

When Richer is Poorer; Understanding the Influence of Channel Richness and Presence on the Introduction of a Mission Statement

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Abstract

Developing and implementing mission statements continues to be a widely used managerial strategy. This study presents and tests a model grounded in presence and media richness for evaluating the effectiveness of using a video versus a paper strategy for introducing a mission statement to members of an organization. Outcomes include participants' recall of the statement, involvement with the statement, and perceived importance of the statement. Results suggest: a) channel richness does not directly impact the three outcomes, b) the richer video channel resulted in less presence, and c) greater presence positively impacted all three outcomes. The implications of these results are discussed for both presence scholarship and organizational practitioners.

1. Introduction

Organizational mission represents the purpose, strategy, values, and behavioral standards of an organization. It identifies the organization's aim, purpose, or reason for being [1] by answering the question 'why are we here?' [2] Organizations often formalize these issues by developing a written *mission statement*. " 'Why do we exist?' 'What is our purpose?' and 'What do we want to achieve?' are some of the fundamental questions that a mission statement aims to answer" (p. 19) [3]. They often incorporate values encouraged by the organization [4] and specify both the organization's and its members' primary duty or way of behaving [5, 6, 7, 8]. Pearce and David [9] characterize mission statements as "the operational, ethical, and financial guiding lights of companies." (p. 110).

Developing and implementing mission statements continues to be a widely used managerial strategy in all types of organizations. Bart [10] reported nine out of 10 executives had used a mission statement in the past five years. A 1995 survey showed six out of ten large U.S. firms had developed statements [4]. Types of organizations utilizing mission statements include health care providers [11], public school systems [12], libraries [13], philanthropic organizations [14], nonprofits [15, 16], accounting firms [17] and universities [18, 19]. Mission statements have been identified as a means for guiding environmentally

responsible corporate behavior [20], several state legislatures have mandated that all their agencies develop a mission statement [21], and strategic managers often view a mission statement as the first step in the strategic management process [22, 23]. Readers of this manuscript need only briefly peruse their organization's website or walk down the hall to find a mission statement.

Notwithstanding the vast financial and intellectual resources spent towards developing and implementing mission statements, "A consistent theme running through the organizational development literature on corporate Mission Statements is an acknowledged widespread failure in their implementation" [2] (p. 243). One particular neglected area of research concerns the relative efficacy of strategies for introducing a mission statement to the members of an organization. Researchers and practitioners agree that the strategy used to introduce the mission statement into an organization is critical to its success or failure [24]. Two widely used strategies are videotaping a recognized leader introducing the statement or developing a written introduction from a respected source. Studies are needed that a) systematically evaluate the effectiveness of implementation strategies that use different channels or modalities of communication, and b) utilize appropriate theories and concepts to provide explanations for findings.

This study begins to address this need by examining the effectiveness of using video versus written channels for introducing a mission statement. First, a conceptual model is presented that uses information richness theory and the concept of presence to predict which strategies for introducing the mission statement of an organization will be most effective, and hypotheses deduced from the model are introduced; the top part of Figure 1 summarizes our model. Since no previous studies have examined this issue, we begin by identifying outcomes we use to evaluate the effectiveness of the two strategies. Next, we describe a study that tests the hypotheses. Lastly, we summarize and discuss the results of the study.

2. Model of the effectiveness of strategies for introducing mission statements

2.1. Outcomes for Assessing Channel Effectiveness

Our analysis will examine whether the following three outcomes systematically vary between strategies for introducing a mission statement: a) accuracy of recall of the statement, b) personal involvement with the statement, and c) evaluation of the importance of the statement. The first outcome, participants' *recall* of the statement, indicates the extent to which they were able to remember the major elements or themes in the statement. The second outcome is participants' *personal involvement* with the statement. Involvement is a concept frequently used in marketing and advertising research that signifies arousal or interest [25], and assesses whether a message is relevant or important to the receiver of the message. Higher personal involvement with the mission statement would indicate a more effective strategy, since this would suggest a more positive response to the statement. The third outcome, evaluation of the *importance* of the statement, indicates the extent to which participants felt the elements of the statement represent the activities the organization should be engaged in.

2.2. Richness of Communication Channel

Media richness theory proposes that media with certain characteristics are more effective for communicating complex messages [26, 27, 28]. Specifically, communication channels that: a) allow immediate feedback, b) facilitate the use of multiple communication cues (e.g., verbal and nonverbal), c) make available the use of natural language, and d) are able to convey a personal focus have greater richness. Richness theorists suggest that channels may be placed on a richest-to-poorest continuum based on their combination of the four characteristics [26], with face-to-face communication considered the richest channel and impersonal correspondences such as memos or bulletin board postings the poorest. Managers and practitioners exhibit effectiveness when they select a channel that is appropriate to the ambiguity or equivocality of a specific problem or context, with richer being effective for complex messages and situations.

A strategy that incorporates a video introduction of a mission statement is utilizing a richer channel compared to a paper strategy. First, video allows the multiple cues of spoken words, vocal inflections, dress, and gestures for emphasizing main points and communicating enthusiasm, while the paper introduction relies on written words. Second video allows the speaker to utilize more natural language that matches his/her personal style, while the paper strategy allows zero adaptation. Since organizational mission statements are complex messages when first introduced to members of organizations that often incorporate jargon-filled phrases and lengthy sentences, media richness theory suggests the video strategy would be the appropriate choice. Further, the multiplicity of cues and natural language may help increase the level of attention of those receiving the message. This suggests the following:

H1: Members who are introduced to the mission statement with a richer channel (video) will be more likely to remember the statement.

H2: Members who are introduced to the mission statement with a richer channel (video) will be more likely to have greater personal involvement with the statement.

H3: Members who are introduced to the mission statement with a richer channel (video) will be more likely to report the statement as being important.

2.3. The Mediating Role of Presence

One problem with richness approaches is that they neglect the psychological experience of media. They are deterministic in that they assume characteristics of the communication channel directly effect outcomes of exposure when it more likely depends on how a given strategy is experienced by users. Similar concerns were raised by organizational scholars seeking to understand the influence of technology in organizations [29, 30, 31]. To overcome this problem, scholars suggest considering technology from a human rather than a hardware perspective [32], and the concept of *presence* provides the mechanism through which this can happen. The International Society for Presence Research [33] defines presence as “a psychological state or subjective perception in which even though part or all of an individual's current experience is generated by and/or filtered through human-made technology, part or all of the individual's perception fails to accurately acknowledge the role of the technology in the experience.” It includes the sensations of feeling “in” a media environment (or *spatial presence*) [34] and “with” mediated others (or *social presence*) [35], among several possible dimensions [36, 37, 38]. In general, definitions of presence share in common the assumption that the way in which people perceive mediated communication is important. As a result, presence serves as a crucial mediating variable in media research that can account for more variance and help better explain modality effects [39].

In the case of presence and mission statements, no studies to date have connected the two, but there is some research relevant to message statement delivery. Chaiken and Eagly [40] conducted one of the first studies on how modality affects persuasion. They presented subjects with a message delivered by either a likable or unlikable communicator through one of three modalities: print, audiotape, or videotape. The likable communicator was found to be more persuasive in the audio and video modalities than in print, whereas the unlikable communicator was more persuasive in the print modality than through audio or video. It was concluded that the video and audio modalities enhanced the salience of communicator information, leading those characteristics to exert a stronger influence on persuasion. Skalski and Tamborini [41] replicated aspects of this study and added presence as a mediating variable. They argued that presence with the

source of a message makes source cues more prominent in memory, leading to an increase in source-based judgments affecting attitude, consistent with predictions of the Heuristic-Systematic Model (HSM) of persuasion [42]. To test this, they conducted an experiment varying the vividness of source information by having subjects view a message in print form or through one of three video screen sizes. Findings were generally consistent with predictions, as presence was higher in the video conditions than through print, and it affected both source and message information processing leading to attitude. These findings demonstrate that the manner in which information is presented (such as a mission statement) can not only have differential effects on presence but also affect further outcomes of exposure via presence.

There are numerous options for presenting mission statements in today's diverse media environment, with documented effects on presence. Prior research has examined how media form variables such as television screen size [43] and television image quality [44], among others, relate to presence. A related stream of research has looked at the power of print media to "transport" readers to other places [45]. Given that mission statements are still frequently introduced in print form, this study, as discussed earlier, looks at how presenting a mission statement through video compares to print. Steuer [32] argues that audio-visual media like television should have a stronger impact on presence than print media, for example, as function of *vividness*, or "the ability of a technology to produce a sensorially rich mediated environment" (p. 10). Steuer's conceptualization of vividness aligns it with information richness approaches and suggests that a "richer" channel should make aspects of the source and message environment more "there" with the recipient of a mission statement, as demonstrated in work by Skalski and Tamborini [41] and others. This logic informs the next hypothesis:

H4: Presence will be higher in response to a mission statement introduced through video than the same message presented in print form.

The sense of presence message recipients experience should relate to the outcomes of mission statement exposure discussed earlier. Although presence is typically viewed as an intensifier of effects, with more presence leading to greater outcomes [39], this may not be the case for all dependent variables. Skalski, Tamborini, Glazer, & Smith [46], for example, found that presence in response to an anti-drinking PSA impeded message recall, presumably because it reduced message elaboration and made peripheral information more salient. In the case of an outcome variable such as involvement, however, it seems likely that presence would relate positively, and involvement has even been a part of some presence conceptualizations [47]. Given that most work on presence has treated it as a positive influence, as did the information richness predictions earlier, the following hypotheses treat presence in the same manner:

H5: Greater presence will relate positively to recall of the mission statement.

H6: Greater presence will relate positively to personal involvement with the mission statement.

H7: Greater presence will relate positively to perceived importance of the mission statement.

Our final hypothesis examines the role of individual differences in the experience of presence, specifically *receiver apprehension*. This trait-like disposition has been the focus of several investigations in the communication literature [48, 49] and refers to "the fear of misinterpreting, inadequately processing, and/or not being able to adjust psychologically to messages sent by others" [50] (p. 263). Receiver apprehension has particular relevance to the experience of presence because both deal with people's psychological responses to communication. Although no studies to date have empirically examined this connection, it makes sense that message recipients high in receiver apprehension would experience less presence due to the anxiety they have about decoding and processing messages. The opposite should also be true—recipients low in receiver apprehension should be more likely to experience presence because they more readily accept communication content. The present study will examine this relationship due its particular relevance to mission statements, which are a strong, message-centric type of content. Linking receiver apprehension to presence also answers the call for more research on media user variables determining presence [36]. The following final hypothesis is therefore advanced:

H8: Members with higher receiver apprehension will experience less presence.

3. Methods

The experiment took place at a large mid-western university located in an urban environment. The university President was approached, and he agreed to participate in the study by being videotaped introducing the mission statement of the university. The researchers developed two separate introductions. The first gave a general description of the university and then specified the mission. The second was identical to the first, but added three additional paragraphs that provided examples illustrating the major themes of the mission statement.¹ For the video condition, the university President was taped introducing the statement, and began by saying 'Hello, I'm Xxx, President of Xxxx University.' For the paper condition, the introductions were printed on a letterhead from the Office of the President, and the President's name clearly appeared at the top of the page. The mission statement of the university is:

Our mission is to encourage the development of human and humane knowledge in the arts, sciences, humanities and

¹ Analysis not included in this manuscript focuses on the possible influence of these differences. Since participants were randomly assigned to the experimental conditions, any effects will be distributed evenly here.

professions through scholarship, creative activity and research while providing an accessible and contemporary education to all individuals. We are here to serve and engage the public and prepare our students to lead productive, responsible and satisfying lives in the region and global society.

A total of 262 persons enrolled in a variety of communication courses were recruited to participate in the study, of which 236 were full time students. Forty were freshmen, 34 were sophomores, 88 were juniors, 81 were seniors, 14 were graduate students, and five either did not report their class rank or were not taking the course for credit as a college student. One hundred eighty three participants were white, 48 were black, 4 were Asian, 8 were Hispanic, and 19 were other or did not report their ethnic origin. One hundred two were male, and the average age was 24.50 years (ranging from 18-47). Additionally, 218 participants reported working in addition to being a college student an average of 23 hours a week. This sample is appropriate for several reasons. First, students at this university are both older than traditional college students and most have considerable work experience outside their academic pursuits, and thus are familiar with managerial strategies such as mission statements. Second, these students frequently are either paying their own tuition or taking out their own student loans, and have tremendous expectations of getting value for their investment. Third, universities are increasingly concerned with branding themselves in their marketplace and view current students as important agents for communicating the brand to external audiences. Finally, universities recognize that positive experiences by current students helps to both improve retention rates and future financial contributions after graduation. Mission statement strategies are appropriate for addressing these issues.

Upon entering a room, participants sat at a table and were given an informed consent form to sign and a survey. Page one of the survey asked whether they knew the mission statement of the university (yes or no). Of the study participants, only one reported knowing the statement, and her results were not included in any analysis. Participants were then asked to move to one of two additional rooms; to ensure randomness, every other person was directed to each respective room. In the first room, there was a table that had the paper introduction to the statement. Participants were asked to read the introduction, and to return to the other room when completed. In the second room, participants were asked to sit in front of a flat screen color television, and asked to return to the first room when a video was finished. A researcher then started the video of the mission statement introduction. When participants returned to the first room, they returned to their seat, and completed the survey.

3.1. Instrumentation

3.1.1. Dependent variables

The first dependent variable, immediate recall of the mission statement, was measured using the following procedures. First, the initial question on the outcome survey asked participants to provide the mission statement of the university. Each response was coded for the presence of the three main themes of: a) providing an accessible and affordable education, b) creating knowledge through faculty research and activities, and c) engaging and supporting the surrounding community. Two researchers independently coded for the presence of each of these themes. The lead author calculated the Cohen's Kappa intercoder reliability for each of the three categories, where agreement was defined as when both coders indicated the presence of the respective theme, and disagreement was defined as when one coder indicated the presence of a theme and the other did not. The reliability for the three themes was .90, .83, and .77. In all cases where disagreements occurred, the coders met and resolved the differences. Recall was taken as the number of the three main themes that a given participant reported, and ranged from zero to three.

The second dependent variable, level of personal involvement participants had with the statement, was measured with the Personal Involvement Inventory [51]. This instrument is a 20 item semantic differential scale with seven points between the bipolar items. Participants are asked to judge the item being evaluated (in this case, the mission statement) against 20 descriptive scales according to how they perceive the item. Examples of the bipolar scales include: Important-Unimportant; Valuable-Worthless; Trivial-Fundamental; Significant-Insignificant; and Boring-Interesting. Further information on the reliability and validity of this instrument, along with the complete scale may be found in Rubin, Palmgreen, and Sypher [52]. A Cronbach's alpha of .96 shows the scale was unidimensional.

The third dependent variable, evaluation of the importance of the mission statement, was measured using three seven point Likert scales. Participants were asked for their level of agreement that each of the three main themes in the mission statement was important, where one indicated they strongly disagreed the theme was important and seven indicated strong agreement with the importance of the theme. Responses for these items were averaged to provide an indication of how participants evaluated the importance of the mission statement. A Cronbach's alpha of .86 shows the scale was unidimensional.

3.1.2. Independent variables

Two dimensions of presence were measured: immersion and transportation, using scales developed by Lombard and Ditton [53] and Green and Brock [54], respectively. The Cronbach's alpha for immersion was .89 and for transportation was .76. Additionally, the alpha for both scales combined was .88, indicating that these two conceptually distinct dimensions were behaving as a unidimensional scale in this study. Thus, for the sake of

parsimony, we combined these into one “presence” scale for the analysis and results reported here. This approach is consistent with Lombard and Ditton’s [36] seminal explication, which identified both immersion and transportation as conceptualizations of presence. To reduce concerns readers might have about combining measures of immersion and transportation, however, we also ran our analysis two additional times using the separate scales for immersion and transportation and the results did not qualitatively change; these results are available from the authors upon request.

Receiver apprehension was measured using a 20 item scale developed by Wheelless [50]. It included a series of five-point Likert statements getting the tendency of respondents to feel anxiety or uncertainty in response to messages, such as “Receiving new information makes me feel restless” and “It is often difficult for me to concentrate on what others are saying.” The alpha for this instrument was .88.

4. Analysis

Hypotheses one, two, and three predicted that participants who were introduced to the mission statement with the richer video strategy would be more likely to remember the statement, have greater personal involvement with the statement, and evaluate the statement as being important. Three t-tests with channel (video or paper) as the grouping factor were run to test these hypotheses. Hypothesis four predicted that presence would be greater in the richer video condition; this was also tested with a t-test.

Hypotheses five, six, and seven predicted that greater presence would positively relate to recall of the mission statement, personal involvement with the mission statement,

and perceived importance of the mission statement. These hypotheses were tested through path analysis using the least

squares method. This involves estimating the sizes of the model parameters and testing the overall model fit. Parameter size was estimated by regressing each endogenous variable onto its causal antecedent, and model fit was tested by comparing estimated parameter sizes to the reproduced correlations; Hunter & Gerbing [55] provide a more complete description of this analysis procedure. In short, a model that is consistent with the data is one which a) has substantial path coefficients, b) has differences between parameter estimates and reproduced correlations (errors) that are no greater than what would be expected through sampling error, and c) passes a test of overall model fit, indicated by a non-significant chi-square goodness of fit result. For a model to be judged consistent with the data, it had to pass all three of the above criteria. The PATH program was used to determine if the model advanced in this study (see Figure 1) met these criteria. Note that all correlations were corrected for attenuation due to measurement error during the analysis procedure, and that communication channel was coded so that the paper condition equaled one and the video condition equaled two. Thus, the first four hypotheses were tested a second time in this model, but with presence as a mediating variable.

4. Results

Table 1 provides the correlations amongst the variables of the study, with the exception of the categorical communication channel variable. These results provide some preliminary support in favor of our model. First, as expected, the presence independent variable positively correlates with

Table 1
Correlations

	1	2	3	4	5
1 Mission Statement Recall	-	.20**	.16*	.17**	-.02
2 Personal Involvement with Mission Statement		-	.41**	.61**	-.17**
3 Importance of Mission Statement			-	.35**	-.06
4 Presence				-	-.22**
5 Communication Apprehension					-

* $p < .05$, 2 tailed

** $p < .01$, 2 tailed

the three dependent variables mission statement recall ($r = .17, p < .05$), personal involvement with the mission statement ($r = .61, p < .05$), and importance of the mission statement ($r = .35, p < .05$). Additionally, receiver apprehension was negatively associated with presence ($r = -.22, p < .05$) as predicted.

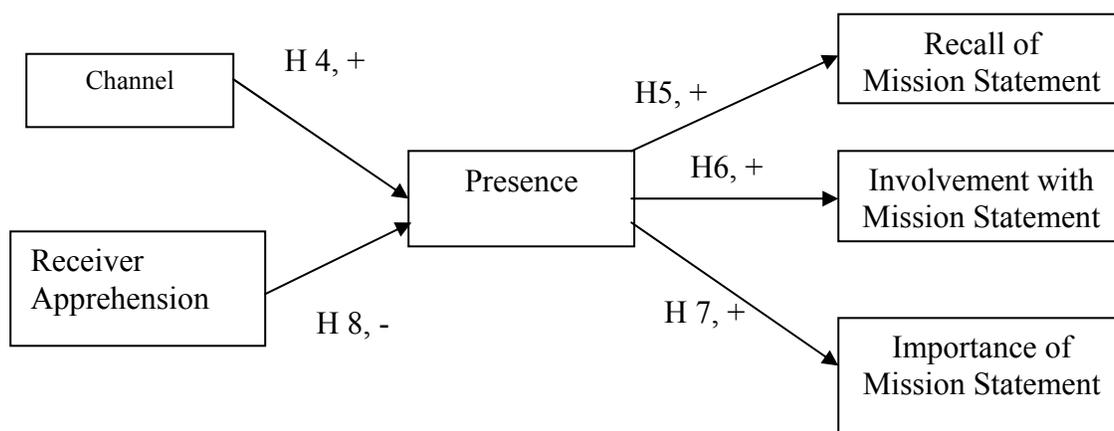
Hypotheses one, two, three, and four were tested in two ways: first using t tests with communication channel (paper versus video) as the grouping factor, and second using Path Analysis with a dummy code for channel. The results were contrary to expectations. Hypothesis one predicted those in the richer video group would be more likely to recall the statement; there was no significant difference ($t = 1.41, ns$). Hypothesis two predicted the video group would be more likely to have greater personal involvement with the mission statement; there was a significant difference opposite that which was predicted in that those in the paper condition reported greater involvement with the statement ($t = 1.91, p < .05$). Hypothesis three predicted those in the video group

would be more likely to report the mission statement as being important; there were no significant differences ($t = -.62, ns$). Hypothesis four predicted there would be greater presence in the video condition. Contrary to expectations, there was greater presence in the paper condition ($t = 5.04, p < .05$).

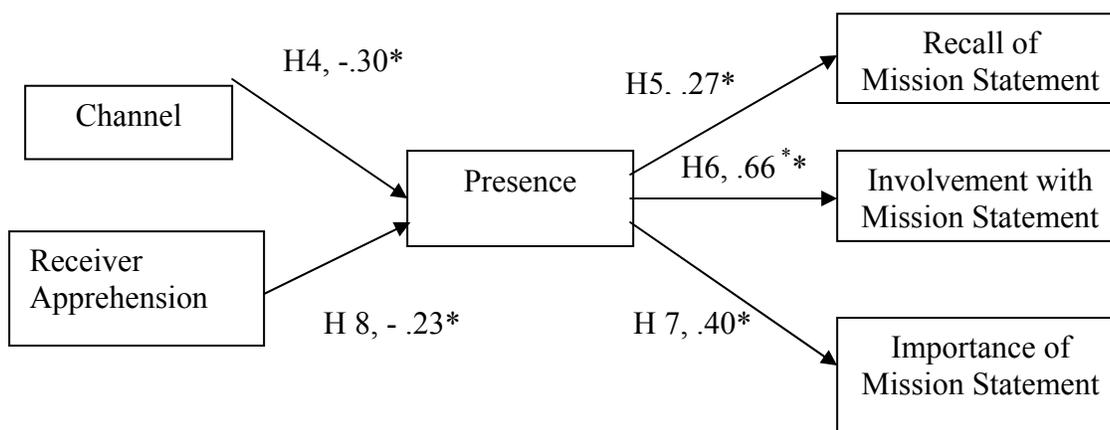
For our Path Analysis, communication was coded so that the paper condition equaled 1 and the video condition equaled 2. The bottom part of Figure 1 summarizes the results, which were consistent with the t tests. Again, contrary to expectations, there was less presence for those in the richer video condition compared to the paper condition (path coefficient = $-.30, p < .05$).

Figure 1

Model of Hypothesized Relationships (top) and Illustration of Results (bottom)



Signs next to each H (Hypothesis) indicate direction of predicted relationship.



* = significant at $p < .05$
 $\chi^2 (9) = 10.94, p = .280$

The following three hypotheses used presence as an independent variable and predicted it would have a positive impact on the outcomes of the study. Hypothesis five predicted that greater presence would increase recall of the mission statement; this was supported (path coefficient = .27, $p < .05$). Hypothesis six predicted that greater presence would increase personal involvement with the statement; this was supported (path coefficient = .66, $p < .05$). Hypothesis seven predicted greater presence would improve the general evaluation of the importance of the mission; this was also supported (path coefficient = .40, $p < .05$). The final hypothesis predicted participants with greater communication apprehension would be less likely to experience presence; this was supported (path coefficient = -.23, $p < .05$).

In addition to having substantial path coefficients, the model fared well on the second and third tests for model evaluation. The differences between predicted and obtained correlations for all unconstrained bivariate relationships were examined, and none were significantly different than what would be expected through sampling error except for the link between involvement and importance, which is trivial because they are dependent variables that would be expected to interrelate somewhat. Furthermore, the model passed the global test of goodness of fit, $\chi^2(9) = 10.94$, $p = .280$. Thus, the analysis of this model shows significant path coefficients, no major errors, and an easily passed the global test of goodness of fit.

5. Discussion

Developing and implementing organizational mission statements continues to be a widely used managerial strategy with generally disappointing results. Despite the continued extant importance of this strategy, communication and media scholars have provided little insight to help understand these processes. This study begins to address this need in two ways. First, it directly compares the relative efficacy of two commonly used strategies (paper versus video) for introducing a mission statement to members of an organization. Second, incorporating presence into our model allows the possible importance of the participant experience to emerge while avoiding a technologically deterministic position.

Our results were both interesting, and in some cases unexpected. Contrary to expectations, the richness of the channel utilized for introducing the mission statement did not positively influence statement recall, involvement with the statement, or evaluations of the importance of the statement. Further, those exposed to the richer video experienced *less* presence compared to those who were introduced to the mission statement using the paper strategy. These results are similar to results reported Jones (2008) [56] who found that printed material (e.g., comic books) elicited stronger presence responses for participants than when the same comic story was viewed as a film. Consistent

with expectations, greater presence during the introduction of the statement did increase recall, personal involvement, and evaluations of importance.

There were two possible reasons for the channel richness findings. The first concerns the nature of the message. In the video condition, participants were introduced to the statement at the pace of the speaker, in this case the university President. Media richness theory suggests that richer modalities are appropriate for more complex and ambiguous situations. In this case, the message itself was relatively complex, but the situation was essentially one of information distribution. It may be that the pace of the introduction on the video created an information overload situation. Conversely, participants who read the introduction were able to cognitively process the materials at their own pace, allowing greater presence. A second reason concerns the quality of the introduction provided on the video, in that the President's preferred presentation style is reading from a manuscript. While the delivery was professionally executed, many study participants commented that they expected a University president to introduce the mission statement without reading. Thus, there was a type of 'boomerang' effect of richness in that multiple cues, rather than serving as a means for being more involving, became a distraction and detracted from presence. The content being presented and the credibility of the source of the message always are important to initiatives such as introducing a mission statement; this finding suggests the credibility of the source may serve to increase expectations of the audience for the overall video quality. Future research should examine this issue.

Presence served a significant role in stimulating participants' recall of the statement, having feelings of personal involvement with the statement, and evaluating the statement as being important for the organization. This suggests that practitioners must be concerned not only with the content of efforts to implement mission statements, but also must recognize *the nature of the experience* is critical to positive outcomes as well. These results support the claim by Bracken and Skalski (2010) [39] that sensations of presence mediate outcomes. They are that presence should be seen as a mediator because the inclusion of presence as a variable often creates a connection and provides an explanation linking IVs and DVs.

Presence served as an independent variable predicting which participants would be more likely to have positive outcomes concerning the mission statement. Future research should be open to examining this predictive role in other contexts with other outcomes. Additionally, greater presence was associated with participants who had less receiver apprehension. This suggests something as simple as nervousness may inhibit creating a high presence situation. It also suggests another user variable that may be important to the experience of presence, thereby answering Lombard and Ditton's [36] call to identify individual differences important to the experience of presence.

One strength of this study was the willing participation of the university President. This both provided us with an extremely credible source for introducing the statement, and allowed for more realistic set of conditions. A factor that potentially limits the generalizability of results our sample was composed of students. Future research using similar methods in the university setting should attempt to include faculty and staff as well. These findings should also be examined in non-university settings. Greater attention should also be given to the types of presence impacted by mission statements. Although this study found consistent relationships between a mission statement message and the immersion and transportation dimensions of presence, future work should consider other potentially important presence outcomes, such as social presence (Biocca, Harms, & Burgoon, 2003; Lee, 2004) [35, 37], to see if this consistency is maintained,

Overall, this study adds to the literatures on both mission statements and presence. It identifies presence as a potentially important consideration for organizations wishing to communicate mission statement information to members. It also returns presence scholarship to its organizational communication and media richness roots (e.g., Short, Williams, and Christie, 1976) [57] by considering its role in a particular type of message transmission important in an organizational context. Future research should continue to explore the relationship between mission statements, presence, and organizational outcomes. Particularly, it should more closely examine the link between form of delivery and presence. This study found that one richer channel (video) led to less presence than a particular poorer one (print), but there are many other communication options available to organizations today, including more vivid delivery systems such high definition (HD) video and interactive technologies such as websites. Considering the effects of these and other modes of communication on presence and further outcomes of mission statement exposure can help organizations most effectively implement these important tools in the 21st century.

6. References

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