensities, sensitization is directly related to stimulus frequency. At low intensities there may be little or no sensitization. Repeated presentations of a sensitizing stimulus result in progressively less sensitization, that is, sensitization decreases or habituates.

In consequence of these assumptions, Grover and Thompson propose that "the strength of the behavioral response elicited by a repeated stimulus is the net outcome of the two independent processes of habituation and sensitization" (p. 442). Sensitization is said to predominate in cases where stimulus intensity is high, and habituation occurs when stimulus intensity is not high and also when there are high frequencies of stimulation. This takes place only in the absence of other contingencies, such as reinforcement.

One can safely assume from the dual-process theory that the message attributes of specialty advertisement, indeed of other forms of advertisement, are at least as important as any other factors in eliciting target response. Specialties which possess great intensity in the forms

of attractive colors, shapes, uniqueness, novelty, etc., or provide satisfying reward in the form of utility or sentimental value, excite or arouse the internal state of the recipient. He thus has an increased disposition to respond to the message, that is, read and, presumably, comprehend it. On the other hand, dull, uninspiring specialty items, especially when presented rather often, accelerate habituation, thus "blocking" the stimulus-response pathway. All of this puts a premium on creativity of specialties. We will discuss creativity later in connection with theories of persuasive communications.

An important and relevant parameter of habituation accounted for by Grover and Thompson (1970) is dishabituation or an increase in amplitude of a habituated response following a strong, extra, or different stimulus. It is sometimes believed to disrupt or abolish the process of habituation. Grover and Thompson suggest that dishabituation does not disrupt habituation, but rather is an instance of sensitization in which repeated stimulus leads to increased rather than decreased responsiveness. They cite evidence from studies on the spinal flexion reflex (Thompson & Spencer, 1966) in support of the claim that dishabituation is simply a superimposed increase in responsiveness that does not disrupt the habituation process. Hinde (1966) also found that increased responsiveness is common when the stimulus has positive reinforcement value, and when stimuli are strong, significant, or even aversive.

What we seem to be coming up with in relation to specialties is that habituation is indeed a threat to the prolonged effectiveness of specialties after their repeated exposure. However, the threat of

habituation can indeed be minimized by the attributes of the items: strength, significance or, perhaps, uniqueness. One problem still remains, though: despite the sensitizing characteristics of the stimuli (specialties), and the positive contribution of dishabituation to effectiveness, absolute habituation can only be delayed, not eliminated, over time. The problem then is to find out how long an item would be exposed before a target until habituation becomes inevitable. At such a point, new items or alterations in existing ones become necessary.

Advertising Wearout

Marketing and advertising research labels this phenomenon of habituation "wearout." Based on the findings of verbal learning research (Hull, 1952), advertisers have generally engaged in repetition of messages. They have embraced the "weak effects" hypothesis, which states that the effect of any one exposure is slight, and only very substantial levels of repetition "ingrain a stimulus in the mind" (Greenberg & Sutton, 1973).

But research on "wearout," that is, the occurrence of a decrement in the recall of a message while the message is gaining a higher level of exposure, has demonstrated that repetition produces inhibitory factors in the communication process at some point (Leavitt, 1974; Krueger, 1930; Ray & Sawyer, 1971). Craig, Sternthal, and Leavitt (1976) have replicated field findings on wearout inside the laboratory. They speculate that ". . . wearout is most probably caused by subjects' inattention to the stimuli and their reactance when very high levels of repetition are employed" (p. 370). The problem still remains for the advertiser to find the optimal level of repetition. This optimal level

is likely to vary with each communication situation, although Craig et al. found in their experiment that "when the level of repetition was three times that needed to learn the brand names, subjects exhibited significantly poorer recall than when repetition was only twice that needed for learning" (p. 370).

IV. LITERATURE ON PERSUASION AND CREATIVITY IN RELATION TO SPECIALTY ADVERTISING

With the possibility that preexisting habits of intended target audiences, as well as the phenomenon of habituation can work against the impact of advertising specialties, theory and research on persuasion might provide a guide on how specialties can minimize effects of habit and habituation.

McGuire (1973) noted six behavioral steps in persuasion: presentation of the persuasive communication, attention to it, comprehension, yielding to what is comprehended, retention of the message, and overt behavior. An advertiser's ultimate concern is with overt behavior consonant with his message. Each of these steps is affected in some way by five independent variables: source of the persuasive communication, the message, the channel, the receiver, and the destination. Much of what we have discussed above concerning habit and habituation operates within the receiver. We now examine the message and the channel, in our context, advertising specialties themselves. They carry and form parts of the persuasive message.

Message Variables

Only a limited number of message variables apply to specialty advertising because of little available space on specialties for writing messages. One relevant message variable is style within which is metaphor. Some studies have suggested that metaphorical as opposed to literal expressions may enhance persuasive impact (Bowers, 1964; Bowers & Osborn, 1966). Another variable of style is humor which McGuire (1973, p. 233) speculates might enhance "attention to the speech but deters comprehension, while facilitating yielding by putting the recipient in a more accepting mood."

Another relevant message variable is appeal: whether it should be emotional or rational, to self-interest or to justice, etc. Research findings are mixed and operational definitions of these independent variables are idiosyncratic to each study conditions. However, Carlson (1956) found that communications appeals are effective if the recipient perceives them as being instrumental to the attainment of his desired goals.

Whether persuasive messages should contain explicit or implicit conclusions is important to the creator of specialties who has to make full use of what little writing space he has. Explicit conclusions are shown to be more efficacious (Hovland & Mandel, 1952; McGuire, 1964) even though learning theories recommend recipient participation which an implicit conclusion would involve.

Repetition of the persuasive message is inevitable with the use of specialties which depend on their presumed long-term impact on being

kept over extended periods by recipients. Repetition has been demonstrated as adding to persuasive impact (Peterson & Thurstone, 1933; Straats, 1968; Stewart, 1964). However, after two or three repetitions, impact tends to reach an asymptote beyond which repetitions appear to have little effect. This returns us to the question asked earlier (under habituation): What is the optimum repetition level?

Channel Variables

McLuhan (1962, 1964) has been so convinced of the power of communication channels or media that he claimed that "the things on which words were written down count more than the words themselves. . . The medium is the message." It is difficult to argue with such propositions since they cannot be verified by empirical study. The point has been made, however, perhaps somewhat exaggerated, that the message channel (specialties) makes an important contribution to effectiveness.

The effects of the channel of communication are now known to be bound up with the characteristics of the audience. For example, as people grow older, they increasingly prefer serious and informative content, and they use print media more than television (Berelson, 1949; Schramm, Lyle & Pool, 1963). Use of print material also rises with education. The effects of channel often take the form of selective attention and perception; that is, certain attributes of the channel help determine voluntary exposure to information.

Freedman and Sears (1965), reviewing research on selective perception, suggest some causes:

1. The availability of the stimulus—how easy at hand it is. More people look at large advertisements than at small ones. Saturating a broadcasting station with spot announcements ensures that most listeners will attend to at least one of them. A person is more likely to read a magazine if it lies beside his easy chair than if he has to go out and buy it. Specialty advertisers take note of this factor as much as anyone else. They use items that are positioned within convenient reach of recipients: on office walls or tables, in handbags or dress pockets, or at home.

2. Contrast with stimulus background—The stimulus should stand out from the field around it, in contrast to the colors or patterns around it.

3. The set of the receiver, that is, what his mind is set to look for. Everyone comes to a communication situation prepared by previous experiences to look for certain things. Manufacturers of specialties can at best hope to be accurate in gauging the needs of the receiver. If the intended receiver is a farmer, he would probably appreciate an item depicting the weather rather than a sliderule, for instance.

4. Estimated usefulness of the stimuli—The receiver seeks information for a particular purpose at a given time—to know the date, to figure out some calculation, or to locate a street. The more he estimates that the specialty item can fill his need, the more he uses it.

But perhaps the more relevant variables in respect to specialty items are utility, cost, and creative beauty (aesthetics). The cost of producing an item, its utility level, plus its cuteness or aesthetics

probably combine to give it a "quality." Some specialties might be perceived as more qualitative than others, more worthwhile, and perhaps do elicit more positive response.

V. THE COST OF SPECIALTIES AS COMMUNICATOR OF QUALITY

No research has been found on whether the unit cost of a specialty item communicates its quality to the recipient, and if perceived quality of an item has any bearing on its effectiveness. However, it is appropriate to extend the findings of marketing research on what is known in the business as "price reliance" to advertising specialties. The recipient, of course, may not immediately know how much his gift costs. But he can estimate by judging its attributes and, if he is so inclined, find out from the market. Specialty advertisers would be glad to know if a higher outlay on a unit item means a higher and/or corresponding return in the form of client response.

Many consumers are believed to perceive quality of products through their prices. The higher the price, the higher the quality is thought to be. Examples of products for which pricing strategies reflect this belief include perfume and coffee (Oxenfeldt, 1960), and stockings (Knauth, 1949). Many laboratory experiments have supported the belief that price communicates quality (Gabor & Granger, 1966; Lambert, 1970; McConnel, 1968). Shapiro (1973), in a field experiment that required 600 female respondents to rate the qualities of five pairs of products which were comparable in every respect except artifically differentiated price tags, concluded thus: "The data tend to confirm that price is a

communicator of quality and associated attributes when the product was actually present and the setting relatively realistic. This finding held for several methods of analysis and for five different products" (p. 289).

VI. THE ROLE OF COMPLEXITY IN ELICITING RESPONSE

Creators of advertising specialty items incorporate the attributes of utility, durability, worth, and attractiveness in an effort to keep a recipient interested. We have noted that a gift has to have some usefulness to the receiver (a ball-point pen for writing, for example), or perhaps a psychological value, say, a bicentennial flag. The same gift must have enough "worth" to hold up under reasonable use. We have also noted that the cost of the item, which a receiver can presume or find out if he cares enough, might communicate quality.

This brings us to the matter of simplicity versus complexity of a work of art or a specialty item. Berlyne (1960) has a list of what he calls "collative variables," that is, aspects of objects that tend to create arousal. Among his list are novelty, surprisingness, uncertainty, conflict, and complexity. Berlyne's theory is that if an individual is confronted with an object more novel, complex, or irregular than those surrounding it, he will be more aroused, and in order to reduce his arousal, he tends to explore the novelty. This appears to bear direct relation with advertising specialties, often called novelties, in which novelty and surprise are usually incorporated. One might guess that the more novel, surprising, and/or complex an item, the

more attention it gets, provided these attributes stay within the threshold at which an individual can still handle the "cognitive uncertainty" of Munsinger and Kessen (1964).

An advertising study by Morrison and Sainoff (1972) used Berlyne's theory to test the relationship between looking time at an advertisement and its complexity. They conclude that advertisements which are visually more complex are looked at for longer periods of time. There might be a question whether looking time affects persuasiveness, but we need not get into that here. It is sufficient to know that modest complexity of a specialty item guarantees it some attention. Attention is a step in persuasion.

In the present study, two-function specialty pens are more complex than the one-function pens. It is of interest to see if greater complexity positively correlates with greater effectiveness.

VII. ATTITUDE RESEARCH

Whether the use of attitude measurement in research is justified depends on how attitude is defined. Writers generally agree that attitudes are a predisposition of some sort and can be generally defined as feelings for or against something (Remmers, Gage & Rummell, 1965, p. 307). Consequently, attitudes can only be meaningful when considered in relation to a specific object or situation.

According to Remmers et al. (1965), "an attitude may be defined as an emotionalized tendency, organized through experience, to react positively or negatively toward a psychological object" (p. 308). Rokeach (1968) similarly described attitude as a "relatively enduring

organization of beliefs around an object or situation predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner" (p. 112). Shaw and Wright (1967) described attitude in much the same vein when they called it a "set of affective reactions toward the attitude object, derived from the concepts or beliefs that the individual has concerning the object . . ." (p. 13).

In this study, ascertaining subject attitude towards the planned conference can clarify a circumstance in which observed results should be expected. Attitudes appear likely to correlate with dependent variables in predictable ways.

There is thus need for a convenient method of attitude measurement. Attitude measurement scales have proved to be useful in a variety of research projects (Edwards, 1957, p. 1). The attitude score as measured on a scale usually gives the position of the subject on a continuum from positive to negative (Edwards, p. 50). The degree to which a person is for or against an object can be estimated by his responses to the statements on the scale.

One limitation to attitude measurement is that it can give only a "rough approximation of the way in which attitudes actually exist in the mental life of the individual." Because each person possesses many contradictory attitudes "his mental set at the moment of submitting to a scale may tell only a part of the story" (Fishbein, 1967, p. 12). At a different time, the person's responses to the statements may be different.

Attitude measurement is also affected by how willing he is to express his true feelings. Individuals tend to keep their attitudes

private if they think those attitudes are likely to be disproved. This is one reason why attitude questionnaires are usually administered anonymously (Remmers, Gage & Rummel, p. 311).

In the words of Thurstone (1959, p. 218), the limitations of attitude scales should be recognized:

> All that we can do with an attitude scale is to measure the attitude actually expressed with the full realization that the subject may be consciously hiding his true attitude or that the social context of the situation has made him really believe what he expresses. . . . It is probably worthwhile to measure an attitude expressed by opinions. It is another problem to interpret in each case the extent to which the subjects have expressed what they really believe.

There is disagreement among writers on whether a person's opinions can predict his behavior. Thurstone (1969) considers it important to know people's expressed beliefs even if their conduct turns out to be inconsistent. If subjects intentionally distort their attitudes, then the attitude scale measures the attitudes which they are trying to make people believe they have (p. 217). Shaw and Wright (1967) as well as Rokeach (1968) believe that attitudes guide and direct the overt behavior of the individual. Krech, Crutchfield, and Ballachey (1962) also stated that "if an individual holds a positive attitude toward a given object, he will be disposed to . . . support the object; if he holds a negative attitude he will be disposed to . . . destroy the object" (p. 140).

The literature repeatedly notes the importance and effect of attitudes towards an attitude object. It is thus necessary to identify the attitudes of this study's subjects towards the subject of preparation of youth for today's job market. A positive attitude is more likely

than a negative attitude to predispose a subject to accept persuasive communication on the matter. This may help to clarify the specific circumstances in which to expect certain effects of the independent variables.

VIII. SUMMARY

Four main conclusions stand out of the literature reviewed above.

1. Speculation and a limited amount of research credit specialty advertising with impressive persuasive capability.

2. Theories and research on habit and habituation point up factors that could limit the presumed effectiveness of specialty advertising. Habituation knocks at the very foundation on which the effectiveness of specialties is based, that is, repeated exposure without apparent invasion of privacy.

3. Certain properties of a stimulus, in this case, specialties, could enhance effectiveness, at least in the form of securing initial attention. We can only know which attributes of specialties can enhance effectiveness by doing studies that manipulate some independent variables, such as cost and number of functions.

4. An individual's prior favorable attitude towards an object may be a necessary condition for a positive effect of specialties.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND PROCEDURES FOR DATA COLLECTION

The study sought to determine (1) if enclosing advertising specialties in a direct mail communication better "causes" the message receiver to act in accordance with the sponsor's request than would direct mail alone; (2) if an expensive specialty is more effective than a less expensive specialty; (3) if a "two-function" specialty is more persuasive than a "one-function" specialty; and (4) if there are any meaningful relationships between the effect of specialties and the receiver's prior attitude, sex, and occupation.

This chapter contains a description of the design of the study, independent and dependent variables, data collection method, study population, method of selecting the sample, and procedures for analyzing the data.

I. DESIGN

The study design is the posttest only controlled field experiment (based on Haskins' design notations, 1968, 1978). The communication problem under investigation—using advertising specialties to increase the effectiveness of direct mail in persuading certain people to attend a conference—lent itself to naturalistic, real-life study. A five-group systematic sample was selected from membership lists of the study population: vocational-technical educators; guidance counselors; personnel directors; business and industry management and training

personnel; school superintendents, principals, supervisors, and teachers; labor representatives; college personnel; and public administrators in Tennessee, who had duties involving manpower training, advising, or employment.

There were four treatment (experimental) groups and one control group, and the groups were randomly assigned to treatments and to control. Table 1 is the design notation. The legend explaining the symbols follows the table.

The choice of the controlled field experiment was based on its superior advantages over other study methods, such as the laboratory experiment and the survey, in determining cause and effect relationships. The controlled field experiment combines the advantages of the survey and the laboratory experiment, while avoiding their inherent disadvantages (Haskins, 1968). For example, by using a control group, identical to the rest of the sample except in the forcible exclusion of the treatment variable, we can infer effects attributable to the treatment within a reasonable error margin. A laboratory experiment can do this, but a survey cannot. Delivering the message and measuring the effect in a naturalistic setting eliminated the effects of the study setting as a source of bias. Subjects only had opportunity for exposure, as different from forced exposure (used in laboratory experiments) so that natural selective exposure to messages did operate.

The advantages of this controlled experiment could be summarized thus: possibility to establish cause and effect relationship; control

TABLE I

DESIGN NOTATION

	Before Sept. 26, 1978	Sept. 26-Oct. 26, 1978	Oct. 26-Nov. 14, 1978	Nov. 15-17, 1978
$P1_a$	--	T1(ox)	$Mnr_{(1)}$: M2	$Mnr_{(3)}$
$P1_b$	--	T2(ox)	$Mnr_{(1)}$: M2	$Mnr_{(3)}$
$P1_c$	--	T3(ox)	$Mnr_{(1)}$: M2	$Mnr_{(3)}$
$P1_d$	--	T4(ox)	$Mnr_{(1)}$: M2	$Mnr_{(3)}$
$P1_e$	--	T0(fn)	$Mnr_{(1)}$: M2	$Mnr_{(3)}$

P1 = All males and females in Tennessee currently working as trainers, advisers, administrators, or employers of youth manpower for government, business/industry, labor, and higher education.

$P1_{a-e}$ = Random samples of P1, N = 100 each; systematic sampling with a random start drawn from lists representing members of business/industry, government and labor and higher education.

T1 = Direct mail containing brochure inviting receiver to "On the Way to Work in Tennessee" conference (Appendix A), attitude questionnaire (Appendix B), a one-function, low-cost, imprinted ball-point pen.

T2 = Direct mail of brochure, questionnaire, and a two-function, low-cost, imprinted pen.

T3 = Direct mail of brochure, questionnaire, and a one-function, high-cost, imprinted pen.

T4 = Direct mail of brochure, questionnaire, and a two-function, high-cost, imprinted pen.

T0 = Direct mail of brochure and questionnaire. Experimental variable was withheld.

All treatments were unobstrusive because they were received as normal mail.

(ox) = Opportunity for exposure to the mailed message, indicating subject could choose to be exposed to message or not.

TABLE 1 (continued)

(fn) = Forced (withheld) nonexposure of this group to the experimental variable, advertising specialties.

$Mnr_{(1)}$ = A nonreactive measure of subject's exposure to message. Subject indicates exposure by filling out and returning the questionnaire.

M2 = Measure of attitude toward the conference. Information obtained from a 25-item semantic differential scale for scores of positive, neutral, or negative.

$Mnr_{(3)}$ = A nonreactive measure of subject's attendance at conference. Information was obtained from EOC register of conference attendants.

Dates = Times designated activities took place.

for confounding factors; nonreactive measurement conditions; message considered significant (not trivial) by subjects; messages presented by the normal spokesmen (Energy Opportunities Consortium), and not by the investigator; no subject-perceived connection between communication and measurement; the four-week time interval between the two measurements would allow effects on the second dependent variable, attendance, to reach a stable level; use of "behavior" (filling out questionnaire and conference attendance) as the dependent variables. This is superior to the usual respondent self-report of message "awareness."

This study did pose the usual problems of controlled field experiments: expensiveness, low response rate, and consumption of time. Efforts were made to reduce some of the problems. A fairly large sample size of 500 was used, to ensure enough response to make data analysis meaningful. Some chores were performed by the organization hosting the conference, thus freeing the investigator to concentrate on methodological matters. The EOC was kind to provide population listings, mailing address labels, and office space for stuffing the envelopes. The organization also helped the investigator to reduce his mailing expense by allowing him to use EOC's bulk postage rate.

II. DATA COLLECTION METHOD

There were two methods of data collection. First, a short, 25-item questionnaire (Appendix B) was enclosed with the brochure sent to subjects. Completion of the questionnaire served two purposes. It was firstly a measure of whether the direct mail message was read at all.

Subjects who filled out the questionnaire indicated they had read the message. Of course a subject could read the message and yet fail to complete the questionnaire for other reasons. However, randomization should even out this omission (if it occurred) among all groups.

Secondly, the questionnaire was used to find out subjects' initial attitude towards the subject matters of the conference. It was realized that the treatment variables might not by themselves alone have caused a subject to respond. A very important variable factor was a subject's predisposition towards the issues to be treated at the conference. Correlating subject scores on the dependent variables with scores on attitude offered an explicit description of the circumstances in which the independent variables produced results. Occupational listings provided information on sex and occupation.

The second method of data collection was direct observation of behavior. A record of attendance was kept during the three-day conference. From this record subjects who were listed as attending were sorted into their respective study groups, sex, occupation, and prior attitude.

This second data-collection method was intended to collect data after the anticipated effect of the treatment should have stabilized. It is one thing for a subject to have a prior positive attitude and/or exposure to message, and quite another to show up four weeks later.

Choice of data-collection methods had been determined by the nature of the problem. The problem was to increase exposure to message and, subsequently, attendance at the conference. Advertising specialties

had been added to direct-mailed brochures as incentives. The true effect (if any) of the specialties would be better detected the more naturalistic the conditions. In conducting this study, the notion of keeping every activity as "natural" as possible was a paramount consideration. Treatments reached subjects as ordinary mail. Attendance at the conference was also an event that would not alert anybody to the possibility of a study going on. The one thing that might have been obtrusive was the questionnaire on attitudes. To minimize this possibility the questionnaire was introduced to the subject as coming from the conference sponsor for the purpose of getting his input on how to improve this and similar conferences in the future.

III. INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT VARIABLES

The independent variables in this study were (1) receipt of advertising specialties; (2) cost of advertising specialties; and (3) number of functions of specialties. The independent variables were thus manipulated in four ways (manipulations of a specialty item that performs the basic function of writing, a ball-point pen). There were variations of the pen's characteristics of cost (as a measure of its perceived worth), and level of utility (one function versus two functions), and an interaction of cost with number of functions, to see if interaction enhanced or otherwise altered effects of cost or number of functions alone.

Thus, four variations of ball-point pens were ordered from a Memphis manufacturer, through a distributor in Knoxville, each variation to be

sent to one of the treatment (experimental) groups. The control group received no pens. The four variations, which were also the four treatments, are as follows:

1. One hundred plain-type of ball-point pens with only the imprinted message of the conference on it: "Relating Education to Job Needs. On the Way to Work in Tenn. Conference. November 15, 16 & 17. (615)637-4550." This was a low-cost pen (20¢ apiece). It was colored yellow, without a metal tip or decorative middle rings. Its value lay in the basic function of writing that it could be used for, and the conference message that it portrayed on a continuing basis.

A receiver of this pen, if he was so inclined, would recognize it as inexpensive, even though useful. The idea was to detect if this recognition of inexpensiveness affected the way he reacted to it. Did he call it "cheap," for instance, and so not worthy of his appreciation? It had only one function: writing.

2. The second variation of pens (100) carried the same imprint as the others. It was inexpensive (25¢), but it was more complex than the first and third varieties. It carried the then new season football schedule of the University of Tennessee as well as a metal-like tipping and these added, not only complexity, but also an additional service. Football fans were expected to value the schedule, and nonfans were expected to value knowledge of the schedule as it could affect their other plans. It thus had two functions: writing and football schedule.

A comparison between the effects of the first and second varieties was expected to yield the effect of number of functions. Both were low-cost, but one had one function, while the other had two functions.

3. One hundred plain-type but relatively expensive ball-point pens ($1.30 apiece). This type carried the same imprint as the other pens. Its expensiveness could be seen in the quality of materials with which it was made, such as chrome tipping and metal clip. This variation in price was used to determine the effect of perceived monetary worth of an item. This is why the disparity in the prices of the two plain-type pens was sufficiently wide (20¢ vs. $1.30) to enable any differing effects to be attributable to price. This pen had only one function too: writing.

4. A fourth variety of pens (100) carried the same imprint as the others. It was expensive ($1.40) and had two functions. It carried a calendar. Comparison of two and four was expected to show differences due to cost.

The independent variable, "use of specialties," was withheld from the fifth group of subjects. This was to detect if the use of specialties (all varieties) yielded a higher subject compliance than nonuse.

The dependent variables were (1) response to questionnaire and (2) attendance. Dependent variable scores were compared for the three independent variables and were also correlated with subject characteristics of sex, occupational type, and previous attitude, for possible relationships.

IV. POPULATION

The sample was drawn from a population of 1,560 men and women in the state of Tennessee who have responsibilities in the training, counseling,

recruitment, or management of job personnel in labor, business/industry, government, and higher educational organizations. The population was primarily composed of vocational-technical educators; guidance counselors; personnel directors; school superintendents, principals, supervisors, and teachers; college personnel; labor representatives; and public administrators.

The sampling frame was compiled from the membership listings of the following bodies: Tennessee manufacturers with at least 500 employees; State Board of Regents of universities; community college presidents, county and city school superintendents; Knoxville Building and Construction Trades Council; government training officials and state legislators; American Society for Training and Development, Smoky Mountain Chapter; and Tennessee Personnel and Guidance Association. These lists were supplied by the Energy Opportunities Consortium.

Choice of population was based on both the nature of the problem and the purpose of advertising specialties. The problem was to get men and women together who could benefit from sharing current occupational information, knowledge of employment opportunities, and shifting work requirements. Specialty advertising is not a mass medium in the sense that radio and newspapers are. Users of radio, newspaper, or television advertising take lost circulation for granted, and hope that sufficient members of a mass audience see their advertisements to make the effort worthwhile. Specialty advertising, on the other hand, is aimed at select individuals whose individual goodwill, patronage, or other kind of response is worth the high unit

cost of specialties. Members of the study population were considered to be of this calibre.

The sampling frame (organizations' membership listings) was, as far as could be ascertained, inclusive of all members of the specified bodies. However, one shortcoming was unavoidable. The list of Knoxville Building and Construction Trades Council was confined to Knoxville for a practical reason. No other listing could be obtained for other parts of the state. The same reason was behind the use of Smoky Mountain Chapter of the American Society for Training and Development. Otherwise the sampling frame met acceptable criteria (Babbie, 1973, pp. 90-91): it included all the elements that organizations' names imply, and all elements had equal representation to the frame; that is, each element appeared only once.

Characteristics of the population included a bias, though, towards middle and upper classes in education and income levels. This limits generalization of results to the study population.

V. SAMPLING METHOD

The sampling frame contained 1,560 names. From this frame a systematic sample of 500 was selected. Names on the sampling frames were compiled from membership listings of seven Tennessee organizations. To obtain an adequate degree of representativeness of the four principal occupations concerned with the problem under study, stratified sampling was used. By occupational homogeneity, four subsets of the sample energed: business/industry; education; government; and labor/professional.

Systematic sample with a random start was used. The first element was selected at random to avoid any possible human bias. For the total sample, the sampling interval was three. The sampling ratio, or the proportion of elements in the population which was selected, is roughly one-third.

Systematic sampling has been chosen instead of the simple random sampling for a number of reasons. In practice, systematic sampling is virtually identical to simple random sampling; yet systematic sampling is usually superior to simple random sampling, in convenience if nothing else (Babbie, 1973, p. 93).

Indeed, since the list of elements was "randomized" in advance of sampling, that is, no known order was used in the membership listings, a systematic sample drawn from the list was in fact a simple random sample. One other reason for using systematic sampling is that there was no danger of "periodicity." The list of elements was not arranged in any cyclical pattern that might have coincided with the sampling interval.

Elements in the sample were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. In order to make causal inferences, it is mandatory that the treatment a subject gets is determined by the principle of randomization. Only chance should determine who gets which treatment, so that we know that any differences we observe are due to differences in the treatments, not to preexisting differences between the subjects who were assigned to the various conditions.

Reliance has been put on randomization as capable of eliminating systematic error. The goal was to ensure that none of the myriad of extraneous factors which might affect a subject's behavior in the experiment—such as intelligence, bad mood, or busy schedule—was more likely to be present in one of the experimental conditions than in the others.

VI. INSTRUMENT CONSTRUCTION

The attitude questionnaire to be completed by subjects (Appendix B) was modeled after the Likert scale (Likert, 1932). The Likert procedure has the advantage of not being very laborious. In addition, it has been discovered to correlate well with the far more difficult Thurstone scale (Edwards & Kenney, 1946).

In developing the questionnaire the plan was to collect data on how subjects felt about (1) using higher education to produce graduates that would fit into available employment and (2) expectations that "On the Way to Work in Tennessee" conference could lead to useful results. That this conference was meant to attract people who felt positively on the two points above was obvious during a planning session held on May 24, 1978, at the Greater Knoxville Chamber of Commerce building. Some twenty persons representing among others The University of Tennessee, TVA, Union Carbide, community and technical colleges, the EOC, as well as this writer concluded that the conference was planned to allow business and industry, professional employment counselors, and other employers to tell educationists what they want and expect.

The educationists were expected to listen more and then tell the others how much of what they wanted could be delivered.

However, before this conclusion was reached, speakers differed on what the conference should or could accomplish. From this came this writer's idea that persons with positive or, at least neutral, attitudes were more likely to respond to its message, and to attend.

Therefore, the questionnaire was designed to collect data appropriate to the specific purposes of this study. The instrument was structured in order to facilitate response and expedite analysis of data. In developing the questionnaire this writer followed these guidelines: limiting the length so completion would require as little time as possible; structuring the response format so that only minimal writing would be required; ensuring the respondents' anonymity in reporting the data.

The questionnaire contained 25 Likert-type statements ranging from a score of "1" for "strongly disagree" to a score of "7" for "strongly agree." A score of "4" denotes "neutral." Each subject's overall score was totaled to determine if the subject had negative, neutral, or positive attitude. Items 2 ("In Tennessee today, a very important problem is cost of living, high prices"), 3 (". . . Energy/power shortage"), and 5 (". . . Crime rate"), were used as fillers.

The remaining 22 items were designed to collect data on (1) how important the subject considered the theme of the conference to be and (2) if he expected this conference to be worthwhile.

Since there were 22 usable items and a highest possible negative score of 3 per item, an overall negative score ranged from 1 to 66. Positive

scores range from 5 to 7 per item. For 22 items, therefore, the positive score ranged from 110 to 154. Overall neutral score ranged from 67 to 109.

Before the final form of the questionnaire was produced, several revisions had been done to the original pool and wording of statements after consultations with the co-chairman of my committee. Next, a sample of 15 respondents similar to the actual sample was used to try the items for clarity of meaning and for agreement of items that were supposed to measure the same dimension. For example, a positive score on item 8, "A conference of this type can find useful solutions toward bringing education and job needs together," should correlate positively with a score on item 13, "Everyone will get something worthwhile."

VII. PROCEDURES FOR ANALYZING DATA

The data gathered from both the questionnaire and the attendance register were computed in frequencies and percentages. Total responses were compared. The University of Tennessee Computer Center was used to compute the statistical data of the study.

Stated hypotheses were tested using bivariate correlations with an analysis of variance and a regression coefficient. The correlation coefficient was used to determine relationships between treatments and exposure to message, treatments and attendance, as well as relationships between scores on the dependent variables and sex, occupation, and previous attitude.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

The purposes of this study were to determine (1) if the inclusion of an advertising specialty with a direct mail message "caused" more recipients to act in accord with the request of the message sponsor than did the message alone; (2) if a specialty item performing two functions was more persuasive than one performing only one function; (3) whether a high-cost specialty was more effective than a low-cost one; (4) whether the positive effect of specialties correlated positively with the recipient's previous attitude towards the subject matter for persuasion; and (5) if the effect of specialties varied with sex or occupational type.

This chapter presents the data related to the five hypotheses and the corresponding research questions. The hypotheses of the study were tested using bivariate correlations and tests of significance. Five hundred middle-class adult men and women in Tennessee whose jobs involved training, advising, management, and/or utilization of youth manpower constituted the sample. The sample came from the four occupational groupings of business/industry, education, government, and labor/professional people. Data were gathered from one hundred and eighty subjects who either responded to and returned the questionnaire on attitudes, and/or attended the conference. Of this number, 171 responses were usable. Forty-two subjects attended the conference. Nine out of the 42 did not respond to the questionnaire.

Data on the first dependent variable—questionnaire completion and return—were obtained from the completed and returned questionnaires. Data on the independent variable of previous attitude also came from the attitude scale in the questionnaire. Data on the second dependent variable—attendance—came from a register of conference participants kept by the Energy Opportunities Consortium. Information on the sex and occupation of subjects was obtained from the sampling frame which contained titles, names, and addresses of persons on the list.

Scores on the attitude scale were calculated first in total point figures and later forced into three categories to give positive, neutral, and negative scores.

The Likert-type attitude scale (Appendix B) was scored in the following way. Subjects placed themselves on an attitude continuum that ran from "strongly disagree" to "neutral" to "strongly agree." There were seven positions and these seven positions were assigned the simple weights of 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 for scoring purposes. A high scale score, 110-154, meant a positive attitude; a neutral attitude score ranged from 67-109; and a negative attitude score ranged from 1-66. Each subject's total score was obtained by adding up the item scores. Some items were assigned a score of seven for "strongly disagree" instead of a score of "one" because such items had to be expressed in the negative in order to measure the same thing as a positive item. For example, item 8 was that "A conference of this type can find useful solutions toward bringing education and job needs together," while item 14 said that "Participants will retain their previous attitudes." "Strongly agree" on item 8 scores seven points while "strongly disagree"

on item 14 also scores seven points. For the two items to be unidimensional, a person who expected the conference to solve problems and change attitudes should not expect prior attitude to be retained by participants.

Frequency distributions, percentages, and contingency tables were used to show relationships among the various variables under investigation: cost with response and attendance, number of functions with response and attendance, prior attitude with attendance, sex with response and attendance, and occupation with response and attendance.

All the data were summarized and organized into categories to test the hypotheses and answer corresponding research questions where applicable. The chi-square, analysis of variance, and t tests were used as appropriate to test for significance of differences between variables.

I. SPECIALTIES VERSUS NO SPECIALTIES

Table II presents a summary of the results of the study arranged in frequencies and percentages. The percentages provide a means for comparisons that answer the main questions of the study: whether receipt of advertising specialties in a direct mail piece induces a higher proportion of questionnaire return and/or conference attendance than receiving the same mail without a specialty item; whether the sex or occupation of the subject made any difference on the rate of questionnaire return and/or conference attendance; and whether subjects' scores on prior attitude towards the conference and its subject matter—positive, neutral, or negative scores—predicted attendance rates.

TABLE II

BASIC SUMMARY OF RESULTS IN FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES

Variable	Treatment Groups (Cost and Function)														
	T_1 (low, 1) n = 100			T_2 (low, 2) n = 100			T_3 (high, 1) n = 100			T_4 (high, 2) n = 100			Control n = 100		
	Sample Size	No. Responding or Attending	Percent Responding or Attending	Sample Size	No. Responding or Attending	Percent Responding or Attending	Sample Size	No. Responding or Attending	Percent Responding or Attending	Sample Size	No. Responding or Attending	Percent Responding or Attending	Sample Size	No. Responding or Attending	Percent Responding or Attending
All Subjects															
Questionnaire return	100	36	36	100	18	18	100	53	53	100	42	42	100	22	22
Attendance	100	11	11	100	13	13	100	4	4	100	8	8	100	6	6
Sex															
Male questionnaire return	76	24	31.6	63	10	15.9	55	36	65.5	73	30	41.1	74	9	12.2
Female questionnaire return	24	12	50	37	8	21.6	45	17	37.8	27	12	44.4	26	13	50
Male attendance	76	3	3.9	63	5	7.9	55	3	5.5	73	3	4.1	74	1	1.4
Female attendance	24	8	33.3	37	8	21.6	45	1	2.2	27	5	18.5	26	5	19.2
Occupation															
Business/industry ques. return	12	9	75	14	0	0.0	8	5	62.5	24	4	16.7	16	0	0.0
Education questionnaire return	6	1	16.7	10	3	30	11	9	81.8	22	18	81.8	23	4	17.4
Government questionnaire return	38	11	28.9	23	2	8.7	12	9	75	12	7	58.3	13	3	23.1
Labor/professional ques. return	44	15	34.1	53	13	24.5	69	30	43.5	42	13	31	48	15	31.3
Business/industry attendance	12	1	8.3	14	1	7.1	8	0	0.0	24	2	8.3	12	0	0.0
Education attendance	6	6	100	10	6	60	11	3	27.3	22	5	22.7	23	5	21.7
Government attendance	38	1	2.6	23	0	0.0	12	1	8.3	12	0	0.0	13	1	7.7
Labor/professional attendance	44	3	6.8	53	6	11.3	69	0	0.0	42	1	2.4	48	0	0.0
Attitude Score*															
Positive	100	13	13	100	9	9	100	13	13	100	9	9	100	9	9
Neutral		22	22		8	8		40	40		32	32		13	13
Negative		1	1		1	1		0	0.0		1	1		0	0

*Positive, neutral, and negative score percentages for each study group were based on sample size of 100.

Question one asked whether a higher percentage of subjects who received specialties completed and returned questionnaires and/or attended the conference. An inspection of Table III shows that this question can be answered affirmatively. Each of the four treatment groups and the control group had a sample size of 100 which formed the basis for computing the percentages on the dependent variables. On the variable, questionnaire return, the treatment group scored better than the control group, 37.3 percent against 22 percent. Three of the four treatment groups (except T_2, low cost, two function) did better in questionnaire return when compared with the control group.

On attendance, treatment groups as a whole also had a higher percentage than the control group by a score of 9 percent to 6 percent. Comparing each treatment group in isolation with the control group shows that all but T_3 (high cost, one function) scored higher than the control group. All of these lead to the conclusion that groups which received specialties in the mail scored higher in the measured response modes than the group which did not receive specialties.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 stated that there was no significant difference in persuasiveness of messages supplemented with advertising specialties and the same message without specialties.

A single sample chi-square test was used to determine whether the frequency of specialty scores differed significantly from the frequency of the no specialty scores. On questionnaire response, the obtained

$\chi^2 = 4.5$, df = 1, was significant at the .05 level. On attendance, the obtained $\chi^2 = .347$, df = 1, was not significant at the .05 level.

TABLE III

QUESTIONNAIRE RETURN AND ATTENDANCE PERCENTAGES BY STUDY GROUPS

Variable	T_1	T_2	T_3	T_4	All T's	Control
Questionnaire Return	36	18	53	42	37.3	22
Attendance	11	13	4	8	9	6

There was thus a significant difference between the treatment groups and the control group on questionnaire return but not on attendance. The null hypothesis of no significant difference therefore was rejected.

Even though significance was attained only on one instead of the two measures, the second measure (attendance) also showed results in the same direction as the first measure, that is, specialty or treatment groups scored higher than the no specialty or control group.

II. ONE-FUNCTION SPECIALTIES VERSUS TWO-FUNCTION SPECIALTIES

Question two asked if two-function specialties were more effective than one-function specialties in making subjects return questionnaires and/or attend the conference. Of the four treatment groups, two received one-function pens (T_1 and T_3) and the other two (T_2 and T_4 received

two-function pens. A comparison of the scores of these two pairs of treatments shows the effect of number of functions (Table IV) on questionnaire return, as well as on attendance (Table V). The same tables also depict the effect of high and lost costs (T_1, T_2 vs. T_3, T_4).

TABLE IV

QUESTIONNAIRE RETURN PERCENTAGES BY COST AND FUNCTION

		High	Low	
Function	2	42	18	30%
	1	53	36	44.5%
		47.5%	27%	

TABLE V

ATTENDANCE PERCENTAGES BY COST AND FUNCTION

		High	Low	
Function	2	8	13	10.5%
	1	4	11	7.5%
		6%	12.5%	

On questionnaire completion and return, one-function specialties elicited more response than two-function specialties, 44.5 percent to 30 percent. But on attendance, two-function items elicited more response than one-function items, 10.5 to 7.5 percent. Thus, two-function items were more effective than one-function items on attendance but not on questionnaire return. The nature of the response mode asked for seemed to have affected the results.

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis stated that there was no significant difference between the effects of advertising specialties with two practical use functions and the effects of the same basic specialties with one function. A chi-square test was performed to determine if high-cost frequencies differed significantly from low-cost frequencies. On questionnaire return, the obtained $\chi^2 = 5.64$, df = 1, was significant at the .05 level. But on attendance the obtained $\chi^2 = 1.00$, df = 1, was not significant at the .05 level. On questionnaire return, the null hypothesis of no difference between one- and two-function specialties was rejected.

There was no significant difference on the attendance variable between one- and two-function items. Two-function items appeared to induce a higher rate of attendance than the one-function items, but the difference did not reach significance level. The null hypothesis of no difference thus failed to be rejected on the attendance measure.

III. HIGH COST VERSUS LOW COST

The third research question concerned possible differences in the effects of specialties as a result of differences in item costs, whether high-cost items were more effective than low-cost items. Questionnaire return and attendance percentages by cost appeared on Tables IV and V.

On questionnaire return, 47.5 percent of the high-cost groups responded, while 27 percent of the low-cost groups responded. On this measure, therefore, high-cost items appeared to be more effective than low-cost items. But on the attendance mode, there was a reversal in results in which low-cost specialty groups had a 12.5 percent attendance to 6 percent by the high-cost groups. Again, the type of response called for appeared to have affected the role of the manipulated variables.

Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis was that there was no significant difference in persuasiveness between a high-cost specialty and a low-cost one of the same generic type.

A chi-square test was performed to see if the frequency of high-cost scores differed significantly from the frequency of low-cost scores. On questionnaire return, the obtained $\chi^2 = 11.28$, df = 1, was significant even at the .01 level. Higher priced specialties significantly yielded higher questionnaire returns than low priced items. The null hypothesis of no difference by cost was accordingly rejected.

On attendance, however, the obtained $\chi^2 = 4.72$, df = 1, was also significant at the .05 level, but in favor of low-cost specialty items.

The null hypothesis was also rejected. The effect of cost, even though significant, showed no consistent direction.

IV. RELATIONSHIP OF EFFECTS WITH SEX AND OCCUPATION

Question four was whether being male or female predisposed an individual to be more or less influenced by specialties. The question was meant to explore the notion that one sex might be more persuasible than the other. If indeed one were more persuasible, would advertising specialties affect them in the same way that other types of persuasion media may do? Question five asked if one type of occupation's members would respond to the treatment more than another. If this happened, it would contribute towards interpretation of the results.

As Table VI indicates, a higher percentage of women than men, 39 versus 32 percent, completed and returned their questionnaires. Out of the total study sample of 500, 341 were male and 159 were female. Of the 171 subjects who completed and returned their questionnaires, 109 were male, meaning that 32 percent of the male sample returned questionnaires. Sixty-two females, or 39 percent, of the female sample returned questionnaires. On this measure, return of questionnaires, females scored higher than males percentagewise. It is noteworthy, too, that female percentage of questionnaires return was consistently higher than male returns in all study groups except T_3 (see Table II, page 66). The greatest margin of difference appeared in the control group by 50 to 12.2 percent in favor of females. This seems to indicate that independent of the effect of specialties, women tended to respond more

than men. This interpretation need not be carried too far, though, because the sample sizes for men and women on which the percentages were based differed markedly. There was thus a bias for higher percentage figures in favor of small sample sizes. For example, whereas more men than women returned questionnaires in each study group, except control (Table II, page 66), female percentages were higher by four to one.

TABLE VI

PERCENTAGE SCORES ON QUESTIONNAIRE RETURN AND ATTENDANCE BY SEX OF SUBJECTS

Category Label	Number in Sample	Number Questionnaires Returned	Percent Questionnaires Returned	Number Attendance	Percent Attendance
Male	341	109	32	15	4.4
Female	159	62	39	27	17
Total	500	171			

On attendance, 15 men in the sample attended the conference, while 27 women in the sample attended. As a percentage of their sample sizes the respective percentages were 4.4 for men and 17 for women (Table VI). Clearly a higher proportion of women than men attended the conference. On both measures of dependent variables, question four can be answered affirmatively, that indeed women seemed to have been persuaded more than men

As with sex, representation of the four occupational categories in the sample varied by chance. In the sample of 500, 74 subjects were

drawn from business and industry. Seventy-two came from education, 134 came from government, while 256 subjects represented labor and professional people. The 180 persons from whom data were collected on one or two of the response modes were distributed thus: business and industry, 21, education, 36, government, 32, labor and professional, 91. Table VII shows a breakdown of these figures under appropriate categories.

TABLE VII

QUESTIONNAIRE RETURN AND ATTENDANCE FREQUENCIES BY OCCUPATION

Category Label	No. in Sample	No. Questionnaire Return	Percent Questionnaire Return	No. Attendance	Percent Attendance
Business/ Industry	74	18	24.3	4	5.4
Education	72	35	48.6	25	34.7
Government	98	32	32.7	3	3.1
Labor/ Professional	256	86	33.6	10	3.9
Total	500	171*		42*	

*These figures exceed 180 because some subjects both responded and attended.

An inspection of Table VII shows that very little percentage difference appeared on questionnaire return among the occupational groups. Education category, of course, has an apparently substantial higher percentage of returns than business/industry category, 48.6 to 24.3. But the other two categories, government and labor/professional, follow education closely. Thus on the questionnaire return measure, it appears that occupational type did not matter very much.

But on attendance, education as a category stands clearly out as a contributing condition for the observed results. It is possible that educators felt a higher stake than any other group in the subject matter of the conference: how to prepare today's youth to fit present and anticipated job requirements. Or they simply might be more likely to attend conferences.

The research question on a possible correlation between the effects of specialties and a subject's occupation can be answered thus: it appears that the more a subject's occupation is related to the persuasion objective, the more likely the subject can be persuaded by a specialty message. Thus in both questionnaire response and conference attendance, educators scored higher percentages than any of the other four occupational types, perhaps because educating young people for jobs is primarily their domain.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis four stated that the persuasive effect of advertising specialties would not significantly vary according to sex or occupational type of recipients. This hypothesis was meant to show if being male or female, or doing one job instead of another, was a factor in whether a subject cared for the specialties used in this study.

To test this hypothesis, two-way analyses of variance were performed on questionnaire return and attendance data grouped by sex and by occupation (Tables VIII to XI).

There was no significant difference on questionnaire return between male and female subjects. There was a clear trend, however, since .06

TABLE VIII

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: QUESTIONNAIRE RETURN BY MALES AND FEMALES

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F. Prob.
Between Groups	1	0.1598	0.1598	3.390	0.0673*
Within Groups	178	8.3902	0.0471		
Total	179	8.5500			

*Slightly short of the chosen significance level .05.

TABLE IX

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: QUESTIONNAIRE RETURN BY OCCUPATION

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F. Prob.
Between Groups	3	0.2812	0.0937	1.995	0.1165*
Within Groups	176	8.2689	0.0470		
Total	179	8.5501			

*Not significant at the .05 level.

TABLE X

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: ATTENDANCE BY MALES AND FEMALES

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F. Prob.
Between Groups	1	0.8890	0.8890	5.054	0.0258*
Within Groups	178	31.3108	0.1759		
Total	179	32.1998			

*Significant difference probability < .05.

TABLE XI

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: ATTENDANCE BY OCCUPATION

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F. Prob.
Between Groups	3	0.2379	0.0793	0.437	0.7270*
Within Groups	176	31.9620	0.1816		
Total	179	32.1999			

*Not significant.

(f probability) is very close to the chosen .05 level of significance. More females proportionately responded than males (see Table VI, page 73).

There were no significant differences on questionnaire return among occupational types. Even though more educators proportionately returned questionnaires than any other group, the difference did not reach statistical significance (Table IX).

There was a significant difference between male and female subjects on attendance. A significantly higher proportion of women attended the conference. The probability of error was .02 (Table X).

Occupational category did not appear to have significantly affected whether subjects attended the conference or not (Table XI).

Overall, the null hypothesis of no difference between the sexes or the occupations failed to be rejected, except with respect to male and female attendance rates. Significantly more females than males attended the conference. Moreover, the difference in questionnaire return between male and female subjects almost attained significance (.06). It appears to be a clear trend of practical significance.

V. PREVIOUS ATTITUDE AND ATTENDANCE

Questions six and seven concerned the expressed attitudes of subjects towards the conference and its theme. Question six asked: what were the expressed attitudes of the subjects towards "On the Way to Work in Tennessee" conference? The range of attitude scores was from the most negative score of 15 to the most positive score of 135. A score of "200" was given the computer to denote nine subjects (out of 180) who returned no questionnaires, and so expressed no attitude. Table XII shows the frequency distribution of the attitude scores.

There were 171 valid scores and 9 missing cases with "scores" of 200. These 9 subjects attended the conference even though their previous attitudes were unknown. Of the 42 subjects who took part in the conference, 33 expressed either positive, neutral, or negative attitudes beforehand.

When attitude was forced into three categories—positive, neutral, and negative—there were 53 positive, 115 neutral, and 3 negative cases. One can interpret this to mean that 53 respondents were enthusiastic about the conference and looked forward to it barring other constraints, 115 respondents felt the conference was something they could take or leave, while 3 respondents felt it would not be worth their while.

If this interpretation were applicable to the scores, one would expect a higher percentage of the positive cases than either neutral or negative cases to have attended the conference. A higher proportion of neutrals than negatives should also have attended. Finally, if attendance

TABLE XII

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION ATTITUDE SCORE

Score	Absolute Freq.	Relative Freq. (%)	Adjusted Freq. (%)	Cum. Freq. (%)
15	1	0.6	0.6	0.6
32	1	0.6	0.6	1.2
59	1	0.6	0.6	1.8
69	1	0.6	0.6	2.3
80	1	0.6	0.6	2.9
83	1	0.6	0.6	3.5
84	2	1.1	1.2	4.7
85	1	0.6	0.6	5.3
87	1	0.6	0.6	5.8
88	1	0.6	0.6	6.4
90	5	2.8	2.9	9.4
91	3	1.7	1.8	11.1
92	2	1.1	1.2	12.3
93	2	1.1	1.2	13.5
94	2	1.1	1.2	14.6
95	2	1.1	1.2	15.8
96	3	1.7	1.8	17.5
97	9	5.0	5.3	22.8
98	5	2.8	2.9	25.7
99	7	3.9	4.1	29.8
100	7	3.9	4.1	33.9
101	4	2.2	2.3	36.3
102	9	5.0	5.3	41.5
103	6	3.3	3.5	45.0
104	8	4.4	4.7	49.7
105	7	3.9	4.1	53.8
106	7	3.9	4.1	57.9
107	5	2.8	2.9	60.8
108	7	3.9	4.1	64.9
109	7	3.9	4.1	69.0
110	9	5.0	5.3	74.3
111	5	2.8	2.9	77.2
112	5	2.8	2.9	80.1
113	3	1.7	1.8	81.9
114	5	2.8	2.9	84.8
116	3	1.7	1.8	86.5
117	4	2.2	2.3	88.9
119	3	1.7	1.8	90.6
120	4	2.2	2.3	93.0
121	2	1.1	1.2	94.2
122	3	1.7	1.8	95.9
123	1	0.6	0.6	96.5

TABLE XII (continued)

Score	Absolute Freq.	Relative Freq. (%)	Adjusted Freq. (%)	Cum. Freq. (%)
124	2	1.1	1.2	97.7
125	1	0.6	0.6	98.2
128	1	0.6	0.6	98.8
133	1	0.6	0.6	99.4
135	1	0.6	0.6	100.0
200	9	5.0	Missing	100
Total	180	100.0	100.0	

significantly followed the attitude score distribution as was expected, a necessary condition for the positive effect of the specialties would be specified.

Question seven was: Did a higher proportion of subjects expressing positive attitudes come to the conference than the proportion of subjects with less than positive predisposition? The distribution of attendance according to expressed attitudes appears on Table XIII. Of the 53 subjects with positive scores, 13 or 24.5 percent attended. Of the 115 subjects who expressed neutral attitude, 20 or 17.4 percent attended. None of these negative cases came to the conference.

TABLE XIII

ATTENDANCE FREQUENCY BY ATTITUDE SCORE

		Attendance		
		Yes	No	
Attitude	Positive	13	40	53
	Neutral	20	95	115
	Negative	0	3	3
		33	138	171

The answer to question seven is that indeed a higher proportion of positive cases attended than of both neutral and negative cases. More neutral cases, or of subjects supposedly less opposed to the conference than negative subjects, came to the conference than did the negative cases. In effect, the more positive a subject's attitude, the more the

subject tended to attend. Looked at the opposite way, the percentage of theose failing to attend increased the less positive were subjects' attitude; failure to attend percentages were 75.5, 82.6, and 100 for positive, neutral, and negatives cases.

Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5 stated that there would be no significant difference on attendance among different categories of attitude. A 2 x 3 chi-square analysis was performed to determine whether the rate of attendance differed significantly among the attitude categories. The obtained chi-square equalled 1.92 with 2 degrees of freedom and was not significant at the .05 level of significance.

Therefore, even though there was an observed trend indicating that the highest attendance rate came from the positive cases, the difference did not reach statistical significance. Null hypothesis 5 was not rejected.

VI. SUMMARY

This study sought to find whether enclosing specialty advertising items in direct mail pieces caused significantly more recipients to (a) complete and return attitude questionnaire, and (b) attend the conference requested by the sponsor, than sending the direct mail pieces without specialties. This study also sought to find if more expensive specialties were more effective than less expensive types; if specialties which served two useful purposes were more effective than those which served just one purpose; if the effect of specialties correlated with a

recipient's prior attitude towards the subject matter for persuasion; and whether specialties influenced women more than men, or people of one occupation more than another.

Data were analyzed using frequency distributions, the chi-square test, and analysis of variance to assess whether significant relationships existed at the 0.05 level in each of the five hypotheses.

The findings showed that there was a significant positive relationship between receipt of specialties and return of questionnaires. A higher percentage of persons who received specialties completed and returned questionnaires than did persons who received only messages. The differences did reach statistical significance at .05 level. On attendance, it was also found that a higher proportion of subjects who received specialties attended than did those in the control group. But the difference was not statistically significant.

There was a significant difference between one function and two functions on questionnaire return. But no significant difference existed on attendance.

On questionnaire return, there was a significant difference between high and low cost. There was also a significant difference on attendance between low cost and high cost. However, the relationship on attendance was negative, the higher the cost, the less the attendance figure. For the purpose of this study, high cost did not show superior effect over low cost.

Sex was found to correlate with both questionnaire return and attendance, with women scoring higher on both measures. The difference

was not statistically significant on questionnaire return. There was a significant difference on attendance. Occupational category did not show significant differences on either questionnaire return or attendance.

Correlating subjects' prior attitude scores with attendance figures showed that positive cases had the highest rate of attendance, followed by neutral cases, with the negative cases not attending at all. But a chi-square test showed the differences were not statistically significant.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Presented in this chapter are a summary of the study, report of conclusions, implications and recommendations for research of a similar nature.

I. SUMMARY

The problem of the study was to determine if sending a message with advertising specialties could increase the return of questionnaires concerning "On the Way to Work in Tennessee" conference and increase attendance at the conference than would be the case if specialties were not sent. It was also the purpose to compare the effect of a one-function specialty item against that of a two-function item, and to compare the effect of high-cost against the effect of low-cost items. Finally, the purpose was to look for any relationships between effect of specialties and receiver's sex, occupation, and prexisting attitude towards the object of persuasive communication. Five hundred adults were randomly chosen as the study sample and data were collected on 180 subjects.

Subject scores on response to the sponsor's message were gathered on returned completed attitude questionnaires prepared specifically for this study. Attitude scores were also gathered from the same questionnaire. A register kept during the conference provided data on which subjects attended the conference.

The following hypotheses were tested:

H_1. There is no significant difference in persuasiveness of messages supplemented with advertising specialties and the same message without specialties.

H_2. There is no significant difference between the effects of advertising specialties with two practical use functions and the effects of the same basic advertising specialties with one function.

H_3. There is no significant difference in persuasiveness between a high-cost specialty and a low-cost one in the same generic type.

H_4. The persuasive effect of advertising specialties does not significantly vary according to sex or occupation type.

H_5. There are no significant differences on attendance rates among different categories of attitude.

The following questions were formulated to augment the original hypotheses.

Question one: Did a higher proportion of subjects who received specialties respond to the sponsor's message and/or attend the conference than of subjects who did not get specialties?

Question two: Was a two-function specialty more effective than a one-function specialty?

Question three: Was a high-cost specialty more effective than a low-cost one?

Question four: Was a higher proportion of women in the sample more persuaded than of men?

Question five: Was there a correlation between the effect of specialties and a receiver's occupation?

Question six: What were the expressed previous attitudes of subjects towards "On the Way to Work in Tennessee" conference?

Question seven: Did a higher proportion of subjects expressing positive attitudes come to the conference than the proportion of subjects with less than positive disposition?

The five hypotheses were tested using t tests, analysis of variance, and chi-square test.

The Computer Center of the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, was used to compute the data. In all instances of the analysis of data, level of significance was set at .05.

II. FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

The first purpose of the study was to find the effect of the use of specialties as an advertising medium. The study results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the inclusion and omission of specialties with regard to exposure to a sponsor's message. Indeed, in three cases out of four specialties showed higher return rates than mails without them. All treatment groups combined had a higher questionnaire return rate than the control group.

On attendance there was no significant difference between specialties and no specialties. Question one asked if a higher proportion of subjects who received specialties responded to the message and/or attended the conference. The answer to this question is yes. The fact

that statistical significance was attained only in questionnaire return but not in attendance should not rule out the importance of the degree of difference observed. An advertiser contemplating the use of specialties can decide for himself how much percentage increase can justify his expenditure on specialties. If he can tolerate a lower confidence level, say 90 percent, instead of the 95 percent chosen for this study, he may get statistical significance across all measures.

The second purpose of the study was to see the effect of number of functions. As was pointed out repeatedly in the literature review chapter, usefulness is usually a characteristic of supposedly winning specialties. Prizes by the specialty advertising industry association were awarded to specialties that displayed utility in novel ways. The importance of utility in specialties may lie in the number of useful functions, or in their kind. This study has been concerned with number of functions. Results showed that there was a significant difference between one function and two functions on return of questionnaire. On attendance, there was no significant difference even though two-function items had a higher percentage of attendance.

Question two asked if a two-function specialty was more effective than a one-function specialty. The results imply that one function can be superior in one measure, but not in another. According to this study, number of functions, or in effect the complexity of items, appears to matter on whether specialties can persuade or not, contingent on the required response mode. It looks as if subjects preferred a simple, one-function item, apparently not impressed by the two-function, more complex items.

The third purpose of the study was to see the effect of cost on how effective specialties can be. There was a significant difference on response to message between high and low cost, with high-cost items attracting substantially higher percentage of returns, 47.5 to 27. However, there was no consistency in the findings on cost. Significant differences found on attendance, using the variable cost, was negative. Low-cost items were significantly superior on attendance. It appears these findings may have resulted from chance, perhaps because the attendance percentages were quite low. The cost difference may not have been enough to evoke different responses.

Question three asked if a high-cost specialty was more persuasive than a low-cost one. The answer is that cost appeared not to make any consistent difference.

The fourth purpose of the study was to determine what characteristics of a message receiver can predict the likelihood of specialties having an effect on him. Sex and occupation were chosen in this study. Statistically, the difference between men and women was not significant on response to message but was on attendance. But the percentage distribution by sex showed consistently that more women were persuaded than men on both measures.

Question four asked if a higher proportion of women in the sample were affected by specialties than were men. This question was answered with a qualified affirmative in the results. Percentage scores based on number in the sample showed women clearly scoring higher on both exposure and attendance. And reliance on the statistical finding of

no significance is mitigated by the fact that there were more men in the sample than women.

Occupational categories studied were business and industry, education, government, labor and professional. It was supposed that the subject matter of this study—matching educational training with available job requirements—would be of more immediate concern to one group rather than another. Persons who felt more immediate and/or deeper concern on the issue might have been more predisposed to listen to messages concerning the matter. However, the results showed that occupational category did not have a significant difference on either response to message or attendance at conference.

Question five concerned the relationship between one's occupation and one's persuasibility by specialties. No correlation was found.

Finally, it was the purpose of this study to see if preexisting attitudes of a specialty receiver correlated with the effect of the specialty. It had been supposed that positive attitude towards message objects or sponsor could be a necessary condition for the positive effect of specialties to show. Questions six and seven concerned type of attitudes expressed, and how attitudes correlated with attendance. Few subjects scored negatively on the attitude scale; a large majority were neutral, and some were positive.

Results showed that positive attitude cases had the highest rate of attendance, followed by the neutral cases. The negative cases, as expected, did not attend at all. The differences did not attain

significance however, but the trend was clear. Question on whether attitudes correlate positively with specialty effects can be answered affirmatively for all practical purposes.

The following conclusions seem to be justified for those groups studied:

1. The use of specialty advertising to increase response to direct mail messages seems to be of some value to a promoter of goods, services, or ideas.

2. Using specialties to entice targets to take some action in compliance with the request of an advertiser appears to pay off to a limited degree.

3. How many functions a specialty item performs for its receiver does not seem to affect its influence on the receiver in any consistent fashion.

4. Spending a higher sum of money on a specialty unit item does not seem justified if a similar low-cost item is available. The advantages of a higher-cost item are inconsistent.

5. When specialties are effective, the effects are more on women than on men to a moderate degree.

6. Effect of advertising specialties is independent of the receiver's type of occupation.

7. When advertising specialties are effective, persons who have a favorable disposition are more influenced than persons with a negative disposition towards the subject matter for persuasion.

III. IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of this study have suggested that the widespread use of specialties by a variety of organizations to build goodwill has some promise. Insertion of specialties in direct mails appears to be a viable means of attracting attention to the mail contents. In this day of a daily constant barrage of messages competing for one person's limited attention, this advantage of specialties is an important one. It is likely that as Schrot (1976) suggested, a specialty item adds sufficient bulk to the envelope to encourage readership.

Since specialties appeared more acceptable to women than to men and more influential on persons with a favorable predisposition, users ought to select and send their gifts with this understanding in mind. A disclaimer is necessary here. A different type of specialties, other than pens, may give different results. Which items work best on whom can only be found out through additional testing. On the basis of these circumstances in which specialty worked best, it would be wasteful for specialty advertisers to send out gifts to an indiscriminate mass audience. Fortunately for advertisers, selectivity of persons who do get their specialties is reported to be the rule. This study has also shed some light on how much unit cost an advertiser should bear on specialties. Since a relative higher cost is not a guarantee of effectiveness, perhaps spreading more lower unit cost items to a larger audience is a sound business approach in seeking the intangible goodwill.

It was evident from the study that the reasons why specialties are effective are not clear. Variations on both the number of useful functions and the unit cost did not seem to make much consistent difference. Perhaps receivers are happy to get something for nothing, as has been suggested in the literature.

A note of caution is in order concerning the extent or capability of specialty effectiveness. Specialties do not appear to have much effect if a receiver is asked to make substantial sacrifices. Banks, insurance companies, and other service organizations have reported large increases in sales following the use of advertising specialties. This study did not bear that out. No conclusive position need be taken on this yet because the power of specialties in this regard may depend on what kind of action is called for, or how the specialties relate to the offer.

Through its limitations, this study has dealt with only a middle-class segment of the general population and, therefore, implies that further studies on a larger scale be undertaken. Despite the findings—part significant, part nonsignificant—a population of greater diversity may provide further insights into the circumstances surrounding the effectiveness of specialty advertising. It cannot be overstated that gut claims about specialties should be verified by research. Volume of specialty business has made it an important medium of advertising.

The following recommendations are outcomes from the findings of this study:

1. The finding that specialties increase response to direct mail messages deserves repeated studies to determine which advertising would work best under which conditions. Such a study will serve as an important device to reduce wastage of the so-called "junk mail."

2. Other characteristics of specialties, besides cost and number of functions, should be investigated in an effort to locate what makes specialties work when they work. Variations in cost and number of functions should also extend beyond those used in the study. Critical levels of the two variables might be somewhere yet unknown. Other characteristics that can be varied for study purposes include bulk of items, surprisingness or sentimental feeling of a receiver.

3. Since this study dealt with middle-class persons in the state of Tennessee, research as to whether people in other socioeconomic classes in a different geographical setting can show to what extent results are generalizable.

4. A longitudinal design can measure the effectiveness of specialties over time. This is very necessary in view of the supposition that specialties enjoy prolonged exposure to receivers. A study to see the point in time at which wearout sets in can provide invaluable information.

5. There is need to vary response modes expected of a study subject. Attendance at a three-day meeting was conceivably too demanding a response requirement. Graduating response modes in order of difficulty may show a point beyond which specialties become ineffective.

6. Since there are still many gray areas in specialty advertising research, future investigators might want to use lower confidence

levels in order to detect trends that would be lost sight of when a high confidence level is set. Such trends could then be further investigated.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

CONFERENCE PROGRAM

ON THE WAY TO WORK IN TENNESSEE

STATE CONFERENCE

EDUCATION—BUSINESS—LABOR—INDUSTRY—GOVERNMENT

November 15, 16, 17, 1978

Hyatt Regency Hotel / Knoxville, Tennessee

Co-Sponsored by: The Energy Opportunities Consortium

The Tennessee Department of Education,
Division of Vocational-Technical Education

On the Way to Work in Tennessee

State Conference

November 15, 16, 17, 1978
Hyatt Regency Hotel / Knoxville, Tennessee

Purpose

Occupational information becomes rapidly outdated and inappropriate because of continuing advances in technology, changing employment opportunities and shifting work requirements. The Energy Opportunities Consortium and The Tennessee State Department of Education, Division of Vocational-Technical Education are co-sponsoring this unique conference in an effort to provide participants updated and innovative information about improving career opportunities and career education for youth and young adults.

Who Should Attend

Vocational-Technical Educators
Guidance Counselors
Personnel Directors
Business and Industry Management and Training Personnel
CETA Representatives and Contractors
School Superintendents, Principals, Supervisors, Teachers
Labor Representatives
College Personnel
Public Administrators
Interested Citizens

Attendance is Limited . . . . . .

Conference Schedule

Wednesday, November 15

6:00 p.m.-9:00 p.m. ... Registration
Check In

7:00 p.m.-9:30 p.m. ... Welcome to
Knoxville
Hospitality Hour

Thursday, November 16

8:00 a.m.-10:00 a.m. ... Registration

9:00 a.m.- 4:30 p.m. Concurrent Workshop Sessions

6:00 p.m. ... Reception

7:00 p.m. ... Banquet—Speaker:
Dr. Kenneth Hoyt,
Director of Career Education,
U.S. Office of Education

Areas of Emphasis

*Trends in Occupations
*Industry Recruitment and Expectations
*CETA and How it Works
*Labor and Career Education
*The Community as a Resource
*Collaborative Efforts in Career Education
*Energy-Related Careers

Friday, November 17
8:30 a.m.-12:00 noon ... Concurrent Workshop Sessions

Conference Highlights

Dr. Kenneth Hoyt, Director of Career Education, U.S. Office of Education, will be the featured speaker. Special sessions will include unique programs from:

Alabama	New York
Georgia	Tennessee
Kentucky	Texas
Montana	Washington, D.C.

Exhibitors

An exhibit area will be open in the Hyatt Regency Hotel lobby during the entire conference. Exhibits include industrial products, training programs, resource materials, and job opportunities. Space is limited. For exhibitor information contact:

The Energy Opportunities Consortium
P.O. Box 2229
Knoxville, Tennessee 37901
Phone (615) 637-4550

Partial List of Workshop Topics

"Industrial Needs/Problems As Seen From the Industrial Personnel Managers' Viewpoint. Tennessee Valley Personnel Association.

*Industry and Education: A Partnership in Energy Opportunities. American Vocational Association and State Technical Institute at Memphis.

*Helping Women Re-Enter the Job Market. Knoxville Women's Center.

*Knowing and Doing: The Liberal Arts and Professions in Partnership. Tennessee Higher Education Commission.

*Coordinating Industrial and Business Training Needs Through Community Cooperation. State Technical Institute of Knoxville.

*Women in Construction: Unlimited Opportunities (For Those Who Dare!) Tennessee Valley Authority.

*Enhancing Education—Work Transition For Youth: The Community Collaboration Approach. The National Manpower Institute, Washington, D.C.

*What is CETA and How Can It Work For You. Knoxville-Knox County Community Action Committee.

*Tennessee Employment Outlook For Industries and Occupations. Tennessee Department of Employment Security.

*"Focus On The Future" A Course for Exploring Careers In The Classroom And On Community Job Sites. Hamilton County Dept. of Education, Chattanooga, TN. An Exemplary Project partially funded by the Research Coordinating Unit, Division of Vocational-Technical Education, State of TN.

*Achieving Productivity and Avoiding Turf Consciousness In Collaborative Efforts. Montana Effort For Collaborative Career-Education Action, Great Falls, Montana.

*In A Tight Job Market 'Hire Education' Counts. The University of Tennessee, Career Planning and Placement Center.

*An Exemplary Program For Counselors, Vocational Staff and The Community. Vocational Department, Blount County Schools. A Special Project funded by The Research Coordinating Unit, Division of Vocational-Technical Education, State of Tennessee.

*Bridging The Gap. General Electric Company, Louisville, Ky.

*The Community Emporium. Region 10 Education Service Center, Richardson, Texas.

*A Pre-Employment Training Program For Young. I(T) Work(S), Inc., Denton, Texas.

*Women in Non Traditional Careers: Problems and Prospects. Tennessee Commission on Status of Women.

*"Plus, Minus, Hop, Hop": An Industry Process For Finding a Job. Tennessee Valley Authority.

*Counselors In Industry—A Unique Work Experience Project For Guidance Counselors. The Energy Opportunities Consortium.

*Attitudes and Careers. University of Tennessee, Dept. of Romance Languages.

*Industry-Education Collaborative Efforts in Youth Employment. National Association For Industry-Education, Buffalo, N.Y.

*Coal Mining In Tennessee-Projections and Trends in Training Programs. Roane State Community College, Tennessee.

*Predicting and Managing Change Within The Organization. A. C. Griffin Associates, Knoxville, Tenn.

*Understanding and Interviewing The Handicapped Job Applicant. Tennessee Governor's Commission on Employment of the Handicapped.

*Managing Stress On The Job. Tennessee Valley Authority.

*A College-Wide Faculty Team Provides Career Education/Career Guidance For Its Students. The University of Tennessee, College of Education.

*Supervision: A Window On Career Options. Greene Valley Development Center, Greeneville, TN

*Tennessee's Plan For Career Education. Tennessee State Department of Education.

*How To Teach Job Seeking Skills For The Hidden Job Market. University of Tennessee, Career Planning and Placement Center.

*Lawrence County Vocational Center Solar Project: How It Happened—How It Will Work, Lawrenceburg, TN.

*Tennessee Student and Employer Based Vocational Follow-Up Model. East Tennessee State University. A Special Project funded by The Research Coordinating Unit, Division of Vocational Technical Education, State of Tennessee.

REGISTRATION AND RESERVATION INFORMATION

Preregistration

Attendance at this Conference will be limited.

To ensure participation, we strongly urge you to preregister. A registration form is included in this program. Payment in full should accompany your registration form. Please make your check payable to:

On The Way To Work Conference

and mail to:

The Energy Opportunities Consortium
On The Way To Work Conference
P.O. Box 2229
Knoxville, Tennessee 37901

All Attendees Must Register

Anyone not preregistered must complete a registration form at the Conference Registration Desk during the following hours:

Wednesday, November 15—6:00 p.m. to 9:00 p.m.
Thursday, November 16—8:00 a.m. to 10:00 a.m.

Hotel Reservation

In order to obtain special Conference room rates at the Hyatt Regency Hotel, Knoxville, complete the included Hotel Reservation Form. Reservation forms may be duplicated.

CONFERENCE REGISTRATION FORM
"On the Way to Work in Tennessee"
November 15, 16, 17, 1978
Hyatt Regency Hotel / Knoxville, Tennessee

NAME _____

TITLE _____ AFFILIATION _____

ADDRESS _____ PHONE ( ) _____

CITY/STATE/ZIP _____

$25.00 (Check Enclosed) —Preregistrations received by November 3, 1978 (includes continental breakfast, coffee breaks, banquet, conference materials)

$35.00 (Check Enclosed) —Registrations received after November 3, 1978 (includes continental breakfast, coffee breaks, banquet, conference materials)

MAKE CHECK PAYABLE TO: On The Way To Work Conference

Mail TO:
The Energy Opportunities Consortium
On The Way To Work Conference
P.O. Box 2229
Knoxville, Tennessee 37901

HOTEL RESERVATION FORM
"On the Way to Work in Tennessee"
November 15, 16, 17, 1978
Hyatt Regency Hotel, Knoxville

NAME _____

ADDRESS _____ FIRM _____

CITY/STATE/ZIP _____

I Will share a room with: _____

ADDRESS _____

WILL ARRIVE ON _____ (Date) AT _____ (Time) M

WILL DEPART ON _____ (Date) AT _____ (Time) M.

CONVENTION RATE: Single: $29.00
Double: $37.00
Third person in room $8.00

NOTE: Reservations will be held until 6:00 p.m. unless accompanied by deposit or company guarantee. Reservations MUST be received by October 26, 1978. If room is not available at rate requested, reservation will be made at nearest available rate.

Return To: Hyatt Regency Knoxville, Reservations Department, 500 Hill Avenue, Knoxville, Tennessee 37901

APPENDIX B

OPINION SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

O N T H E W A Y T O W O R K I N T E N N E S S E E

The Energy Opportunities Consortium
P.O. Box 2229
Knoxville, Tennessee 37901

November 5, 1978

TO: The One Person in 3 Chosen For This Opinion Survey

Here's an opinion survey questionnaire along with "On The Way To Work In Tennessee" Conference brochure. I hope you can take five minutes right now to give us your thoughts.

I am conducting this survey to help sponsors of the Conference ascertain representative views on issues to be discussed at the Conference. Your responses will be completely anonymous, and will be used only as group averages. You are one of just a few hundred people randomly selected to represent thousands. Therefore, your views are very important.

Your answers will indicate how best the Conference can serve your needs and interests. As a representative of people concerned with the issues to be discussed at the Conference, your opinions are highly needed, even if you cannot attend the Conference.

I might just mention that:

1. The questionnaire takes only 3-5 minutes (only checklists);
2. There are no right or wrong answers—we just want your personal opinions.

Many thanks for your help.

P/S Kindly return your completed questionnaire before the Conference opens Nov 15 even if you do not plan to attend

Chris Onunkwo
Opinion Survey Director

There are 25 statements in this questionnaire. Please indicate your own personal opinion of each statement by writing a number from 1 to 7 in the blank before it, as follows:

Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Thus, if you strongly agree with a statement write a number 7 in the blank; if you strongly disagree write a number 1 in the blank. If you don't care either way, write a number 4 in the blank. If you agree or disagree less strongly, use the numbers 2, 3, 5, or 6. Thanks for your help.

	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree	For Office Use Only
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1. In Tennessee today, a very important problem is: Education (relevance, adequacy, benefits)								
2. Cost of living (high prices)								
3. Energy/power shortage								
4. Employment (job skills, opportunities)								
5. Crime rate								
6. Leaders in business/industry, education, government, and labor today do not share enough information on how to educate today's youth to meet employment needs								
7. In the last 6 months I have mentioned to someone that educators and employers should communicate more on education and jobs for young people								
8. A conference of this type can find useful solutions toward bringing education and job needs together								
9. Employers expect too much skill from recent graduates of vocational/technical schools								

	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree	For Office Use Only
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10. Employers expect too much skill from recent graduates of colleges and universities								
The following results are likely to come out of this conference concerning what to do about education and job relationships:								
11. Majority will agree on what to do								
12. Every participant will come out with a different impression								
13. Everyone will get something worthwhile								
14. Participants will retain their previous attitudes								
15. Students who graduate from vocational/technical schools, colleges and universities these days are generally well prepared to enter available employment								
16. Vocational/technical schools should concentrate on:								
Preparing students for well-paying jobs								
17. Giving all-round education								
18. Education for its own sake								
19. Education to prepare for the future								
20. Ideals of a great society								
Colleges and universities should concentrate on:								
21. Preparing students for well-paying jobs								

	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree	For Office Use Only
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
22. Giving all-round education								
23. Education for its own sake								
24. Education to prepare for the future								
25. Ideals of a great society								

Many thanks for your help. Will you please seal or staple this booklet, which is already stamped and addressed to the Energy Opportunities Consortium, and drop it in the mail as soon as possible.

FIRST CLASS
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Knoxville, Tenn.

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c/o Nelda Kersey
The Energy Opportunities Consortium
P.O. Box 2229
Knoxville, Tennessee 37901

APPENDIX C

SPECIALTY PENS



One function/ low cost

Two functions/ low cost

One function/ high cost

Two functions/ high cost

VITA

Christopher Anaso Boniface Onunkwo was born at Abba, Anambra State, Nigeria, on July 15, 1942. He received his primary and secondary education in Catholic mission schools in Eastern Nigeria, graduating from Saint Charles' Training College in December 1963. He entered the University of Nigeria, Nsukka, in September 1966 to study journalism. His studies were interrupted between July 1967 and January 1970 when the Nigerian civil war closed the University of Nigeria. He resumed his undergraduate education in March 1970, and obtained the Bachelor of Arts degree with a major in journalism and a minor in international relations in June 1972.

Between June and October 1972 he worked as reporter and copy editor for the Enugu Renaissance, a government-owned daily newspaper, now renamed Daily Star. Between October 1972 and August 1974, he taught journalism at the Department of Mass Communications, University of Nigeria.

He began graduate studies at the University of Wisconsin, Madison, in August 1974, moved to the University of Illinois, Urbana, in January 1975 where he obtained the Master of Science degree in December 1975 with a major in advertising and minor in marketing. He entered the doctoral program in communications at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, in January 1976. He expects to complete all of the requirements for the Ph.D. degree by Spring 1979. His dissertation topic is: "The Role of Cost and Function in the Effectiveness of Specialty Advertising." He was president of the 1500 member Nigerian Federation

of Catholic Students, University of Nigeria, 1971-72, and president of the Nigerian Students Association, University of Tennessee, 1976-77.

He was married to the former Bertha Ijeoma Onyiuke of Nimo, Nigeria, on March 7, 1970. They are the parents of two sons, Okezie and Uzoma Anaso.