

The Differentiation Between Public Relations and Advertising Within an In-house Communications Campaign

A Case Study of Fonterra's 'Richie's Milk Run'

Isabel Gailer

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School of Communication Studies

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Preface

The inspiration for this research was sparked during a student visit to Fonterra. As part of one of the postgraduate public relations papers, four of us students were required to visit an organisation, attend a presentation on one of the organisation's recent communications campaigns, and write up a report of the campaign.

As Fonterra public relations practitioners ran us through a communications campaign, a different one from the Richie's Milk Run campaign studied in this thesis, I noticed a tension between the public relations and advertising used in the campaign. Not only was there a certain level of territorialism over the overlapping responsibilities of the two disciplines, but also the overall evaluation of the campaign was disputed between the disciplines. I left the presentation feeling that if integrating the disciplines was problematic, then it must be more efficient and effective to use just one discipline. I started my initial research on literature, public relations versus (vs.) advertising, to identify which discipline was superior.

I could not find much research on public relations vs. advertising. Many researchers shared the idea that they could not be easily compared, due to their different objectives and tactics. However, the researchers also could not reach a consensus on how to define and differentiate public relations and advertising. There was no clear distinction between the two, so therefore how could practitioners and the organisation know which discipline was more suited to a certain task?

I soon after became a Communications Intern at Fonterra, and further noticed the tensions and overlapping responsibilities between the public relations and advertising departments. In addition to this, it appeared that recent theories and ideas within academic literature were not applied within the industry setting, leaving the practitioners and the organisation to develop their own capabilities for the disciplines.

I therefore undertook this research, comparing the definitions of public relations and advertising as defined by scholars, industry bodies, practitioners and an organisation in order to develop criteria for differentiating the two disciplines.

Abstract

In recent years, the roles and responsibilities of public relations and advertising have begun to overlap. Despite recent research promoting the benefits of the integration of these two disciplines, it is increasingly difficult to differentiate them, further increased by the advancements in media technology. Scholars and industry bodies cannot reach a consensus on a definition for either public relations or advertising, therefore how can organisations ensure they are utilising the correct discipline to achieve their objectives, and resourcing and developing the disciplines to reach their full potential? Furthermore, education on the two disciplines remains separate, as do industry bodies, and therefore practitioners remain specialised in a particular field of communications. Strategic communications campaigns share similar objectives and are a practical use of both public relations and advertising within an organisation.

This research uses a case study methodology with a mixed methods approach of documentation and interviews, to determine how public relations and advertising are differentiated within the communications campaign 'Richie's Milk Run' from the organisation Fonterra. Communications activities are examined through the definitions of public relations and advertising provided by five approaches: scholars, industry bodies, a public relations practitioner, an advertising practitioner, and the organisation. The thematic analysis used in analysing the data highlights three key themes in defining and differentiating public relations and advertising: budget, source of communication and reputational risk. These highlight that although the integration of public relations and advertising within strategic communication may be well underway, a certain amount of territorialism exists over the roles and responsibilities of the disciplines. To the knowledge of the researcher, this study is the first study to compare the definitions of public relations and advertising developed by scholars, industry bodies, practitioners and organisations.

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Attestation of Authorship

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgements), nor material which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning.

Signed  _____

Date 08 / 05 / 2020

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1. Introduction

Public relations and advertising are prominent disciplines within the broader field of communications. Public relations was developed to increase the reputation of something, such as an organisation, brand, person, programme or product (Grunig & Hunt, 1984), while advertising was developed to increase product sales (Lane, King & Reichert, 2011). Despite these clear objectives, the boundaries between the disciplines are blurring, increasingly by advancements in media technology. Both public relations and advertising have shifted towards audience research and two-way communication (L'Etang, 2008; Lane et al., 2011) and utilise similar tactics such as audience targeting (Anderson, 2008; Gordon, 2011). In more recent years, both disciplines have focussed on reputation, public relations through crises communication (Manley & Valin, 2017; Thurlow, Sévigny & Dottori, 2018) and advertising through consumer relationships (Dahlen & Rosengren, 2016; Rappaport, 2007). Little research exists on defining the disciplines and differentiating them from each other, as their once prominent borders continue to dissolve.

1.1 Situating the Research

In recent years, the idea of integrating public relations and advertising has become increasingly popular (Gregory, 2011; Shimp & Andrews, 2013; Supa, 2016). The roles and responsibilities of public relations and advertising have begun to overlap, and the disciplines now share many of the same objectives, strategies and tactics (Dahlen & Rosengren, 2016; Manley & Valin, 2017; Thurlow et al., 2018). Despite this, education on the two disciplines remains separate, as do industry bodies, and therefore practitioners remain specialised in a particular field of communications (Holtzhausen, 2008). It is important to be able to differentiate these two disciplines within an integrated campaign to ensure they are resourced adequately, are the correct discipline for the organisation's objectives, and are able to be developed to reach their potential.

In order to differentiate the two disciplines, this research analyses a range of definitions from both scholars and industry bodies, which determines there is no standard definition of public relations or advertising. As scholarly and industry

definitions remain disparate, and it is unknown which definition, if any, practitioners adhere to, how can an organisation be expected to differentiate between the disciplines and determine which is more suited to meet their objectives?

Therefore, this research examines a single communications campaign from one organisation to determine how scholars, industry bodies, a public relations practitioner, an advertising practitioner and the organisation define and differentiate public relations and advertising within the campaign. The four approaches of industry bodies, a public relations practitioner, an advertising practitioner and an organisation were chosen to be analysed as they are all involved in initiating and carrying out communications campaigns, and scholars were chosen as the disciplines are supported by a theoretical framework.

To the knowledge of the researcher, this is the first study to compare and contrast the definitions of public relations and advertising provided by scholars, industry bodies, a public relations practitioner, an advertising practitioner, and an organisation.

1.2 Research Approach

The theoretical framework of this research is based in Hallahan, Holtzhausen, van Ruler, Vercic and Sriramesh's (2007) framework of strategic communication, a basis for more recent literature on strategic communication (Holtzhausen & Zerfass; 2015; Lewis & Nichols, 2015; Thomas & Stephens, 2015; van Ruler, 2018). As this research examines a communications campaign, Werder's (2015) inaugural framework on strategic communications campaigns is also applied to this research and the disciplines of public relations and advertising. In this situation, public relations and advertising remain as separate practices that are differentiated primarily by tactics, and primarily applicable to the public sphere, defined by Habermas (2006) as a realm of social life where public opinion can be developed. However, the disciplines are also viewed as concentrating on a particular aim for a set time, rather than general ongoing communications activities. Public relations and advertising are also referred to through prominent approaches in the

literature review, such as functional and theoretical. Functional is defined as the practical application of the discipline, while theoretical is defined as the academic research and theories that support the discipline.

The research question addressed in this thesis is: How are public relations and advertising differentiated within an organisation's communications campaign? This question was developed in order to provide insights into how public relations and advertising are defined and differentiated by scholars, industry bodies, public relations practitioners, advertising practitioners and organisations in relation to a communications campaign. To assist in answering the research question, three additional research questions were developed: How are public relations and advertising defined by an organisation?; How are public relations and advertising applied within an organisation's communications campaign?; and How are public relations and advertising integrated within an organisation's communications campaign?

This research was conducted using an interpretivist epistemology (Gray, 2018; Silverman, 2017), applying a qualitative case study methodology which is most appropriate when answering a 'how' question (Yin, 2014). Data was collected using a mixed methods approach combining documentation with interviews (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann & Hanson, 2003), which allowed for a greater accumulation of information.

The communications campaign examined in this thesis is Fonterra's Richie's Milk Run campaign. Fonterra Co-operative Group is a global dairy company headquartered in New Zealand. As New Zealand's largest company by revenue (Deloitte, 2018), Fonterra employs 22,000 people internationally and accounts for 25% of all New Zealand exports (Fonterra, n.d.). The campaign was run in 2018 as part of the Fonterra Milk for Schools programme, run and sponsored by Fonterra farmers to supply New Zealand primary schools with free Anchor milk to ensure children are getting the nutrition they need. The campaign featured a competition where Richie McCaw (ex-All Black Captain 2004-2015 and current helicopter pilot) transported a special milk delivery by helicopter to four winning Fonterra Milk for Schools primary schools. Parents of the school children entered the competition

online, submitting images, videos or reasons as to why their child's school should win.

It should be noted that the researcher is a Communications Intern at Fonterra, the organisation in this thesis, and therefore this was a motivating factor in this research. Being employed by the organisation was advantageous to understanding its processes and conducting the research, particularly in obtaining data.

1.3 Thesis Structure

This thesis is structured through six chapters. Chapter one has introduced the disciplines of public relations and advertising, why this research is being undertaken and the research approach. Communications campaigns have been identified as a practical application of both public relations and advertising, and adhere to the theoretical framework of strategic communication used in this thesis.

Chapter two examines the relevant literature on strategic communication and communications campaigns, in order to situate the disciplines of public relations and advertising within it. As strategic communication implies an integration between the disciplines, previous literature on the integration of public relations and advertising is investigated. Prominent literature on the disciplines of public relations and advertising is then examined, to provide an overview of the evolution of these disciplines which aids in differentiating and defining the disciplines. Individual definitions produced by scholars and industry bodies are further analysed. Finally, literature relating social media to public relations and advertising is examined, as the introduction of new media technologies is perceived as a major modifier to the disciplines and their integration.

Chapter three outlines the research design for the thesis. It begins by stating the interpretivist epistemology (Gray, 2018; Silverman, 2017) that is used in this research, with regards to the theoretical framework of strategic communication (Hallahan et al., 2007). It then outlines the qualitative case study methodology (Yin, 2014) that employs the mixed methods of documents and interviews

(Creswell et al., 2003). Finally, it describes how thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2008) was utilised to analyse the data, with the unit of analysis as communications activities ordered chronologically by start date, employing open coding and frequency of data.

Chapter four presents the results of the data analysis, by first providing an overview of the coding platform used. The coded data is then displayed in frequency charts, which illustrate the main themes and findings in determining communications activities as either public relations or advertising.

Chapter five then discusses these themes and findings, analysing the three prominent themes of budget, source of communication and reputational risk. The chapter then outlines the limitations of the study, and challenges that arose.

Chapter six concludes the research, providing an overview of the research findings and reflecting on the research process. The chapter then provides recommendations for future research.

2. Literature Review

Communications campaigns utilise multiple communications disciplines, such as public relations and advertising, to more effectively meet the organisation's objectives (Atkin & Rice, 2013; Rogers & Storey, 1987; Werder, 2015). They attempt to achieve specific outcomes, are targeted towards a large audience, have a set time limit and utilise a structured array of communication activities. In a seminal article, Rogers and Storey (1987) stated that successful communications campaigns: create source credibility, a function of public relations (Ismail & Ahmad, 2015); utilise mass media to increase awareness, a function of advertising (Lane et al., 2011); and conduct audience research to influence behaviour change, a function of both public relations and advertising (Grunig & Hunt, 1984; Lane et al., 2011). Integrating both public relations and advertising combines the advantages of public relations' credibility and advertising's frequency (Ray & Batra, 1983) in addition to saving time and money (Nakra, 1991).

However, in recent years, the roles and responsibilities of the two disciplines have begun to overlap. Historically used to sell a product (Lane et al., 2011), advertising is moving towards a focus on brand engagement and relationship building (Dahlen & Rosengren, 2016). Similarly, public relations was developed as a function to gain attention through the media (Grunig & Hunt, 1984), and has shifted towards relationship building and reputation (Manley & Valin, 2017; Thurlow et al., 2018). In addition to this, the increasing prominence of social media has further blurred the boundaries between the disciplines, as scholars are at a disagreement on whether social media activities are more resembling of public relations (Macnamara & Zerfass, 2012), advertising (Schivinski & Dabrowski, 2016) or both (Berthon, Pitt, Plangger & Shapiro, 2012).

It is important to be able to differentiate these two disciplines within an integrated campaign to ensure they are resourced adequately, are the correct discipline for the organisation's objectives, and are able to be developed to reach their potential.

This thesis situates the disciplines of public relations and advertising within the theoretical framework of strategic communication (Hallahan et al., 2007).

Therefore, this chapter begins by exploring the context of strategic

communication, the practical use of strategic communication within communications campaigns, and the application of Image Repair Theory (Benoit, 2015). It then discusses the arguments for and against the integration of public relations and advertising. Following this, the evolution of the public relations and advertising disciplines are discussed, examining both academic and industry perspectives. Finally, the impact of social media on public relations and advertising is analysed in the context of strategic communication.

2.1 Strategic Communication Campaigns

As argued by Werder (2015), a prominent use of both the public relations and advertising disciplines within the context of strategic communication is in a communications campaign. As a result, Werder (2015) suggested a new framework of strategic communications campaigns. These communications campaigns can draw on theories from a variety of disciplines (Atkin & Rice, 2013; Werder, 2015), however this thesis draws on Image Repair Theory (Benoit, 2015) from the public relations domain. This section first discusses the theoretical framework of strategic communication, then introduces the concept of strategic communications campaigns, and finally applies Image Repair Theory to the theoretical framework.

2.1.1 Strategic Communication

Hallahan et al. (2007) stated that a range of professional disciplines, including public relations and advertising, participate in creating, distributing and analysing communications for organisations to achieve their objectives. Hallahan et al. (2007) argued that this is the core of strategic communication, which can be defined as “the purposeful use of communication by an organization to fulfill its mission” (p. 3).

Hallahan et al. (2007) argued that as a relatively new emerging paradigm, strategic communication does not have an established underlying conceptual framework, and is instead defined through managerial issues. These managerial issues pertain to the communications disciplines individually, such as increasing product sales in advertising or building relationships in public relations. Although in the context of

social media, Lewis and Nichols (2015) argued that it is critical to understand strategic communication as a management function, as opposed to a technical function. As outlined by van Ruler (2018), the quality of the communication is irrelevant in whether it can be defined as strategic, and instead depends on whether the communication reflects organisational goals and strategies. As stated by Thomas and Stephens (2015) in a special issue of the *International Journal of Business Communication* concerning strategic communication, “strategic communication sits at the intersection of management strategy and communication” (p. 3). This further suggests that strategic communication surpasses mere communication, to adhere to organisational goals and strategies.

A seminal analysis conducted by Hallahan (2004) examined the developing concept of communication management across disciplines. Organisations were beginning to identify that distinct communications disciplines shared similar purposes, objectives, and strategies to achieve those objectives. Owing to the organisation’s motive to integrate communications to improve effectiveness and efficiency, the disciplines are urged to adapt. Hallahan (2004) noted that within organisations, communications disciplines are primarily differentiated by their implementation, or activities. He classified six specialties of communications frequently established in organisations, each practiced for a different purpose by distinct practitioners: management, marketing (including advertising), public relations, technical communication, political communication, and information/social marketing campaigns.

Hallahan et al. (2007) argued for the term ‘strategic communication’ as a unifying framework for organisational communication analysis. They stated that organisational communication needs to be examined through a strategic and integrated perspective for four principal reasons.

First, communications practitioners’ ability to differentiate conventional communications activities is diminishing, owing to the transformation of these activities. Within organisations, exclusive authority over particular communications activities is being challenged.

Second, the developments in media and technology are significantly impacting communications, fusing the traditional categories of communication. For example, the internet and instant messaging challenge the differentiation of what constitutes advertising and what constitutes publicity (Hallahan et al., 2007). As argued by Lewis and Nichols (2015), the use of social media can be exercised by each discipline of strategic communication outlined by Hallahan (2004): management, marketing (including advertising), public relations, technical communication, political communication, and information/social marketing campaigns. However, even though social media can be applied effectively in all strategic communication disciplines, it should not be used merely as a tactic. Its influence is decreased if it is not supported by an integrated strategy or plan outlined by the organisation's management of strategic communication (Lewis & Nichols, 2015).

Third, the increase in communication channels and techniques utilised to influence audience behaviour questions whether any single communications activity can be accurately analysed. It cannot be determined whether the audience makes a distinction between various communications activities (Hallahan et al., 2007).

Fourth, strategic communication acknowledges that intentional influence is the principal aim of organisational communications. The foci of individual communications disciplines are not satisfactory for organisations to achieve strategic objectives, such as exclusively creating and sustaining reciprocal relationships, a focus of public relations. Communication theory and practice needs to concentrate on the overall contribution to an organisation's mission to remain relevant (Hallahan et al., 2007). Similarly, van Ruler (2018) argued that the field of strategic communication rests on the pillar of communication theory, with strategy providing the context. In regard to advertising, Meitz and Zurstiege (2015) made many references to strategy as planning, however stated that due to the creative nature of advertising, practitioners need a high level of freedom over their work. This suggests that advertising cannot be perceived as strategic. However, as outlined by van Ruler (2018), planning is often mistaken as strategy. Strategy needs to be emergent and have the ability to adjust in reaction to environmental changes (van Ruler, 2018).

Hallahan et al. (2007) further argued for strategic communication as a unifying framework as it presents a chance to shift the study of organisational communications towards an organisation's image and audience interaction. A principal rationale for this is the ability to refocus the fundamental processes of disciplines. Hallahan et al. (2007) suggested that some communications disciplines no longer adhere to their primary purpose, exemplifying that advertising has shifted to a more general focus in marketing, while public relations academia has emphasised relationship outcomes over the communication process. Similarly, Heide, von Platen, Simonsson and Falkheimer (2018) argued that strategic communication has developed in order to decompose the silos encompassing communications disciplines and establish an integrated framework. In order to achieve this, research must deviate from traditional disciplines and fields of knowledge.

However, Hallahan et al. (2007) claimed that academic research and education of communication differ from how communication is practiced strategically. They suggested that strategic communication practice can draw from the marketing, advertising and public relations cluster of scholarship, however stated that these communications disciplines have developed individually into specialised departments. Although marketing communications has expanded from a sole focus on advertising to a more general marketing discipline, public relations and advertising remain as separate academic disciplines (Hallahan et al., 2007). This was further argued by Wakefield, Plowman and Curry (2015) in the context of public relations, who stated that the education of public relations persistently fixates on tactics instead of strategy. As communications disciplines are differentiated through tactics within strategic communication (Hallahan, 2004), the focus on the tactical over the strategic suggests the disciplines remain as specialised departments rather than an overall strategic function.

As discussed by Holtzhausen and Zerfass (2015), Hallahan et al.'s (2007) foundation of strategic communication remained predominantly relevant and applicable. However, Holtzhausen and Zerfass (2015) argued for the inclusion of a principal component, the public sphere. As defined by Habermas (2006), the public

sphere is a realm of social life where public opinion can be developed. Although strategic communication is evident outside of the public sphere, such as employee communication, the principal goal of strategic communication is intentional influence, or reputation, in the public sphere. Holtzhausen and Zerfass (2015) therefore suggested that the definition of strategic communication as proposed by Holtzhausen and Zerfass (2013) is more extensive and inclusive of the public sphere: “Strategic communication is the practice of deliberate and purposive communication that a communication agent enacts in the public sphere on behalf of a communicative entity to reach set goals” (p. 74). As outlined by van Ruler (2018), Holtzhausen and Zerfass are leading scholars in the field of strategic communication, and she agreed that as strategic communication perceives the organisation as a social actor, only external communication fields are relevant.

However, Holtzhausen and Zerfass (2015) warned of the complications of strategic communication within organisations. They argued that fragmentation of strategic communication activities occurs as communications practitioners strictly adhere to their scope of responsibilities and area of expertise. As a result, communications practitioners refrain from working collaboratively, a necessary ability in strategic communication (Holtzhausen & Zerfass, 2015). As suggested by Holtzhausen (2008), this may be augmented by the practitioners’ education in only one communications discipline, such as public relations, advertising or marketing, rather than having an integrated approach.

In addition, Werder (2015) argued that despite the distinct applications of public relations and advertising, such as relationship building and product sales respectively, the disciplines provide different views on the responsibilities of communications in organisations. These views offer an increased understanding of strategic communication. The convergence of public relations and advertising is expressed by the strategic communications campaign, a result of the strategic communication process. As discussed in the following section, many theories are suitable and applicable to strategic communications campaigns, and provide a greater understanding of communication in the strategic context.

This literature review reflects the views of Hallahan et al. (2007), that communications practices are overlapping and integrating to deliver intentional messages that will further the organisation's mission. In this situation, public relations and advertising are viewed as separate practices that share similar purposes, objectives and strategies, but are differentiated primarily by tactics. The disciplines are being adapted through organisations' motives to integrate them, and are analysed together as an audience cannot make a distinction between them, but remain academically separate disciplines. Furthermore, the literature review draws on the importance of the public sphere as proposed by Holtzhausen and Zerfass (2015), in which public relations and advertising are viewed as primarily applicable to a public audience or stakeholders, as opposed to communications within an organisation, i.e. internal communications.

The following section discusses the theoretical framework of communications campaigns and how it has been adapted to the strategic context.

2.1.2 Communication Campaigns

As argued by Werder (2015), there are a number of definitions of communications campaigns in literature, however a seminal analysis on communication campaigns research conducted by Rogers and Storey (1987) recognised the fundamental components of all campaigns. As defined by Rogers and Storey (1987), communications campaigns attempt to achieve specific outcomes, are targeted towards a large audience, have a set time limit and utilise a structured array of communication activities. Communications campaigns utilise multiple communications disciplines, such as public relations and advertising, to more effectively meet the organisations objectives. Successful communications campaigns create source credibility, utilise mass media to increase awareness, and conduct audience research to influence behaviour change (Rogers & Storey, 1987).

Building on Rogers and Storey's (1987) conceptualisation, Atkin and Rice (2013) proposed a similar definition that has been adapted to reflect the changes in media and technology. They argued that the process of communications campaigns is universal across subjects and settings, in which campaign planners undertake a

situational analysis and establish objectives, leading to the formation of strategies. The campaign is then put into action through informative and influential messages that are publicised by traditional mass media, social technologies and interpersonal communication. Atkin and Rice (2013, p. 3) defined public communication campaigns as:

Purposive attempts to inform or influence behaviors in large audiences within a specified time period using an organized set of communication activities and featuring an array of mediated messages in multiple channels generally to produce noncommercial benefits to individuals and society.

Having conducted a literature review on both strategic communication and public communication campaigns, Werder (2015) argued for a definition of strategic communication campaigns that highlighted their multidisciplinary foundation. She stated that the definition should have the ability to be applied across the fields of strategic communication study and practice, in addition to highlighting the request for strategic communication to have a positive influence in the public sphere. She further drew on the components of communication campaigns posited by Rogers and Storey (1987) and Atkin and Rice (2013), and suggested that strategic communication campaigns are separate from general, continuing communication programmes as they concentrate on a particular subject or aim, have a set time limit, do not flow linearly and are publicised through a variety of media channels. Additionally, strategic communication campaigns require ongoing evaluation, and therefore demand a management style that permits the variation and modification of campaign strategies. Therefore, Werder (2015) proposed the definition of strategic communication campaigns as “a set of deliberate and purposive communication activities enacted by a communication agent in the public sphere on behalf of a communication entity to reach established goals that are informed by multiple perspectives” (p. 81).

This thesis places communications campaigns in the context of strategic communication, as proposed by Werder (2015). In this situation, public relations and advertising remain as separate practices that are differentiated primarily by tactics, and primarily applicable to the public sphere. However, they are also

viewed as concentrating on a particular aim for a set time, rather than general ongoing communications activities.

As argued by Atkin and Rice (2013) and Werder (2015), communications campaigns can draw on many theories from a variety of communications disciplines, including mass communication, social psychology, social marketing, public relations and advertising. One of these theories, Image Repair Theory, is discussed in the following section.

2.1.3 Image Repair Theory

Image Repair Theory (Benoit, 2015) was considered in this thesis owing to its relevance towards the Richie's Milk Run campaign. A key reason for Fonterra carrying out the campaign was their relatively low corporate reputation, as shown by surveys. In addition, the New Zealand public were unaware that Fonterra farmers shouldered the cost of the Milk for Schools programme and the milk was gifted to the schools free of charge. The campaign provided an opportunity for Fonterra to increase their image/reputation and is therefore linked to Image Repair Theory (Benoit, 2015), further discussed in this section.

As suggested by Werder (2015), numerous theories for interpreting strategic communication campaigns reside in the public relations sphere. The frameworks of crises and image management in particular are persistently applied to communication campaign study and practice. One of these theories suggested by Werder (2015) is Image Repair Theory (Benoit, 2015), which describes communication strategies to lessen image or reputational damage to an organisation.

Benoit (2015) argued that in the context of strategic communication, image, or reputation, is vital to an organisation. He stated that misconduct, whether actual or perceived, is inevitable for an organisation, and results in persuasive attacks. Persuasive attacks are messages that endeavour to generate negative opinions towards a targeted individual or organisation. However, an organisation does not have to be subjected to a persuasive attack to require image repair, as it can act

towards predicted image issues. This is reflective of Fonterra's Richie's Milk Run campaign, as it was not carried out in response to a particular persuasive attack.

Persuasive attacks or damage to an organisation's image directly affects its ability to conduct strategic communication (Benoit, 2015). A tarnished reputation reduces credibility and trustworthiness, which in-turn reduces persuasiveness of the organisation. This further affects the organisation's relationship with its employees, shareholders and stakeholders, and can directly affect business performance. Benoit (2015) argued that communication has the capability to mend an organisation's image or reputation, and suggests Image Repair Theory as a strategy.

Benoit (2015) defined image repair messages as "persuasive attempts to reshape the audience's attitudes: creating or changing beliefs about the accused's responsibility for an act and/or creating or changing values about the offensiveness of those acts" (p. 304). Benoit (2015) differentiated image repair from crises communications as this discourse is much broader, and is a reactive tool for established crises. Image repair messages can be proactive, and aim to advance an image damaged by either major or minor cynicism (Benoit, 2015).

Image Repair Theory relies on two fundamental assumptions essential to strategic communication: that the act of communication is goal-directed, and one of the principal goals of communication is sustaining a favourable reputation. As argued by Benoit (2015), communication practitioners endeavour to create messages to achieve the objectives most important to them, and therefore communication is best interpreted as a deliberate activity. Furthermore, improving reputation through communication, such as explanation, justification or apologies, occurs both publicly and privately for both individuals and organisations, as accusations exist throughout society (Benoit, 2015).

The foundation for Image Repair Theory, persuasive attacks, consist of two components, blame and offensiveness (Benoit, 2015). Blame refers to being responsible for an act, and in response an organisation can try to dismiss blame, through image repair strategies such as denying responsibility and shifting the

blame onto others. Offensiveness refers to the act being disrespectful, and in response an organisation can attempt to decrease offensiveness through image repair strategies such as bolstering or minimisation. In addition, organisations can attempt other image repair strategies that do not confront blame or offensiveness, such as apologising or attempting corrective action.

Benoit (2015) suggested five principal strategies for organisational image repair: denial, evasion of responsibility, reducing offensiveness of event, corrective action and mortification. Denial can include simple denial, in which the organisation states they did not carry out the act, or shifting the blame, in which the organisation states another carried out the act. Evasion of responsibility can include: provocation, in which the organisation states they responded to another's act; defeasibility, in which the organisation states they had an absence of information; accident, in which the organisation states the act was a mistake; or good intentions, in which the organisation states that they meant well. Reducing offensiveness can include: bolstering, in which the organisation emphasises their favourable attributes; minimisation, in which the organisation behaves as if the act was not serious; differentiation, in which the organisation behaves as if the act was less offensive than others; transcendence, in which the organisation stresses essential values; attack accuser, in which the organisation diminishes credibility of the accuser; or compensation, in which the organisation reimburses the victim. Corrective action includes an organisation planning to solve or prevent the recurrence of the act or problem. Mortification includes an organisation apologising for the act (Benoit, 2015). Fonterra's Richie's Milk Run campaign utilised the principal strategy of reducing offensiveness, in particular bolstering, as the organisation emphasised their favourable attributes. However, this was not in reaction to a certain event, rather their overall reputation.

Although Image Repair Theory (Benoit, 2015) is linked to the image and crises discourses applicable to the public relations domain, the framework of Brand Image Theory (Miller & Berry, 1998) applicable to the advertising domain is similar. This theory suggests that if the communication in advertising can persuade consumers' attitudes positively towards a characteristic, then the consumers' attitudes will also become more positive towards the brand. However, as argued

by Doorley and Garcia (2015), brand refers to how an organisation desires to be perceived, while reputation refers to the actual perceptions of the organisation. As this thesis is concerned with the application of public relations and advertising from multiple perspectives, reputation is a more applicable construct than brand, and therefore Image Repair Theory has been chosen as the overarching theory for this research.

This thesis draws on Image Repair Theory (Benoit, 2015), focusing on the application of the theory in strategic communications campaigns. The strategic communications framework that this thesis sits in suggests public relations and advertising as distinct disciplines that have developed to share similarities. However, many scholars argued for the two disciplines to become entirely integrated, as the following section discusses.

2.2 Integration of Public Relations and Advertising

The technique of utilising advertising methods within public relations was first analysed by Wedding (1950), on account of the inconsistency of both support and contention from both public relations and advertising practitioners towards the technique. The contrasting perceptions were generated as a result of the misinterpretation of terminology and the continual misuse of advertising methods for public relations purposes, due to the infancy of integration. Wedding (1950) found that bringing advertising into public relations contained the advantage of repetition. This was also found by Ray and Batra (1983), who observed an overall enhancement in consumer attitudes towards a brand based on the frequency in advertisement repetition. However, Wedding (1950) also argued that advertising is less credible than public relations, as public relations' source of communication originates from a third party rather than direct communication from the company as with advertising (Ismail & Ahmad, 2015). Wedding (1950) concluded that in order to ensure advertising is used effectively in public relations, it must solely apply advertising principles and tactics, such as selling a product. He also argued that the advertising must be established by facts, accumulated through an external agency due to a greater level of impartiality. This increases the credibility of the

advertising, ensuring that its use within public relations does not largely affect the credibility of the public relations.

The integration of public relations and advertising, along with other communications disciplines, continued to grow within the late 20th century, complemented by the implementation of the acronym IMC (Integrated Marketing Communications) (Miller & Rose, 1994). Later, Shimp and Andrews (2013) defined IMC as:

The coordination of the promotional mix elements (advertising, public relations, sales promotion, personal selling, direct marketing, and online marketing/social media) with each other and with the other elements of the brands' marketing mix (product, place, price) such that all elements speak with one voice (p. 12).

As argued by Hallahan et al. (2007), IMC differs from strategic communication as it aims to merge the various communications disciplines to concentrate on the audience's interests and concerns. Whereas in strategic communication, the emphasis is placed on the organisation, and how it communicates in order to advance its mission. Furthermore, within strategic communication, the various communication disciplines such as public relations and advertising are provided with an opportunity to refocus their fundamental purpose (Hallahan et al., 2007). Within IMC, the purposes and tactics of these communication disciplines are combined.

As illustrated by Miller and Rose (1994), scholars assumed that advertising educators were in favour of IMC while public relations educators were opposed to the integration. They argued that the functions between the two disciplines were distinctive within organisations, as advertising fundamentally maintains the marketing intentions of targeting messages to key marketplace stakeholders, whereas public relations is said to remain separate from marketing responsibilities. Nevertheless, the research conducted by Miller and Rose (1994) indicated that both advertising and public relations professionals were in support of IMC, suggesting the integrated marketing approach was a necessity. They

argued that within organisations, both public relations and advertising disciplines incorporate the wider operations of communications rather than solely their respective disciplines, with practitioners interested in a range of communication skills such as management, persuasion and social/behavioural sciences.

Furthermore, the integration improves an organisation's capability for product or brand preservation, in addition to saving time and money (Nakra, 1991). Miller and Rose (1994) concluded that rather than diminishing the function of both public relations and advertising, integration provides an opportunity for both fields to expand.

More recently however, Supa (2016) analysed the feasibility of integration by examining the relationship between public relations and advertising practitioners. He found that these professionals agreed that the disciplines are not in competition with each other. However, the professionals also perceived their respective fields as of higher importance than the other, and the fields significantly varied in opinions towards communication task responsibility. Although both sets of practitioners understood the benefits of IMC, and were willing to embrace the concept, they were not able to agree on a shared execution, and showed territorialism over their own roles and responsibilities (Supa, 2016).

Furthermore, Ismail and Ahmad (2015) conducted interviews with public relations, advertising and upper-management professionals in the Malaysian context that deduced communication should not be mutual between the fields. The particular situation needs to be analysed to determine which method to take, as advertising tends to focus on hard-sell language for a product when sales need to be boosted, while public relations is more efficient in a time of crisis (Ismail & Ahmad, 2015). This indicated the need for public relations and advertising to remain distinct disciplines, owing to their individual purposes and tactics.

Kitchen, Kim and Schultz (2008) questioned why after nearly two decades of practice, IMC remained in the developing stage both academically and in practice. They identified deficiencies with IMC as a process, due to the universal differentiation in its objective, as Korean and United Kingdom (UK) agencies perceived IMC as a tool for consistent communication, while United States agencies

perceived it as a business organisation tool. Additionally, conflicts between contrasting agencies and assigned tasks are only identified and resolved after implementation has occurred. Shimp and Andrews (2013) further deduced that IMC is easily accessible theoretically but not yet functionally, indicating that although academic research supports the method, it is not able to be practiced within industry. Owing to communications tools' constant segregation in academia and industry, units and practitioners within organisations have specialised in a specific area of communications instead of acquiring comprehensive communications knowledge (Shimp & Andrews, 2013).

UK public relations scholar Gregory (2011) argued that borders between the various communications departments in UK businesses are becoming increasingly indistinct. Functions of individual departments, such as the advertising department and the public relations department, are constantly modified, and previous studies have declared a shift towards combining the various communications functions into a single department. Public relations is not being considered inferior, rather it is situated as a core function, responsible for marketing campaigns, particularly involving the use of social media (Gregory, 2011).

In recent years, an argument has arisen in which public relations has an expanded role and diminishes the need for advertising (Shimp & Andrews, 2013). Ries and Ries (2002) argued that a new product can be launched solely through public relations, with no advertising. However, Shimp and Andrews (2013) contended this view, arguing that most new products are not unique or exceptional, and therefore will not be presented in news media. Furthermore, even if a product has launched successfully through public relations, ongoing publicity is not available (Shimp & Andrews, 2013).

Although research on the integration of public relations and advertising suggested benefits for the organisation, such as saving time and money (Nakra, 1991), other scholars outlined the need for both disciplines to function individually (Shimp & Andrews, 2013), due to their different roles (Ismail & Ahmad, 2015). As stated in the framework of strategic communication, public relations and advertising

remain separate disciplines that share similarities when it comes to purpose, objectives and strategies. Strategic communication also suggests the disciplines need to be refocused to their fundamental process. In order to understand their fundamental focus and how these two disciplines developed to share similarities and be proposed for integration, the next section discusses the evolution of the public relations and advertising disciplines separately.

2.3 Evolution of Public Relations and Advertising

The evolution of public relations and advertising illustrates that both disciplines were established for distinct purposes, with public relations' focus on reputation using the media (Grunig & Hunt, 1984) and advertising's focus on product sales (Lane et al., 2011). However, the boundaries between the two disciplines have blurred, as both public relations and advertising shifted towards audience research and two-way communication (L'Etang, 2008; Lane et al., 2011), and utilise similar tactics such as audience targeting (Anderson, 2008; Gordon, 2011). In more recent years, both public relations and advertising have focused on reputation, public relations through crises communication (Manley & Valin, 2017; Thurlow et al., 2018) and advertising through consumer relationships (Dahlen & Rosengren, 2016; Rappaport, 2007). The evolution of these disciplines situates them and their definitions within a variety of theoretical frameworks which will be acknowledged in this section.

2.3.1 Academic Evolution of Public Relations

In 1984, Grunig and Hunt developed the four models of public relations practice, which can be applied to different objectives and different organisational settings. They also reflect the development of public relations over time (Grunig & Hunt, 1984).

The press agent/publicity model is applicable from 1850 to 1900. According to Grunig and Hunt (1984), contemporary public relations originated as a functional discipline, directly from the practices of press agency. Press agency aims to increase the reputation of something by gaining the most attention in the media, without concern for public opinion or consideration of truth. Press agency

evolved into the public-information model (applicable from 1900 to 1920), which is concerned with informing the publics by offering one-way communication to the media.

As argued by Grunig and Hunt (1984), the development of the contemporary public relations discipline and the roles of the modernised public relations practitioner were distinguished from press agency in Bernays's publication of *Crystallizing Public Opinion* in 1922. Distinct from press agents, public relations practitioners were to be ethically, professionally and socially responsible, and utilise the academic advancements in social science to interpret public opinion and communicate to the diverse publics (Grunig & Hunt, 1984). This two-way asymmetric model (applicable from 1920) can still be applied to practice today, and utilises information from the publics in order to influence behaviour, known as scientific persuasion.

British scholar Pimlott (1951) studied public relations activities in the United States to analyse the benefits of Bernays's modern public relations practitioner. Pimlott deduced that public relations was not only an advantage to commercial organisations, but to the government as well. He perceived public relations as fundamental to American democracy, diffusing conflict and creating a link between ordinary citizens and those in what he called the "ruling class", such as churches, businesses, universities and government. Furthermore, in correlation to Bernays's notion that public relations is enhanced by academic advancements, Pimlott (1951) outlined a reciprocal action through the advantages that public relations can provide to the educational system. Public relations publicises vital information that supplements the educational system, such as information on local educational facilities and access to educational tools such as library books (Pimlott, 1951).

Despite an optimal connection between academia and functional public relations as suggested by Bernays and Pimlott (1951), other public relations scholars did not agree with this new theoretical approach to public relations. Black (1966) stated that critical assets of a public relations practitioner included sound judgement, being impartial and providing rationale for their actions, and these can only develop through practice. Furthermore, Robinson (1966) deduced that the

connection between academia and functional public relations was not utilised among practitioners owing to the profession being so young and not yet holding professional status. Public relations practitioners originated from diverse disciplines, with no option for a specialised formal public relations education owing to the lack of a universal theoretical foundation (Robinson, 1966). As a result of this, the profession had grown purely functionally, and the majority of practitioners had limited education in the social sciences. Similar to other scholars at the time (Bernays, 1952; Harlow, 1975), Robinson (1966) held the belief that public relations theory needs to be based on the social sciences, and defined the public relations practitioner as an applied social and behavioural scientist. This became the ideal of public relations as a science, which is practical, applied and quantitative, and assumes that theory should influence practice. The most prevalent theoretical perspectives in public relations derive from public relations models (Laskin, 2009), such as Grunig and Hunt's (1984) four models of public relations practice. The authors of such models reference the 1980s as the inception point (Grunig, Grunig & Dozier, 2002), as a result of Grunig's (1976) analysis of 16 tactics utilised by public relations practitioners (Laskin, 2009). The framework of strategic communication infers that communications disciplines are primarily differentiated through tactics (Hallahan et al., 2007), and Grunig (1976) listed these 16 procedures of public relations as press releases, formal surveys before project, formal surveys to evaluate project, informal research before project, informal research to evaluate project, preparing publications, informal contacts with newsmen, press conferences and formal contact with newsmen, informal contacts with public, contacts with thought leaders, staging events, preparing audio-visual materials, preparing institutional advertisements, counselling management, contacting government officials and writing speeches.

Around the time that theoretical public relations models were beginning to be developed, Harlow (1976) conducted an original study in search of a comprehensive definition of public relations. He combined 472 definitions of public relations previously proposed by scholars, in order to develop a new definition that included the essential elements illustrated in all 472 definitions. Harlow's (1976) definition is long, including the desired effects and tools utilised in public relations. However, Harlow's definition predominantly focused on

management, and Grunig and Hunt (1984) argued that the majority of Harlow's definition can be reduced to their definition of public relations, "the management of communication between an organization and its publics" (p. 6). Grunig and Hunt (1984) justified their focus on management of communication through the fact that public relations practitioners do not solely communicate for themselves, but for the organisation as a whole, as they manage the flow of communication into an organisation, within the organisation and out of the organisation.

Grunig and Hunt's (1984) definition is broad. Despite the focus on management, Grunig and Hunt (1984) did not define what form the communication, organisation or publics need to take in order to constitute public relations. They implied that any communication between an organisation and its publics can be public relations, as long as that communication is managed in some way. Grunig and Hunt (1984) also cited a definition of public relations produced by the defunct newsletter *Public Relations News*, that is more specific in what constitutes public relations, "public relations is the management function which evaluates public attitudes, identifies the policies and procedures of an individual or an organization with the public interest, and plans and executes a program of action to earn public understanding and acceptance" (p. 8). Although this definition is not sourced from an identifiable scholar, the comparison of the two definitions both cited by Grunig and Hunt (1984) illustrate the differences that exist between definitions, even those utilised by the same scholars.

The final of Grunig and Hunt's (1984) four models of public relations practice, the two-way symmetric model (applicable from the 1960s and 70s), uses dialogue to achieve an outcome that is beneficial for both the organisation and the publics. This focus on two-way communication and mutual understanding was also taken by Cutlip and Center (1978), who defined public relations as "the planned effort to influence opinion through good character and responsible performance, based upon mutually satisfactory two-way communication" (p. 31).

Almost three decades after this initial definition, Cutlip and Center, along with Broom, adapted their definition of public relations although kept with their initial focus on two-way communication and mutual understanding: "public relations is

the management function that establishes and maintains mutually beneficial relationships between an organization and the public on whom its success or failure depends” (Cutlip, Center & Broom, 2006, p. 22).

Similar to Grunig and Hunt’s (1984) definition of public relations, Cutlip et al.’s (2006) definition includes a focus on management and does not define what form the communication must take. However, in contrast to Grunig and Hunt’s (1984) definition, Cutlip et al. (2006) explicitly stated that the communication must be two-way and mutually beneficial, and directed towards publics that have an impact on the organisation.

Despite public relations theory aiming to have more of a place in contemporary public relations, many academics argue that functional public relations is dominant, and has occurred since ancient times (Cutlip & Center, 1978; Grunig & Hunt, 1984; Newsom & Scott, 1981). Although known by other names such as press agency and publicity direction (Bernays, 1952), the use of persuasion links directly to contemporary public relations. As outlined by Newsom and Scott (1981), all public relations activity aims to persuade, therefore persuasion is the motivation of public relations, and persuasion has existed throughout humanity. Peake’s (1980) perspective of public relations utilised this focus on persuasion, and she defined public relations as “the planned persuasion to change adverse public opinion or to reinforce public opinion, and the evaluation of results for future use” (p. 1). Nolte (1979) also defined public relations through persuasion, however included this as two-way communication, stating that the public relations practitioner needs to persuade management to carry out activities that will influence public opinion, and then also persuade the public to change their opinion on the organisation. Peake’s (1980) definition of public relations addressed themes such as public opinion and evaluation, that are not present in Nolte’s (1979) definition. Differing from previous definitions (Cutlip et al., 2006; Grunig & Hunt, 1984), Peake did not address the theme of management or two-way communication, but instead addressed the purpose of public relations, focusing on the goal of public relations instead of what it is. Peake’s (1980) view of public relations is that of a business manager rather than a public relations practitioner or academic, providing rationale for her functional view of public relations as

persuasion rather than a theoretical perspective. She argued that managers communicate with a range of publics, including employees, consumers and the government, and improving public relations can positively affect these relationships.

The turn of the 21st century urged more research to support the practice of public relations, and this is illustrated in scholarly definitions and the development of the Excellence Study. Heath (2001) agreed with previous definitions (Cutlip & Center, 1978; Cutlip et al., 2006) on public relations being mutually beneficial, however his definition differed as it addressed what public relations does and how that is achieved: “A relationship-building professional activity that adds value to organisations because it increases the willingness of markets, audiences, and publics to support them rather than to oppose their efforts” (p. 8). Heath’s definition further illustrated the development of public relations from one-way communication to a focus on building relationships (Gordon, 2011). Heath (2001) argued that public relations has grown from manipulation to creating confidence and connection, corresponding to Grunig and Hunt’s (1984) four models of public relations practice.

Following the four models of public relations practice, the Excellence Study was carried out by Grunig et al. (2002) in search of excellence in public relations and communication management. The research project of public relations practitioners concluded that the two-way symmetrical model was the most commonly accepted model for best public relations practice. However, this model is not completely utilised in practice (Grunig et al., 2002). Many academics believe that two-way symmetrical communication is simply an ideal (Laskin, 2009). Leitch and Neilson (2001) argued that communication is usually asymmetrical, favouring the side with more power. Situations in which resources are unequally distributed can be detrimental for the least powerful participant to engage in symmetrical dialogue, as they will be overshadowed. Despite this study, Grunig has not developed a standard definition of public relations since Grunig and Hunt’s (1984) adaptation of Harlow’s (1976) definition, in which their original focus on management does not adhere to the ideal of two-way symmetrical communication.

Despite the increases in theoretical public relations, Botan and Taylor (2004) built on previous theorists (Bernays, 1952; Harlow, 1975; Robinson, 1966) to argue that public relations is unable to equal theory development of further advanced areas of communication, such as journalism, owing to public relations being more recently established and as a functional tool. However, they also argued that the shift from a purely functional practice to an academically-based discipline has been clearly established. According to L'Etang (2008), public relations academics globally expressed the need to advocate public relations as a science, supported by research and academia, in order to gain a professional status. Established public relations scholar L'Etang (2008) concluded that although this ideal of public relations as a science is still dominant, a sociological approach is emergent and may heavily influence the future of public relations.

Communications scholars Ihlen and Ruler (2007) argued for this sociological approach to public relations, in which the orientation of public relations is shifted from organisational management issues to the relationships of the societies it operates in and produces. The theoretical approach to public relations establishes it as its own scientific discipline, however this does not account for both the ethical and methodological background of practitioners that affects their recognition of the field (Ihlen & Ruler, 2007). Zerfaß, van Ruler and Sriramesh (2008) further noted that public relations scholarship has emerged from different countries and regions, however globalisation is influencing the need for public relations theory to be universalised. Similarly, Grunig and Grunig (2008) examined extending the Excellence Study to become a global theory. L'Etang (2008) argued that this has created a new ideal, using a sociological approach focusing on morality, power, demographics and psychographics. Equally, industry figures Daniels (2018), from multinational public relations agency Agility PR, and Pavlik (2008), an author for the Institute of Public Relations, have also proposed that the sociological influence of media technology is shaping public relations theory and practice.

As L'Etang (2008) concluded, the ideal of science-backed public relations is still prominent, however sociological aspects are shifting it into a more creative discipline. L'Etang's (2008) view also aligns to strategic communication, with a focus on reputation and the organisation. L'Etang (2008) stated, "public relations

involves the communication and exchange of ideas to facilitate change” (p. 18). She argued that change involves conversation of opinions and ideas, and organisations require specialists to execute this conversation and liaise between the organisation and its stakeholders. Therefore, “public relations entails the analysis of organizational actions which may impact on relationships or reputation” (L’Etang, 2008, p. 18).

Despite a theme on two-way communication, L’Etang (2008) did not state it has to be symmetrical or mutually beneficial, suggesting a more asymmetrical approach and differing from previous definitions (Cutlip & Center, 1978; Cutlip et al., 2006; Heath, 2001). L’Etang’s (2008) definition is the only one to address reputation and the analysis of organisational actions and their impact, however it also reflects Peake’s (1980) definition, stating the goal of public relations (to facilitate change).

Laskin (2009), a university scholar in the USA and specialist in financial communication, concluded that scholars are unable to determine the approach to public relations used in industry, believing practitioners adhered to the ideal of public relations as a science when in reality they were engaging in a more sociological approach. L’Etang (2013) further concluded that the field of public relations is expanding to include a more diverse range of methodological approaches and perspectives, necessary in our increasingly global and multi-cultural environments. Although public relations is predominantly functional, the position of public relations has shifted to one L’Etang (2013) defined as “a more open and creative discipline” (p. 810) that draws on social science theory.

A large and growing body of literature has investigated the capabilities for public relations and communication management. A study conducted by Thurlow et al. (2018) found 10 core capabilities of public relations in the Canadian context, while a study conducted by Manley and Valin (2017) outlined the need to develop a global body of knowledge for public relations and communication management. These studies outlined many similar capabilities such as reputation management, evaluation research, relationship management and crises management. Similarly, Coombs and Holladay (2012) illustrated the vital role of public relations in crises

management, arguing that the rise of media technology is both a cause and a solution for crisis risks.

The evolution of public relations illustrates the shift from functional press agency, through theoretical foundations to a more sociological perspective. Despite these changes in the discipline, a key theme carried through the evolution is reputation, evident in both press agency and crises communication. The definitions of public relations vary significantly between scholars (Cutlip et al., 2006; Grunig & Hunt, 1984; Heath, 2001; L'Etang, 2008; Peake, 1980), indicating a difficulty in defining the discipline. Table 1 illustrates the themes found in scholarly definitions and compares the use of these in the definitions provided by Grunig and Hunt (1984), Cutlip et al. (2006), Peake (1980), L'Etang (2008), and Heath (2001). From a strategic communications perspective, the purpose of public relations is “to establish and maintain mutually beneficial relationships with key constituencies” (Hallahan et al., 2007, p. 6), similar to the definition proposed by Cutlip et al. (2006), indicating a focus on two-way symmetrical communication and therefore ideal practice (Grunig et al., 2002). This definition also holds some similarities to the industry definition of public relations, which is discussed in the following section.

Table 1: Themes in scholarly definitions of public relations

	Grunig and				
	Hunt (1984)	Cutlip et al. (2006)	Peake (1980)	L'Etang (2008)	Heath (2001)
<i>Management</i>	✓	✓			
<i>Two-way communication</i>		✓		✓	
<i>Mutual understanding</i>		✓			✓
<i>Persuasion</i>			✓		
<i>Public opinion/behaviour</i>			✓		
<i>Evaluation</i>			✓	✓	

<i>Reputation</i>				✓	
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2.3.2 Industry Perspective of Public Relations

This research is undertaken in a New Zealand industry environment, therefore the New Zealand industry perspective of public relations is considered. This is identified through the definition of public relations by the Public Relations Institute of New Zealand (PRINZ), which represents the profession of public relations and communication management:

The deliberate, planned and sustained effort to establish and maintain mutual understanding and excellent communications between an organisation and its publics... Public relations professionals evaluate the attitudes of an organisation's stakeholders... and plan and execute a programme of action to earn public understanding and acceptance of an organisation's policies or activities. Communication, usually visual, written, oral and or experiential, plays a significant part in public relations practice (PRINZ, n.d., para. 1-3).

The industry definition shares multiple themes with academic definitions, such as two-way communication, mutual understanding, public opinion and evaluation. However, the definition is longer and more specific than scholarly definitions, addressing topics such as what public relations is, the goal of public relations, the role of the public relations practitioner and public relations activities. All academic definitions address what public relations is, and some address the goal of public relations (L'Etang, 2008; Peake, 1980), however no academic definitions address the role of the public relations practitioner or public relations activities.

With the increasing influence of globalisation (Zerfaß et al., 2008), it is also important to consider industry definitions of public relations from international industry bodies. The Public Relations Institute of Australia (PRIA) is the national representative body for public relations and communication professionals in Australia. PRIA define public relations as "the deliberate, planned and sustained

effort to establish mutual understanding between an organisation and its publics” (PRIA, n.d., para. 5). This definition is almost identical to the first line in PRINZ’s definition, indicating similarities between the two bodies. However, PRIA’s definition is reduced, addressing only the theme of mutual understanding.

The Public Relations Society of America (PRSA) is the USA’s largest professional body representing the communications community. PRSA defines public relations as “a strategic communication process that builds mutually beneficial relationships between organizations and their publics” (PRSA, n.d., para. 5). Similar to the definitions provided by PRINZ and PRIA, PRSA addresses the theme of mutual understanding, but further develop this to refer to relationship building. Despite minor differences, the definitions between the industry bodies of New Zealand, Australia and the USA remain comparable, indicating an agreement between industry bodies which contrasts to the differentiation between scholars.

The Chartered Institute of Public Relations (CIPR) is the Royal Chartered professional body for public relations practitioners in the UK and overseas. CIPR define public relations as:

Public Relations is about reputation – the result of what you do, what you say and what others say about you.

Public Relations is the discipline which looks after reputation, with the aim of earning understanding and support and influencing opinion and behaviour. It is the planned and sustained effort to establish and maintain goodwill and mutual understanding between an organisation and its publics (CIPR, n.d., para. 5-6).

CIPR’s definition introduces a major theme only addressed in one scholarly definition (L’Etang, 2008) and no other industry definitions, reputation. Although the most prominent theme in the definition, CIPR also address familiar themes such as mutual understanding and public opinion/behaviour.

Table 2 illustrates the themes found in industry definitions and compares the use of these in the definitions provided by PRINZ, PRIA, PRSA and CIPR.

Table 2: Themes in industry definitions of public relations

	PRINZ	PRIA	PRSA	CIPR
<i>Mutual understanding</i>	✓	✓	✓	✓
<i>Two-way communication</i>	✓			
<i>Public opinion/behaviour</i>	✓			✓
<i>Evaluation</i>	✓			
<i>Reputation</i>				✓

The differentiations between the academic definitions (Cutlip et al., 2006; Grunig & Hunt, 1984; Heath, 2001; L'Etang, 2008; Peake, 1980) are substantial, and additionally the definitions from these scholars differ largely from the industry definition. Interestingly, the industry definition shares a focus on mutual two-way communication with some scholars (Cutlip et al., 2006), following what scholars consider best practice.

2.3.3 Public Relations Activities

As outlined in the framework of strategic communication, communications disciplines are primarily differentiated through tactics (Hallahan et al., 2007). This section outlines the main activities associated with public relations, and further explains the tactics utilised in the Richie's Milk Run campaign.

With regards to communications campaigns, Gordon (2011) outlined 11 tactics that correspond to public relations activities: media releases, media tours, awards, press rooms, events, promotional weeks and days, stunts, placement on television and radio, publications and competitions, third parties, and sponsorship. Media releases, media tours and publications were used in the Richie's Milk Run campaign, with the concept of Richie's Milk Run being a competition. A competition guarantees additional coverage and provides extra media opportunities through introducing the competition, announcing the winners, and engaging in additional promotion.

A media release is a written document sent to the media with the intention of gaining coverage in the media, including print and broadcast. A media tour is the action of leading journalists to a location to gain media coverage. A publication can illustrate an event, product launch, or attraction opening, and can take form as various types of media, such as websites, books, leaflets and posters.

2.3.4 Academic Evolution of Advertising

Similar to public relations, advertising activities can be traced back to ancient times, with documentation from 5000B.C. of messages offering goods for sale (Lane et al., 2011). However, contemporary advertising developed in the mid-17th century, three centuries earlier than contemporary public relations. The field already held a skilled status, as individuals were hired as advertisers, in the form of town criers or sign painters. Lane et al. (2011) argued that the history of advertising can be categorised into four periods: the premarketing era, the mass communication era, the research era, and the interactive era.

The first period of advertising was the premarketing era, spanning from the inception of product exchange in ancient times to the mid-17th century, and consisted of buyers and sellers communicating in primitive ways through means such as town criers or tavern signs (Lane et al., 2011). The second period of advertising was the mass communication era, spanning from the 18th century until the mid-20th century. The development of mass newspapers, followed by magazines and radio, allowed advertisers to reach increasingly larger portions of the population (Lane et al., 2011).

The third period of advertising was the research era, when advertisers began analysing information on consumers' demographic information such as gender, age and location, spanning from the 1920s (Lane et al., 2011). This era consisted of advertisers utilising a number of techniques to influence mass audiences. In the late 20th century, the reduction of mass media, such as national newspapers and radio broadcasts, and the rise of personal media, such as regional, gender and age-targeted television broadcasts, determined that advertisers needed to focus on narrower audiences. The research era is operating today, however research has

shifted from a general demographic approach to a specific psychographic approach. Advertisers are now focused on the motivations and lifestyles of consumers, to examine purchase behaviour (Lane et al., 2011).

The research era can also be linked to the inception of advertising models, the earliest of which were developed in the mid to late 20th century (Little, 1979). Advertising models are theories that illustrate how advertising works, by seeking to interpret and express a method that results in effectively persuading an individual to act (Rossiter & Percy, 1985). Little (1979) stated the first advertising models were constructed through both theoretical and functional approaches. He labelled theoretical models *a priori*, meaning something that can be known without experience, and functional models *econometric*, meaning statistically-based relationships that explain particular economic phenomena. However, both types of models are linked to product sales, indicating advertising's fundamental process. One of the earliest and compelling a priori models was published by Vidale and Wolfe in 1957. This model relied on three constants to determine the sales response to advertising: that sales rate increases with advertising rate, that this effect decreases as sales rate approaches saturation, and that sales then constantly erode spontaneously. Another a priori model developed by Nerlove and Arrow in 1962 follows the same approach, engaging the term "goodwill" to signify the influence of former and present advertisements on sales. The model determines that as advertising occurs, goodwill rises, which in turn continually deteriorates. The level of goodwill is indicative of the level of sales. Clarke (1976) developed an econometric model from the accumulation of industry data, determining that the accruing influence of advertising remains for months, and not years as was previously thought.

The hierarchy of effects model has been continually developed by academics since its inception by Lewis in 1900, as a measure of advertising effectiveness through the degree to which the audience responds, cognitively, affectively or conatively (Wijaya, 2012). This model is also prominent in public relations with regards to communications campaigns (Gordon, 2011). In 1925, Strong adapted this model to become the AIDA (attention, interest, desire and action) model, which has become very prominent in both academia and practice (Wijaya, 2012). Lavidge and Steiner

further enhanced this model in 1961, by determining six steps of consumer persuasion: awareness, knowledge, liking, preference, conviction and purchase (Wijaya, 2012). However, Rossiter and Percy (1985) criticised the hierarchy of effects model and its variations, arguing that it is indisputable that advertising does not perform by means of a single, linear process.

Although both public relations and advertising aim to persuade, an identifiable difference between the two is that advertisements are paid for. As described by Gordon (2011), advertising is an above-the-line activity, indicating all activities are paid for. Public relations is a below-the-line activity as it performs based on fee and utilises other methods such as media relations and special offers. This is also in line with the definition of advertising produced by Belch and Belch (2012), who stated that advertising is “any paid form of non-personal communication about an organization, product, service, or idea by an identified sponsor” (p. 18). Belch and Belch’s (2012) definition indicates some prominent themes of advertising, such as being paid, non-personal and from an identifiable source. However, they did not state what form the communication needs to take, or what the goal of advertising is.

Belch and Belch (2012) stated that the non-personal theme indicates that advertising involves mass media, and indicates there is no opportunity for feedback from the message recipient. However, this differs from other scholars who argued that there is a demise in mass media and an increase in targeted audience and two-way communication (Anderson, 2008; Lane et al., 2011). Belch and Belch (2012) further argued that advertising is the most common and cost-effective form of promotion, and believed this is due to its use of persuasion, despite not addressing the theme of persuasion in their definition.

Gordon (2011) defined advertising as “where media space or time is paid for in order for an organisation to send its messages” (p. 381). This definition is similar to Belch and Belch (2012), as it shares the theme of being paid, however Gordon (2011) stated that it is specifically media space or time that is paid for. Furthermore, Gordon (2011) did not address the themes of non-personal communication and coming from an identifiable source.

Another identifiable factor of advertising is its focus on selling a product. As argued by Lane et al. (2011, p. 6), “the purpose of advertising is to create demand by introducing new products or suggesting how consumers can solve some problem with existing products”. They stated that advertising is a message that has been paid for by a labelled sponsor, predominantly communicated through a channel of mass media. The message is persuasive and honest, clear on its intention to sell a good or service (Lane et al., 2011). Lane et al. (2011) agreed with previous definitions on the factors of advertising being paid for (Belch & Belch, 2012; Gordon, 2011) and from an identifiable source (Belch & Belch, 2012), however they introduced a new idea of advertising clearly stating that it is trying to sell a product. Lane et al. (2011) also enforced the idea of persuasion, as determined by the history of advertising and models of advertising.

According to Dahlen and Rosengren (2016), a definition common in advertising academia was developed by Richards and Curran in 2002: “a paid, mediated form of communication from an identifiable source, designed to persuade the receiver to take some action, now or in the future” (Richards & Curran, 2002, p. 74). Agreeing with previous definitions on the themes of being paid, identifiable source and persuasion, Richards and Curran (2002) also introduced the goal of advertising, to get the receiver to take some action.

The fourth period of advertising is the interactive era, a new model for the 21st century. With the continuous uprising of social media, consumers are able to control the media content they observe, through deciding which content to subscribe to. Consumers are also actively participating in the communication process, through liking, commenting or sharing an advertisement, and the ability to message the advertiser directly. This indicates a shift towards two-way symmetric communication (Lane et al., 2011).

The increasing prominence of the internet has enforced a shift in advertising from the interference and frequency tactics of mass media to a focus on relevance online (Rappaport, 2007). As a result, Rappaport (2007) developed three models increasing in significance: on demand, referring to consumers’ authority over the

selection of their media content; engagement, referring to the development of a relationship between a customer and a brand as a result of high relevance; and advertising as a service, to provide consumers with instruction that allows for a more pleasant experience, enhancing brand engagement. On demand allows for heightened engagement, which then leads to a more influential brand to consumer connection. This focus on the connection between a consumer and a brand is representative of Brand Image Theory (Miller & Berry, 1998), a theory that closely relates to public relations' Image Repair Theory (Benoit, 2015).

The demise of mass media has another profound effect on advertising due to the rise in audience fragmentation, which refers to the division of mass media audiences into smaller groups (Lane et al., 2011). The increase in technology led to an increased diversity of media outlets, each gaining a segment of the mass media audience. Anderson (2008) argued that we are moving from a world of scarcity into a world of abundance. The increase in choice of products on the market indicates consumers will find one specifically tailored to their niche. This effect is also influencing advertising, as universal advertisements on broadcast media no longer reach consumers who are indifferent to either the media or the message. Advertisers are unable to develop a sufficient number of advertisements to target every possible audience that may have demand for their product, however Google's targeted placement of advertisements adjoining related content is a contending method (Anderson, 2008).

However, this shift in advertising is further blurring the lines between the discipline and public relations. The shift in targeted audience from mass media to specific consumers also indicates a directional change towards public relations. As stated by Gordon (2011), determining specific publics allows organisations to develop particular messages and methods that will influence them more effectively, and therefore public relations does not target mass media or a 'general public'.

Although advertising is still largely apparent in print and broadcast mass media, the introduction of real-time bidding (RTB) has seen the fastest growth in display and digital advertising (Yuan, Wang & Zhao, 2013). RTB aims advertisements to

particular consumers corresponding to their data, utilising algorithms to instinctively sell advertisement space in real-time. This targeting boosts the effectiveness of the advertising greatly, as consumers are shown advertisements on goods and services specific to their data, and are therefore more likely to buy the good or service (Yuan et al., 2013).

A study conducted by Dahlen and Rosengren (2016) recognised a demand for a new definition of advertising, that addressed this shift in media formats and new consumer behaviours. The survey conducted on both advertising academics and professionals deduced a new definition of advertising, which is “brand-initiated communication intent on impacting people” (p. 343). Dahlen and Rosengren (2016) stated that although this definition is relatively broad, it is complementary of the fading boundaries between advertising and public relations. The advertising industry is currently implementing communications that merge component from various disciplines, and this will continue to increase in the future. For example, Dahlen and Rosengren (2016) argued that advertising needs to focus on relationships with stakeholders and shift away from the exclusive consumer focus. This broad definition poses some problems, not addressing any points that previous definitions have considered vital to advertising, such as being paid, from an identifiable source, persuasion, trying to sell a product and to take action. Although Dahlen and Rosengren (2016) stated that advertising tries to impact people, they do not confirm whether advertising actually has an effect on the receiver or not.

Lane et al.'s (2011) four periods of advertising correspond to Grunig and Hunt's (1984) four models of public relations practice. Although the time periods themselves are not equivalent, both disciplines highlight four major periods of development. The earlier periods for both public relations and advertising were distinctive, with advertising's focus on product sales and public relations' focus on the media. However, the final periods for both disciplines indicate their increasing similarity, as both shift towards utilising audience information and two-way communication. Table 3 outlines the comparisons between public relations' and advertising's four periods of development.

Table 3: Four periods of public relations and advertising development

	Grunig and Hunt's (1984) four models of public relations practice	Lane et al.'s (2011) four periods of advertising
Period 1	Press agent/publicity model: Gaining attention in the media through one-way communication, without consideration of truth.	The premarketing era: Sellers target buyers in primitive ways.
Period 2	Public-information model: Offering one-way communication to the media.	The mass communication era: Reach larger portions of the population.
Period 3	Two-way asymmetric model: Utilises information from the publics to influence behaviour.	The research era: Targets consumers through demographic and psychographic information.
Period 4	Two-way symmetric model: Uses dialogue to achieve outcomes beneficial for both organisations and publics.	The interactive era: Social media enables two-way communication.

Despite the increasing similarities between public relations and advertising, such as targeted audiences (Anderson, 2008) and a focus on two-way communication (Lane et al., 2011), advertising maintains a focus on selling a product and buying media space, illustrated by the introduction of RTB (Yuan et al., 2013). Although public relations remains in the domain of reputation, the increase of advertising's focus on brand image and connection (Rappaport, 2007) indicates a further blurring of the boundaries between them.

Similar to public relations, the definitions of advertising vary significantly between scholars (Belch & Belch, 2012; Dahlen & Rosengren, 2016; Gordon, 2011; Lane et al., 2011; Richards & Curran, 2002), indicating a difficulty in defining the discipline. Table 4 illustrates the themes found in scholarly definitions and compares the use of these in the definitions provided by Lane et al. (2011), Richards and Curran

(2002), Belch and Belch (2012), Gordon (2011) and Dahlen and Rosengren (2016). From a strategic communications perspective, the purpose of advertising is “to create awareness and promote sales of products and services” (Hallahan et al., 2007, p. 6), which is also indicative of the consolidation of advertising and marketing. This definition contains the fundamental process of advertising, to sell a product, used in some scholarly definitions (Lane et al., 2011). However, this theme is not addressed in the industry definition of advertising, which is discussed in the following section.

Table 4: Themes in scholarly definitions of advertising

	Richards				
	Lane et al. (2011)	and Curran (2002)	Belch and Belch (2012)	Gordon (2011)	Dahlen and Rosengren (2016)
<i>Paid for</i>	✓	✓	✓	✓	
<i>Non-personal</i>			✓		
<i>Identifiable source</i>	✓	✓	✓		
<i>Selling product</i>	✓				
<i>Persuasion</i>	✓	✓			
<i>Public opinion/behaviour</i>		✓			✓

2.3.5 Industry Perspective of Advertising

This research is undertaken in a New Zealand industry environment, therefore the New Zealand industry perspective of advertising is considered. This is identified through the definition of advertising by the Advertising Standards Authority (ASA), the voice of New Zealand’s advertisers:

Any message, the content of which is controlled directly or indirectly by the advertiser, expressed in any language and communicated in any medium with the intent to influence the choice, opinion or behaviour of

those to whom it is addressed (ASA, n.d., para. 2).

The industry definition does not agree with the majority of themes from academic definitions, including being paid, from an identifiable source, trying to sell a product and to take action. However, ASA state that an advertisement must also be discernible as one, no matter what form or medium it uses. The definition is very broad, only addressing the themes of persuasion and public opinion/behaviour.

As with the industry definitions of public relations, it is also important to consider industry definitions of advertising from international industry bodies. However, the Australian Association of National Advertisers (AANA), the UK's Advertising Association and the World Federation of Advertisers (WFA) do not state a definition of advertising (AANA, n.d.; Advertising Association, n.d.; WFA, n.d.).

The Association of National Advertisers (ANA) is the industry body representing the marketing community in the USA. The ANA does not provide their own definition of advertising, but has partnered with the Marketing Accountability Standards Board (MASB) to develop an industry applicable marketing dictionary. This dictionary uses the definition developed by the American Marketing Association (AMA):

Advertising is the placement of announcements and messages in time or space by business firms, nonprofit organizations, government agencies, and individuals who seek to inform and/or persuade members of a particular target market or audience regarding their products, services, organizations or ideas (Common Language Marketing Dictionary, n.d., para. 1).

This definition is similar to the New Zealand industry definition of advertising from the ASA, as it does not agree with the majority of themes from academic definitions, including being paid, non-personal, from an identifiable source, and trying to sell a product. The definition is also broad, only addressing the themes of persuasion and public opinion/behaviour.

Table 5 illustrates the themes found in industry definitions and compares the use of these in the definitions provided by ASA and ANA.

Table 5: Themes in industry definitions of advertising

	ASA	ANA
<i>Persuasion</i>	✓	✓
<i>Public opinion/behaviour</i>	✓	✓

The differentiations between the academic definitions (Belch & Belch, 2012; Dahlen & Rosengren, 2016; Gordon, 2011; Lane et al., 2011; Richards & Curran, 2002) are substantial, and additionally the definitions from these scholars differ largely from the industry definition. Interestingly, the industry definition shares a focus on public opinion with some scholars (Dahlen & Rosengren, 2016; Richards & Curran, 2002), as opposed to selling a product, indicating the influence of media technology and a shift towards public relations.

2.3.6 Advertising Activities

As outlined in the framework of strategic communication, communications disciplines are primarily differentiated through tactics (Hallahan et al., 2007). This section outlines the main activities associated with advertising, and further explains the tactics utilised in the Richie’s Milk Run campaign.

Lane et al. (2011) outlined 12 mediums of advertising that correspond to advertising activities: direct response, sales promotion, internet, television, print, video games, radio, cinema, sponsored events, product placement in content, outdoor, and guerrilla marketing. Direct response, internet, television, and print were used in the Richie’s Milk Run campaign.

Direct response refers to activities such as telemarketing and direct mail. As stated by Smith and Zook (2011, p. 379), “direct marketing includes any marketing communications tools that interact directly with customers”. Electronic direct mail (eDM) was used in the Richie’s Milk Run campaign, and is the sending of emails directly to the customer. The internet contains a range of advertising activities,

from search engines to websites and advertisements in content. Internet advertisements were used in the Richie's Milk Run campaign, in the form of banners that displayed on the sides of web pages. Television refers to the activity of television commercials, which were used in the Richie's Milk Run campaign. Print contains a range of advertising activities, from advertisements in newspapers and magazines to print promotional material such as posters and free-standing inserts. Richie's Milk Run contained a range of print activities, such as press advertisements, posters in schools and bottle-neck tags on Anchor milk bottles.

Belch and Belch (2012) further outlined the use of corporate advertising, arguing that it is an extension of public relations. Corporate advertising does not focus on selling a product, but rather aims to enhance the organisation overall. There are four types of corporate advertising activities: image advertising, event sponsorship, advocacy advertising and cause-related advertising. The Richie's Milk Run campaign utilised image advertising, which involves increasing visibility of the organisation through association with a respected issue, programme or charity. Fonterra aimed to enhance their image through association with their Milk for Schools programme.

2.4 Social Media

The rapid increase of technology and the introduction of social media in recent years has had a major influence on communications activities. As stated by Smith and Zook (2011), social media is the biggest transformation since the industrial revolution. Social media has been integrated into a wide range of communications campaigns (Smith & Zook, 2011), and is affecting both the disciplines of public relations and advertising individually (Anderson, 2008; Daniels, 2018; Lane et al., 2011; Pavlik, 2008).

A study conducted by Khang, Ki and Ye (2012) analysed the trends of social media research across four disciplines: advertising, communications, marketing and public relations. As explained by Roberts (2016), both communications and marketing are broad terms that include the disciplines of public relations and advertising. However, as the goal of marketing is to promote a product to increase sales, and utilises paid media, it can be closer aligned to advertising. Similarly, as

the goal of communications is to effectively deliver an organisation's key messages to their audiences, it can be closer aligned to public relations (Roberts, 2016). Furthermore, Cho and Khang (2006) illustrated that advertising is an interdisciplinary field, developed through the common objectives of communications and marketing. Therefore, although these disciplines have individual definitions, they are connected to one another. Khang et al. (2012) concluded that communications journals contained the vast majority of social media articles, with no difference observed between the remaining three disciplines. However, in the most recent years, the mentions of social media in public relations articles published has risen dramatically compared to the other disciplines, illustrating that social media has become a major part of public relations.

As stated by Eyrich, Padman and Sweetser (2008), the introduction of social media has been quickly adopted by public relations professionals as it allows them to reach broader audiences, engage in two-way conversation with their publics and strengthen media relations. However, their survey indicated that social media was perceived by practitioners as being used in industry only some of the time, with corporates using social media less than public relations agencies. A similar study conducted by Verhoeven, Tench, Zerfass, Moreno and Verčič (2012) argued that social media is positively correlated to the impact of public relations, indicating public relations will be more effective if it contains the use of social media, but the content of the communication is increasingly important. They concluded that social media is most likely to be controlled by the organisation's public relations department, as opposed to the advertising or any other department.

Similarly, Macnamara and Zerfass (2012) perceived social media as a tool for public relations, due to the ability for two-way communication between organisations and publics, through interaction with posts (liking, commenting and sharing) and direct messaging. However, they concluded that social media tends to be experimental within organisational communications, and as a sole practice should be integrated with other forms of communication.

A distinguishing feature between advertising and public relations is that advertising media is paid for (Belch & Belch, 2012; Dahlen & Rosengren, 2016; Gordon, 2011; Lane et al., 2011). As stated by Smith and Zook (2011), signing up for a social media page may be free, but organisations still need to take into account the time needed to manage these accounts, and to plan and execute social media activities. However, Chu (2011) defined viral advertising on social media as unpaid, challenging the concept of viral advertising entirely.

Another distinguishing feature between advertising and public relations is that advertising is first and foremost created to sell a product (Lane et al., 2011). As illustrated by Berthon, Pitt, Plangger and Shapiro (2012), uploading previously broadcast advertisements onto social media platforms can increase product sales. In one instance, sales of Old Spice increased by 55 per cent after an advertisement was posted onto YouTube, resulting in millions of downloads and the creation of a fan page for the advertisement on Facebook. Another occurrence saw a publisher become interested in a man's postings on social media, and compiled them into a book which became a best-seller. However, despite social media's success in advertising, it is also a medium to contact broadcast media, a traditional public relations activity, as journalists find content in social media posts (Berthon et al., 2012).

A type of communication that has only become available with the introduction of social media is User Generated Content (UGC). Consumers have moved away from sourcing their brand information from traditional media and are now looking on social media platforms (Schivinski & Dabrowski, 2016). UGC makes up around 70 per cent of brand related searches on social media platforms, with the remaining 30 per cent searching for brand-created content (Christodoulides, Jevons & Bonhomme, 2012). Consumers perceive UGC to be more credible and trustworthy than brand-initiated content, and therefore it has a greater effect on consumers' perceptions of a brand (Schivinski & Dabrowski, 2016). Despite having the same effects as public relations, Schivinski and Dabrowski (2016) argued that UGC is a type of advertising.

Academia has illustrated that social media can be shaped into a tool for both public relations and advertising, however within industry, social media activities are owned by a single department, most commonly the public relations department (Verhoeven et al., 2012). Despite this, scholars are at a disagreement on whether social media activities are more resembling of public relations (Macnamara & Zerfass, 2012), advertising (Schivinski & Dabrowski, 2016) or both (Berthon et al., 2012).

2.5 Summary and Research Questions

This study draws on Image Repair Theory (2015), which shares the multidisciplinary framework of strategic communication (Hallahan et al., 2007), with a particular focus on strategic communications campaigns (Werder, 2015). In this framework, public relations and advertising are perceived as separate practices that share similar purposes, objectives and strategies, but are differentiated primarily by tactics. Additionally, academia and education of the disciplines remain separate, indicating an issue in collaboration between practitioners. In strategic communication campaigns, public relations and advertising are viewed as primarily applicable to a public audience as opposed to communications within an organisation, and concentrate on a particular aim for a set time rather than general ongoing communications activities. This is reflected in the Richie's Milk Run campaign, where communications activities were directed at the New Zealand public and implemented for a limited time.

The disciplines of public relations and advertising were developed individually to achieve different objectives, with public relations' focus on gaining attention through the media (Grunig & Hunt, 1984) and advertising's focus on selling a product (Lane et al., 2011). However, in recent years, both public relations and advertising have shifted to a focus on audience research and relationship building (L'Etang, 2008; Rappaport, 2007). In addition to this, the increasing prominence of social media has further blurred the boundaries between the disciplines, as scholars are at a disagreement on whether social media activities are more resembling of public relations (Macnamara & Zerfass, 2012), advertising (Schivinski & Dabrowski, 2016) or both (Berthon et al., 2012).

Integration of public relations and advertising is argued to have benefits to the organisation, such as combining the advantages of public relations' credibility (Ismail & Ahmad, 2015) and advertising's frequency (Ray & Batra, 1983) in addition to saving time and money (Nakra, 1991). A practical use of this integration is within a communications campaign, which utilises multiple communications disciplines and an array of communication activities (Rogers & Storey, 1987). However, no studies have been conducted on differentiating the individual roles of these disciplines within an organisation's communications campaign, whether they are utilised as individual disciplines or merged together as IMC. It is important to be able to differentiate these two disciplines within an integrated campaign to ensure they are resourced adequately, are the correct discipline for the organisation's objectives, and are able to be developed to reach their potential.

An analysis of the evolution of public relations and advertising illustrated that academic definitions differ between scholars, and furthermore definitions differ between industry and academia. As scholarly and industry definitions remain disparate, and it is unknown which definition, if any, practitioners adhere to, how can an organisation be expected to differentiate between the disciplines and determine which is more suited to meet their objectives?

Therefore, the research question asked in this thesis is *how are public relations and advertising differentiated within an organisation's communications campaign?*

In order to answer this question, the research examines a single communications campaign from one organisation to determine how scholars, industry, a public relations practitioner, an advertising practitioner and the organisation define and differentiate public relations and advertising within the campaign. The four approaches of industry bodies, a public relations practitioner, an advertising practitioner and an organisation were chosen to be analysed as they are all involved in initiating and carrying out communications campaigns, and scholars were chosen as the disciplines are supported by a theoretical framework.

To assist in answering the research question, three additional research questions have been developed.

The analysed definitions of public relations and advertising have indicated both similarities and differences between the two disciplines, however these are in the context of academia and ideal industry application. To aid in the differentiation between public relations and advertising within the campaign, and to understand whether public relations and advertising are defined consistently between academia, industry and practical use, the first research question is *how are public relations and advertising defined by an organisation?*

Furthermore, in order to differentiate advertising and public relations, it is important to establish their roles within the campaign and how they are applied in industry. As academia has illustrated, the boundaries between the disciplines are beginning to blur, therefore the roles and responsibilities of the two disciplines are beginning to overlap. It needs to be determined whether this is occurring in industry, and how, in order to ensure the disciplines are used correctly to achieve an organisation's objectives. Therefore, the second research question is *how are public relations and advertising applied within an organisation's communications campaign?*

Additionally, scholars cannot agree on whether public relations and advertising are necessary as separate disciplines or whether one should preside over the other. It has been stated that both public relations and advertising possess unique qualities that are crucial in certain situations, public relations' credibility and advertising's frequency, and when merged can reduce time and cost. It is unknown how these two disciplines function in relation to each other within a communications campaign, whether they are perceived as separate disciplines as with strategic communication or merged together functionally as IMC. Thus, it is important to determine how their roles are coordinated. Therefore, the third research question is *how are public relations and advertising integrated within an organisation's communications campaign?*

3. Research Design

This chapter outlines the research design for this study. It begins by discussing the interpretivist epistemology and strategic communication framework that underline this research, and how this influences the qualitative case study methodology. Fonterra's 2018 Richie's Milk Run campaign was chosen as the primary case study for this research due to the rationale of being critical and common, which is further explained in this chapter. It also provides a rationale for why a mixed methods approach was used to obtain data from the case study, through the methods of documentation and interviews. Finally, the section outlines how the data was analysed thematically and coded. This process was followed to obtain findings with the purpose of answering the research questions that arose from the literature review.

Table 6: Summary of research design

Theoretical framework	Strategic communication (Hallahan et al., 2007) and Image Repair Theory (Benoit, 2015).
Epistemology	Interpretivism (Gray, 2018; Silverman, 2017).
Methodology	Qualitative case study (Yin, 2014).
Methods	Mixed - Documents & interviews (Creswell et al., 2003).
Analysis	Thematic (Braun & Clarke, 2008).
Unit of analysis	Communications activities ordered chronologically by start date.

3.1 Epistemology

Within research, it is widely recognised that methodological issues are connected to theoretical assumptions (Gray, 2018; Silverman, 2017). However, a differentiation exists in whether the theory is applied prior to undertaking the research or after it. A deductive approach indicates that the researcher employs previous theory to develop a hypothesis, whereas an inductive approach indicates the researcher employs the results and findings of the study to develop a theory (Gray, 2018). As stated by Bryman (2016), quantitative research utilises a

deductive approach whereas qualitative research utilises an inductive approach. These approaches indicate that quantitative research is a testing of theory and qualitative research is a generation of theory. Therefore, as this study proposes to collect data for analysis and seek emerging patterns that may suggest relationships between observations, it can be labelled as a qualitative study with an inductive approach, as outlined by Bryman (2016).

Qualitative research draws on the methods of social science, studying how phenomena are experienced or constructed in social actions (Bryman, 2016; Silverman, 2017). Qualitative research can derive from either a subjectivist, constructivist or interpretivist epistemology (Gray, 2018; Silverman, 2017). A subjectivist epistemology perceives social phenomena as independent from external factors, and meaning is established from a subject's values and beliefs (Gray, 2018). A constructivist epistemology perceives social phenomena and their interpretations as constantly being shaped by social actors (Bryman, 2016; Gray, 2018). An interpretivist epistemology interprets phenomena as socially constructed, culturally derived and historically situated (Gray, 2018), and is applicable to researching social processes and *how* questions as in this research (Silverman, 2017). This research is therefore viewed through an interpretivist epistemology, which is suitable for utilising research methods such as interviews and case studies (Crotty, 1998).

The interpretivist epistemology used in this research is complemented by the theoretical framework of strategic communication (Hallahan et al., 2007) and Image Repair Theory (Benoit, 2015), which explores the use of communications disciplines in improving an organisation's reputation.

3.2 Qualitative Case Study Methodology

As defined by Silverman (2017), methodology refers to the strategy of planning and executing a research study, such as which cases to study, methods of data collection and systems of data analysis. As this study proposes to collect data for analysis and seek emerging patterns that may suggest relationships between observations, it can be labelled as a qualitative study with an inductive approach.

As stated by Silverman (2017), qualitative research is suitable to four types of topics in particular: understanding social interaction in real-life situations, understanding how people perceive things or respond to situations, understanding processes, and studying sensitive or complex issues. As this study is concerned with understanding the process of the differentiation of public relations and advertising within an organisation's communications campaign, qualitative research is suitable to this topic.

Applicable research methods for qualitative research conducted with an underlying paradigm of interpretivism include case studies and interviews (Crotty, 1998). As defined by Silverman (2017), a case study is the concept that one case out of many will be focused on and examined in detail. The case study research method was primarily chosen as it is most appropriate to research that seeks an explanation of a present situation, answering a 'how' or 'why' question (Yin, 2014). The aim of a case study is to establish the highest possible understanding of a case, through studying that case comprehensively and applying any methodology that is considered appropriate (Punch, 1998). It is also most appropriate to research issues that demand a comprehensive explanation of a social phenomenon, applicable to this research as it describes and analyses how public relations and advertising are differentiated within an organisation's communications campaign (Yin, 2014).

Although case study design selects samples in a method that is similar to quantitative research, Silverman (2017) outlined five arguments that are applicable to using qualitative research methods for case studies, and these were applied to this study. The first argument states that case study design aims to generalise theoretical propositions and not populations, as the research aims to extend and generalise theories and not to calculate frequency. This is applicable in this research, as the aim is to generalise how public relations and advertising are differentiated, not how often. The second argument states that social relations are sampled, not individuals, and this can be applied to this research as it is concerned with the overall differentiation of public relations and advertising across a communications campaign, not individual occurrences. The third argument states that exceptional or irregular cases can be used to test theories, as probability and

statistical analysis are not factors in qualitative research. The exceptional or irregular cases allow researchers to identify whether theories are still applicable in this instance, however this argument is not applicable in this research. The fourth argument states that new cases employed further along in the research are anticipated and beneficial, contributing a new array of data. An additional case study in this research could compare and contrast how public relations and advertising are differentiated in two separate scenarios. The fifth argument states that more cases are not needed when data saturation is reached, the point at which the same answers are found. This does not apply in quantitative research, as an increase in data continually allows for a more accurate result.

A recognised scholar of qualitative methodology, Silverman (2017), recommended three analytic features that must be considered in case study research design: a case study's boundaries, the unit of analysis and defined research questions.

A case study's boundaries establish the breadth of data collection, and how data is differentiated between the phenomenon and the context. As this study is concerned with the integration and differentiation of public relations and advertising, only data from public relations or advertising specific communications activities are used to interpret the phenomenon, and the remaining campaign data provides the context. The unit of analysis must be determined before research begins to explain the research strategy. The unit of analysis in this study is the communications activities ordered chronologically by start date. Case studies are broad in nature, and therefore defined research questions must be developed to be adapted to specific components of the case. The three defined research questions of *how are public relations and advertising defined by an organisation?*, *how are public relations and advertising applied within an organisation's communications campaign?* and *how are public relations and advertising integrated within an organisation's communications campaign?* were developed to relate to definition, activity and integration components of the case respectively.

Table 7 summarises these analytic features and how they have been applied to the case study in this research.

Table 7: Analytic features of case studies

Analytic feature	Definition	Application to this study
1. Case study boundaries.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Breadth of data collection. • Differentiation between phenomenon and context. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Data from public relations or advertising specific communications activities will interpret the phenomenon. • Remaining campaign data will provide the context.
2. Unit of analysis.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explains the research strategy. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communications activities ordered chronologically by start date.
3. Defined research questions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developed to adapt to specific components. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Definition: <i>how are public relations and advertising defined by an organisation?</i> • Activity: <i>how are public relations and advertising applied within an organisation's communications campaign?</i> • Integration: <i>how are public relations and advertising integrated within an organisation's communications campaign?</i>

Similarly, Yin (2014) discussed a case study's questions, its propositions, the unit of analysis, the logic linking the data to the propositions, and the criteria for interpreting the findings as the five components of case study research. However, Yin's (2014) five components are overly complex, using multiple steps for each proposition. Therefore, Silverman's (2017) three analytic features are applied to this research owing to their clarity.

As identified by Yin (2014), there are four basic types of designs for case studies, as both single-case and multiple-case designs can be holistic or embedded. Holistic

designs use a single unit of analysis while embedded designs use multiple units of analysis. A single-case design uses only one case in the study whereas a multiple-case design uses multiple. This research uses a holistic single-case design, and therefore could be weak as single-case designs are vulnerable and exclude the substantial analytic benefits of multiple-case designs (Yin, 2014).

However, Yin (2014) provided five rationales for single-case designs, if the case is critical, unusual, common, revelatory or longitudinal. Fonterra's Richie's Milk Run campaign case ascribes to Yin's (2014) rationales of critical and common. The case is deemed critical as both public relations and advertising activities are clearly employed, and integration is an objective of the campaign. The case can also be deemed common, as although some communications campaigns may not utilise both disciplines, the integration is expected (Miller & Rose, 1994).

Interviews were considered for the primary methodology of this research. An interview is a programmed conversation between a researcher and a respondent in an effort to obtain information, commonly containing a set of pre-planned questions applicable to the research undertaken (Gray, 2018). As outlined by Gray (2018), types of interviews can be divided into six categories: structured, semi-structured, non-directive, focused, informal conversational, and problem-centred. This research contemplated using semi-structured interviews, which are more often used in qualitative analysis, and use pre-planned questions to direct the conversation while follow-up questions obtain further information. This allows for fully detailed responses while also permitting additional information to be sought that the researcher had not considered. Structured interviews were not considered as they are most common in quantitative analysis, and use pre-planned questions that are standardised for each respondent. Structured interviews do not allow for any deviation from the topic or interaction between the interviewer and interviewee. Informal conversational interviews are the most unrestricted technique, and depend on the impromptu creation of questions as the interview proceeds. Informal conversational interviews could have been considered as the primary method for this research, however their focus on emotion and opinion is not relevant to the research question (Gray, 2018).

The use of interviews as the primary methodology was disregarded as they focus on the respondent's emotions, attitudes and reflection (Gray, 2018). Interviews are the preferred approach in situations where highly personalised data is necessary and probing or examination of respondent's answers would provide further context. As the research in this study is not concerned with professionals' opinions on the disciplines of public relations and advertising, due to previous existing literature on this information, and the only concern is with how their differentiation occurs in reality, interviews were not considered a suitable primary methodology for this research. However, within the data collection stage it became apparent that the data collected from the documentation was not sufficient for analysis. Therefore, non-directive interviews were chosen to develop the data obtained from the documentation by providing context and background information for the case study.

3.2.1 Richie's Milk Run Campaign

The case study used in this research is Fonterra's Richie's Milk Run campaign, run in 2018 through Fonterra Milk for Schools. Fonterra Co-operative Group is a global dairy company headquartered in New Zealand. As New Zealand's largest company by revenue (Deloitte, 2018), Fonterra employs 22,000 people internationally and accounts for 25% of all New Zealand exports (Fonterra, n.d.).

Fonterra Milk for Schools is a programme run by Fonterra farmers to supply New Zealand primary schools with free Anchor milk, to ensure children are getting the nutrition they need. The programme was launched in May 2013 with interest from 1,100 schools, and is now in 70% of New Zealand primary schools.

In early 2018, the number of schools signing up to the Fonterra Milk for Schools programme was declining. Surveys showed that Fonterra's corporate reputation was relatively low, however their brands' reputations, such as Anchor, were high. Furthermore, the New Zealand public were unaware that Fonterra farmers shouldered the cost of the Milk for Schools programme and the milk was gifted to the schools free of charge. Fonterra noticed an opportunity to take advantage of

the Fonterra Milk for Schools programme's five-year anniversary, and developed the following objectives:

- A shift in corporate reputation to Top 3
- Increase awareness outside schools that farmers of Fonterra gift the milk to primary schools
- Drive deeper engagement and advocacy of parents and New Zealand public with the programme
- Build brand attribution between Anchor and Fonterra

To achieve these objectives, Fonterra adopted what they called an ambassador strategy. Their creative idea was to launch Richie's Milk Run, a competition where Richie McCaw (ex-All Black Captain 2004-2015 and current helicopter pilot) transported a special milk delivery by helicopter to four winning Fonterra Milk for Schools primary schools. Parents of the school children had entered the competition online, submitting images, videos or reasons as to why their child's school should win. Initially, four schools were to be selected in total, with a winning school selected each week based on the quality of entry. Local community and farmers were also invited to the school activation, and where logistically possible McCaw also visited Fonterra sites nearby. Owing to the much larger number of entries than expected, a fifth winning school was chosen at the end of March via a public vote.

The Richie's Milk Run campaign targeted an audience of New Zealanders aged 18-69, with a focus on households with children aged 0-14. The primary target audience was parents of children involved in the Fonterra Milk for Schools programme. Richie's Milk Run campaign was carried out over three stages: Awareness (Pre-promotion), in which the programme was reintroduced and raising awareness was the key focus; Activation (Promotion), in which awareness was amplified and conversation was the key focus; and Reinforce (Post-promotion), in which the programme was recapped and continuing the conversation was the key focus.

The implementation of the campaign, through terms used by Fonterra, consisted of one press release, two TV commercials, posters in schools, display banners, eight

Milk News, Anchor bottle-neck tags, seven NZ Herald editorials, four user-generated content (UGC), six Facebook videos, one press advertisement, seven electronic direct mails (eDMs), and five media liaisons.

A press release or media release, defined by Gordon (2011), is a written document sent to the media with the intention of gaining coverage in the media. The TV commercials are video advertisements broadcast on television. Posters are a form of publication (Gordon, 2011) or print (Lane et al., 2011), and during the campaign were displayed in schools with information on the competition. Display banners are internet advertisements that displayed on the side of web pages. Milk News was the title given to a parody news show hosted by children, that was broadcast on television in a 30-second advertising slot, presenting updates on the Richie's Milk Run competition. Bottle-neck tags are a form of publication (Gordon, 2011) or print (Lane et al., 2011), and during the campaign were placed on Anchor bottles to provide information about Milk for Schools. Although termed by Fonterra as NZ Herald editorials, the articles run in the NZ Herald were advertorials. An editorial is defined by Masroor and Ahmad (2017) as an opinionated newspaper article intent on influencing various audiences, whereas an advertorial is a commissioned article disguising an advertisement (Kim, Pasadeos & Barban, 2001). The editorials published in the NZ Herald for Richie's Milk Run were labelled as sponsored by Fonterra, and are therefore advertorials. UGC is defined by Smith, Fischer and Yongjian (2012) as consumer-initiated brand-related engagement across social media platforms, that has the ability to influence other consumers' perceptions, in the form of posts, photos or videos. A Facebook video is a video created by Fonterra and uploaded to their Facebook page. A press advertisement is a form of print (Lane et al., 2011), and is an advertisement that appears in print media such as newspapers. Electronic direct mail (eDM) is the sending of emails from Fonterra directly to the customer, which in the Richie's Milk Run campaign was the main contact towards primary schools, both schools already a part of the Milk for Schools programme and schools that were not. Media liaisons are media tours, which are defined by Gordon (2011) as leading journalists to a location to gain media coverage. In Richie's Milk Run, journalists were asked along to the school activations, when Richie McCaw landed at the winning schools to supply the milk delivery.

Table 8 summarises the definitions of all communications activities implemented in the Richie’s Milk Run campaign.

Table 8: Definitions of communications activities

Communications Activity (Fonterra Terms)	Definition according to Fonterra
Press release	A written document sent to the media with the intention of gaining coverage in the media.
TV commercial	Video advertisement that was broadcast on television.
Posters in schools	A form of publication or print that were displayed in schools with information on the competition.
Display banners	Internet advertisements that displayed on the side of web pages.
Milk News	A parody news show hosted by children, presenting updates on the Richie’s Milk Run competition.
Anchor neck tags	A form of publication or print that was placed on Anchor milk bottles to provide information about Milk for Schools.
NZ Herald editorial	An advertorial, a commissioned article disguising an advertisement.
User-generated content	Consumer-initiated brand-related engagement across social media platforms.
Facebook video	A video created by Fonterra and uploaded to their Facebook page.
Press advertisement	An advertisement that appears in print media such as newspapers.
eDM	The sending of emails from Fonterra directly to primary schools.
Media Liaison	Leading journalists to the school activations to gain media coverage.

3.3 Mixed Methods

This study uses a mixed methods approach, combining documentation with interviews. Along with quantitative and qualitative research, mixed methods is the third main research approach increasing in recognition (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007). According to Gray (2018), the mixed methods approach is still comparatively new, and therefore scholars have not yet reached consensus on its philosophy, design techniques, methodology and analysis techniques. Mixed methods has been defined by Creswell et al. (2003) as:

The collection or analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study in which the data are collected concurrently or sequentially, are given a priority, and involve the integration of data at one or more stages in the process of research (p. 212).

However, as described by Yin (2014), a mixed method approach can involve a variety of mixes or sequences of methods. Therefore, a mixed method approach does not need to utilise a qualitative method, and equivalently a study could utilise two qualitative methods and no quantitative methods. This study utilises a mixed methods approach with two qualitative methods: documentation and interviews.

A mixed-method approach was not originally chosen for this research. This research began with a case study methodology and the individual method of documentation, however within the data collection stage it became apparent that the data collected from the documentation was not sufficient for analysis. As outlined by Johnson et al. (2007), a study of 19 mixed methods definitions produced by scholars deduced that three definitions suggested mixing occurred during data collection, two definitions suggested mixing occurred during both data collection and data analysis, and four definitions suggested mixing occurred during the entire research process.

Greene, Caracelli and Graham (1989) reviewed 57 evaluation studies to identify the five major purposes of conducting a mixed method approach: triangulation, complementarity, development, initiation and expansion. Triangulation refers to combining several qualitative or quantitative methods in order to eliminate any

deficiencies of other methods, however methods remain autonomous and data from both sets are combined and compared. Complementarity refers to combining quantitative and qualitative methods in order to measure separate elements of a phenomenon. Development refers to using one method in order to inform the development of the second method. Initiation refers to combining methods in order to discover any contradictions or new perspectives, which may then reframe the research questions. Expansion refers to combining methods in order to extend the breadth and range of a study (Gray, 2018). Out of the 57 studies reviewed, 80 percent applied either complementarity or expansion as a primary purpose. This research employs development as the primary purpose for utilising a mixed methods approach, as more data was required from interviews to inform the data obtained from documentation.

As stated by Gray (2018), data is the collective findings that are then analysed and if consequential, become information. Data collection can occur in many forms across quantitative and qualitative research methods, including sampling, secondary data, observation, interviews, questionnaires and unobtrusive methods.

The documentation data from the case study methodology used in this research was collected through organisational documentation. As stated by Gray (2018), documents are some of the most commonly used unobtrusive measures, and these records are increasing due to the continual development in computerised management information systems. An advantage of using organisational documentation is that the data is not manipulated by the producer, as they are unaware the material will be studied. However, whether organisational documentation will be archived or not depends on the organisation's policy, and whether the documents are of official status or individual material (such as emails and team plans). Furthermore, organisational documentation is found to be frequently incomplete, and researchers may have to contact employees to interpret the data. Reliability of the data can be enhanced through the comparison of the data with other sources, such as media reports (Gray, 2018).

Yin (2014) outlined additional strengths and weaknesses of using documentation for evidence. Documentation is considered a strong source of data due to its ability

to be viewed repeatedly, its specificity with regards to names, references and details of an event, and its breadth in covering multiple events and settings over a long period of time. In contrast, documentation is considered a weak source of data due to its difficulty to find, authority to access and bias from the author of the documentation (Yin, 2014).

As further discussed by Gray (2018), the advancements in technology have altered traditional means of data collection. The internet allows researchers to readily access documentation or other sources of information that previously did not exist or were inaccessible. For the purposes of this research, the internet has allowed access to specific activities from Fonterra's Richie's Milk Run campaign such as television commercials, online newspaper editorials and social media promotions.

Interviews were chosen to provide additional information not evident in the data obtained from the documentation by providing context and background information. Therefore, non-directive interviews were employed due to their ability to examine a topic extensively, and as questions are not pre-planned they allow for the respondent to provide applicable information that may lie outside of the research focus (Gray, 2018).

Two 15-minute interviews were conducted in total, one with the lead public relations practitioner and one with the lead advertising practitioner from the Richie's Milk Run campaign. Both practitioners oversaw all activities conducted by their departments, the public relations department and the advertising department respectively. As stated by Gray (2018), the researcher must have an idea of the purpose of the research, and this influences the topics that must be addressed in the interview. The following five questions were designed in order to obtain data needed to answer the three research questions in this study: *how are public relations and advertising defined by an organisation?*, *how are public relations and advertising applied within an organisation's communications campaign?* and *how are public relations and advertising integrated within an organisation's communications campaign?*

1. Which department initiated the campaign?

2. How was it decided which department conducted which activities?
3. Which department conducted *this* activity? (Applicable to all activities).
4. Was *this* activity paid for? (Applicable to all activities).
5. What do you think *this* activity is, public relations or advertising? Why? (Applicable to all activities).

The first question was asked to determine whether the entire campaign was led by the public relations department or the advertising department, as this may influence the roles of public relations and advertising within the campaign. The second question was asked to determine how the organisation differentiates public relations and advertising through the roles of the public relations and advertising departments. The third question was asked to identify which activities were conducted by the public relations team and which activities were conducted by the advertising team, to determine which activities the organisation viewed as public relations and which activities the organisation viewed as advertising. The fourth question was asked as many definitions in the literature review suggest advertising can be differentiated from public relations as it is paid for while public relations is not. The fifth question was asked to determine what both the public relations practitioner and the advertising practitioner considered public relations and advertising and why.

The non-directive nature of the interview allowed for obtaining any additional necessary information that these questions did not address. As stated by Gray (2018), the format of a non-directive interview allows respondents to talk openly about the topic, while the role of the interviewer is restricted to investigating any uncertain points and rewording answers to ensure they are completely understood.

As stated by Gray (2018), when designing interviews it is crucial to ensure they are credible by guaranteeing that the findings are trustworthy. This includes addressing issues of validity, reliability, consistency, accuracy and neutrality. Validity refers to the interviews measuring what they were intending to measure, and in non-directive interviews this can be difficult to address as the direction questions take depends on the answers of the participant. The interviewer needs

to ensure any research questions that need addressing are answered by the end of the interview. Reliability refers to the interview consistently measuring what it was intended to measure, as interviewer bias can affect participant responses. Consistency refers to the likelihood of the researcher's behaviour and analysis. Accuracy refers to ensuring the data is an unprejudiced portrayal of participant's responses. Neutrality refers to the researcher being aware of their own perceptions and accounting for them (Gray, 2018).

The interview data used in this research will be recorded and transcribed by the researcher. As noted by Gray (2018), data needs to be collected fully and carefully to ensure the analysis stage is not made redundant. Note taking allows for the production of new questions, assists in locating significant quotations during and following analysis, and acts as a non-verbal signal that reveals to the participant they have said something important. In this research, interviews were recorded fully while notes were also taken, predominantly to recognise significant information. The non-directive structure then allowed for the interviewee to expand on the significant information.

Silverman (2017) outlined two contradicting issues of transcribing data. Firstly, transcribing is a long process, and can reduce time spent on analysis which is the most crucial stage. Secondly, if data is not transcribed properly, the research may fail to present substantial detail. In order to combat these issues, Silverman (2017) recommended using a standard set of transcription symbols, only transcribing a few interviews at a time in detail, and transcribing in a way that is suitable to the research as there is no correct method for transcribing interviews. As this research only consisted of two short interviews, they were transcribed in full without impacting time spent on analysis, to ensure the data was transcribed properly.

3.4 Thematic Analysis

The textual data of the case study from the documentation and interviews was analysed through thematic analysis, as it can be applied to different frameworks, such as the strategic communication framework used in this research. It is also

appropriate for *how* questions relating to the construction of meaning, as in this research (Braun & Clarke, 2008).

Thematic analysis is a method for recognising, examining and interpreting patterns within data, through arranging and explaining a data set in intensive detail (Braun & Clarke, 2008). The patterns are referred to as themes, which are crucial components of the data regarding the research question that represent some amount of recurrence within the data set. In an ideal situation, the theme will occur multiple times across the data set, however more occurrences do not correlate to importance. Researcher judgement is required to deduce a theme, as it may vary in presence across data items, therefore flexibility is essential and regulation cannot function. Additionally, the importance of a theme cannot be determined by calculated measures, and depends solely on whether it exhibits a key component in relation to the research question. As stated by Braun and Clarke (2008), determining prevalence of a theme has no set method, and this allows the researcher to identify themes with multiple approaches. However, consistency in using the chosen method is of high importance in any analysis.

According to Braun and Clarke (2008), thematic analysis can be conducted in two ways, inductive and theoretical. In an inductive approach, themes emerge from the data rather than preconceived hypotheses. Identified themes may have little affiliation to specific inquiries into the data, and are not directed by the researcher's theoretical perspective. In a theoretical approach, themes are preconceived by a researcher's assumptions, and are directed by the researcher's theoretical perspective. This approach supplies a more comprehensive analysis of specific elements of the data, and a less comprehensive description of the entire data set. In this research, an inductive approach was taken, as little previous research has been conducted in this area and any preconceived ideas may prohibit the emergence of additional observations and result in a restriction of information.

Themes within thematic analysis can be determined in two ways, semantic and latent (Braun & Clarke, 2008). A semantic approach identifies themes in the surface value of the data, with the researcher not concerned with anything deeper than the data presents. The analysis evolves from description, with the researcher

organising data to indicate patterns, and interpreting these patterns in an effort to theorise their importance, understanding and ramifications. A latent approach goes deeper than semantic analysis, identifying the fundamental concepts and beliefs that provide their importance, understanding and ramifications, and are therefore already theorised. In this research, a semantic approach was taken to determine themes, as previously mentioned little previous research has been conducted in this area and therefore data must be analysed at surface level before any deeper analysis can occur. However, this was still conducted within the theoretical framework of strategic communication (Hallahan et al., 2007) and Image Repair Theory (Benoit, 2015).

Thematic analysis can be conducted with either a realist or constructionist approach, however the methodology and results will differ for each (Braun & Clarke, 2008). Utilising a realist approach, meaning, experience and language have a clear correlation, thus meaning and experience can be theorised in an uncomplicated way. Utilising a constructionist approach, sociological contexts are theorised to have an impact on meaning and experience. As previously established, this research used an interpretivist epistemology, which links directly to a constructionist approach.

Braun and Clarke (2008) outlined six phases of conducting thematic analysis, which do not exhibit a linear process as a recursive process may be needed and can be beneficial. The first phase is familiarising yourself with the data, which involves transcribing data, reading and re-reading the data, and noting down initial ideas. In this research, this was done by reviewing the data to develop a case study, breaking the case study into communications activities as defined by the data, structuring the data chronologically, transcribing the interview data and further structuring the data by labelling as public relations or advertising as defined by the interviews. The second phase is generating initial codes, which involves coding interesting features of the data in a methodical way across the entire data set, and collating data relevant to each code. In this research, the data was coded through five approaches: public relations or advertising as determined by academic definitions, public relations or advertising as determined by industry definitions, public relations or advertising as determined by the public relations practitioner's

opinion, public relations or advertising as determined by the advertising practitioner’s opinion, and public relations or advertising as determined by the organisation. The third phase is searching for themes, which involves collating codes into potential themes, and gathering all data relevant to each potential theme. In this research, all data was initially collated into the most frequent themes in determining an activity as public relations or advertising. The fourth phase is reviewing themes, which includes testing if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts and the entire data set, generating a thematic ‘map’ of the analysis. In this research, the themes were tested against all activities, all approaches and academic definitions. The fifth phase is defining and naming themes, which involves ongoing analysis to clarify the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme. In this research, ongoing analysis clarified three themes: budget, source of communication and reputational risk. The sixth phase is producing the report, the final opportunity for analysis. This involves selecting fascinating extract examples, final analysis of these selected extracts, and then relating this analysis to the research questions and literature, to produce a scholarly report of the analysis. This report is produced in this thesis as the Discussion chapter, section 5.0.

Table 9 summarises these phases and how they have been applied to this research.

Table 9: Phases of thematic analysis

Phase	Description of the process	Process in this study
<p>1. Familiarising yourself with your data.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Transcribing data. • Reading and re-reading the data. • Noting down initial ideas. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reviewed documentation data to develop case study. • Broke case study into promotional activities as defined by the data. • Structured data chronologically. • Transcribed interview data.

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Structured data further by labelling as public relations/advertising as defined by interviews.
2. Generating initial codes.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coding features of data in a methodical way across entire data set. • Collating data relevant to each code. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Code to public relations or advertising as defined by scholars. • Code to public relations or advertising as defined by industry. • Code to public relations or advertising as defined by public relations practitioner. • Code to public relations or advertising as defined by advertising practitioner. • Code to public relations or advertising as defined by organisation.
3. Searching for themes.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Collating codes into potential themes. • Gathering all data relevant to each potential theme. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Frequency of themes that determine discipline.
4. Reviewing themes.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Testing themes against coded extracts and entire data set. • Generating a thematic 'map' of the analysis. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tested themes against all activities. • Tested themes against all approaches. • Tested themes against academic definitions.

5. Defining and naming themes.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ongoing analysis to clarify specifics of each theme. • Overall story analysis tells. • Generating clear definitions and names for each theme. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Budget. • Source of communication. • Reputational risk.
6. Producing the report.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Final opportunity for analysis. • Selecting fascinating extract examples. • Final analysis of selected extracts. • Relate analysis to research questions and literature. • Produce scholarly report of the analysis. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discussion chapter, section 5.0. • Relate budget, source of communication and reputational risk to strategic communication. • Relate budget, source of communication and reputational risk to research questions.

Note. Reprinted and adapted from *Using thematic analysis in psychology* (p 87), by Braun, V and Clarke, V, 2008.

Thematic analysis contains many advantages to its use as a data analysis method. The flexibility of the method recognises a broad range of analytic options, and is therefore accessible to researchers with limited experience in qualitative research. The method also allows for the depiction of key themes in a large amount of data, featuring both comparisons and contrasts across the set. However, the flexibility can lead to difficulty in higher-phase analysis, as definitive rules are non-existent. Furthermore, interpretation beyond sheer description is difficult if not applied to an existing theoretical framework.

Content analysis was considered as a method for data analysis as it also allows for the identification of patterns across qualitative data, however the focus on

frequency is more suited to quantitative data, and analysis is inclined to focus on a single data item. Grounded theory is a common method in qualitative research, in which researchers develop their hypotheses from data analysis, and then confirm those hypotheses with additional data analysis (Silverman, 2017). As stated by Braun and Clarke (2008), grounded theory also identifies patterns in the data but is theoretically constrained, indicating it demands analysis to be conducted towards theory development. Thematic analysis does not expect the comprehensive theoretical and technological knowledge of methods, and therefore is a more accessible style of analysis. Furthermore, grounded theory is most applicable when the research is conducted using a subjectivist epistemology (Gray, 2018), which does not apply to this research.

3.5 Artefacts

Prior to coding, the documentation data in this research was organised into artefacts. According to De Lucia, Fasano, Francese and Tortora (2004), “the production of an artefact is seen as the result of the execution of an activity” (p. 31). Therefore, in this thesis an artefact refers to the execution of a communications activity, for example a press release or a television commercial. Each occurrence of an activity is treated as a separate artefact, thus as there are two television commercials these are two separate artefacts. In strategic communication, communications disciplines are differentiated through tactics, or activities (Hallahan et al., 2007). The Richie’s Milk Run campaign included a total of 44 artefacts, and these were arranged chronologically for coding. Although some would judge the campaign by outcome, analysing public relations and advertising in retrospect, this thesis judges the campaign by artefacts as it is concerned with how the disciplines of public relations and advertising interact with each other in real-time circumstances.

Table 10 gives a brief description of the 44 artefacts and the communications activity that they ascribe to.

Table 10: Description of artefacts

Artefact 1	Press release introducing Richie’s Milk Run.
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Artefact 2	TV commercial introducing Richie's Milk Run.
Artefact 3	Posters displayed in schools with information on how to enter Richie's Milk Run.
Artefact 4	Display banners used online with information on how to enter Richie's Milk Run.
Artefact 5	eDM introducing Richie's Milk Run.
Artefact 6	Milk News introducing Richie's Milk Run.
Artefact 7	NZ Herald editorial introducing Richie's Milk Run.
Artefact 8	Milk News with information on how to enter Richie's Milk Run.
Artefact 9	Anchor POS thanking customers for their support.
Artefact 10	NZ Herald editorial announcing the first winning school.
Artefact 11	eDM encouraging people to enter the competition.
Artefact 12	Milk News announcing the first winning school.
Artefact 13	NZ Herald editorial with information on the first winning school (Okaihau Primary School).
Artefact 14	UGC video entry from Kimi Ora School.
Artefact 15	Media liaison at first school activation (Okaihau Primary School).
Artefact 16	Milk News on the first school activation (Okaihau Primary School).
Artefact 17	NZ Herald editorial announcing second winning school (Eltham School).
Artefact 18	eDM recapping the first school activation (Okaihau Primary School) and announcing second winning school (Eltham School).
Artefact 19	Facebook video on first school activation (Okaihau Primary School).
Artefact 20	UGC Hawke's Bay Today open letter to Richie.
Artefact 21	Media liaison at second school activation (Eltham School).
Artefact 22	Milk News on the second school activation (Eltham School).
Artefact 23	eDM recapping second school activation (Eltham School) and announcing third school (Kimi Ora School).
Artefact 24	UGC Kimi Ora reaction video.
Artefact 25	UGC The Hits 'Flash Shoes' song.

Artefact 26	Facebook video on second school activation (Eltham School).
Artefact 27	Media liaison at third school activation (Kimi Ora School).
Artefact 28	Milk News on third school activation (Kimi Ora School).
Artefact 29	NZ Herald editorial on third school activation (Kimi Ora School).
Artefact 30	eDM recapping third school activation (Kimi Ora School) and announcing fourth school (Fairfield School) and an extra school vote.
Artefact 31	Facebook video announcing extra school vote.
Artefact 32	Facebook video on third school activation (Kimi Ora School).
Artefact 33	Media Liaison at fourth school activation (Fairfield School).
Artefact 34	Milk News on fourth school activation (Fairfield School).
Artefact 35	NZ Herald editorial on fourth school activation (Fairfield School).
Artefact 36	eDM recapping fourth school activation (Fairfield School) and announcing fifth school (Brightwater School).
Artefact 37	Facebook video on fourth school activation (Fairfield School).
Artefact 38	Media liaison at fifth school activation (Brightwater School).
Artefact 39	Milk News on fifth school activation (Brightwater School).
Artefact 40	eDM recapping fifth school activation (Brightwater School) and closing Richie's Milk Run.
Artefact 41	Facebook video on fifth school activation (Brightwater School).
Artefact 42	Press advertisement recapping Richie's Milk Run.
Artefact 43	NZ Herald editorial on fifth school activation (Brightwater School).
Artefact 44	TV commercial recapping and closing Richie's Milk Run.

However, after coding the 44 artefacts, it was concluded that determination as public relations, advertising or both is consistent to communications activities, and content has an insignificant effect on the determination. In addition to this, calculating the frequency of themes across 44 artefacts has a larger margin of error.

Therefore, the 44 artefacts were consolidated into the 12 communications activities outlined in section 3.2.1: press release, TV commercial, posters in schools, display banners, Milk News, Anchor neck tags, NZ Herald editorial, user-generated content, Facebook video, press advertisement, eDM and media liaison.

3.6 Open Coding

The thematic analysis process is conducted through open coding, which is defined as the labelling and classifying of phenomena through the detailed inspection of data (Gray, 2018). Open coding functions through the method of continually making comparisons, as each occurrence of a category is then compared with previous occurrences. To code the activities in this research, each activity was compared to a definition of public relations or advertising, and then compared to previously coded activities. As stated by Gray (2018), the initial definition of the category must be altered if the occurrence does not conform, otherwise a new category is created. The open coding process uses two analytical processes to label and classify phenomena, making comparisons and asking questions.

Strauss (1987) outlined four crucial rules for the analytical processes: ask the data particular and constant questions, in order to determine whether the data agrees with the objectives of the research; analyse the data specifically, while also incorporating all of the possible categories, examples and occurrences; if theoretical perspectives arise, suspend the coding to take note, or they will be forgotten; do not assume the analytical importance of any variable until it appears in the data, as this can influence the coding process and provide a false result.

The 12 communications activities were coded through four approaches. The first approach evaluates each activity against five individual academic definitions of public relations and five individual academic definitions of advertising, to determine whether the activity is public relations or advertising according to each definition.

The five academic definitions of public relations chosen are those of Grunig and Hunt (1984), Cutlip et al. (2006), Peake (1980), L'Etang (2008) and Heath (2001). Grunig and Hunt's (1984) definition was chosen as they are public relations

scholars that are prominent in contemporary history, receiving awards and honours from the Public Relations Society of America and the Institute for Public Relations Research, and authors of more salient work such as the four models of public relations practice and the Excellence Study. Cutlip et al.'s (2006) definition was chosen as Hallahan (2013) described Cutlip as a pioneer of public relations education, and author of multiple public relations textbooks. Peake's (1980) definition was chosen as she is the author of a textbook addressing the use of public relations in businesses, which resulted from her study of professional personnel. L'Etang's (2008) definition was chosen as she is a UK scholar of public relations, and has authored many textbooks on public relations that have largely focused on historical and critical themes. Heath's (2001) definition was chosen as he is an internationally recognised US scholar of public relations, with over 100 published articles of research. Heath specialises in corporate communication, messages issued by a corporate organisation, which is the type of communication analysed in this thesis.

The five academic definitions of advertising chosen are those of Lane et al. (2011), Richards and Curran (2002), Belch and Belch (2012), Gordon (2011) and Dahlen and Rosengren (2016). Lane et al.'s (2011) definition was chosen as Lane, an accomplished advertising practitioner, and King and Reichert, scholars of communications and professors of advertising, provide a definition of advertising from both functional and theoretical perspectives, along with an overall communications context. Richards and Curran's (2002) definition was chosen as they are professors of advertising and marketing respectively, and conducted a study involving a group of advertising experts who answered three waves of questionnaires to determine the most academic and practical definition of advertising. Belch and Belch's (2012) definition was chosen as they are scholars who have written over 70 advertising articles for a variety of advertising and business journals. Gordon's (2011) definition was chosen as she is a public relations practitioner and academic, and the author of a public relations textbook, providing a definition of advertising from the perspective of a public relations scholar, which allows for a larger differentiation between the two disciplines. Dahlen and Rosengren's (2016) definition was chosen as Dahlen, a professor of marketing and consumer behaviour, and Rosengren, a professor of marketing and

a board member of the European Advertising Academy, provide a definition of advertising from a modern perspective addressing the continually evolving forms of media.

The second approach evaluates each activity against the definitions of public relations and advertising as defined by their respective New Zealand industry bodies, PRINZ and ASA. This determines whether the activity is public relations, advertising or both according to each definition.

Table 11 outlines the academic and industry definitions of public relations and advertising used in coding the activities.

Table 11: Public relations and advertising definitions used in coding

	Definition
PR 1	“The management of communication between an organization and its publics” (Grunig & Hunt, 1984, p. 6).
PR 2	“The management function that establishes and maintains mutually beneficial relationships between an organization and the public on whom its success or failure depends” (Cutlip et al., 2006, p. 22).
PR 3	“The planned persuasion to change adverse public opinion or to reinforce public opinion, and the evaluation of results for future use” (Peake, 1980, p. 1).
PR 4	“Involves the communication and exchange of ideas to facilitate change. It entails the analysis of organizational actions which may impact on relationships or reputation” (L’Etang, 2008, p. 18).
PR 5	“A relationship-building professional activity that adds value to organisations because it increases the willingness of markets, audiences, and publics to support them rather than to oppose their efforts” (Heath, 2001, p. 8).
PR Industry	“The deliberate, planned and sustained effort to establish and maintain mutual understanding and excellent communications

	between an organisation and its publics... Public relations professionals evaluate the attitudes of an organisation's stakeholders... and plan and execute a programme of action to earn public understanding and acceptance of an organisation's policies or activities. Communication, usually visual, written, oral and or experiential, plays a significant part in public relations practice" (PRINZ, n.d., para. 1-3).
Advertising 1	"A message paid for by an identified sponsor and usually delivered through some medium of mass communication. Advertising is persuasive communication. It is not neutral; it is not unbiased; it says: 'I am going to attempt to sell you a product or an idea'" (Lane et al., 2011, p. 6).
Advertising 2	"A paid, mediated form of communication from an identifiable source, designed to persuade the receiver to take some action, now or in the future" (Richards & Curran, 2002, p. 74).
Advertising 3	"Any paid form of non-personal communication about an organisation, product, service, or idea by an identified sponsor" (Belch & Belch, 2012, p. 18).
Advertising 4	"Where media space or time is paid for in order for an organisation to send its messages" (Gordon, 2011, p. 381).
Advertising 5	"Brand-initiated communication intent on impacting people" (Dahlen & Rosengren, 2016, p. 343).
Advertising Industry	"Any message, the content of which is controlled directly or indirectly by the advertiser, expressed in any language and communicated in any medium with the intent to influence the choice, opinion or behaviour of those to whom it is addressed" (ASA, n.d., para. 2).

The third and fourth approach define each activity as either public relations, advertising or both according to the public relations and advertising practitioners' opinions respectively. The public relations practitioner is from Fonterra's Communications team, and the advertising practitioner is from Fonterra's Brands team. The fifth approach defines each activity as either public relations, advertising

or both as determined by the organisation Fonterra, through whether the activity was allocated to the public relations team, the advertising team or both teams. These five codes demonstrate whether the definitions of public relations and advertising are consistent between academics, industry bodies, practitioners and organisations.

3.7 Frequency of Data

To assist with determining the significance of data, data was structured in relation to frequency. As argued by Erickson (2012), although frequency corresponds to quantitative data, that does not imply it is irrelevant to qualitative analysis, as good qualitative research addresses the occurrence of phenomena, in addition to their range and frequency. In an intensive analysis of phenomena, it is crucial to determine the frequency of occurrence for all forms, in order to differentiate between the typical and atypical. In presenting this data, it is beneficial to illustrate the most typical/frequent occurrence, as well as the entire range of variation. Data can be presented in the form of frequency tables, analytic charts or typologies, with simplicity being advantageous.

In this research, frequency of data was presented in five ways: an overview of the activities by the five analytical approaches, the summary of communications activity by discipline, the levels of agreement between the five analytical approaches, the differentiations between academic definitions, and the major themes in determining the discipline.

The overview of activities by the five analytical approaches analysed each activity through whether each approach labelled the activity as public relations or advertising. The four approaches of industry, public relations practitioner, advertising practitioner and organisation could only label as public relations, advertising or both. However, the academia approach analysed how many academic definitions of public relations corresponded to the activity and how many definitions of advertising corresponded to the activity, with the activity labelled as the discipline with the more frequent definitions. This data was presented in a frequency table.

The summary of communications activity by discipline took the frequency of how many analytical approaches labelled an activity as public relations, how many labelled it as advertising, and how many labelled it as both, with the activity labelled as the discipline with the more frequent occurrences. This data was presented in a frequency table.

The levels of agreement between the five analytical approaches took the frequency of how many analytical approaches labelled an activity as public relations, how many labelled it as advertising, and how many labelled it as both. The frequency of how many analytical approaches agreed with each other for each activity was then counted to determine their overall levels of agreement. This data was presented in frequency analytic charts, in the form of column charts.

The differentiations between academic definitions took the frequency of how many times an academic definition did not agree with the majority of academic definitions for both disciplines on each activity. The frequencies of these differentiations were then counted to determine their overall levels of disagreement. This data was presented in frequency analytic charts, in the form of column charts.

The major themes in determining the discipline took the frequency of how many times a certain theme was used by scholars, industry bodies, the public relations practitioner, the advertising practitioner and the organisation to determine an activity as public relations or advertising. The most frequent themes in determining public relations were presented in a frequency table and a frequency analytic chart, in the form of a pie chart. The most frequent themes in determining advertising were presented in a frequency table and a frequency analytic chart, in the form of a pie chart. Then, the most frequent themes in determining public relations and advertising were converted into percentages to ensure they were relative between the disciplines, with similar themes collated to give an overall representation of the most prominent themes in determining public relations and advertising. This data was presented in a frequency table and a frequency analytic chart, in the form of a pie chart.

4. Results

This chapter presents the analysis of the 12 communications activities produced in the case study of the 2018 Richie's Milk Run campaign. The activities were analysed through five approaches: defined as public relations or advertising as determined by academic definitions, defined as public relations or advertising as determined by industry definitions, defined as public relations or advertising as determined by the public relations practitioner's opinion, defined as public relations or advertising as determined by the advertising practitioner's opinion, and defined as public relations or advertising as determined by the organisation.

The coding in this research was done in two phases. The first phase was developing how to code, as no other coding platform was suitable. This was due to the uniqueness of this study, as there is a lack of previous studies comparing multiple and different forms of definitions. Therefore, this research uses its own unique coding platform. The second phase was using the coding platform to code the activities.

4.1 Phase One – Coding Platform

The coding platform used in this research analysed the activities through five approaches: defined as public relations or advertising as determined by academic definitions, defined as public relations or advertising as determined by industry definitions, defined as public relations or advertising as determined by the public relations practitioner's opinion, defined as public relations or advertising as determined by the advertising practitioner's opinion, and defined as public relations or advertising as determined by the organisation.

1. Public relations or advertising as determined by academic definitions

The first analysis of the activities evaluated each activity against five academic definitions of public relations and five academic definitions of advertising. The five academic definitions of public relations are those of Grunig and Hunt (1984), Cutlip et al. (2006), Peake (1980), L'Etang (2008) and Heath (2001), as previously analysed in section 2.3.1 and rationalised in section 3.6. The five academic definitions are those of Lane et al. (2011), Richards and Curran (2002), Belch and

Belch (2012), Gordon (2011) and Dahlen and Rosengren (2016), as previously analysed in section 2.3.4 and rationalised in section 3.6. If the activity corresponds to the definition, it can be classified as that discipline. For example, if an activity corresponds to an academic definition of public relations, then according to that definition the activity is public relations.

However, each academic definition only defines its own discipline. Using an academic definition of public relations, an activity can be classified only as public relations or not public relations, and similarly for academic definitions of advertising. For example, if the activity does not correspond to an academic definition of advertising, it cannot be classified as public relations according to that definition, only classified as not advertising.

This analysis allows for the classification of an activity as public relations or advertising while highlighting the diversity in academic definitions, as an activity may align with a few definitions of a discipline but not all. It also illustrates the breadth in academic definitions through the activities adhering to both disciplines, despite their contrasting functions.

2. Public relations or advertising as determined by industry definitions

The second analysis of the activities evaluated each activity against the definitions of public relations and advertising as defined by their respective New Zealand industry bodies, PRINZ and ASA. Information on these definitions can be found in section 3.6. If the activity corresponds to a definition, it can be classified as that discipline. For example, if an activity corresponds to the PRINZ definition of public relations, then according to PRINZ the activity is public relations.

However, each industry body only defines their own discipline. Therefore, using the PRINZ definition of public relations, an activity can be classified only as public relations or not public relations, and similarly for ASA and advertising.

3. Public relations or advertising as determined by the public relations practitioner's opinion

The third analysis of the activities defined each activity as either public relations, advertising or both according to the public relations practitioner's opinion. During the interviews, the public relations practitioner was asked whether they thought each activity could be classified as public relations, advertising or both and why.

The interview responses showed that the public relations practitioners' primary criteria for determining the discipline was whether the activity was paid for (advertising) or not (public relations):

Public relations practitioner: *Just the basic premise of earned or paid.... There's an easy line if you draw it on paid or earned.*

Public relations practitioner: *It's advertising because it's paid – playground stuff.*

However, the public relations practitioner would consider a paid-for activity as also being public relations if there was a reputational risk and it needed to be reviewed by the public relations team:

Public relations practitioner: *Concept was Brands, the script and concept were definitely discussed by Comms with them from a risk point of view/reputational.*

4. Public relations or advertising as determined by the advertising practitioner's opinion

The fourth analysis of the activities defined each activity as either public relations, advertising or both according to the advertising practitioner's opinion. During the interviews, the advertising practitioner was asked whether they thought each activity could be classified as public relations, advertising or both and why.

The interview responses showed that the advertising practitioners' primary criteria for determining the discipline was whether the activity was paid for (advertising) or not (public relations):

Advertising practitioner: *That's definitely advertising, but it's not paid for so that's a tricky one...*

Interviewer: *So being paid for is a massive part of advertising in your opinion?*

Advertising practitioner: *Yes, generally it is.*

However, the advertising practitioner would consider a paid-for activity as also being public relations if the channel used and the content of the messaging was more organic, rather than using assets and messaging distinctly from the organisation:

Advertising practitioner: *Paid for and I would say that's not necessarily advertising but it was in an advertising slot on TV. But it's more native, so it's more editorial, organic, bit of a hybrid as well.*

Advertising practitioner: *Kind of a hybrid, it's tricky, because it says paid promoted content so it is paid, but it's in an editorial public relations environment.*

Advertising practitioner: *It's raising awareness within a target audience and it's using some content and assets so that's definitely advertising, but it's not paid for so that's a tricky one. I guess we're using our channels to activate but I still wouldn't call it public relations, it's more advertising than public relations.*

In addition, the advertising practitioner stated that public relations was primarily media-oriented, while advertising focused on the other communications activities:

Advertising practitioner: *Brands is in charge of all activities and Comms in charge of media liaison.*

5. Public relations or advertising as determined by organisational allocation

The fifth analysis of the activities defined each activity as either public relations, advertising or both as determined by the organisation Fonterra, through whether

the activity was allocated to and executed by either the public relations team (Communications), the advertising team (Brands) or both teams. During the interviews, both practitioners were asked whether the activity was allocated to and executed by the Communications team, the Brands team or both teams.

The interview responses showed that this is largely decided by budget, as any paid activities are undertaken by the Brands team; the Communications team does not have a budget for these activities:

Advertising practitioner: Our departments decide that for us – as in Brands manages all paid advertising so we have a budget to do that. And Comms don't have a budget for public relations, but they manage it for us.

However, the allocation of activities is also decided by team roles and responsibilities, as predetermined by the Managing Director of Corporate Affairs, who oversees many reputational departments including the public relations and advertising departments. For example, any media-related activities such as press releases and media pitches are undertaken by the Communications team.

Public relations practitioner: The roles of Brands and Comms were ongoing.

Advertising practitioner: Some roles and responsibilities do definitely sit in the marketing team and some do sit in the Comms team.

4.2 Phase Two – Coded Activities

Prior to coding, the data in this research was organised into artefacts. According to De Lucia et al. (2004), “the production of an artefact is seen as the result of the execution of an activity” (p. 31). Therefore, in this thesis an artefact refers to the execution of a communications activity, for example a press release or a television commercial. Each occurrence of an activity is treated as a separate artefact, thus as there are two television commercials these are two separate artefacts. The Richie’s Milk Run campaign included a total of 44 artefacts, and these were arranged chronologically for coding.

However, after coding the 44 artefacts, it was concluded that determination as public relations, advertising or both is consistent to communications activities, and content has an insignificant effect on the determination. In addition to this, calculating the frequency of themes across 44 artefacts has a larger margin of error. Therefore, the 44 artefacts were consolidated into the 12 communications activities: press release, TV commercial, posters in schools, display banners, Milk News, Anchor neck tags, NZ Herald editorial, user-generated content, Facebook video, press advertisement, eDM and media liaison.

The coding of the 12 activities can be seen in the appendix. This was done through the five approaches developed in the coding platform: defined as public relations or advertising as determined by academic definitions, defined as public relations or advertising as determined by industry definitions, defined as public relations or advertising as determined by the public relations practitioner's opinion, defined as public relations or advertising as determined by the advertising practitioner's opinion, and defined as public relations or advertising as determined by the organisation.

4.3 Overview of Activities by the Five Analytical Approaches

The following table provides an overview of the 12 communications activities as either public relations, advertising or as a combination of both public relations and advertising, as determined by scholars, industry bodies, the public relations practitioner, the advertising practitioner and the organisation.

'Scholars' refers to the interpretation of the academic definitions set out in sections 2.3.1, 2.3.4 and 3.6, it does not reflect the named scholars' views.

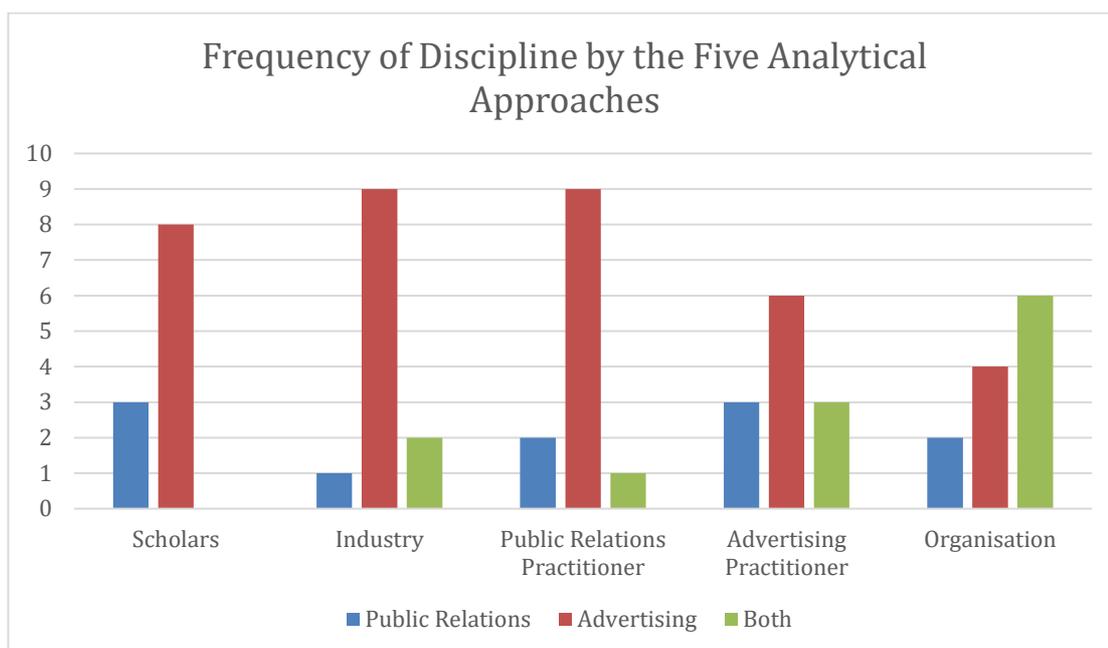
Table 12: Overview of activities by the five analytical approaches

	Scholars	Industry	PR Pract.	Adv Pract.	Fonterra
<i>Press release</i>	Public relations	Both	Public relations	Public relations	Public relations
<i>TV commercial</i>	Advertising	Advertising	Advertising	Advertising	Both
<i>Posters in schools</i>	Advertising	Advertising	Advertising	Both	Both
<i>Display banners</i>	Advertising	Advertising	Advertising	Advertising	Both
<i>Milk News</i>	Advertising	Advertising	Advertising	Both	Advertising
<i>Anchor neck tags</i>	Advertising	Advertising	Advertising	Advertising	Advertising
<i>NZ Herald editorial</i>	Public relations	Advertising	Advertising	Both	Both
<i>UGC</i>	Public relations	Public relations	Both	Public relations	Advertising
<i>Facebook video</i>	Advertising	Advertising	Advertising	Advertising	Both
<i>Press advertisement</i>	Advertising	Advertising	Advertising	Advertising	Both
<i>eDM</i>	Advertising	Advertising	Advertising	Advertising	Advertising
<i>Media liaison</i>	Public relations	Both	Public relations	Public relations	Public relations

Out of the 12 activities, scholarly definitions determined three as public relations and eight as advertising. Industry determined one as public relations, nine as advertising, and two as a combination of both public relations and advertising. The public relations practitioner determined two as public relations, nine as advertising, and one as a combination of both public relations and advertising. The advertising practitioner determined three as public relations, six as advertising, and three as a combination of both public relations and advertising. The organisation determined two as public relations, four as advertising, and six as a combination of both public relations and advertising.

Figure 1 illustrates how many activities (frequency) an approach determined as public relations, advertising, or both.

Figure 1: Frequency of discipline by the five analytical approaches



4.4 Summary of Communications Activities by Discipline

The following table displays a summary of the 12 communications activities and their overall determination as public relations, advertising or both.

Press releases, user-generated content (UGC) and media liaison were determined as public relations. TV commercials, posters in schools, display banners, Milk News, Anchor neck tags, Facebook video, press advertisement and eDMs were determined as advertising. NZ Herald editorials were determined as both public relations and advertising.

Table 13: Summary of communications activity by discipline

Press release	Public relations	NZ Herald editorial	Both
TV commercial	Advertising	UGC	Public relations
Posters in schools	Advertising	Facebook video	Advertising
Display banners	Advertising	Press advertisement	Advertising
Milk News	Advertising	eDM	Advertising
Anchor neck tags	Advertising	Media liaison	Public relations

4.5 Levels of Agreement Between the Five Analytical Approaches

The following charts show the level of agreement between scholars, industry, the practitioners and the organisation when determining an activity as public relations, advertising or both. 'Scholars' refers to the interpretation of the academic definitions set out in sections 2.3.1, 2.3.4 and 3.6, it does not reflect the named scholars' views. The percentages were calculated from the results illustrated in Table 12. For example, the organisation and industry agreed in the determination of an activity as a certain discipline for three activities, and differed in their determination for nine activities. Therefore, they agreed on three out of 12 activities, which converts into 25%.

The most significant level of agreement was between the public relations practitioner and scholars, who agreed 83% of the time. The lowest level of agreement occurred between the organisation and industry, who agreed only 25% of the time. Fonterra as an organisation had substantially low levels of agreement with the other analytical approaches.

Figure 2: Analytical approaches' agreement with scholars

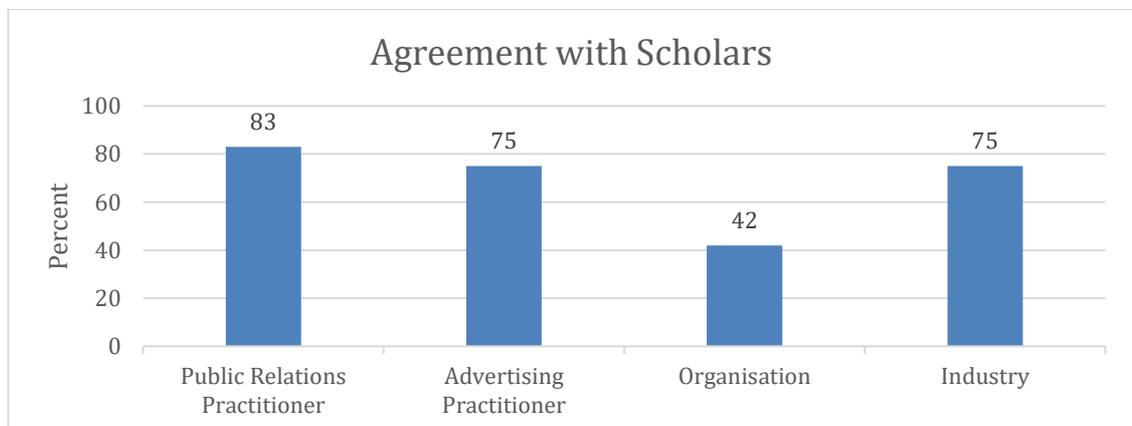


Figure 3: Analytical approaches' agreement with industry

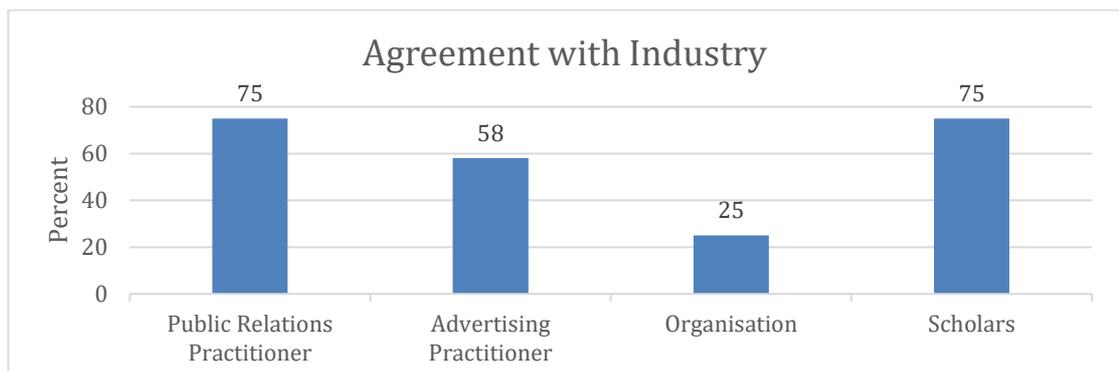


Figure 4: Analytical approaches' agreement with the organisation

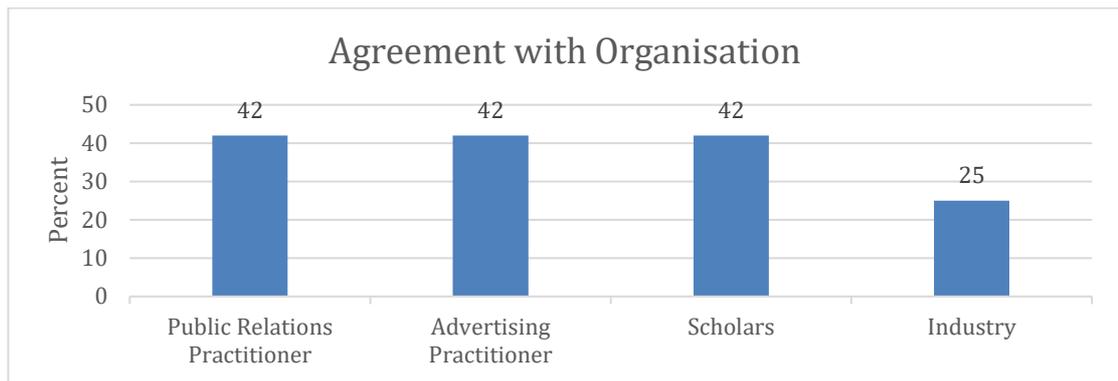


Figure 5: Analytical approaches' agreement with the public relations practitioner

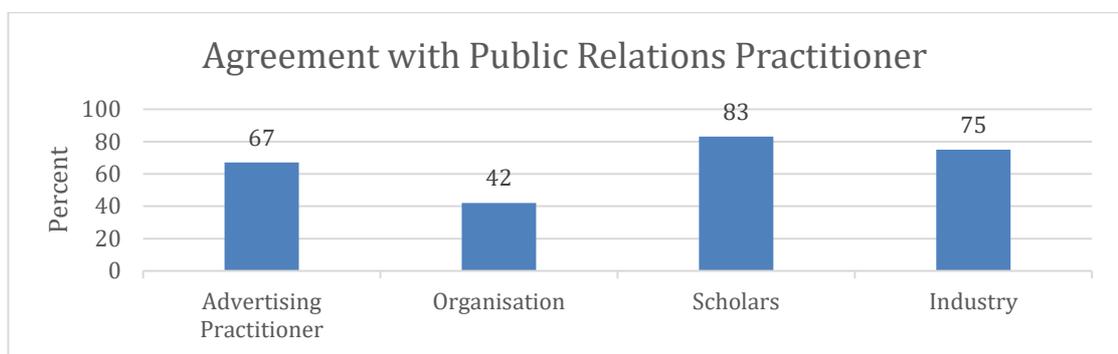
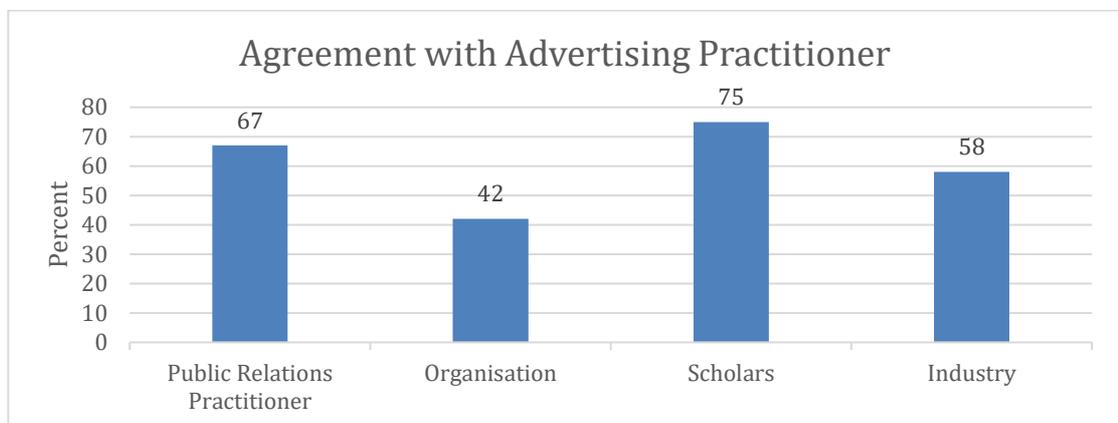


Figure 6: Analytical approaches' agreement with the advertising practitioner



4.6 Differentiations Between Academic Definitions

The differentiation between academic definitions shows how many times an academic definition did not agree with the majority. For example, if an activity was labelled as public relations by four out of five academic definitions of public relations, the remaining one academic definition of public relations did not agree with the majority and therefore was a differentiation.

The most significant differentiations between academic definitions of public relations were Grunig and Hunt (1984) and Peake (1980).

Grunig and Hunt's (1984) definition of public relations did not agree with the other academic definitions of public relations on seven occurrences (58%). On all seven occurrences (58%), Grunig and Hunt's definition labelled the activity as public relations while the majority of other academic definitions did not.

Peake's (1980) definition of public relations did not agree with the other academic definitions of public relations on six occurrences (50%). On all six occurrences (50%), Peake's definition labelled the activity as public relations while the majority of other academic definitions did not.

On a lesser note, Cutlip et al.'s (2006), L'Etang's (2008) and Heath's (2001) definitions of public relations did not agree with the other academic definitions of public relations on two occurrences (17%). On both occurrences (17%), Cutlip et al.'s definition labelled the activity as not public relations while the majority of other academic definitions labelled it as public relations. On one occurrence (8%), L'Etang's (2008) definition labelled the activity as public relations while the majority of other academic definitions did not, and on one occurrence (8%) labelled the activity as not public relations while the majority of other academic definitions labelled it as public relations. On one occurrence (8%), Heath's (2001) definition labelled the activity as public relations while the majority of other academic definitions did not, and on one occurrence (8%) labelled the activity as not public relations while the majority of other academic definitions labelled it as public relations.

The most significant differentiations between academic definitions of advertising were Gordon (2011) and Dahlen and Rosengren (2016).

Gordon's (2011) definition of advertising did not agree with the other academic definitions of advertising on four occurrences (33%). On all four occurrences

(33%), Gordon's (2011) definition labelled the activity as not advertising while the majority of other academic definitions labelled it as advertising.

On a lesser note, Dahlen and Rosengren's (2016) definition of advertising did not agree with the other academic definitions of advertising on three occurrences (25%). On all three occurrences (25%), Dahlen and Rosengren's (2016) definition labelled the activity as advertising while the majority of other academic definitions did not.

Figure 7: Differentiations between academic definitions of public relations

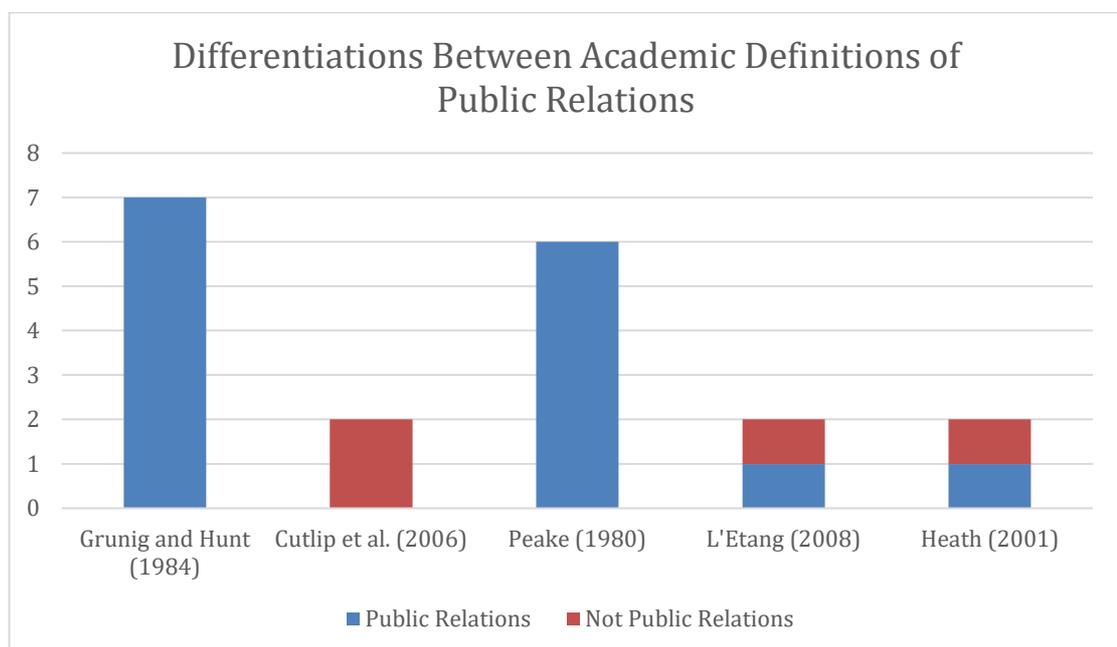
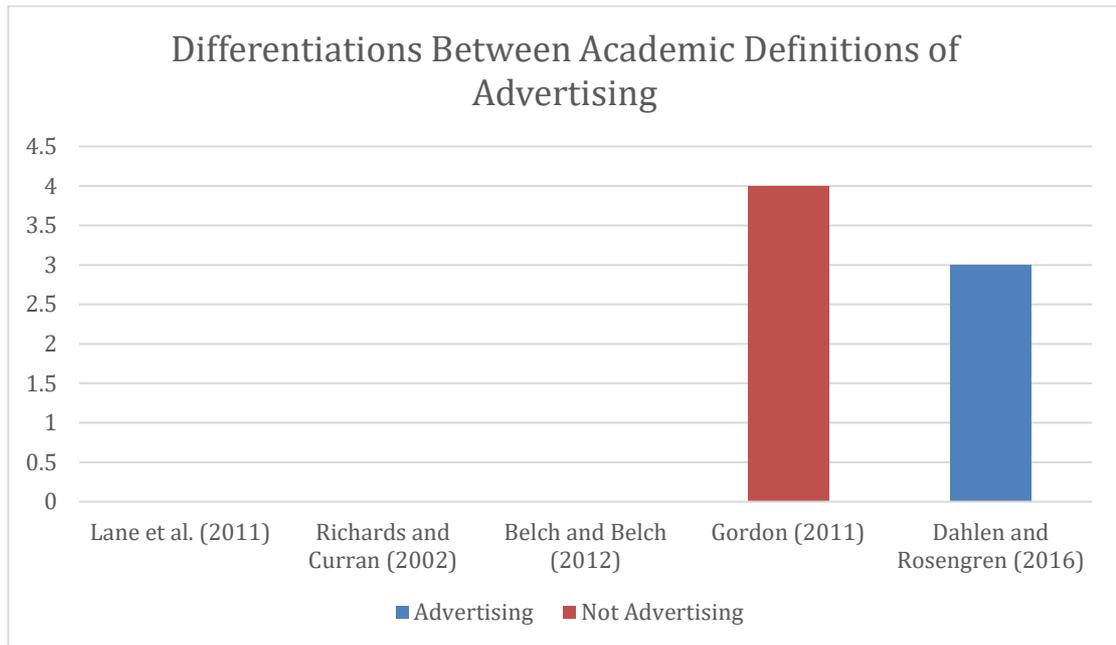


Figure 8: Differentiations between academic definitions of advertising



4.7 Major Themes in Determining Discipline

The following figures illustrate the most prominent themes from scholars, industry, the public relations practitioner, the advertising practitioner and the organisation when determining an activity as public relations or advertising.

Table 14 indicates how many times a theme was used (frequency) when an activity was determined as public relations by scholars, industry, the public relations practitioner, the advertising practitioner and the organisation. As scholarly definitions contain various and numerous themes, a theme was only considered 'major' if it was suggested by more than one scholar.

Table 14: Frequency of themes for determining public relations

Theme	Frequency
Media	4
Not paid	6
Third-party source	3
Mutually beneficial	2
Two-way communication	2
Reputation	5
Public opinion/behaviour	2

When determining an activity as public relations, the most prominent themes that occurred were not paid, reputation and the media.

Figure 9: Major themes in determining public relations

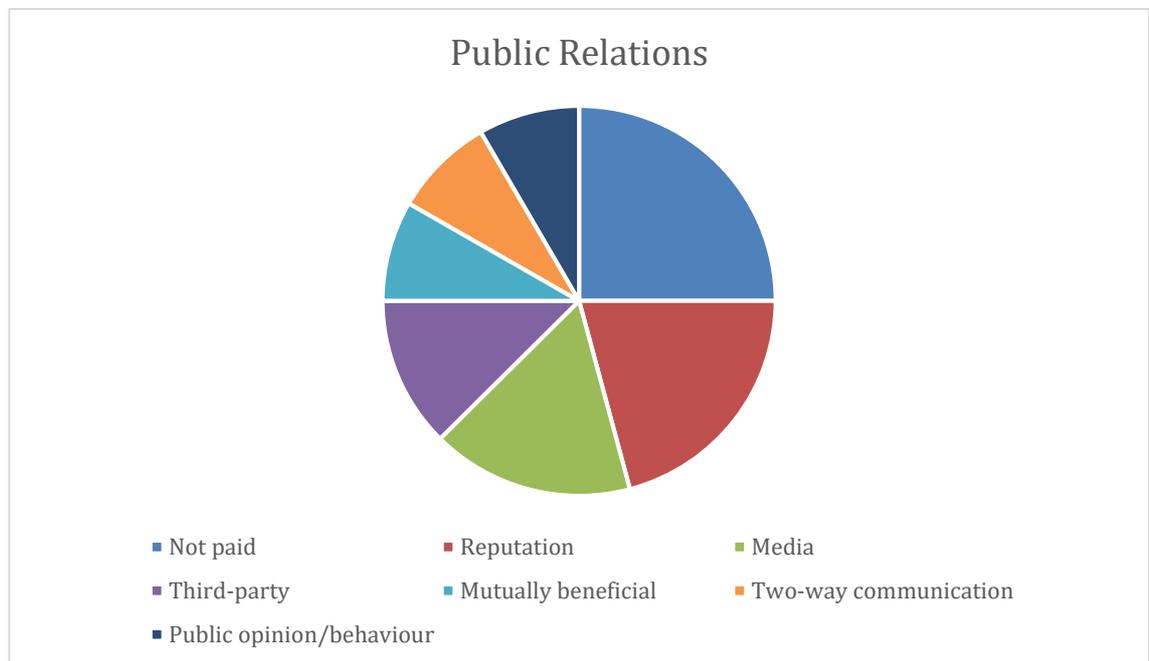


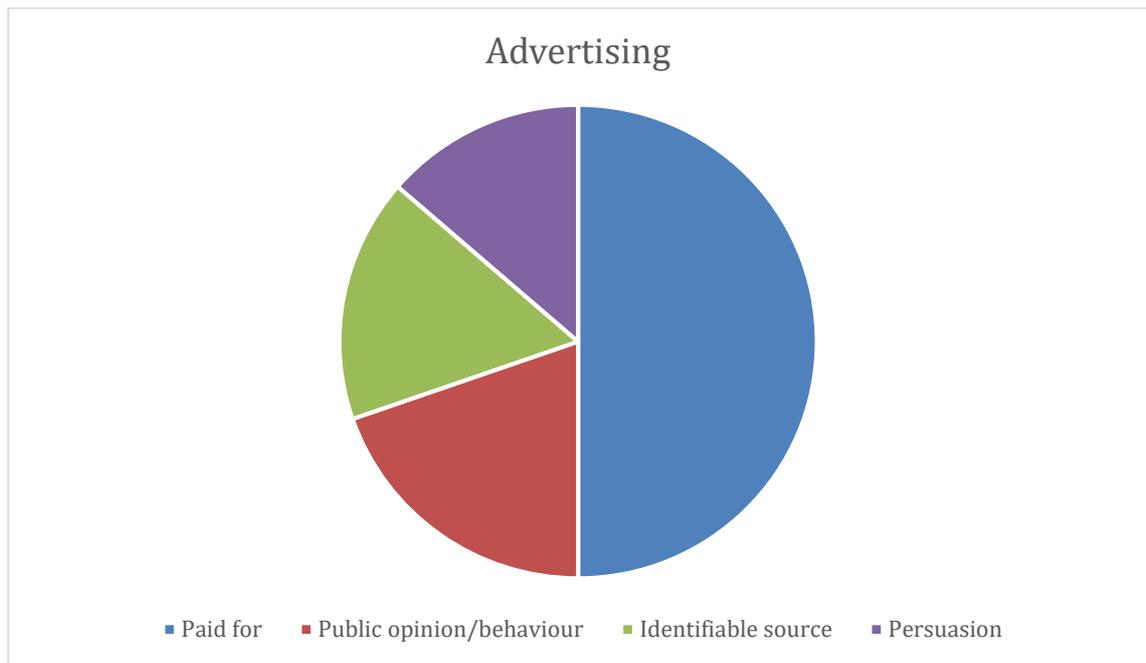
Table 15 indicates how many times a theme was used (frequency) when an activity was determined as advertising by scholars, industry, the public relations practitioner, the advertising practitioner and the organisation. As scholarly definitions contain various and numerous themes, a theme was only considered 'major' if it was suggested by more than one scholar.

Table 15: Frequency of themes for determining advertising

Theme	Frequency
Paid	33
Identifiable source	11
Public opinion/behaviour	13
Persuasion	9

When determining an activity as advertising, the most prominent themes that occurred were paid for, public opinion/behaviour and from an identifiable source.

Figure 10: Major themes in determining advertising



Two of the most prominent themes in differentiating public relations and advertising can be found as opposites in both disciplines, indicating their importance in defining the disciplines. A major theme in public relations, not paid, can be found as an opposite in advertising, paid. Similarly, a major theme in advertising, from an identifiable source, can be found as an opposite in public relations, from a third-party. As a major theme in both public relations and advertising, public opinion/behaviour was removed as being applicable to both disciplines does not assist in their differentiation.

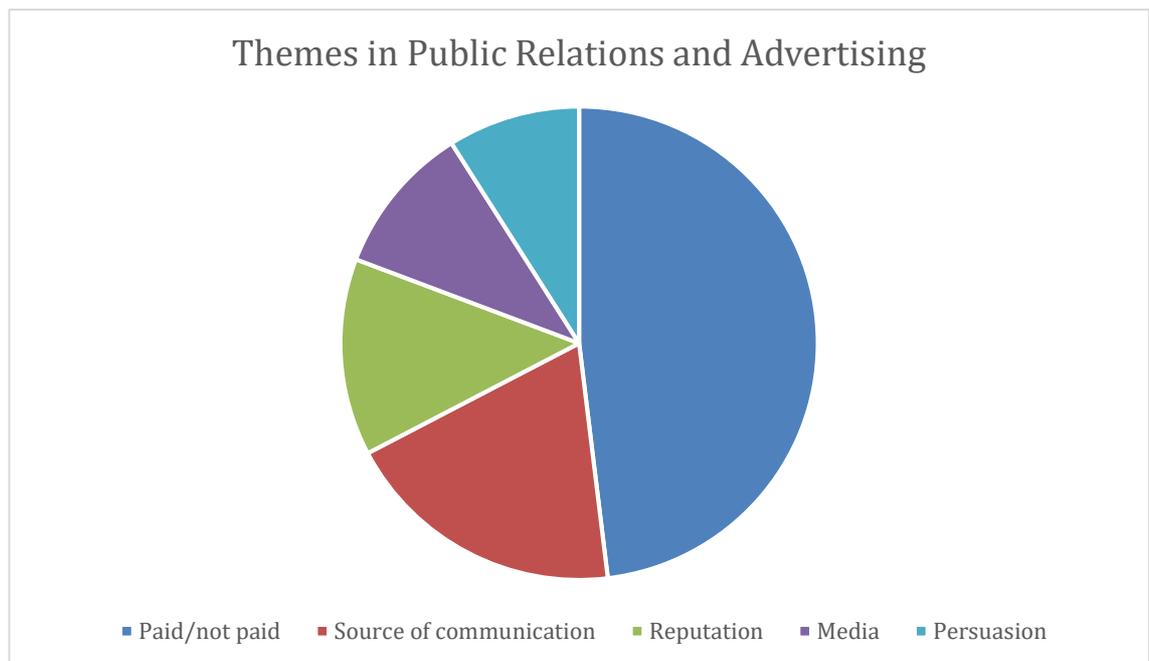
Table 16 indicates how many times a theme was used (frequency) when an activity was determined as either public relations or advertising by scholars, industry, the public relations practitioner, the advertising practitioner and the organisation. The themes' frequencies from both public relations and advertising were converted into percentages in relation to the respective discipline, to ensure they are relative between disciplines. For example, not paid is a theme that was used six times in determining an activity as public relations. In total, themes were used 24 times in determining an activity as public relations. Therefore, the theme of not paid was used six out of 24 times, or 25%.

Table 16: Frequency of themes for determining public relations and advertising

Theme	Public relations	Advertising	Total frequency
Paid/not paid	25	50	75
Source of communication	13	17	30
Reputation	21	0	21
Media	16	0	16
Persuasion	0	14	14

When determining an activity as public relations or advertising, the most prominent themes that occurred were paid/not paid, source of communication and reputation.

Figure 11: Major themes in determining public relations and advertising



5. Discussion

This chapter presents the meaning and significance of the results in this study through three major themes: budget, source of communication and reputational risk. These themes are each interpreted and explained in relation to strategic communication (Hallahan et al., 2007; Holtzhausen & Zerfass, 2015) and Image Repair Theory (Benoit, 2015). The chapter then discusses the limitations of the study, and the challenges that arose.

To the knowledge of the researcher, this study is the first study to compare and contrast the definitions of public relations and advertising developed by scholars, industry bodies, practitioners and organisations.

5.1 Budget

The first theme identified from the analysis is budget. As illustrated by Figure 11, the most common theme in determining an activity as public relations or advertising was whether it was paid for or not. This theme can be considered somewhat ambiguous, as some approaches specified what part of the activity needed to be paid for, such as media space or time (Gordon, 2011), while others would consider it paid if any money was spent for any part of the activity. This ambiguity within differentiation raises an interesting point, as stated by Hallahan et al. (2007), strategic communication suggests communications activities are transforming, and therefore the communications practitioners' ability to differentiate conventional communications activities is diminishing. The idea that there is no consensus on whether the whole activity or a certain part of the activity needs to be paid for aligns with Hallahan et al.'s (2007) views that the communications practitioners' ability to differentiate conventional communications activities is diminishing, indicating that public relations and advertising are becoming more strategic within the organisation, Fonterra.

However, as illustrated by the responses from Fonterra, any activity that was paid for was undertaken by the advertising team, as they have a budget for the activities while the public relations team does not. Hallahan et al. (2007) suggested that within organisations, exclusive authority over particular communications activities

is being challenged. However, the responses from the participants and Fonterra suggest otherwise:

Advertising practitioner: Our departments decide that for us – as in Brands manages all paid advertising so we have a budget to do that. And Comms don't have a budget for public relations, but they manage it for us.

This indicates that although the disciplines may be integrating more in a strategic way, some aspects remain in certain territory. As public relations and advertising are not solely differentiated through activities, but also through budget, this suggests they are not strategic (Hallahan et al., 2007). This is further supported by Holtzhausen and Zerfass (2015), who warned that fragmentation of strategic communication activities occurs as communications practitioners strictly adhere to their scope of responsibilities and area of expertise. As a result, communications practitioners refrain from working collaboratively, a necessary ability in strategic communication (Holtzhausen & Zerfass, 2015). This highlights an issue that contends whether the disciplines are able to be strategic at all, if practitioners are unable to collaborate.

However, this may simply reflect an operational issue relevant to the specific organisation. It raises the question of whether public relations and advertising need to be differentiated, as budget is allocated and someone in power apportions the budget as they see fit.

Despite the differentiation between public relations and advertising with regards to budget, the integration of public relations and advertising within the campaign was also affected by budget. NZ Herald editorials were the only communications activity to suggest integration between public relations and advertising. As previously mentioned, although termed by Fonterra as NZ Herald editorials, the articles published in the NZ Herald were advertorials. An advertorial is a commissioned article disguising an advertisement (Kim et al., 2001), indicating a key theme of being paid for. However, the NZ Herald editorials were also labelled as public relations due to adhering to all scholarly definitions of public relations, and addressing the key theme of reputation:

Public relations practitioner: *It is advertising, paid content is advertising, so in my book it landed with Brands, with a sign off or oversight from Comms.*

The advertising practitioner leaned towards the same perspective as the public relations practitioner regarding the format of advertisement, however said the public relations came from the use of the media:

Advertising practitioner: *Kind of a hybrid, it's tricky, because it says paid promoted content so it is paid, but it's in an editorial public relations environment.*

The ambiguity between the use of paid/not paid is also shown between scholars, as Gordon's (2011) definition of advertising did not agree with the other academic definitions of advertising on four occurrences (33%). On all four occurrences (33%), Gordon's (2011) definition labelled the activity as not advertising while the majority of other academic definitions labelled it as advertising. Gordon's definition differed from the other academic definitions of advertising for activities which were paid for, but not specifically the media space or time. As a public relations practitioner and academic, Gordon's perspective on advertising would hold a more specific and definite differentiation between the two disciplines. This suggests practitioners establish a larger differentiation between public relations and advertising than scholars.

In addition, strategic communication suggests that the developments in media and technology are significantly impacting communications, fusing the traditional categories of communication (Hallahan et al., 2007). This further highlights the ambiguity of paid/not paid, as social media platforms are free to run, however organisations still need to take into account the time needed to manage these accounts, and to plan and execute social media activities (Smith & Zook, 2011). However, Chu (2011) defined viral advertising on social media as unpaid, challenging the differentiating theme of budget entirely. Both the public relations and advertising practitioners stated social media activities as paid, and therefore adhering to advertising. However, with regards to strategic communication, social

media should not be used merely as a tactic, as its influence is decreased if it is not supported by an integrated strategy or plan outlined by the organisation's management of strategic communication (Lewis & Nichols, 2015). Therefore, in this research, social media is not being employed strategically.

5.2 Source of Communication

The second theme identified from the analysis is source of communication. As illustrated by Figure 9 and Figure 10, from a third-party and from an identifiable source were two major themes in defining public relations and advertising respectively.

As outlined by Holtzhausen and Zerfass (2015), strategic communication can occur from any communication agent on behalf of a communicative entity, and therefore both organisational and third-party communications are strategic. Within this research, third-party communication occurred from the media or from UGC, and these were determined as specific activities and channels for public relations. As outlined by Hallahan et al. (2007), strategic communication suggests that exclusive authority over particular communications activities is being challenged. As this is not occurring in relation to the media and UGC, it is suggested that public relations in this context is not strategic due to its territorialism. This is in agreement with Holtzhausen and Zerfass (2015), who suggested that communications practitioners that refrain from working collaboratively do not engage in strategic communication. Furthermore, the organisation, Fonterra, plays a role in territorialising the disciplines, as there are existing roles and responsibilities of the teams. For example, any media-related activities such as press releases and media liaison are undertaken by the public relations team, indicating that these activities are public relations. Team roles and responsibilities are predetermined by the Managing Director of Corporate Affairs, who oversees many reputational departments including the public relations and advertising departments. This implies that Fonterra as a whole is not undertaking strategic communication.

However, the most recent scholarly definition of advertising used in this thesis was adapted to support new media technologies, and was the only definition to label

media release, media liaison and UGC as advertising. Dahlen and Rosengren's (2016) definition labelled the activity as advertising while the majority of other academic definitions did not, due to the communication not coming from an identifiable source. This is representative of Dahlen and Rosengren's (2016) perspective that communications disciplines are merging and their boundaries blurring, and is supported by the framework of strategic communication that states communications activities are transforming (Hallahan et al., 2007).

With regards to new media technologies, the differentiation of the disciplines by source of communication suggests social media is advertising. In relation to strategic communication, Hallahan et al. (2007) suggested that the developments in media and technology are significantly impacting communications, fusing the traditional categories of communication. However, applying this to the source of communication, it implies that all social media activities are advertising due to them originating from an identifiable source. This suggests advertising is not strategic. In addition, although social media is applicable to each communication discipline as a tactic, its influence is decreased if it is not supported by an integrated strategy (Lewis & Nichols, 2015). At Fonterra, social media is seen as a tool or a channel for both public relations and advertising, not as an integration of the two. As stated by the public relations practitioner, social media is a shared channel for communications:

Public relations practitioner: It's a channel. It's a shared channel, because it's just another platform... there's definitely crossover for Comms and there's definitely crossover for Brands.

The public relations practitioner also stated that within Fonterra, social media is oriented more towards advertising, despite the Social Media team sitting within the Communications team. This is owing to public relations not fully utilising the channel:

Public relations practitioner: Currently it's more Brand owned, Comms doesn't fully understand how to run it properly.

The advertising practitioner leaned towards the same perspective as the public relations practitioner, stating that it cannot be defined as public relations or advertising, and describes it as a tool to reach consumers:

Advertising practitioner: I wouldn't say its wholly advertising... but it's not public relations either, it's just telling our stories in more of a consumer environment.

This suggests that both public relations and advertising are using social media as tactics, not as a strategic integration, implying that social media is not used strategically. However, as social media is applicable as a tactic to all disciplines (Lewis & Nichols, 2015), it is important to view it strategically as the increase in communication channels questions whether any single communications activity can be accurately analysed. It cannot be determined whether the audience makes a distinction between various communications activities (Hallahan et al., 2007).

However, this raises the question of whether differentiation between the disciplines is needed, as an audience is indifferent to the strategy of communication yet remain the basis for why it is conducted. It could be suggested that in this case, differentiation of public relations and advertising is purely an academic exercise, that has no effect on the outcome of the communication.

5.3 Reputational Risk

The third theme identified from the analysis is reputational risk. As outlined by Hallahan et al. (2007), strategic communication presents a chance to shift the study of organisational communications towards an organisation's image and audience interaction. This is built on by Benoit (2015), who argued that in the context of strategic communication, image, or reputation, is vital to an organisation.

As stated by the public relations practitioner, public relations is employed when there is a reputational risk to Fonterra:

Public relations practitioner: *Concept was Brands, the script and concept were definitely discussed by Comms with them from a risk point of view/reputational.*

As previously mentioned with regards to budget, the integration of public relations and advertising within the campaign was also affected by reputation. NZ Herald editorials were the only communications activity to suggest integration between public relations and advertising. As previously stated as paid for and therefore advertising, the NZ Herald editorials were also labelled as public relations due to the need for them to be reviewed by the public relations team to address any reputational risk:

Public relations practitioner: *It is advertising, paid content is advertising, so in my book it landed with Brands, with a sign off or oversight from Comms.*

As reputation is not a tactic or activity, it can be implied that the territorialism of public relations over reputation is not strategic. However, as argued by Hallahan et al. (2007), strategic communication provides the ability to refocus the fundamental processes of disciplines, suggesting that some communications disciplines no longer adhere to their primary purpose, such as public relations academia emphasising relationship outcomes over the communication process. It can be argued that public relations has refocused on its fundamental process, as it derived from press agency, a practice concerned primarily with reputation (Grunig & Hunt, 1984). Therefore, although public relations holds autonomy over reputation, it may be developing strategically.

Despite the focus on public relations with regards to reputation, Benoit (2015) argued that damage to an organisation's image directly affects its ability to conduct strategic communication, as a tarnished reputation reduces credibility and trustworthiness, which in-turn reduces persuasiveness of the organisation. As highlighted in Figure 10, persuasion is a key theme in advertising, suggesting that reputation is a key theme in conducting strategic communication. Furthermore, this can directly affect business performance and product sales, another key theme in advertising (Benoit, 2015). Therefore, although reputation is perceived as a

public relations theme, it is vital to the overall strategic communication, including advertising. Therefore, it could be suggested that reputation should be released into the wider strategic communication remit, rather than remaining a public relations objective.

5.4 Limitations of the Study

This study has several limitations. Firstly, the study was conducted using only one case study from a single organisation. This provides only one example of what occurs within a communications campaign for one organisation, and indicates the results may only be applicable to this individual instance. They may not be applicable to any other organisation, or any other communication campaigns from the same organisation. In addition, this research was conducted in the New Zealand context, indicating the results may not be applicable internationally. Furthermore, this research was undertaken with an interpretivist epistemology, which interprets phenomena as socially constructed, culturally derived and historically situated (Gray, 2018). This further indicates the results of this study may not be applicable in other circumstances, owing to the time, place and context in which it took place.

Second, this study only utilised the perspective of one organisation, one public relations practitioner and one advertising practitioner in differentiating public relations and advertising. Other organisations and practitioners would hold other views towards the disciplines of public relations and advertising, and towards the communications campaign. In addition, the public relations practitioner and the advertising practitioner are not representative of all public relations and advertising practitioners at Fonterra, and merely provided their individual perspectives. This indicates these perspectives cannot be applied to all public relations and advertising practitioners, whether internal or external to Fonterra, or to all organisations.

Third, as this thesis applied the theoretical framework of strategic communication (Hallahan et al., 2007), in addition to the importance of the public sphere (Holtzhausen & Zerfass, 2015), any internal communications within Fonterra were

not examined. As stated by the public relations practitioner in an interview response, the Communications team conducted a number of communications activities within Fonterra, which, when taken into account, may have impacted the overall findings of the study.

Finally, the area of study for this research was large. Taking into account five separate perspectives (scholars, industry, public relations practitioner, advertising practitioner, organisation) in regard to two substantial disciplines (public relations and advertising) may have contributed to an oversight on important findings. Focusing on a single perspective, for example the organisation, could have allowed for a deeper analysis into the differentiation of public relations and advertising for that particular perspective. This thesis aimed to compare and contrast the five perspectives, and in doing so, may have neglected a more thorough analysis.

5.5 Challenges

A few challenges presented themselves while undertaking the research in this study, including challenges with interpreting definitions and the arising of multiple perspectives.

5.5.1 Challenges with Interpreting Definitions

An interpretivist epistemology, as used in this research, interprets phenomena as socially constructed, culturally derived and historically situated (Gray, 2018). An interpretivist theoretical perspective was necessary in this research to allow the multiple definitions used to be interpreted in such a way that they could be applied to the activities. However, this presented some challenges, due to the variations in the definitions.

Broad definitions presented a major challenge for interpreting due to their lack of specificity. For example, Grunig and Hunt (1984) defined public relations as “the management of communication between an organization and its publics” (p. 6), while Dahlen and Rosengren (2016) defined advertising as “brand-initiated communication intent on impacting people” (p. 343). As broad definitions, these can be interpreted to mean any type of communication aimed towards no

particular audience, that the organisation has a role in. Therefore, these two definitions can be interpreted to mean the exact same thing, despite representing two separate disciplines. However as broad definitions, they are subject to interpretation in a large number of ways. Another interpreter may focus on what Grunig and Hunt defined as “publics” and whether this is a previously established audience, while others may interpret that “communication intent on impacting people” refers to the content of the message.

A major differentiation between the definitions of public relations and the definitions of advertising is that most advertising definitions specify that advertising is paid for. However, some advertising definitions differ over what part of advertising needs to be paid. Gordon’s (2011) definition states that “media space or time is paid for” (p. 381), however if we take Belch and Belch’s (2012) definition they do not specify what part of the activity needs to be paid: “any paid form of non-personal communication” (p. 18). In this thesis, Belch and Belch’s (2012) definition was interpreted to mean the activity could be paid for at any stage, whether it was media time, or for the filming of a commercial. However, others may interpret this definition to refer to solely the media space as paid, as in Gordon’s (2011) definition.

Furthermore, as these activities are not the overall function of the discipline, and are merely examples of tactics executed in that discipline, definitions differ over whether they include the channels or the content that the activities must contain. For example, Richards and Curran’s (2002) definition of advertising states that it must be “designed to persuade the receiver to take some action, now or in the future” (p. 74), while ASA’s (n.d.) definition states advertising must have “the intent to influence the choice, opinion or behaviour of those to whom it is addressed” (para. 2). In this thesis, the definitions were interpreted differently as Richards and Curran (2002) implied the receiver takes action, while ASA imply the advertiser wants the receiver to take action. However, these definitions could be interpreted by others as having the same implications.

5.5.2 Challenges with Multiple Perspectives

Another challenge that arose whilst conducting this research was the arising of multiple perspectives. The theoretical framework for this research examined public relations and advertising as separate disciplines, as integrated disciplines, and in relation to social media. In addition to this, the disciplines of public relations and advertising individually were examined through an academic approach, industry approach and through practical applications (activities).

This breadth of literature examination resulted in a variety of theoretical perspectives presenting themselves. The more research that was studied, the more perspectives that arose. The determination of an overall theoretical perspective for this research was challenging, as not only are there multiple perspectives for each field of research, but this research examined a range of fields, including public relations, advertising, IMC, social media, communications campaigns and strategic communication.

The field of public relations contains many perspectives and theories outlined in the literature review that could be applied to the study, such as a functional perspective (Botan & Taylor, 2004; Peake, 1980), theoretical perspective (Pimlott, 1951; Robinson, 1966), sociological perspective (Ihlan & Ruler, 2007; L'Etang, 2008), the four models of public relations practice (Grunig & Hunt, 1984), the Excellence Study (Grunig et al., 2002), and crises communication (Manley & Valin, 2017; Thurlow et al., 2018). In addition to this, as the literature examined the evolution of the public relations discipline, more historical perspectives arose rather than recent perspectives, which could result in an outdated view. Furthermore, a strictly public relations oriented perspective may not be applicable to the advertising domain, and vice versa. Therefore, a more integrated perspective is appropriate.

However, the field of IMC, despite containing many theories, situates public relations and advertising as a merged discipline. Even though a merged perspective could be applicable to this research, the view contradicts the overall task to differentiate public relations and advertising, and was thus deemed by the researcher as inappropriate. Therefore, despite the challenge of navigating

multiple theoretical perspectives, this research was conducted within the perspective of strategic communication (Hallahan et al., 2007).

6. Conclusion

The purpose of this research was to identify how public relations and advertising are differentiated within a strategic communications campaign. In recent years, the roles and responsibilities of public relations and advertising have begun to overlap, making it increasingly difficult to differentiate them. It is important to be able to differentiate these two disciplines within an integrated campaign to ensure they are resourced adequately, are the correct discipline for the organisation's objectives, and are able to be developed to reach their potential. Education on the two disciplines remains separate, as do industry bodies, and therefore practitioners remain specialised in a particular field of communications. As highlighted in this study, definitions of public relations and advertising vary significantly between scholars and industry bodies, indicating there is no clear consensus on the scopes of the disciplines.

This research placed the disciplines of public relations and advertising within the theoretical framework of strategic communication. In this situation, public relations and advertising are viewed as separate practices that share similar purposes, objectives and strategies, but are differentiated primarily by tactics. The disciplines are being adapted through organisations' motives to integrate them, and are analysed together as an audience cannot make a distinction between them, but remain academically separate disciplines.

This research used a qualitative case study methodology with a mixed methods approach of documentation and interviews, to determine how public relations and advertising are differentiated within Fonterra's 2018 communications campaign Richie's Milk Run. The campaign was organised into communications activities, as within strategic communication the disciplines are differentiated primarily by tactics. The activities were examined through the definitions of public relations and advertising provided by five approaches: scholars, industry bodies, a public relations practitioner, an advertising practitioner, and the organisation. The data was structured in relation to frequency, to assist with determining the significance, and then analysed through thematic analysis.

Three key themes in defining and differentiating public relations and advertising arose from the analysis of data: budget, source of communication and reputational risk. This chapter will now discuss the significance of these research findings along with practical applications, then reflect on the aims and limitations of the research, and finally recommends possible directions for future research.

6.1 Significance of Research Findings

The study has identified that public relations and advertising are differentiated through three main characteristics: budget, source of communication and reputational risk. This study provides the first comprehensive assessment of the various definitions of public relations and advertising, and illustrates the range of themes in defining the disciplines. Prior to this study, it was difficult to make predictions about how public relations and advertising were differentiated within an organisation, owing to the amount of varying definitions. However, these findings will prove useful in expanding the understanding of how public relations and advertising are perceived and utilised within organisations.

Budget refers to whether an activity is paid for or not. If an activity is paid for, it is advertising, whereas if it is not paid for, it is public relations. Ambiguity exists in what constitutes being 'paid for', however in this research, an activity is considered paid for if any money was spent on the activity. It is important to note that public relations and advertising cannot be differentiated solely on budget. As highlighted by the NZ Herald editorials, despite their correlation to advertising as they are paid for, they are still considered public relations owing to the reputational risk.

Source of communication refers to whether an activity is labelled with the organisation's name or is from a third party. If an activity is labelled as originating from the organisation, it is advertising, whereas if the communication comes from a third party, it is public relations. This extends to the use of the media, as any communication from the media is considered public relations, unless labelled with the organisation's name, such as a press advertisement or advertorial. Similarly to budget, public relations and advertising cannot be differentiated solely on the

source of communication. As highlighted by the NZ Herald editorials, despite their correlation to advertising as they are labelled as sponsored by Fonterra, they are still considered public relations owing to the reputational risk.

Reputational risk refers to whether an activity could pose a threat to an organisation's image. In this research, any advertising activity was also reviewed by the public relations team if there was a reputational risk. As highlighted by the NZ Herald editorials, despite their correlation to advertising through budget and source of communication, they are also considered public relations owing to the oversight needed as there was a risk to reputation.

Another significant finding to emerge from this research is the classification of social media as advertising. As illustrated by the source of communication, social media is advertising as it is labelled as from the organisation. However, ambiguity still exists around budget, as a social media page is free to use, although in this research the content for social media was paid for. Regarding reputational risk, this would be considered on a case-by-case basis, however in this research the social media activities posed no risk to reputation, as stated by both the public relations and advertising practitioners. Therefore, in this research, social media activities are considered advertising.

The situation of public relations and advertising within strategic communication was analysed in this research. Overall, the disciplines are becoming more integrated in a strategic way (separate practices that share similar purposes, objectives and strategies), but continue to hold a certain amount of territorialism over roles and responsibilities. It has been illustrated that utilising the disciplines strategically, with public relations and advertising practitioners collaborating, results in more effective communication (Holtzhausen & Zerfass, 2015). Therefore, the principal theoretical implication of this study is that public relations and advertising should be applied strategically, but remain differentiated by budget, source of communication and reputational risk in order to adequately resource the disciplines and allow for practitioners with specialised skills and education.

6.2 Reflection of Research

The aim of this research was to understand how the disciplines of public relations and advertising are differentiated in an organisation's communications campaign. This was achieved through determining the characteristics of budget, source of communication and reputational risk in relation to strategic communication. Furthermore, the research illustrated some insights into how public relations and advertising are applied and integrated within an organisation's communications campaign, and how an organisation defines public relations and advertising. Therefore, the study achieved its research aims.

However, the research holds some limitations, as the study was conducted using only one case study from a single organisation. This provides only one example of what occurs within a communications campaign for one organisation, and indicates the results may only be applicable to this individual instance. In addition, this study only utilised the perspective of one organisation, one public relations practitioner and one advertising practitioner in differentiating public relations and advertising. This research does not claim to be applicable to any other organisation, or any other communication campaigns from the same organisation, and does not claim to represent all organisations, public relations practitioners and advertising practitioners.

Furthermore, the area of study for this research was large. Considering five separate perspectives (scholars, industry, public relations practitioner, advertising practitioner, organisation) regarding two substantial disciplines (public relations and advertising) may have contributed to an oversight on important findings. Focusing on a single perspective, for example the organisation, could have allowed for a deeper analysis into the differentiation of public relations and advertising for that particular perspective.

Reflection of the research occurred throughout the research process and allowed for changes to the research process to be made. Initially, the research was undertaken with a case study methodology and documentation method. However, after some analysis had occurred, there were unanswered questions that arose from the data. Therefore, interviews were conducted and the research method

shifted to mixed methods (documentation and interviews). In addition, the data in this research was initially organised into artefacts, each occurrence of a communications activity. The analysis of 44 artefacts was large and time consuming, and did not allow for a thorough analysis of each artefact. After deducing that content did not affect the overall determination of an artefact to a discipline, the artefacts were consolidated into activities, which allowed for a more thorough analysis.

6.3 Recommendations for Future Research

The question raised by this study is whether the findings are applicable to other situations. Considerably more work will need to be done to determine how public relations and advertising are differentiated in other organisations and communications campaigns, to increase reliability.

As this research examined the situation of public relations and advertising in an in-house campaign, analysing an agency campaign could provide interesting comparisons and contrasts. An agency specialises in either public relations or advertising, and analysing the agencies' scopes, roles and responsibilities could provide a more definite differentiation to be applied within organisations. It could also provide a deeper insight into the territorialism surrounding the disciplines, as agencies are not required to cooperate.

Furthermore, internal communications within the organisation were not examined in this research due to the theoretical framework of strategic communication and importance of the public sphere (Holtzhausen & Zerfass, 2015). Internal communication is a significant part of any large organisation's communications, and could provide additional insights into the differentiation of public relations and advertising within an organisation.

Additionally, further investigation and experimentation into the individual approaches (scholars, industry bodies, public relations practitioner, advertising practitioner, organisation) is strongly recommended to increase validity. As previously stated, the approaches are not reflective of all, i.e. the public relations

practitioner is not reflective of all public relations practitioners. A deeper analysis into one approach could provide stronger findings on the differentiation of public relations and advertising for that approach, which could then be compared and contrasted between multiples of the same approach (i.e. organisations) or across approaches (i.e. public relations practitioners and advertising practitioners).

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Appendix A: Ethics Approval Letter



Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC)

Auckland University of Technology
D-88, Private Bag 92006, Auckland 1142, NZ
T: +64 9 921 9999 ext. 8316
E: ethics@aut.ac.nz
www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics

12 March 2019

Averill Gordon
Faculty of Design and Creative Technologies

Dear Averill

Re Ethics Application: **19/46 How are public relations and advertising integrated within an organisation's campaign**

Thank you for providing evidence as requested, which satisfies the points raised by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC).

Your ethics application has been approved for three years until 12 March 2022.

Standard Conditions of Approval

1. A progress report is due annually on the anniversary of the approval date, using form EA2, which is available online through <http://www.aut.ac.nz/research/researchethics>.
2. A final report is due at the expiration of the approval period, or, upon completion of project, using form EA3, which is available online through <http://www.aut.ac.nz/research/researchethics>.
3. Any amendments to the project must be approved by AUTEC prior to being implemented. Amendments can be requested using the EA2 form: <http://www.aut.ac.nz/research/researchethics>.
4. Any serious or unexpected adverse events must be reported to AUTEC Secretariat as a matter of priority.
5. Any unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project should also be reported to the AUTEC Secretariat as a matter of priority.

Please quote the application number and title on all future correspondence related to this project.

AUTEC grants ethical approval only. If you require management approval for access for your research from another institution or organisation then you are responsible for obtaining it. You are reminded that it is your responsibility to ensure that the spelling and grammar of documents being provided to participants or external organisations is of a high standard.

For any enquiries, please contact ethics@aut.ac.nz

Yours sincerely,

Kate O'Connor
Executive Manager
Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee

Cc: isagaller02@gmail.com

Appendix B: Tools

Participant Information Sheet



Participant Information Sheet

Date Information Sheet Produced:

7 March 2019

Project Title

How are public relations and advertising integrated within an organisation's campaign?

An Invitation

Hello!

I'm Isabel Gailer, and as you know I'm using Fonterra's 2018 Richie's Milk Run campaign as a case study for my thesis, which contributes to my Master of Communication Studies degree.

I was wondering whether you would be willing to help me by participating in a short interview. The interview will be used to gain more background information on the campaign and clarify information from the documentation. The interview will be held in a designated meeting room in the Fonterra office building, and will only be 30-minutes long.

I would be very grateful if you chose to participate in this research, however if you choose not to it will neither advantage or disadvantage you in any way.

What is the purpose of this research?

This research is being conducted as I have identified a gap in academic literature of how public relations and advertising are integrated within industry.

This research could benefit you by potentially providing information which may help develop best practice. It may also provide an in-depth evaluation of your campaign, which you may wish to utilise internally.

For me, this research will be primarily used to write a thesis for the completion of a Masters of Communication Studies. It will also give me more knowledge on a topic and industry in which I am working and have studied, which can then be applied to my professional work in the industry.

The resulting thesis will also help build the public relations and advertising body of knowledge.

The research may be used in additional academic publications or presentations.

How was I identified and why am I being invited to participate in this research?

You have received this information sheet because of your position at Fonterra in relation to the 2018 Richie's Milk Run campaign and the role you've played in providing documentation. Your contact details have been obtained through the organisation.

How do I agree to participate in this research?

You have received a Consent Form with this Information Sheet, which must be read, understood and signed by you before an interview can occur.

Your participation in this research is voluntary (it is your choice) and whether or not you choose to participate will neither advantage nor disadvantage you. You are able to withdraw from the study at any time. If you choose to withdraw from the study, then you will be offered the choice between having any data that you provided removed or allowing it to continue to be used. However, once the findings have been produced, removal of your data may not be possible.

What will happen in this research?

This research involves exploring how public relations and advertising are integrated within an organisation's campaign. The documentation I have compiled about the campaign has indicated that public relations and advertising are differentiated in the Richie's Milk Run campaign by the team that directs and implements certain activities, however this is not verified.

I will be using an interview with you to provide background information about the campaign, predominantly which activities can be labelled as public relations and which can be labelled as advertising. The interviews will be recorded with an audio-taping device. I will ask you to approve the use of any information you provide me with before it is used in the research, and you will not be directly quoted or identifiable in the research.

This information will be used to write a thesis titled "How are public relations and advertising integrated within an organisation's campaign?", which contributes to me obtaining a Master of Communication Studies degree.

The organisation and the campaign will be directly named in the thesis. This includes the organisation's name 'Fonterra' and the campaign title 'Richie's Milk Run'.

What are the discomforts and risks?

You are asked to provide information on a campaign carried out by the organisation in which you are employed. However, you will not be directly quoted or identifiable in the research, and you will be asked to approve the use of any information you have provided.

What are the benefits?

This research will contribute to building the knowledge on public relations, advertising and their integration, and therefore benefits organisations which use these activities.

For myself, this research will be primarily used to write a thesis for the completion of a Masters of Communication Studies. It will also give me more knowledge on a topic and industry in which I am working and have studied, which can then be applied to my professional work in the industry.

How will my privacy be protected?

Your identity is unlikely to be entirely confidential in the research, as your role in the 2018 Richie's Milk Run campaign is widely known throughout the organisation. However, you will not be directly quoted or named in the research, and your identity will only be known to those who are able to make the link between the campaign and your role in it.

What are the costs of participating in this research?

You are asked to provide 30 minutes of your time for an interview, and will require up to an additional 30 minutes to read this Information Sheet, understand and sign the Consent Form, and respond to the meeting request.

What opportunity do I have to consider this invitation?

A meeting request has been sent for two weeks from the date you receive this information sheet.

Will I receive feedback on the results of this research?

Yes, you will be given a one to two page summary on the findings of this research. If you wish to opt-out, please indicate this on the consent form.

What do I do if I have concerns about this research?

Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Project Supervisor, Dr Averill Gordon, averill.gordon@aut.ac.nz, +64 9 921 9999 extn 6492

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary of AUTECH, Kate O'Connor, ethics@aut.ac.nz, 921 9999 ext 6038.

Whom do I contact for further information about this research?

Please keep this Information Sheet and a copy of the Consent Form for your future reference. You are also able to contact the research team as follows:

Researcher Contact Details:

Isabel Gailer, isagailer02@gmail.com

Project Supervisor Contact Details:

Dr Averill Gordon, averill.gordon@aut.ac.nz, +64 9 921 9999 extn 6492

Consent Form



Consent Form

Project title: **How are public relations and advertising integrated within an organisations campaign?**

Project Supervisor: **Dr Averill Gordon**

Researcher: **Isabel Gailer**

- I have read and understood the information provided about this research project in the Information Sheet dated 7 March 2019.
- I have had an opportunity to ask questions and to have them answered.
- I understand that notes will be taken during the interviews and that they will be audio-taped and transcribed.
- I understand that my identity will not be entirely confidential in the research, given my position/role in the campaign.
- I understand that taking part in this study is voluntary (my choice) and that I may withdraw from the study at any time without being disadvantaged in any way.
- I understand that if I withdraw from the study then I will be offered the choice between having any data that I provided removed or allowing it to continue to be used. However, once the findings have been produced, removal of my data may not be possible.
- I agree to take part in this research.

OPT-OUT

- I do not wish to receive a summary of the research findings.

Participant's signature:

Participant's name:

Director of Communications' signature:

Director of Communications' name:

Date:

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on March 12 2019, AUTEK Reference number 19/46

Note: The Participant should retain a copy of this form

Appendix C: Coded Activities

Press Release

A written document sent to the media with the intention of gaining coverage in the media.

A **Press Release** is defined as public relations by 5/5 academic public relations definitions.

- Grunig and Hunt's (1984) definition defines a press release as public relations, as it is managed.
- Cutlip et al.'s (2006) definition defines a press release as public relations, as it is mutually beneficial, two-way communication and managed.
- Peake's (1980) definition defines a press release as public relations, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour and is persuasive.
- L'Etang's (2008) definition defines a press release as public relations, as it is two-way communication and impacts reputation.
- Heath's (2001) definition defines a press release as public relations, as it is mutually beneficial.

A **Press Release** is defined as advertising by 1/5 academic advertising definitions.

- Lane et al.'s (2011) definition defines a press release as not advertising, as it is not paid for and the final result is not from an identifiable source.
- Richards and Curran's (2002) definition defines a press release as not advertising, as it is not paid for and the final result is not from an identifiable source.
- Belch and Belch's (2012) definition defines a press release as not advertising, as it is not paid for and the final result is not from an identifiable source.
- Gordon's (2011) definition defines a press release as not advertising, as media space/time is not paid for.
- Dahlen and Rosengren's (2016) definition defines a press release as advertising, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour.

A **Press Release** is defined as public relations by the public relations industry definition, as it is mutually beneficial, two-way communication and impacts public opinion/behaviour.

A **Press Release** is defined as advertising by the advertising industry definition, as it impacts public opinion/behaviour and is persuasive.

A **Press Release** is defined as public relations by the organisation's public relations practitioner, as it is earned media (source).

A **Press Release** is defined as public relations by the organisation's advertising practitioner, as it is not paid for and involves the media.

A **Press Release** is defined as public relations by the organisation, as it was conducted by the public relations team.

Table 1: Press Release adherence to public relations and advertising definitions

	Public relations	Advertising
Academia ¹	5/5	1/5
Industry	✓	✓
PR practitioner	✓	X
Adv practitioner	✓	X
Organisation	✓	X

Table 2: Themes of public relations and advertising in a press release

Public relations	Not public relations	Advertising	Not advertising
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managed • Mutually beneficial • Two-way communication • Public opinion/behaviour • Reputation • Third-party source • Not paid • Media 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public opinion/behaviour • Persuasive 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not paid • Third-party source

¹Academic definitions of public relations and advertising

PR definitions	Grunig & Hunt (1984)	Cutlip et al. (2006)	Peake (1980)	L'Etang (2008)	Heath (2001)
	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Adv definitions	Lane et al. (2011)	Richards & Curran (2002)	Belch & Belch (2012)	Gordon (2011)	Dahlen & Rosengren (2016)
	X	X	X	X	✓

TV Commercial

A video advertisement that was broadcast on television.

A **TV Commercial** is defined as public relations by 2/5 academic public relations definitions.

- Grunig and Hunt's (1984) definition defines a TV commercial as public relations, as it is managed.
- Cutlip et al.'s (2006) definition defines a TV commercial as not public relations, as it is not mutually beneficial or two-way communication.
- Peake's (1980) definition defines a TV commercial as public relations, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour and is persuasive.
- L'Etang's (2008) definition defines a TV commercial as not public relations, as it is not two-way communication.
- Heath's (2001) definition defines a TV commercial as not public relations, as it is not mutually beneficial.

A **TV Commercial** is defined as advertising by 5/5 academic advertising definitions.

- Lane et al.'s (2011) definition defines a TV commercial as advertising, as it is persuasive, paid for, from an identifiable source, and focuses on selling a product.
- Richards and Curran's (2002) definition defines a TV commercial as advertising, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour, is paid for, persuasive and from an identifiable source.
- Belch and Belch's (2012) definition defines a TV commercial as advertising, as it is paid for, non-personal and from an identifiable source.
- Gordon's (2011) definition defines a TV commercial as advertising, as media space/time is paid for.
- Dahlen and Rosengren's (2016) definition defines a TV commercial as advertising, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour.

A **TV Commercial** is defined as not public relations by the public relations industry definition, as it is not mutually beneficial or two-way communication.

A **TV Commercial** is defined as advertising by the advertising industry definition, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour and is persuasive.

A **TV Commercial** is defined as advertising by the organisation's public relations practitioner, as it is paid for.

A **TV Commercial** is defined as advertising by the organisation's advertising practitioner, as it is paid for, uses brand assets that appear on television (source) and aims to influence public opinion/behaviour.

A **TV Commercial** is defined as both public relations and advertising by the organisation, as it was conducted by both the public relations and advertising teams.

Table 3: TV commercial adherence to public relations and advertising definitions

	Public relations	Advertising
Academia ¹	2/5	5/5
Industry	X	✓
PR practitioner	X	✓
Adv practitioner	X	✓
Organisation	✓	✓

Table 4: Themes of public relations and advertising in a TV commercial

Public relations	Not public relations	Advertising	Not advertising
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managed • Public opinion/behaviour • Persuasive 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not mutually beneficial • Not two-way communication 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Persuasive • Paid for • Identifiable source • Selling product • Public opinion/behaviour • Non-personal 	

¹Academic definitions of public relations and advertising

PR definitions	Grunig & Hunt (1984)	Cutlip et al. (2006)	Peake (1980)	L'Etang (2008)	Heath (2001)
	✓	X	✓	X	X
Adv definitions	Lane et al. (2011)	Richards & Curran (2002)	Belch & Belch (2012)	Gordon (2011)	Dahlen & Rosengren (2016)
	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Posters in Schools

A form of publication or print that were displayed in schools with information on the competition.

A **Poster** is defined as public relations by 2/5 academic public relations definitions.

- Grunig and Hunt's (1984) definition defines a poster as public relations, as it is managed.
- Cutlip et al.'s (2006) definition defines a poster as not public relations, as it is not mutually beneficial or two-way communication.
- Peake's (1980) definition defines a poster as public relations, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour and is persuasive.
- L'Etang's (2008) definition defines a poster as not public relations, as it is not two-way communication and does not aim to impact reputation.
- Heath's (2001) definition defines a poster as not public relations, as it is not mutually beneficial.

A **Poster** is defined as advertising by 4/5 academic advertising definitions.

- Lane et al.'s (2011) definition defines a poster as advertising, as it is persuasive, paid for, from an identifiable source, and focuses on selling a product.
- Richards and Curran's (2002) definition defines a poster as advertising, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour, is persuasive, paid for and from an identifiable source.
- Belch and Belch's (2012) definition defines a poster as advertising, as it is paid for, non-personal and from an identifiable source.
- Gordon's (2011) definition defines a poster as not advertising, as media space/time is not paid for.
- Dahlen and Rosengren's (2016) definition defines a poster as advertising, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour.

A **Poster** is defined as not public relations by the public relations industry definition, as it is not mutually beneficial or two-way communication.

A **Poster** is defined as advertising by the advertising industry definition, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour and is persuasive.

A **Poster** is defined as advertising by the organisation's public relations practitioner, as it is paid for.

A **Poster** is defined as both public relations and advertising by the organisation's advertising practitioner, as the media space was not paid for (public relations), but it uses brand assets, brand channels and aims to influence public opinion/behaviour (advertising).

A **Poster** is defined as both public relations and advertising by the organisation, as it was conducted by both the public relations and advertising teams.

Table 5: Posters in schools' adherence to public relations and advertising definitions

	Public relations	Advertising
Academia ¹	2/5	4/5
Industry	X	✓
PR practitioner	X	✓
Adv practitioner	✓	✓
Organisation	✓	✓

Table 6: Themes of public relations and advertising in a poster

Public relations	Not public relations	Advertising	Not advertising
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managed • Public opinion/behaviour • Persuasive • Media space not paid 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not mutually beneficial • Not two-way comm • Not reputation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Persuasive • Paid for • Identifiable source • Selling product • Public opinion/behaviour • Non-personal 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Media space not paid

¹Academic definitions of public relations and advertising

PR definitions	Grunig & Hunt (1984)	Cutlip et al. (2006)	Peake (1980)	L'Etang (2008)	Heath (2001)
	✓	X	✓	X	X
Adv definitions	Lane et al. (2011)	Richards & Curran (2002)	Belch & Belch (2012)	Gordon (2011)	Dahlen & Rosengren (2016)
	✓	✓	✓	X	✓

Display Banners

Internet advertisements that displayed on the side of web pages.

Display Banners are defined as public relations by 2/5 academic public relations definitions.

- Grunig and Hunt's (1984) definition defines display banners as public relations, as they are managed.
- Cutlip et al.'s (2006) definition defines display banners as not public relations, as they are not mutually beneficial or two-way communication.
- Peake's (1980) definition defines display banners as public relations, as they aim to impact public opinion/behaviour and are persuasive.
- L'Etang's (2008) definition defines display banners as not public relations, as they are not two-way communication and do not aim to impact reputation.
- Heath's (2001) definition defines display banners as not public relations, as they are not mutually beneficial.

Display Banners are defined as advertising by 5/5 academic advertising definitions.

- Lane et al.'s (2011) definition defines display banners as advertising, as they are persuasive, paid for, from an identifiable source and focus on selling a product.
- Richards and Curran's (2002) definition defines display banners as advertising, as they aim to impact public opinion/behaviour, are paid for, from an identifiable source and focus on selling a product.
- Belch and Belch's (2012) definition defines display banners as advertising, as they are paid for, non-personal and from an identifiable source.
- Gordon's (2011) definition defines display banners as advertising, as media space/time is paid for.
- Dahlen and Rosengren's (2016) definition defines display banners as advertising, as they aim to impact public opinion/behaviour.

Display Banners are defined as not public relations by the public relations industry definition, as they are not mutually beneficial or two-way communication.

Display Banners are defined as advertising by the advertising industry definition, as they aim to impact public opinion/behaviour and are persuasive.

Display Banners are defined as advertising by the organisation’s public relations practitioner, as they are paid for.

Display Banners are defined as advertising by the organisation’s advertising practitioner, as they are paid for.

Display Banners are defined as both public relations and advertising by the organisation, as they were conducted by both the public relations and advertising teams.

Table 7: Display banners’ adherence to public relations and advertising definitions

	Public relations	Advertising
Academia ¹	2/5	5/5
Industry	X	✓
PR practitioner	X	✓
Adv practitioner	X	✓
Organisation	✓	✓

Table 8: Themes of public relations and advertising in display banners

Public relations	Not public relations	Advertising	Not advertising
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managed • Public opinion/behaviour • Persuasive 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not mutually beneficial • Not two-way communication • Not reputation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Persuasive • Paid for • Identifiable source • Selling product • Public opinion/behaviour • Non-personal 	

¹Academic definitions of public relations and advertising

PR definitions	Grunig & Hunt (1984)	Cutlip et al. (2006)	Peake (1980)	L’Etang (2008)	Heath (2001)
	✓	X	✓	X	X
Adv definitions	Lane et al. (2011)	Richards & Curran (2002)	Belch & Belch (2012)	Gordon (2011)	Dahlen & Rosengren (2016)
	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Milk News

A parody news show hosted by children, presenting updates on the Richie's Milk Run competition.

Milk News is defined as public relations by 2/5 academic public relations definitions.

- Grunig and Hunt's (1984) definition defines Milk News as public relations, as it is managed.
- Cutlip et al.'s (2006) definition defines Milk News as not public relations, as it is not mutually beneficial or two-way communication.
- Peake's (1980) definition defines Milk News as public relations, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour and is persuasive.
- L'Etang's (2008) definition defines Milk News as not public relations, as it is not two-way communication.
- Heath's (2001) definition defines Milk News as not public relations, as it is not mutually beneficial.

Milk News is defined as advertising by 5/5 academic advertising definitions.

- Lane et al.'s (2011) definition defines Milk News as advertising, as it is persuasive, paid for, from an identifiable source and focuses on selling a product.
- Richards and Curran's (2002) definition defines Milk News as advertising, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour, is persuasive, paid for and from an identifiable source.
- Belch and Belch's (2012) definition defines Milk News as advertising, as it is paid for, non-personal and from an identifiable source.
- Gordon's (2011) definition defines Milk News as advertising, as media space/time is paid for.
- Dahlen and Rosengren's (2016) definition defines Milk News as advertising, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour.

Milk News is defined as not public relations by the public relations industry definition, as it is not mutually beneficial or two-way communication.

Milk News is defined as advertising by the advertising industry definition, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour and is persuasive.

Milk News is defined as advertising by the organisation’s public relations practitioner, as it is paid for and non-corporate messaging.

Milk News is defined as both public relations and advertising by the organisation’s advertising practitioner, as it is native and organic (public relations), and paid for (advertising).

Milk News is defined as advertising by the organisation, as it was conducted by the advertising team.

Table 9: Milk News adherence to public relations and advertising definitions

	Public relations	Advertising
Academia ¹	2/5	5/5
Industry	X	✓
PR practitioner	X	✓
Adv practitioner	✓	✓
Organisation	X	✓

Table 10: Themes of public relations and advertising in Milk News

Public relations	Not public relations	Advertising	Not advertising
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managed • Public opinion/behaviour • Persuasive • Non-corporate messaging • Organic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not mutually beneficial • Not two-way communication • Not reputation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Persuasive • Paid for • Identifiable source • Selling product • Public opinion/behaviour • Non-personal 	

¹Academic definitions of public relations and advertising

PR definitions	Grunig & Hunt (1984)	Cutlip et al. (2006)	Peake (1980)	L’Etang (2008)	Heath (2001)
	✓	X	✓	X	X
Adv definitions	Lane et al. (2011)	Richards & Curran (2002)	Belch & Belch (2012)	Gordon (2011)	Dahlen & Rosengren (2016)
	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Anchor Neck Tags

A form of publication or print that was placed on Anchor bottles to provide information about Milk for Schools.

An **Anchor Neck Tag** is defined as public relations by 2/5 academic public relations definitions.

- Grunig and Hunt's (1984) definition defines an Anchor neck tag as public relations, as it is managed.
- Cutlip et al.'s (2006) definition defines an Anchor neck tag as not public relations, as it is not mutually beneficial or two-way communication.
- Peake's (1980) definition defines an Anchor neck tag as public relations, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour and is persuasive.
- L'Etang's (2008) definition defines an Anchor neck tag as not public relations, as it is not two-way communication and does not aim to impact reputation.
- Heath's (2001) definition defines an Anchor neck tag as not public relations, as it is not mutually beneficial.

An **Anchor Neck Tag** is defined as advertising by 4/5 academic advertising definitions.

- Lane et al.'s (2011) definition defines an Anchor neck tag as advertising, as it is persuasive, paid for, from an identifiable source and focuses on selling a product.
- Richards and Curran's (2002) definition defines an Anchor neck tag as advertising, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour, is persuasive, paid for and from an identifiable source.
- Belch and Belch's (2012) definition defines an Anchor neck tag as advertising, as it is paid for, non-personal and from an identifiable source.
- Gordon's (2011) definition defines an Anchor neck tag as not advertising, as media space/time is not paid for.
- Dahlen and Rosengren's (2016) definition defines an Anchor neck tag as advertising, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour.

An **Anchor Neck Tag** is defined as not public relations by the public relations industry definition, as it is not mutually beneficial or two-way communication.

An **Anchor Neck Tag** is defined as advertising by the advertising industry definition, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour and is persuasive.

An **Anchor Neck Tag** is defined as advertising by the organisation's public relations practitioner, as it is paid for.

An **Anchor Neck Tag** is defined as advertising by the organisation's advertising practitioner, as it is paid for.

An **Anchor Neck Tag** is defined as advertising by the organisation, as it was conducted by the advertising team.

Table 11: Anchor neck tags' adherence to public relations and advertising definitions

	Public relations	Advertising
Academia ¹	2/5	4/5
Industry	X	✓
PR practitioner	X	✓
Adv practitioner	X	✓
Organisation	X	✓

Table 12: Themes of public relations and advertising in Anchor neck tags

Public relations	Not public relations	Advertising	Not advertising
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managed • Public opinion/behaviour • Persuasive 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not mutually beneficial • Not two-way communication • Not reputation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Persuasive • Paid for • Identifiable source • Selling product • Public opinion/behaviour • Non-personal 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Media space not paid

¹Academic definitions of public relations and advertising

PR definitions	Grunig & Hunt (1984)	Cutlip et al. (2006)	Peake (1980)	L'Etang (2008)	Heath (2001)
	✓	X	✓	X	X
Adv definitions	Lane et al. (2011)	Richards & Curran (2002)	Belch & Belch (2012)	Gordon (2011)	Dahlen & Rosengren (2016)
	✓	✓	✓	X	✓

NZ Herald Editorial

An advertorial, a commissioned article disguising an advertisement.

A **NZ Herald Editorial** is defined as public relations by 3/5 academic public relations definitions.

- Grunig and Hunt's (1984) definition defines a NZ Herald editorial as public relations, as it is managed.
- Cutlip et al.'s (2006) definition defines a NZ Herald editorial as not public relations, as it is not two-way communication.
- Peake's (1980) definition defines a NZ Herald editorial as public relations, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour.
- L'Etang's (2008) definition defines a NZ Herald editorial as not public relations, as it is not two-way communication.
- Heath's (2001) definition defines a NZ Herald editorial as public relations, as it is mutually beneficial.

A **NZ Herald Editorial** is defined as advertising by 5/5 academic advertising definitions.

- Lane et al.'s (2011) definition defines a NZ Herald editorial as advertising, as it is persuasive, paid for, from an identifiable source and focuses on selling a product.
- Richards and Curran's (2002) definition defines a NZ Herald editorial as advertising, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour, is persuasive, paid for and from an identifiable source.
- Belch and Belch's (2012) definition defines a NZ Herald editorial as advertising, as it is paid for, non-personal and from an identifiable source.
- Gordon's (2011) definition defines a NZ Herald editorial as advertising, as media space/time is paid for.
- Dahlen and Rosengren's (2016) definition defines a NZ Herald editorial as advertising, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour.

A **NZ Herald Editorial** is defined as not public relations by the public relations industry definition, as it is not two-way communication.

A **NZ Herald Editorial** is defined as advertising by the advertising industry definition, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour and is persuasive.

A **NZ Herald Editorial** is defined as advertising by the organisation's public relations practitioner, as it is paid for.

A **NZ Herald Editorial** is defined as both public relations and advertising by the organisation's advertising practitioner, as it is in an organic environment (public relations), and is paid for (advertising).

A **NZ Herald Editorial** is defined as both public relations and advertising by the organisation, as it was conducted by both the public relations and advertising teams.

Table 13: NZ Herald editorial adherence to public relations and advertising definitions

	Public relations	Advertising
Academia ¹	3/5	5/5
Industry	X	✓
PR practitioner	X	✓
Adv practitioner	✓	✓
Organisation	✓	✓

Table 14: Themes of public relations and advertising in NZ Herald editorials

Public relations	Not public relations	Advertising	Not advertising
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managed • Public opinion/behaviour • Persuasive • Mutually beneficial • Organic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not two-way communication 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Persuasive • Paid for • Identifiable source • Selling product • Public opinion/behaviour • Non-personal 	

¹Academic definitions of public relations and advertising

PR definitions	Grunig & Hunt (1984)	Cutlip et al. (2006)	Peake (1980)	L'Etang (2008)	Heath (2001)
	✓	X	✓	X	✓
Adv definitions	Lane et al. (2011)	Richards & Curran (2002)	Belch & Belch (2012)	Gordon (2011)	Dahlen & Rosengren (2016)
	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

User-generated Content

Consumer-initiated brand-related engagement across social media platforms.

User-generated Content is defined as public relations by 2/5 academic public relations definitions.

- Grunig and Hunt's (1984) definition defines user-generated content as not public relations, as it is not managed.
- Cutlip et al.'s (2006) definition defines user-generated content as not public relations, as it is not managed.
- Peake's (1980) definition defines user-generated content as not public relations, as it is not persuasive.
- L'Etang's (2008) definition defines user-generated content as public relations, as it is two-way communication and aims to impact reputation.
- Heath's (2001) definition defines user-generated content as public relations, as it is mutually beneficial.

User-generated Content is defined as advertising by 1/5 academic advertising definitions.

- Lane et al.'s (2011) definition defines user-generated content as not advertising, as it is not persuasive, paid for, from an identifiable source and does not focus on selling a product.
- Richards and Curran's (2002) definition defines user-generated content as not advertising, as it is not persuasive, paid for, or from an identifiable source.
- Belch and Belch's (2012) definition defines user-generated content as not advertising, as it is not paid for or from an identifiable source.
- Gordon's (2011) definition defines user-generated content as not advertising, as media space/time is not paid for.
- Dahlen and Rosengren's (2016) definition defines user-generated content as advertising, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour.

User-generated Content is defined as public relations by the public relations industry definition, as it is mutually beneficial, two-way communication and aims to impact public opinion/behaviour.

User-generated Content is defined as not advertising by the advertising industry definition, as it is not persuasive.

User-generated Content is defined as both public relations and advertising by the organisation's public relations practitioner, as for the campaign it was run by the advertising team, but it is a more public relations-type activity.

User-generated Content is defined as public relations by the organisation's advertising practitioner, as it is not paid for.

User-generated Content is defined as advertising by the organisation, as it was conducted by the advertising team.

Table 15: User-generated content adherence to public relations and advertising definitions

	Public relations	Advertising
Academia ¹	2/5	1/5
Industry	✓	X
PR practitioner	✓	✓
Adv practitioner	✓	X
Organisation	X	✓

Table 16: Themes of public relations and advertising in user-generated content

Public relations	Not public relations	Advertising	Not advertising
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Two-way communication Reputation Mutually beneficial Public opinion/behaviour Not paid for 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Not managed Not persuasive 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Public opinion/behaviour 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Not persuasive Not paid for Not identifiable source Not selling product

¹Academic definitions of public relations and advertising

PR definitions	Grunig & Hunt (1984)	Cutlip et al. (2006)	Peake (1980)	L'Etang (2008)	Heath (2001)
	X	X	X	✓	✓
Adv definitions	Lane et al. (2011)	Richards & Curran (2002)	Belch & Belch (2012)	Gordon (2011)	Dahlen & Rosengren (2016)
	X	X	X	X	✓

Facebook Video

A video created by Fonterra and uploaded to their Facebook page.

A **Facebook video** is defined as public relations by 3/5 academic public relations definitions.

- Grunig and Hunt's (1984) definition defines a Facebook video as public relations, as it is managed.
- Cutlip et al.'s (2006) definition defines a Facebook video as not public relations, as it is not mutually beneficial.
- Peake's (1980) definition defines a Facebook video as public relations, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour and is persuasive.
- L'Etang's (2008) definition defines a Facebook video as public relations, as it is two-way communication and aims to impact reputation.
- Heath's (2001) definition defines a Facebook video as not public relations, as it is not mutually beneficial.

A **Facebook video** is defined as advertising by 4/5 academic advertising definitions.

- Lane et al.'s (2011) definition defines a Facebook video as advertising, as it is persuasive, paid for, from an identifiable source and focuses on selling a product.
- Richards and Curran's (2002) definition defines a Facebook video as advertising, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour, is persuasive, paid for and from an identifiable source.
- Belch and Belch's (2012) definition defines a Facebook video as advertising, as it is paid for, non-personal and from an identifiable source.
- Gordon's (2011) definition defines a Facebook video as not advertising, as media space/time is not paid for.
- Dahlen and Rosengren's (2016) definition defines a Facebook video as advertising, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour.

A **Facebook video** is defined as not public relations by the public relations industry definition, as it is not mutually beneficial.

A **Facebook video** is defined as advertising by the advertising industry definition, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour and is persuasive.

A **Facebook video** is defined as advertising by the organisation's public relations practitioner, as it is paid for.

A **Facebook video** is defined as advertising by the organisation's advertising practitioner, as it is paid for.

A **Facebook video** is defined as both public relations and advertising by the organisation, as it was conducted by both the public relations and advertising teams.

Table 17: Facebook video adherence to public relations and advertising definitions

	Public relations	Advertising
Academia ¹	3/5	4/5
Industry	X	✓
PR practitioner	X	✓
Adv practitioner	X	✓
Organisation	✓	✓

Table 18: Themes of public relations and advertising in Facebook videos

Public relations	Not public relations	Advertising	Not advertising
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managed • Public opinion/behaviour • Persuasive • Two-way comm • Reputation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not mutually beneficial 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Persuasive • Paid • Identifiable source • Selling product • Public opinion/behaviour • Non-personal 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Media space not paid

¹Academic definitions of public relations and advertising

PR definitions	Grunig & Hunt (1984)	Cutlip et al. (2006)	Peake (1980)	L'Etang (2008)	Heath (2001)
	✓	X	✓	✓	X
Adv definitions	Lane et al. (2011)	Richards & Curran (2002)	Belch & Belch (2012)	Gordon (2011)	Dahlen & Rosengren (2016)
	✓	✓	✓	X	✓

Press Advertisement

An advertisement that appears in print media such as newspapers.

A **Press Advertisement** is defined as public relations by 2/5 academic public relations definitions.

- Grunig and Hunt's (1984) definition defines a press advertisement as public relations, as it is managed.
- Cutlip et al.'s (2006) definition defines a press advertisement as not public relations, as it is not mutually beneficial or two-way communication.
- Peake's (1980) definition defines a press advertisement as public relations, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour and is persuasive.
- L'Etang's (2008) definition defines a press advertisement as not public relations, as it is not two-way communication.
- Heath's (2001) definition defines a press advertisement as not public relations, as it is not mutually beneficial.

A **Press Advertisement** is defined as advertising by 5/5 academic advertising definitions.

- Lane et al.'s (2011) definition defines a press advertisement as advertising, as it is persuasive, paid for, from an identifiable source and focuses on selling a product.
- Richards and Curran's (2002) definition defines a press advertisement as advertising, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour, is persuasive, paid for and from an identifiable source.
- Belch and Belch's (2012) definition defines a press advertisement as advertising, as it is paid for, non-personal and from an identifiable source.
- Gordon's (2011) definition defines a press advertisement as advertising, as media space/time is paid for.
- Dahlen and Rosengren's (2016) definition defines a press advertisement as advertising, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour.

A **Press Advertisement** is defined as not public relations by the public relations industry definition, as it is not mutually beneficial or two-way communication.

A **Press Advertisement** is defined as advertising by the advertising industry definition, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour and is persuasive.

A **Press Advertisement** is defined as advertising by the organisation's public relations practitioner, as it is paid for.

A **Press Advertisement** is defined as advertising by the organisation's advertising practitioner, as it is paid for.

A **Press Advertisement** is defined as both public relations and advertising by the organisation, as it was conducted by both the public relations and advertising teams.

Table 19: Press advertisement adherence to public relations and advertising definitions

	Public relations	Advertising
Academia ¹	2/5	5/5
Industry	X	✓
PR practitioner	X	✓
Adv practitioner	X	✓
Organisation	✓	✓

Table 20: Themes of public relations and advertising in press advertisement

Public relations	Not public relations	Advertising	Not advertising
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managed • Public opinion/behaviour • Persuasive 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not mutually beneficial • Not two-way communication 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Persuasive • Paid • Identifiable source • Selling product • Public opinion/behaviour • Non-personal 	

¹Academic definitions of public relations and advertising

PR definitions	Grunig & Hunt (1984)	Cutlip et al. (2006)	Peake (1980)	L'Etang (2008)	Heath (2001)
	✓	X	✓	X	X
Adv definitions	Lane et al. (2011)	Richards & Curran (2002)	Belch & Belch (2012)	Gordon (2011)	Dahlen & Rosengren (2016)
	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

eDM

The sending of emails from Fonterra directly to primary schools.

An **eDM** is defined as public relations by 2/5 academic public relations definitions.

- Grunig and Hunt's (1984) definition defines an eDM as public relations, as it is managed.
- Cutlip et al.'s (2006) definition defines an eDM as not public relations, as it is not mutually beneficial or two-way communication.
- Peake's (1980) definition defines an eDM as public relations, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour and is persuasive.
- L'Etang's (2008) definition defines an eDM as not public relations, as it is not two-way communication and does not aim to impact reputation.
- Heath's (2001) definition defines an eDM as not public relations, as it is not mutually beneficial.

An **eDM** is defined as advertising by 4/5 academic advertising definitions.

- Lane et al.'s (2011) definition defines an eDM as advertising, as it is persuasive, paid for, from an identifiable source and focuses on selling a product.
- Richards and Curran's (2002) definition defines an eDM as advertising, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour, is persuasive, paid for and from an identifiable source.
- Belch and Belch's (2012) definition defines an eDM as advertising, as it is paid for, non-personal and from an identifiable source.
- Gordon's (2011) definition defines an eDM as not advertising, as media space/time is not paid for.
- Dahlen and Rosengren's (2016) definition defines an eDM as advertising, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour.

An **eDM** is defined as not public relations by the public relations industry definition, as it is not mutually beneficial or two-way communication.

An **eDM** is defined as advertising by the advertising industry definition, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour and is persuasive.

An **eDM** is defined as advertising by the organisation’s public relations practitioner, as it is paid for.

An **eDM** is defined as advertising by the organisation’s advertising practitioner, as it is paid for.

An **eDM** is defined as advertising by the organisation, as it was conducted by the advertising team.

Table 21: eDM adherence to public relations and advertising definitions

	Public relations	Advertising
Academia ¹	2/5	4/5
Industry	X	✓
PR practitioner	X	✓
Adv practitioner	X	✓
Organisation	X	✓

Table 22: Themes of public relations and advertising in eDMs

Public relations	Not public relations	Advertising	Not advertising
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managed • Public opinion/behaviour • Persuasive 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not mutually beneficial • Not two-way communication • Not reputation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Persuasive • Paid • Identifiable source • Selling product • Public opinion/behaviour • Non-personal 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Media space not paid

¹Academic definitions of public relations and advertising

PR definitions	Grunig & Hunt (1984)	Cutlip et al. (2006)	Peake (1980)	L’Etang (2008)	Heath (2001)
	✓	X	X	X	X
Adv definitions	Lane et al. (2011)	Richards & Curran (2002)	Belch & Belch (2012)	Gordon (2011)	Dahlen & Rosengren (2016)
	✓	✓	✓	X	✓

Media Liaison

Leading journalists to the school activations to gain media coverage.

Media Liaison is defined as public relations by 5/5 academic public relations definitions.

- Grunig and Hunt's (1984) definition defines media liaison as public relations, as it is managed.
- Cutlip et al.'s (2006) definition defines media liaison as public relations, as it is mutually beneficial, two-way communication and managed.
- Peake's (1980) definition defines media liaison as public relations, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour and is persuasive.
- L'Etang's (2008) definition defines media liaison as public relations, as it is two-way communication and aims to impact reputation.
- Heath's (2001) definition defines media liaison as public relations, as it is mutually beneficial.

Media Liaison is defined as advertising by 1/5 academic advertising definitions.

- Lane et al.'s (2011) definition defines media liaison as not advertising, as it is not paid for and the final result is not from an identifiable source.
- Richards and Curran's (2002) definition defines media liaison as not advertising, as it is not paid for and the final result is not from an identifiable source.
- Belch and Belch's (2012) definition defines media liaison as not advertising, as it is not paid for and the final result is not from an identifiable source.
- Gordon's (2011) definition defines media liaison as not advertising, as media space/time is not paid for.
- Dahlen and Rosengren's (2016) definition defines media liaison as advertising, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour.

Media Liaison is defined as public relations by the public relations industry definition, as it is mutually beneficial, two-way communication and aims to impact public opinion/behaviour.

Media Liaison is defined as advertising by the advertising industry definition, as it aims to impact public opinion/behaviour and is persuasive.

Media Liaison is defined as public relations by the organisation’s public relations practitioner, as it is earned media.

Media Liaison is defined as public relations by the organisation’s advertising practitioner, as it is not paid for and involves the media.

Media Liaison is defined as public relations by the organisation, as it was conducted by the public relations team.

Table 23: Media liaison adherence to public relations and advertising definitions

	Public relations	Advertising
Academia ¹	5/5	1/5
Industry	✓	✓
PR practitioner	✓	X
Adv practitioner	✓	X
Organisation	✓	X

Table 24: Themes of public relations and advertising in media liaison

Public relations	Not public relations	Advertising	Not advertising
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managed • Mutually beneficial • Two-way communication • Public opinion/behaviour • Persuasive • Not paid • Media • Third-party source 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Persuasive • Public opinion/behaviour 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not paid • Third-party source

¹Academic definitions of public relations and advertising

PR definitions	Grunig & Hunt (1984)	Cutlip et al. (2006)	Peake (1980)	L’Etang (2008)	Heath (2001)
	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Adv definitions	Lane et al. (2011)	Richards & Curran (2002)	Belch & Belch (2012)	Gordon (2011)	Dahlen & Rosengren (2016)
	X	X	X	X	✓