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WHAT ARE THE KEY CRITERIA THAT ACT AS THE PREDICTORS OF SUCCESS IN A SOCIAL MARKETING CAMPAIGN?

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Abstract

The study examines the theory and practice of social marketing and aims to identify key criteria that are linked to the successful outcome of social marketing campaigns. The premise underpinning the thesis is that although theory and the definition of social marketing are still being discussed, the practice is expanding rapidly around the world, with many campaigns being launched in attempts to tackle a whole range of issues. There is therefore a need to understand the efficacy of the use of benchmarks and marketing strategies employed during campaigns and to consider how these are linked to success. In order to identify and evaluate success and the various relationships with these core variables, the study utilizes a mixed method analysis of a sample of global social marketing campaign case studies from both statutory and non-statutory organizations. The research was undertaken in two stages: stage one was a qualitative survey of twelve campaigns that identified key benchmarks and strategies; stage two was a quantitative survey of one hundred case campaigns which sought to statistically assess the importance of the benchmarks and strategies.

The study identified key benchmarks and strategies that could help to develop more efficient campaigns in a climate of time and budgetary constraints. The study provides one of the first frameworks for developing future campaigns and for assessing those already undertaken. However, only a small number of benchmarks were found to be significant and no specific strategies were found to be statistically significant with regard to success. The main limitation of the study was relatively small sample size and future research should attempt to evaluate a larger sample so that a more robust statistical analysis can be undertaken.

The original contribution to knowledge that this research has generated lies in the identification of a framework for social marketing campaign design. This research presents a significant step forward in understanding the essential components of successful social marketing campaigns and identifying benchmarks that are important for success.

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1.0 CHAPTER ONE

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Social marketing has its roots in commercial marketing, which is conceptualized principally as a function of profit-making organizations (Kotler, 1982). Commercial marketing, operating on a profit-generating basis, allows for the replenishment of the marketers' stock; working on the premise of giving goods of specific value to individual customers (usually but not always what they require) and receiving stated remunerations in exchange on a contractual basis (Fill,2002). More importantly, the customers and the marketers, in this exchange of goods ideally achieve satisfaction with their transactions. Examples of such amicable and successful transactions prompted Wiebe (1951) to ask his colleagues 'why brotherhood could not be sold as toothpaste is sold'. He went on to suggest that if social issues campaigns used more commercial marketing techniques the campaigns might be more successful. However, he acknowledged that there were limitations, in particular that many social issues campaigns were carried out 'under un-market-like circumstances' (Kotler & Zaltman, 1971).

The history of social marketing is acknowledged as dating back to the 1960s when Kotler and Levy (1969) were among some of the first to suggest the widening of the traditional marketing concept (Williams 1998) to sell ideas and social issues. At that time there was a lot of controversy surrounding this concept with many authors questioning the meaning of the term social marketing, as well as the broader issues of what social marketing was supposed to do in its application (Kotler and Andreasen, 1996). These authors also expressed their concerns about the definition and functions of social marketing. Other authors such as Luck (1969, 1974) and Bartels (1974) spoke against the expansion of the application of marketing into the area of social marketing, and thus a literary discourse ensued.

The writings of Kotler and Zaltman (1971), Lazer and Kelly (1973) and Kotler (1975) gave strength and credence to the social marketing hypothesis, proffering many discussions about its definition. Lacznuiak, Lusch and Murphy (1979) joined the ongoing exchange of views and at this point added the issues of ethics to the debate. This was an important period in the historical development of social marketing and will be discussed in chapter two.

During this period of time the discussion regarding the evolution of the concept of social marketing continued. These deliberations not only contributed to the formation of present day conceptual beliefs, but resulted in a range of definitions being presented by academics, such as Kotler and Zaltman, (1971) ; Manoff, (1985); Kotler and Roberto, (1989); Andreasen, (1995); Kotler, Roberto and Lee (2002); Smith, (2006); Serrat, (2010) and Dann, (2010). Their definitions are set out in chapter two. However, to date, there is no universally agreed definition of social marketing but marketers, globally, are presently being consulted on a second draft proposed definition, the final to comprise a "descriptive definition" and a "process definition". The current draft is as follows:

"Social marketing develops and applies marketing concepts and techniques to influence and support behaviours that benefit individuals and society.

It integrates research, evidence, best practice, behavioural theory, audience, and stakeholder insight to inform the development of effective social policy, strategy, implementation and evaluation.

Social marketing practice is guided by ethical principles and contributes systematic planning and innovation to all the processes that influence the promotion of social good."(International Social Marketing Association (iSMA); European Social Marketing Association (ESMA) Programme, April, 2013). [Jeff.French@strategic-social-marketing.org].

A number of previously published and operational definitions will be examined in order to highlight the versatility of social marketing and to determine if or how the different aspects of social marketing have contributed to successful campaigns. One of these definitions from Kotler & Zaltman (1971) adds to the foundation of the social marketing concept and in many ways underpins the thinking behind this thesis. They argued that:

"Social marketing is the design, implementation, and control of programs calculated to influence the acceptability of social ideas and involving considerations of product planning, pricing, and promotion, communication, distribution, and marketing research" (Kotler & Zaltman, 1971:5).

The authors, Kotler and Zaltman, have argued that the social marketing process sets out to influence social ideas within the four 'Ps' framework of commercial marketing, namely product,

price, place and promotion. The use of these guidelines within social marketing campaigns could maximise the chances of success. Such an approach would give structure and justifies the research undertaken in this thesis.

Social marketing campaigns have taken many forms. They have dealt with an array of problems from diverse target groups around the world. For example, campaigns that have addressed reducing HIV transmission in India (Ward, 2008); health practices in Honduras promoted through mass media channels (Smith, 2002); violence in Australian families (Donovan, 2000; WHO, 1997); environmental issues in Canada (McKenzie-Mohr, 2009); HIV and mental health issues in America, (Stanton et al, 2008); the effects of negative behaviours on health, such as the misuse of alcohol, tobacco, illicit drugs and lack of beneficial physical activity in the UK (Stead et al, 2007) and the problems of obesity in England (Herrick, 2007; Prentice & Jebb, 1995; Rayner, 2006). These campaigns have applied different strategies in their marketing mix and have achieved varying results.

However, true success may sometimes be difficult to quantify because many of the campaigns deal with diverse social groups displaying diverse social problems. For example, failure of a campaign may be due to extenuating circumstances such as, the lack of facilities within the target audiences' community and / or individuals' abilities or even a lack of motivation. Success of a campaign can also be affected by the powerful influences surrounding target audiences such as, their friends and families changing their attitudes, reactions and expectations (Dagger & Sweeney, 2006). Such influences and consequent behaviours of target audiences need to be understood and addressed for social marketing campaigns to be successful. In such cases, marketers need to be receptive to simple answers or techniques that would help to truly gauge successes. The growing global popularity of social marketing in trying to influence positive behaviour for a range of societal problems, such as, issues in health, the environment and public safety (Novelli, 1990; Devlin et al, 2007; Department of Health, 1999; Grier & Bryant, 2005), suggests that practice may be getting ahead of social marketing theory. As a result, many campaigns may have less impact and therefore less success than desired.

This research was developed as a response to these concerns as it was felt that there was a need for greater understanding of the processes within social marketing most likely to deliver successful outcomes.

In undertaking such processes there is a need to look at the contributions these factors make to the marketer and target audiences' interactions, the impact on stakeholders, the part stakeholders play, their impact on behaviour changes, voluntary or involuntary, and the sustainability of such behaviour changes (Donavan & Henley, 2003).

Stakeholders are important assets to marketers, they can be from specialist research groups dealing with, for example 'smoking related cancers'; they can be from interested organisations and community groups; individuals; the media; government and specific government departments. For example, if a social marketing campaign relates to *'smoking cessation',* stakeholders would include GPs, the smokers themselves, their families, health professionals, branches of drug companies with an interest in or dealing with the topic and even members of the public.

Stakeholders play a variety of roles within social marketing and can enhance a social marketing campaign often being crucial to the campaign's successful outcome (Hastings, 2007; Lefebvre, 2013). Stakeholders in influential positions such as, health specialists, NGOs of community organisations and lobbyist are always more likely to engage actively with upstream target groups. For example, they often build relationships with policy makers and politicians and can encourage them to take actions such as, improving a community's infra-structure and the injection of much needed finances to enable downstream target audiences to achieve the behavioural changes desired.

1. 2 The impact of this research on stakeholders

A stakeholder could have other vested interests in a social marketing campaign. For example, some may stand to benefit financial from behavioural change, such as a manufacturer or retailer of nicotine patches; while others may benefit in a more direct way such as, the smoker who manages to give up can enjoy a healthier body and a healthier life-style. Whatever their reasons

for being involved, social marketers need to ensure that there are no competing interests amongst the stakeholders and that the social marketing process is beneficial and fair to all.

All stakeholders could potentially benefit from this research. For example, social marketing professionals will be able to interpret the key predictors of success for use in their own campaigns. Consequently, the target audience will benefit from a carefully structured and informed social marketing campaign that should have greater potential in assisting behavioural change. For example, the importance of piloting a planned social marketing campaign will help to diminish flawed assumptions thus, accomplishing a better planned campaign, that will embrace clearly defined benefits and support systems for target audiences.

For stakeholder whose behaviour changes are being targeted, the use of these "key predictors of success" will help as campaigns could potentially be designed to be more people-based and focused. Lefebvre (2013) argue that

"Social marketing is an evolving set of strategies and tools that demands of its practitioners an unrelenting focus of program design and implementation" (page 72).

Academics, practitioners and social marketers all have a stake holding interest in social marketing campaign outcomes. Therefore, the impact of these research findings will contribute new information to the theoretical underpinnings of social marketing; thus giving an added dimension to social marketing's design, planning, evaluation and delivery. These findings present the opportunity to use more effectively social marketers' time and their scarce resources.

There is also a need to factor in the distracting forces of competition which may impede target audiences from achieving and sustaining their behaviour changes. Being mindful of the fact that competitions can be in the form of external influences - friends and families - as well as internal such as the target audiences' strong personal desire not to change their behaviours. The research therefore aims to explore these factors by analyzing a sample of social marketing campaigns with the aim of identifying factors that are the predictors of successful outcomes in social marketing campaigns.

1.3 Research Approach

A frame of reference for the understanding and fit of social marketing messages to social issues and social problems in the delivery of social marketing campaigns to target audiences or priority groups (and sharing this information globally) can be better utilized through the knowledge, understanding and application of the research philosophies of 'Ontology' and 'Epistemology' which are far from being independent of each other (Braun & Clarke, 2013). These research philosophies are said to be an important part of any research being undertaken and it is therefore essential that such philosophies are understood so that the methods used in the research can be thoroughly and accurately completed. Such understandings of these philosophical perspectives (and their applications) facilitate the literature review to give a more beneficial outcome. Commonly used philosophical perspectives are 'Ontology' and 'Epistemology' although there are others.

1.4 Ontology

Ontology is basically regarded as the nature of truth (Willis, 2007) and the nature of reality and being or existence (Schraw & Olafson, 2008; Merrick, 2007; Mertens, 2005; Ponterotto, 2005). It addresses the 'form and nature of reality and what can be known about that reality' (Olafson et. al, 2013); with people making assumptions of how the world works, and from their different perspectives evolved different conclusions. In social marketing where diverse target groups present a diversity of social problems, outcomes will always vary. Therefore, the ability to understand people and their nature (subjective reality is socially constructed) and the differences in their thinking and behaviour from an ontological perspective are desirable. From a critical theoretical paradigm Rahmawati (2008), suggests that the world has to be changed, affected by changing social phenomena as a result of inquiring activities which also affects people. Ontology is also 'concerned with what kinds of things can exist' (Almeida, 2013) in a world where people speculate as to how the world operates. Therefore, it can be assumed that a researcher's ontological view-point is informed by his or her own experiences and thus will affect their research enquiry. Ontology can be split into two categories, 'subjectivism' and

'objectivism'. Double (2003) states that when 'entities' are regarded as existing 'objectively' they can be considered as existing within themselves, independently of the minds of person or persons. Double further asserts that from a subjective point of view, entities exist only in the minds of the individual. Interestingly not every one agreed. The interpretation of 'subjectivism' explains its maintenance of "aesthetic judgements" which holds true by virtue of the facts relating to *"human emotions or inclinations, not by the perception of features in the given object or any other objective matters of fact"* (Eran, 2010; Guba, 2005; Willis, 2007)

1.4.1 Epistemology

Epistemology is regarded as the nature of knowledge as well as the analysis of the concept of knowledge, (Kotzee, 2013). It is also concerned with the acquisition of knowledge, in particular, looking at how people acquire such knowledge about the world (Fallis, 2007; Olafson, 2010). It is about how people know what they know, how knowledge accumulates (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). However, Pritchard, (2013) asserts that although there is much focus on the provision of knowledge and beliefs, epistemology does not furnish the person with *"the cognitive skills to be able to determine truths for themselves"* (Pritchard, 2013). But in a 'social constructivist epistemological paradigm, it is advocated that reality exists through a person's subjective social experiences of the world about them, which is their environment and in that sense their cognitive skills play a part. 'Subjectivity referred to the idea that what we see and understand reflects our identities and our experiences' (Braun & Clarke, 2013).

In this research study, the 'social constructivist paradigm' has given the researcher a better understanding of how 'forms of knowledge' that "often depend on social factors for their possibility" developed (Kotzee, 2013). For example:

(a) How marketers interpret the needs of their target audiences for a relevant 'fit' of suggested behaviour changes;

(b) The benchmarks and strategies employed to influence desired outcomes of social marketing campaigns;

(c) Target audiences' responses to their marketers' suggestions.

The accumulation of such knowledge from a social epistemological perspective, has allowed the researcher to confidently track those criteria that could be contributors to social marketing campaigns results (Goldman, 1999).

In conjunction with the concept of social epistemology is 'virtue epistemology' that focuses not just on knowledge 'as a particular kind of cognitive content as in traditional epistemology, but focuses on what it is to be a good "knower" argues Kotzee (2013, p.158 -9). Kotzee further states that both social and virtue epistemology share a critical stance of the metaphysics of knowledge and highlight the 'normative dimensions' of epistemology.

In epistemology, to understand how to expand knowledge, how to be a good 'knower' and how to use mechanisms to spread knowledge through interactions between marketers and their target audiences – as an example in social marketing campaigns - holds true for epistemic diversity. Thus, co-operation between social and virtue epistemologies will provide efficacy in operation, such as social marketing campaigns. Goldman (2006) asserts that epistemic value as truth and the evaluation of this 'knowledge of truth' that an individual acquires will evidence good or bad information which will determine what is believed. In the case of social marketing, beneficial information is heavily dependent on good formative research, true understanding of target audiences' needs and the impact of infra-structure and other influencers as well as good planning and designs of social marketing campaigns. One author suggests that the real question encountered in daily cognitive life is whether we should believe or not believe what we are told (Craig, 1990). The concept of knowledge helps us pick out good informants not good information (Kotzee, 2013). This goes to the heart of 'virtue epistemology' argues Pritchard (2013). The researcher being aware of this paradigm uses a mixed methodological process in this research study in order, not only to qualitatively analyse information acquired, but to subject such information to a quantitative analytical process in the clear interest of the research question.

1.5 Further Exploration of the Literature

Kotler and Roberto (1989) and Lefebvre, (2013) gave great credibility to social marketing as a concept, highlighting its operations in the field of not-for-profit organizations. Further writings gave prominence to partnership alliances between private businesses and government departments (Andreasen, 1995; Kotler, Roberto and Lee, 2002; Kotler and Lee, 2004). Prominence is also given to the planning and implementation of social marketing programmes that showed degrees of success for example, programmes promoting 'Nutrition and Physical Activity', for the future wellbeing of individuals and their communities (Alcalay and Bell, 2000; Huhman et al, 2005). But success is not attained easily even though the application of the social marketing process is often considered to be more successful than other forms or processes used to effect behavioural changes (Elliott, 1991). In commercial marketing, success is necessary for the continuation of a business and its market shares, the customer being the linchpin in the

process. In social marketing, any behavioural change achieved in a target audience is for 'a social good' for the individual and the community at large; success is desirable for both.

The following points highlight the fact that success is not easily attained in commercial marketing or social marketing.

(1) Good commercial marketing is not always successful although marketers may satisfy the buying needs of their customers. This is because, rival organizations' competitions can deplete marketers' chances of retaining their customers' custom (Dibb et al, 2012).

(2) *"Marketing theorists have long agreed that service quality and satisfaction result in significant gains for the organization, for example, increasing repeat purchase, customer loyalty, word of mouth, and the propensity to pay more, as well as reducing switching [of their customers' loyalty]"* (Bolton, 1998 and Bolton & Lemon, 1999).

(3) The strategy of focusing on quality and satisfaction for customers are helpful to commercial organizations in enhancing their market shares and increasing the returns on their investments (Gale, 1994; Rust & Zahorik, 1993).

(4) Nevertheless, social marketers try to emulate commercial marketing successes by the use of strategies that appeal to their target audiences in-order to get satisfactory responses in the form of behaviour changes for the target audiences' good.

(5) However, within the world of social marketing, it is not always clear as to how success is appraised. This lack of clarity reflects the difficulty of assessing success, as the principles of social marketing are used to tackle a variety of behavioural problems within diverse groups of target audiences who in turn are affected by many anomalies.

These anomalies can include, for example, the lack of target audiences' enthusiasm to change any behaviours; the lack of infrastructure to give target audiences the opportunity to change behaviours such as, access to healthy affordable foods or facilities to undertake physical

activities, and, the influences of (powerful groups) family and friends that can affect target audiences' decision making (Andreasen & Kotler, 2003).

It is clear however, that there have been many very successful campaigns such as the 'use of seat belts' when driving, and 'the Heart Truth' (Lefebvre, 2013). Campaigns are successful when the behaviour changes planned for are achieved and the target audiences have benefited. The opposite can be said for campaigns that have failed. The analysis and understanding of these processes will help to guide the development of the profession and progression of social marketing. For example, the Social Marketing Institute (2007) identified several successful social marketing campaigns such as: the 'Click it or Ticket Program' of North Carolina, USA, (Hinton,1993), which used a combination of law enforcement and social marketing principles to achieve their outcomes; the 'Florida "Truth" Campaign' , USA, (Penela,1998), that used youth empowerment through community involvement to achieve their desired goals and 'The Stop Aids Campaign' of Switzerland, (Rutman, 1998), whose strategies included the segmentation and targeting of key groups in the community, thus changing both private behaviour and public attitudes. The understanding and development of social marketing campaigns will be further explored in the literature review chapter.

Social marketing is portrayed as a powerful medium that can be used to address social issues and specific behavioural problems. A key characteristic that differentiates it from its commercial marketing roots is its purpose (Weinreich, 1999; Donovan & Henley, 2003; Weinreich, 2011). Social marketing's purpose is to achieve behavioural changes through the voluntary actions of target audiences in exchange for tangible or intangible benefits (Brenkert, 2002; Bagozzi, 1978), and to maintain some sustainability of those behaviour changes. The process of social marketing also influences policy makers and influential interest groups, referred to as upstream target groups. However, social marketing utilizes commercial marketing principles in the promotion of social ideas and social issues to various target audiences in order to affect their voluntary behaviour changes. These changes are said to happen only when target audiences feel that situations presented are right for them and any exchanges will present 'value for money' to them (Kotler & Andreasen, 1996; French & Blair-Stevens, 2007). It is further argued by these writers that target audiences will always maximise perceived benefits and minimize perceived costs

whatever the 'behaviour change' being proposed. This process becomes a kind of trade-off between two entities, **see figure 1.1.**

Figure 1.1 The completion of an exchange process between the two entities
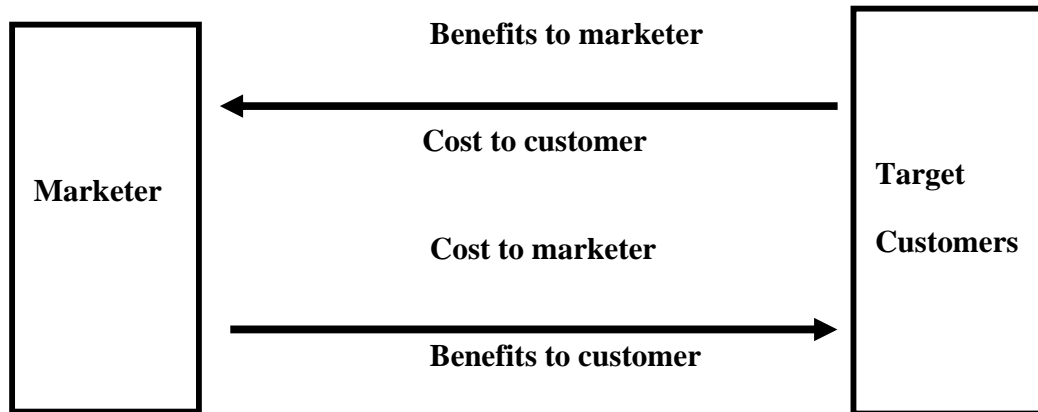
Figure 1.1 Exchanges reciprocal character, Kotler & Andreasen (1996: 111).

The above figure shows that if the marketer benefits in achieving a behaviour change, the customer pays the costs (rarely money), most likely in the form of expended efforts in the giving up of present behaviour. However, each benefit that the customer derives from any transaction is a cost to the marketer in providing it.

Social marketing subscribes to the four 'Ps' of commercial marketing, which are, **product**, **price**, **place** and **promotion** but applies them in different ways, considering the leverage points for change in their interventions.   In table 1.1 the 4Ps (only) are interpreted through the commercial marketing and social marketing processes. Some marketers have added other Ps to this list which not only differentiate social marketing from other marketing activities but is relevant to any present marketing plans (Lefebvre, 2007; Marques & Domegan, 2011.

Table 1.1 Interpretation of the 4 Ps

The 4Ps	Commercial marketing usage	Social marketing usage
Product	Tangible goods and services	Mainly intangibles; services and the product which is the 'message', relating to social issues.
Price	Exchange of money for goods	Non-monetary exchanges that can cost target audiences time, social and psychological effort; coupled with incentives or disincentives for social benefits.
Place	Designated market place such as a shop or stall.	Ideally, anywhere convenient for target audiences to access the product; convenient to their preferred locations.
Promotion	Conducted through the many forms of advertising media.	Using different strategies to convey the 'message' that will elicit a good response; communication appropriate to target audiences' literacy and cultural background including modern communication media.

Table 1.1 Adopted from authors, Kotler & Andreasen, (1995); Donovan & Henley, (2002); Weinreich, (2011).

1.6 Aims and Objectives

The aims and objectives of this thesis are four-fold:

1. To identify benchmarks for successful social marketing campaigns from the literature review.

2. To investigate case studies using a mixed methods approach, in examining strategies adopted by marketers, whether from profit or not-for-profit organizations when designing and implementing social marketing campaigns.

3. To identify and analyse a set of criteria for benchmarks and possible strategies with which to carry out social marketing campaigns.

4. To provide a coherent set of "predictors of success" to use in social marketing campaigns.

1.7 Research Design

The research was undertaken in three stages:

- Stage one involved desk research based on a literature review with the aim of engaging with the core arguments and conversations within the literature and identifying secondary data to feed into the next stage of the research.

- Stage two involved a qualitative in-depth analysis of twelve social marketing campaigns. The core aim was to identify dominant criteria central to the success of a good social marketing campaign.

- Stage three used a quantitative analysis of 100 social marketing campaigns drawing from a sampling frame of global statutory and not-for-profit organizations' campaigns, to test the key criteria identified within stage two.

1.8 Research Question

The study sought to address the following research question:

- What are the key criteria that act as the predictors of success in a social marketing campaign?

1.9 Reliability and Validity: Consultative validity – My Research Journey

My research topic is Social Marketing, and although there is expertise in commercial marketing within the University of Huddersfield, there are no significant experts in this area. In order to gain the support and engagement from social marketing experts, I sought and found external input.

A visit to the Institute for Social Marketing at the University of Stirling and The Open University, Scotland in May 2006 was very encouraging; it was a boost to my self-esteem and research direction. The welcome was genuinely warm from Professor Hastings, his team of marketers, researchers and PGRS (Post Graduate Research Students).

An audience with Professor Hastings - Director of the Institute- and his team left me in no doubt that my research proposal was worth pursuing, although assured that the research journey would not be easy. I was privileged to be asked to produce a written review of the then draft chapter seven of - Professor Hastings' book, "Social Marketing why should the devil have all the best tunes"-. This book was published in 2007. Contacts with Professor Hastings and his team continued for the next three to four years punctuated by encouraging emails, useful articles and relevant references. Acquaintances with individuals were renewed at various conferences.

The National Social Marketing Centre (NSMC) established to increase understanding of, and capacity and skills in social marketing, held the First National Social Marketing Conference in New- Castle-Upon-Tyne in September 2006. This three day conference attracted a plethora of global social marketers, academics, researchers and other interested stakeholders. Many brought reports to the Conference of existing social marketing campaign developments and outcomes and shared up-to-date social marketing perspectives, articles, and books. The NSMC launched the first edition of 'Social Marketing Pocket Guide', written by French and Blair-Stevens (November, 2005). A UK based and very hands on practical book that supported the NSMC – in brief – commitment to the Cross-Government White Paper, 'Choosing Health' (2004); to integrate a social marketing approach in health, as part of the government's health strategy for the Nation.

One of the foremost experts in marketing, Professor Kotler (USA), at Conference extolled the virtues of the principles of social marketing and the importance of marketers' and target audiences' interactions to aid sustainability of behavioural changes. Warmth, knowledge and support were derived from one to one discourse with Professor Kotler. In small group meetings one was able to converse with another marketing expert, Professor Andreasen, (USA) with expansion on specific areas of his keynote speech in relation to practical work and research in progress.

Of the many Master Classes held during this Conference, Dr. Lowry (Newcastle) directed one on 'Focus Groups' complete with role play and one relating to the combination of qualitative and

quantitative methodologies. Dr. Lowry became my external supervisor for 2 years of my research study.

A conference in Birmingham, organized by NSMC, Director Professor French, took place in March 2007. This Conference brought together UK based marketers, academics, Health Service professionals and research students of all levels to explore what social marketing is and how it could be used more effectively in the Health Service and the community to improve health and reduce health inequalities of UK citizens. Discussions in small groups, relating to work in progress in strategic areas and feed-back learning sessions were very useful to me. This was also a good networking forum with links to NSMC offices in London.

The first World Social Marketing (two days) Conference was held in Brighton in September 2008. There was an abundance of global speakers for the main Conference and an array of tightly scheduled seminars as well as poster competitions and consultants. Two of the keynote speakers were Professor Hastings (Scotland) who spoke about 'Branding in Social Marketing', 'Marketing and Behaviour Changes'; while Professor Lagarde (Canada) spoke about 'Integrating Social Marketing into Organizational Culture'. Among the useful resources received were the NSMC 'Big Pocket Guide: Social Marketing 2007', second edition, and Lagarde's Conference speech.

In July 2009, I was lucky to receive a one day pass to The Academy of Marketing annual four day Conference held at the Leeds Metropolitan University, West Yorkshire. The Conference attracted a global mix of delegates, meeting to discuss and debate developments in marketing in a climate of economic uncertainty and to present their double-blind reviewed working papers. Professor Nadine Henley, (Western Australia) presented a case study on 'Preventing Childhood Obesity'. A chance meeting with her in the grounds of the University led to an interesting twenty minutes discussion about my research proposal, my research population of case studies and benchmarking criteria that define outcomes. I remembered her stressing the need for effective 'formative research' before planning any campaign, although she had experiences of operational campaigns not taking this first step.

These encounters during my research journey, the collection of experts' suggestions / advice and feed-back to the collection of conference data; from individual social marketing authors' book quotations, articles to reference sign-posting, all have influenced my thinking, further reading / research and in some way, the direction of my research project. This triangulation of data has

influenced and supported the themes of my research and the identification of benchmarks and strategies that will have important effect on the understanding of essential components that makeup successful social marketing campaigns and in so doing will add to knowledge in the social marketing field.

In seeking to address my research objectives, the analysis of 12 case studies was undertaken. Firstly, through a qualitative analytical process 19 benchmarks evolved. To ascertain benchmarks that would be statistically significant to the success of social marketing campaigns a quantitative analytical process was completed which resulted in 4 specific benchmarks being identified. I presented these processes- entitled "Establishing an Evaluation Template and Grid" - at the '2012 International Social Marketing Conference' in Brisbane, Australia in June 2012. The Conference was attended by a global mix of marketers, practitioners, academics and research students. The organizers were so impressed with the contents of my presentation that I was asked to write it up as a book chapter (see appendix A, corresponding emails). The chapter was triple-blind reviewed, before becoming chapter three in the book 'Contemporary Issues in Social Marketing', edited by Professor Sharyn Rundle-Thiele and Dr. Krzysztof Kubacki , published by Cambridge Scholars Publishers, UK in 2013 (see appendix B, book chapter three). The book is now in the Library of the University of Huddersfield.

In 2012 I wrote to Professor Lagarde (Canada) to query a quotation in his 2008 conference article and sought further references to aid a chapter in my thesis, on 'the chronology of social marketing'. In his reply he sent a couple of articles and other references and requested sight of my finished chapter, contents which he could use (with my permission) in his conference presentation at The Third World Social Marketing Conference in Toronto in April 2013. As agreed, I sent him a draft version of my chapter on the chronology of social marking. My contribution to his conference presentation was acknowledged (see appendix C, his emails and extract from his conference acknowledgement).

This has been an interesting research journey from which I have learnt a lot. Travel had broadened my mind and sustained my confidence to stay the research journey but importantly, I was supported by my internal supervisor in doing so.

1.10 Organization of the thesis

Chapter two follows this introductory chapter and details the chronology of social marketing from the 1960s to 2011. It also addresses the 'two parent metaphor' of social marketing; focuses on a selection of global social marketing definitions and elaborates on definitions that closely underpin the study. A discussion of what social marketing is and what it is not and the various approaches that can be used by social marketers concludes this chapter.

Chapter three is the thesis's second literature review. This is so organized to emphasise and make the clear division between the explorations of the chronology and definitions of social marketing highlighted in chapter two and the operational issues in social marketing that are explored in the cases studied for this thesis. This second literature review also forms a useful link to the following chapters of the thesis. Chapter three develops the concept of behaviour change and its importance in the social marketing process and provides a critical analysis of exchange relationships and their importance for underpinning the key aims of social marketing. In addressing the characteristics of social marketing the chapter examines benchmarks used by other authors. These emerging benchmarks and strategies are very important to the research undertaken in this thesis and the uses of benchmarks and guidelines are developed as the thesis progresses. This chapter also addresses some of the ethical issues that arise in social marketing in general.

It is impossible to avoid ethical issues in social marketing as the process is an interaction with people, their behaviours and behaviour changes. While this thesis is not directly subject to ethical issues in its practice (because of the secondary nature of the data sources) it is necessary to highlight the importance of ethics with regard to subject matter and to the more general field of social research.

Chapter four introduces the methodology employed in the research and reiterates the aims, objectives and research design of the thesis. A conceptual model highlights the core themes of the research and pulls together the areas explored and reviewed. The choice of methodology is

rationalised and discussed with regard to the research question. The research sample is introduced and discussed, and issues of validity and reliability are considered.

Chapter five addresses in detail the in-depth analysis of twelve case study campaigns, and identifies the emerging benchmarks and strategies that were then further explored in the quantitative survey. The chapter also presents a detailed analysis of four campaign case studies in order to demonstrate the variations of social marketing campaigns, the versatility of social marketing, and the different ways in which the principles of social marketing are used to effect outcomes.

Chapter six presents the results of the quantitative survey of 100 case study campaigns. Various quantitative analytical tests involving the campaigns' benchmarks, strategies and their relationships with each other are discussed. The chapter also addresses the research hypotheses and research question.

Chapter seven reviews the previous chapters and discusses their links in addressing the research question. In conclusion the chapter highlights the answer to the research question and suggests what further research could be undertaken.

2.0 CHAPTER TWO: HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL MARKETING FIRST LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The combination of social campaigning as a concept underpinned by commercial marketing was introduced in 1952 by G.D. Wiebe an American sociologist, who asked his colleagues:

'Why, brotherhood could not be sold like soap' (Lazer & Kelley1973). He was comparing the effectiveness in the selling of 'commodities' to the ineffectiveness in dealing with 'social causes' or 'social issues' of the day. McGinniss in his book *The Selling of a President* (1968), embraced the theme with a more positive slant with reference to Nixon's presidential campaign (ibid p53).

Nearly two decades on from Wiebe's question to his colleagues, the concept of 'social marketing' began to gather pace triggered by a series of debates.   These debates encompassed the wisdom and folly of:

- Equating the promotion of 'social issues' as a concept of commercial marketing;
- Broadening this concept as an aspect of marketing;
- Giving a name to this concept, and
- Establishing 'social marketing', (the concept's new name) as a theoretical perspective (Kotler & Levy, 1969; Bartels 1969 & 1974 and Kotler & Zaltman (1971).

Some debates centred on the reasons why marketing as a technology should not embrace people and their social issues and why it should continue to focus on commercial transactions (Luck, 1969). Others talked of 'shared social responsibility in society' and the need for commercial organizations to have a better 'marketing consciousness' (Kotler & Levy, 1969; Lazer1969; Lazer & Kelley1973; Lavidge 1970 and Feldman 1971). As the debates continued the concept was given the name 'social marketing'.

There is some evidence to suggest that even while the academics were discussing the evolution of this 'new' concept, social marketing practices were already operational. For example many developing countries, such as India, Pakistan and Indonesia, were using such campaigns to promote family planning and birth control. These were supported by established commercial companies such as Unilever and Brooke Bond Tea Company (McKee, 1992; World Health Organization, 2008). They embraced the promotion of family planning through the distribution of free condoms and advice as part of their social programmes to combat the resulting social issues.

These social marketing programmes were regarded as very successful (Andreasen 2006); and examples from such programmes were used subsequently in both developing and developed countries to address various social problems including AIDS and children's health with the support of international organizations like UNAIDS and UNICEF (Andreasen, 2006; World Health Organisation, 2008).

Historically, social marketing is not only linked to the commercial marketing system but its roots are deeply embedded there (Kotler & Andreasen, 1996). Some contemporary researchers have explored how social marketing could move away from such foundations and establish its own historical roots (Peattie and Peattie, 2003). The rationale behind these arguments is that there are various characteristics that can differentiate social marketing from commercial marketing. Arguably the two most important ones are social marketing's 'goal or purpose' and its influences on the behaviour of target audiences (Weinreich, 1999; Rothschild, 1999; Rothschild, 2006; Ross et al., 2006). It is therefore of great importance to understand social marketing's historical developments and to consider its successes and its failures and what contributed to these.

2.2 The Chronology: Social Marketing Historical Developments

While social marketing practitioners *"… continue to push the practice of social marketing to solving numerous health and social puzzles…"* (Lefebvre, 2011a), academic marketers continue

to question the application of marketing into the realms of social marketing (Luck, 1974; Bagozzi, 1975). The expansion of social marketing and the degrees of doubts as to its validity in doing so, make an engaging mix in the historical journey of social marketing. It is from these perspectives that the chronology of social marketing is presented.

The historical development of social marketing has been positioned into periods of 'birth,' 'childhood', 'adolescence' and 'maturity' (Andreasen, 2006). This makes it easier to trace and understand its evolution. Its chronological exploration that encompasses these periods is set within various decades that streamline its development through specific events and at specific times.

2.2.1 1960s and 1970s, the Birth of Social Marketing

Although Wiebe asked his famous question in 1952, it is believed that the notion of social marketing was not properly discussed until the 1960s during the time of the American social unrest, following the Vietnam War. Many sections of the US society were galvanized into thinking about their social obligations to society (Elliott, 1991). This was also the period when the environmental movement emerged following Carson's famous book 'Silent Spring' in 1962, and when large corporations, the scientific community and government were increasingly being challenged by civil society and campaigning organizations (Carson, 2000). Academics within the traditional marketing sector started to consider the implications of these wider societal changes and challenges for their discipline (Elliott, 1991).

The writings of Kotler and Levy (1969a) were among the first to suggest expanding the traditional marketing concept. They pointed to the need for marketers to widen their perspective and consider what else goes on in society besides the transactions of businesses. Their observations were that business and non-business organizations were similar in their activities such as executing exchanges. This led to the idea that marketing was not just buying and selling but in this activity lays a transactional exchange process, an interaction between a buyer and a

seller as the marketer and the customers (Kotler & Levy, 1969; Kotler, 1972 and Warren et al., 1969). Andreasen (2000) argued that the technology of marketing is:

"A pervasive societal activity that goes considerably beyond the selling of tooth paste, soap, and steel, [and that] every organization performs marketing-like activities whether or not they are recognized as such" (Andreasen, 2000, p3).

Therefore, as a technology - an application of knowledge for practical purposes - it did not just indulge in marketing transactions but in social issues as well (Kotler & Levy, 1969). Williams, (1989) supported this concept but unlike some of Kotler's and Levy's other colleagues, Williams (1989) still questioned what the outcome would be if marketing was applied to non-profit activities.

During these time periods, questions were asked regarding social marketing's possible links to sociology and psychology because of its clear association with people and their behaviours (Donovan & Henley, 2003; Smith, 2006). Similar issues are still being addressed decades later. Within the academic field of social marketing clear lines of divisions were observed between those who wanted to see the expansion of marketing into the realms of social issues and those who did not. In the first category Bagozzi, (1974) saw,

 "… marketing as a process of creating and resolving exchange relationships" (p77) and Kotler & Levy, (1969) argued that *"…every organization performs marketing-like activities whether or not they are recognized as such" (p11).*

 Kotler & Roberto, (1989), developed this position by saying that,

"…social marketing [is] not simply a set of tools to accomplish social change, they represent a new ideology for … effective social change" (p30).

In the second category, academics such as Luck (1969); Bartels (1969) and Laczniak et al. (1979), were less enthusiastic in their expressions regarding the expansion of the concept of social marketing into traditional marketing, and that started an open debate in the journals of the

day (Williams, 1989). These early discussions set the pace for developing this new marketing concept, underpinned by commercial marketing principles, which was perceived as necessary to embrace the diversity of people's behaviours and the trauma of those behaviours (Smith, 2006). While the debate continued, Kotler and Zaltman were the first to name the debated concept, 'social marketing'. They defined the concept as:

"… the design, implementation and control of programs calculated to influence the acceptability of social ideas and involving the consideration of product planning, pricing, communication, distribution and marketing research"(Kotler & Zaltman, 1971 :5).

This emerging development of social marketing began to reflect the technologies from other disciplines. For example, clear relationships with Psychology emerged, measured by the mind set of target audiences and their attitudes towards their behaviours and behaviour changes; with Sociology, shown to be relevant gauged by the need to study or to be knowledgeable of target audiences' social problems before embarking on a behaviour 'change programme'. Connections with commercial marketing clearly showed pertinence, given the exchange process which must involve two parties that are in agreement with such an exchange (Andreasen, 1991:108 -109).

Various opinions and different foci of the day strengthened the need for clarification surrounding the concept of social marketing. For example, the writings of Lazer & Kelly (1973) focused on social marketing perspectives and viewpoints while Bagozzi (1975) was more concerned with issues of marketing exchange. Eysenck, (1976) wrote about the links with behaviour therapy and Kotler & Levy, (1969b) and Kotler, (1975) continued to debate the links between traditional marketing and social marketing and the potential of its use in the non-profit sector.

These debates ultimately meant that the adverse concerns expressed in the writings of Luck (1969, 1974); Bartels (1969, 1969a, & 1974) and other dissenting academics did not prevail (Andreasen, 2000). On the contrary, it appeared that their dissention not only propelled the concept of social marketing further into the public domain but helped in shaping present-day conceptual beliefs in social marketing. However, in order to appreciate what could be regarded

as the 'difficult' birth of social marketing it is of value to understand the key arguments on either side of the debate and for that reason the next section explores these in some detail.

2.2.2 The Debate: Uncertainties surrounding the Concept of Social Marketing

While Kotler, and Zaltman (1971) and colleagues were working on the expansion of commercial marketing principles and practices into the realms of 'social causes' other marketing academics were expressing their doubts (Williams, 1989).   Forthright in their disagreements were Bartels, (1974), a marketing historian and Luck, (1969a, 1974), a traditional marketing academic. Both agreed that marketing involved buying and selling and the accumulation of profits and that marketing should not deal with "societal activities."

They felt that this expansion of commercial marketing into social marketing would *'divert attention from critical issues in marketing'*. They and their colleagues also felt that this process would encroach on other disciplines relating to marketing, such as finance and the economy, thereby threatening the identity of marketing and confusing the definition of marketing (Williams, 1989; Kotler & Andreasen, 1995).

These prominent dissenting authors further maintained that, *'the social marketing operation'* had no definition as to its use and function, and being in such a position could attract unsavoury persuasive strategies which would likely abuse the powers of any *'social marketing operations'*. However, Kotler & Levy, (1969a) strongly stated that marketing activities can go far *'beyond selling toothpaste soap and steel'*. This did not convince the dissenters who still considered traditional marketing as an economic activity in which enterprises maximise returns on investment (Andreasen 2000). To emphasize this debate further the dissenters argued that marketing in itself was not clearly defined, therefore, adding 'social marketing' as a concept:

"...suggests that confused terminology may be endemic in marketing and therefore an impediment to the efforts of others to think clearly about the discipline" (Luck, 1974:70).

This was a good point but, it could be argued that social marketing at this point in time required a 'developmental system' that would allow it to achieve some kind of framework by which to advance its productivity and emphasised its position. However, if viewing the concept of social marketing from a scientific point, its domain would be within the social sciences. In this case, it would be underpinned by a social science structure and specification. But the previous dissenters believed that the only way the concept of social marketing would achieve such a status was by having an adequate definition of its 'seminal term', which they also believed did not exist (Luck 1974, Bartels, 1974). Again this was a good point since no one inside or outside the debate had at that time, offered such a definition.

Other scholars and practitioners of the day such as, Lazer, (1969), Kotler & Levy (1969, & 1973), continued to contribute their theories and techniques while others continued to disagree such as Luck, (1969 & 1974); Bartels (1974) and their colleagues as they felt their previous queries were not positively answered. To address these concerns, a survey was commissioned, carried out by experts in the fields of Social Psychology, Economic History, Marketing and Ethics. In seeking these experts' opinions it was hoped to clarify issues and allay the fears that were being expressed about social marketing. The results of the survey were mixed. In brief, the results suggested that social marketing had major beneficial elements regarding social issues but could also cause significant ethical controversies (Laczniak et al., 1979; Williams, 1989).

Lavidge, (1970) and Feldman, (1971) suggested that the notion of 'shared social responsibility' should be incorporated into the concept of social marketing in order to improve its applicability. Kotler, (1972) advocated that commercial marketing organizations take steps toward, what he called a "better marketing consciousness", by giving greater consideration to the new concept of social marketing.

2.2.3 The 1980s and 1990s

During the 1980's and 1990's the development of social marketing continued. This period witnessed a profusion of social marketing research material in the form of articles and books. Despite these developments and the gradual acceptance of Kotler and Zaltman's (1971) first definition of social marketing, uncertainties and doubts about the actual nature and future of social marketing continued to be raised (Ramgun & Karim, 1991; Smith, 2006). In 1981 Fine set out his thoughts in his book 'Marketing of Ideas and Social Issues'.

He was one of the few writers to 'acknowledge the importance of ideas and social issues' in social marking when dealing with target audiences (Lefebvre, 2013:22). This was because he equated social ideas as the solver of problems (for target audiences) to that of products that satisfy needs and desires of customers in commercial marketing. However, Fine's (1981) arguments had limited acceptance in the field of social marketing (Andreasen, 2006).

In 1981, social marketing celebrated its first ten years, and practitioners Bloom and Novelli's article "The First Ten Years in Social Marketing" was reviewed in the Journal of Marketing. A number of queries arose again in which the limitations, the sincerity and conscientiousness in the application of social marketing were questioned as well as its principles and techniques to deal with the critical areas of social marketing (Lee & Kotler, 2011). This exemplified the fact that doubts still hung over the development of the social marketing concept but also showed that practice had outrun theory. That is, practice procedures and outcomes were not shared with the social marketing fraternity. They were not marketing themselves.

Despite ongoing concerns in social marketing, in countries such as North America and Australia, the 1980s witnessed an expansion in the field of social marketing. For example, in Canada, the organization, Health Canada, formed a partnership alliance with other care givers and became a world leader in health promotions and health communications and thus became the *main user of social marketing theory and practices* (Lagarde, 2012). Health Canada and partners continued

to create social marketing outlets across the country that benefited areas with social issues and social needs. They also played their part in the organization of the First Canadian Social Marketing Conference that was held in 1983, titled "Marketing Ideas".

In 1988, Kotler's book 'Marketing Management: Analysis, Planning, Implementation and Control', identified methods useful in influencing the management of social change management. This was quickly followed by Kotler and Roberto's 1989 article, 'Social Marketing: Strategies for Changing Public Behavior'. This gave guidance on strategies for changing public behaviours as well as identifying procedures for influencing management in a social change process (Lee & Roberto, 2011). Information from these two sources impacted on the way this study looked at target audiences' behaviour changes and their influencers.

In developing countries like India, Pakistan and parts of Africa they were engaging with the concept of social marketing while various 'social marketing type' programmes were being successfully executed. These were in the fields of health and community improvements, and involved 'family planning, anti-diarrhoea issues, programmes on nutrition and breast feeding' (Manoff, 1985; Harvey, 1999; Lefebvre, 2013). Although these programmes subscribed to some social marketing principles they were not termed social marketing programmes by some academics and practitioners in the developed countries (Manoff, 1985; Lefebvre et al.1999; Hasting, 2007; Melnick, 2007; Pilloton, 2009). It appeared that social marketing as a formal concept was not yet totally recognized by the developing countries even if their operational programmes employed social marketing's key characteristic (behavioural intervention and behaviour changes), and those programmes were gaining positive results.

Notwithstanding, academics and marketing practitioners in the developed countries regarded some of the initiatives used by the developing countries as being adoptable, (Manoff, 1985; Easterly, 2006; Mittelstaedt et al. 2006), with the potential to enhance the understanding of the role of social marketing in non-profit and socially responsible marketing areas (Andreasen, 2006; Hastings, 2007). The importance of these initiatives stemmed from the fact that marketers from

the developing countries focused on:

"...understanding people, responding to their needs, and measuring success in terms of meeting people-focused objectives, not production targets" Lefebvre, 2013: 19).

These activities also had adoptable approaches to partnerships with governments, NGOs and other organizations and the designing and testing of messages to target audiences.

This era, (1980s & 1990s), ushered in the formation of large organizations with global connections, such as 'Centres for Social Marketing' which were accommodated within selected Universities. As part of their development, academic programmes in social marketing were established some of which were linked to public and community health. Other academic programmes in social marketing were established at the Universities of Strathclyde in Scotland and South Florida in the USA. This encouraged social marketing practitioners as these new seats of learning would help to establish the profession of Social Marketing.

In the 1990s growing attention was being paid to the international dimensions of non-profit marketing (Andreasen and Kotler, 2003). Shared experiences were not just coming from the USA but also from other western developed countries and from developing economies (p.8). In some countries, governments that were previously the primary source of social support for their citizens now took a 'back seat' and non-profit organizations were filling the gaps as evidenced by the campaigns studies that took place (Smith, 2006).

This new burden of responsible led to the development of global partnerships and the development of larger International Corporation, for example, the Goodwill Industries of America. It later changed its name to the Goodwill Industries International Inc., which reflected their global influence in providing training, involving over 179 organizations in over 35 countries (Lovelock, 1993; Kotler & Andreasen, 1995). This change brought with it more corporate involvement with the non-profit sectors of social marketing and the issues of ethics in the non-profit field (Marshall, 1990; Weeden, 1998; Andreasen & Kotler, 2003).

In the 1990**'s,** a new journal emerged. The Public Health Department of the University of South Florida launched the "Social Marketing Quarterly" in 1994. This Journal served to improve the channels of communication through the distribution of new social marketing information both locally and globally, from main stream social marketing activities and from social marketing conferences (Andreasen & Kotler, 2003).

The era of the 1990s, also yielded the publication of three important documents relating to social learning, practice and planned behaviour changes. These contributed to social marketing's further development within the behaviour change process and with greater understanding of successful outcomes of behaviour changes and the process of their sustainability.   The first publication written in 1992 by Prochaska, DiClemente and Norcross was recognized as an update to Prochaska and DiClemente's earlier book of 1983. This book had set out the basic idea that:

"*we do not make and carry through decisions, especially complex behavioural ones, in a simple binary fashion"* (Hastings, 2007:24)

Through a series of five stages, consideration is given to the possibility of giving-up one behaviour for another. This 'Model', in the 1983 book, faced many criticisms, and so was subject to 'considerable field tests'. However, the 'Model' (in the1992 book) was recognized for its improvement on 'Trans-theoretical Model of Behaviour Change', and considered by many as the most useful model to date.

The second key publication written by Andreasen in1995 made 'a significant contribution to both the theory and practice of social marketing' (Lee & Kotler, 2011). He maintained that target audiences were much better off if they were 'moved' through a series of steps to reach set goals of behaviour change rather than being 'propelled' into the final stage of behaviour change (Hastings, 2007:25; Lefebvre, 2012:325 ; Lee & Kotler, 2011).

The third important contribution came from McKenzie-Mohr and Smith written in 1999. This publication provided an introduction to community-based social marketing. It highlighted the benefits to struggling communities, suggested ways to avoid barriers to behaviour changes and indicated how to enjoy the process of behaviour change (McKenzie-Mohr, 2000; Lefebvre, 2012).

1999 saw the establishment of "The Social Marketing Institute", under the directorship of Alan Andreasen and through which three Annual Social Marketing Conferences were organized. The Institute has continued to be a resource for social marketing writers and practitioners through the provision of up to date information.

2.2.4 Conclusion of this era

It is clear that during these two decades a lot of progress was made in advancing the concept of social marketing. Many communication channels were established in the form of new journals, books and Social Marketing Centres all having a global influence on the practice of social marketing. As a result it could be argued that globally social marketing began to take on a more meaningful mantle. However, a number of previous uncertainties regarding the concept of social marketing still lingered. For example, firstly, Kotler and Roberto (1989) deemed it necessary to review Kotler and Zaltman's 1971 definition of social marketing. The changes they made were said to improve the understanding of social marketing and expanded its meaning. Their suggested changes stated that social marketing is:

"A social-change management technology involving the design, implementation, and control of programs aimed at increasing the acceptability of a social idea or practice in one or more groups of target adopters."

While Kotler and Zaltman's 1971 original definition had stated that:

"Social marketing is the design, implementation, and control of programs calculated to influence the acceptability of social ideas and involving considerations of product planning, pricing, communication, distribution and marketing research."

Kotler & Roberto (1989) appeared to be making a 'play-on-words' but their suggestions found acceptance during this period of social marketing' development.

Secondly, Rangun and Karim (1991) noted what they believed to be three elements of confusion in their understanding of Kotler and Zaltman's (1971) first definition of social marketing. They argued that:

(a) The name 'Social Marketing' was wrong; that it could be confused with 'Societal Marketing';
(b) The definition did not make it clear if the practice of social marketing was limited to public and non-profit marketers, and
(c) The definition had limited its objectives to influencing *"the acceptability of social ideas"*.

Rangun and Karim (1991) believed that social marketing involved not only ideas, but attitudes and behaviours as well.

Arguably, Rangun and Karim's (1991) comments had to be accepted; after all it was their understanding of Kotler and Zaltman's first definition of social marketing. However, they could have been more positive and offered their version of a social marketing definition which could have given their comments, in the field of comments and counter comments, a better standing. Despite these expressed uncertainties, the progression of social marketing continued.

2.3 Twenty first century onwards

One of the most dramatic developments of social marketing in the twenty first century is its global expansion and acceptance as a powerful tool that is used to effect behaviour changes in

the most problematic of social behavioural situations.   It could be argued that currently social marketing is experiencing its period of maturity. Although the present consensus is, that the origins of social marketing lies within commercial marketing (Kotler & Andreasen, 1996) the debate surrounding its relationship and independence from commercial marketing continues Beall et al, 2012; Hastings, 2007:148).

A more forward thinking debate centres on how social marketing can continue its development without the continued need and injection of aspects of the commercial marketing system (Peattie & Peattie, 2003; Hastings, 2007). The concept of the marketing mix using the 4Ps underpins this notion (Bordeln, 1964). Indeed, contemporary writers have indicated that social marketing should establish its own foundation rather than being dependent on the foundation of commercial marketing's 4Ps' (Peattie & Peattie, 2003). This stance is strengthened by Gordon (2012) as he argues that:

 "4P's model has been criticized in main stream marketing … for being too simplistic and naïve for application to complex marketing problems…" (Gordon, 2012).

Gordon suggests that this model tends to use traditional media channels, which tend to be relatively easy to conceptualize. With social marketing target audiences this is not the case, as it is not customer oriented an important aspect of the social marketing process. It is possible that an alternative to the 4Ps may be the 4Cs which are, *(the) 'customer', 'convenience', 'cost' (to the customer)* and *'communication'* (Lauterborn, 1990).

A further development has been the evolution of new Ps into social marketing's operational processes. These are seen to support the original 4Ps and include:

- *partnerships*: most complex social issues requiring a working agreement to effect a more efficient message delivery;
- *policies:* changes in mainstream policies are sometimes needed to effect compliant with a social marketing programme or for long term support;

- *publics:* social marketing has different audiences and in the interest of any campaign, addressing the relevant one can be the difference between success and failure, and

- *Purse-strings:* social marketing programmes are not always government /mainstream funded; it is therefore important to know where funding will be coming from for any social marketing programme (Weinreich, 2003).

The chronology of social marketing in the twenty first century, in many ways, has extracted some useful aspects from commercial marketing for example 're-branding', re-positioning of social marketing and relational marketing (Andreasen, 2006 ;Smith, 2006; Hastings, 2007; Lefebvre, 2013). However, social marketing as a concept is also influenced by the tenets of:

- Social anthropology, helping social marketers anticipate the resistance they will face and the ability to design an effective programme that seeks to influence such behaviours;

- Issues of social policy, the rules and regulations that will affect target audiences (impeding or helping) in their decision making and;

- Behavioural psychology, a behavioural modification aspect ensuring the effective reinforcement of the new behaviour and politics and politicians' actions, through legislation or political indifference (Andreasen & Kotler, 2003).

These issues will continue to be a part of social marketing's development and will continue to be discussed in the first decade of the new millennium and perhaps beyond.

2.3.1 Behaviour changes go deeper

Donovan and Henley (2003) broadened the definition and domains of social marketing by, emphasizing the importance of target audiences' involuntary behaviour change not just their voluntary actions. They supported this by drawing on their experiences of practical commercial marketing knowledge and hands-on experience in developing and implementing social marketing campaigns across a wide variety of health and social policy areas.

The UK Government's White Paper "Choosing Health" was launched in 2004 and carried

directives to Health Services Departments that health issues and health inequalities should be promoted using the principles and practice of social marketing. The White Paper argument was that social marketing techniques could be a means of supporting and encouraging the Nation to maintain better health.

Various new research and practice centres were established. For example, in Canada in 2005 a 'Centre of Excellence for Public Sector Marketing' was created to initiate training programmes in Social Marketing across Canada, with support from a social marketing planning handbook that was developed (Lagarde, 2013). A year later the National Social Marketing Centre was formed in London. This was headed by Jeff French, supported by the Cross-Government 2004 White Paper and a collaborative agreement between the Department of Health and the National Consumer Council (Hastings, 2007). Their mission was to maximize the effectiveness of behaviour change programmes (White, 2006). The Centre later became a 'Centre of Excellence for Social Marketing and Behaviour Change', initiating training across all levels of the social marketing field including strategic analysis, advice and support (NSMC, 2006). In the same year, the United Kingdom National Consumer Council launched an Independent Review of "It's Our Health" undertaken by The National Social Marketing Centre. This review resulted in major strategic and operational recommendations being put forward. The recommendations, in brief, emphasized the application of the principles of social marketing to health issues and health inequalities. The Government believed that if the Health Services Department applied social marketing practices to health issues, more effective results in the Nation's health would be forth coming (Review Report, 2007).

The National Social Marketing Centre held the 'First National Social Marketing Conference' in Newcastle, UK in September 2006. The conference was referred to as 'their most ambitious programme to date' (Conference Report, 2006). Many major issues were addressed in this conference including "positioning social marketing more precisely" and, "bringing into its framework up-stream target groups". The conference concluded with many findings, some being formulated into directives for the social marketing 'Health Model'. A statement from the

Conference contended that, social marketers are, *"behavioural influencer specialists"* and as such were directed to pay greater attention to *"best practice and ethical protocol within their operations"*, these being important aspects in the concept of social marketing (National SM Conference Report, 2006).

Andreasen (2006), in his keynote address to Conference and from his book, picked up many of these themes including the re-positioning of social marketing; social marketing's approach to social change and the need to firmly establish social marketing practitioners as "behaviour–influencing people". He pushed the notion that social marketing is able to influence both upstream and downstream target audiences, in order to accomplish stated goals that affect individuals, their communities and society as a whole. He argued the importance of being able to influence upstream target audiences as they are keepers of the gateway to resources and controllers of the infrastructure that are sometimes vital to down-stream target audience's ability to change behaviour (Andreasen, 2006 p. vii).

Hastings (2007) in his address to Conference stated that marketers and non-marketers in their work could gain valuable insights with which to influence individuals and corporate behavioural problems for beneficial outcomes with target audiences and their communities. Although social marketing is referred to as being at a crossroads, (Donavan & Henley, 2003; Hastings, 2007), the campaigns cited by Hastings depicted the increasing and successful results gained globally by the application of social marketing principles and practice.

2008 ushered in the 'First World Social Marketing Conference' held in Brighton, UK; attended by a global mix of eminent marketers, social marketing practitioners, academics and local politicians. The highlights were the successes in social marketing developments.

An interesting mix of keynote speeches were delivered including, 'Integrating Social Marketing into Organizational Culture' (Lagarde, 2008); and 'Branding in Social Marketing' (Hastings,

2008). These deliverers informed Conference of the next level for social marking and gave guidance notes on their development. 'The Challenges in Demonstrating Effectiveness and Value for Money', was a topical speech given by Sheeran form the UK Audit Office. This raised the importance of funding or lack of it for social marketing campaigns. Conference was also enhanced by details of social marketing case studies and a plethora of training consultants, all offering a better way for the marketing practitioners to understand and interact with their target audiences.

2.4 Conclusion to this chronological period of social marketing

Andreasen (2006) argued that the chronology of social marketing can be embarked upon through the periods of its birth, its childhood, and its adolescence years and into its maturity years and the above section seems to confirm that. While it is certainly true that social marketing is now regarded as a distinct discipline, it is still developing and there remain many issues that are needed to be resolved. Some practitioners and academics argue that the concept of social marketing has matured to the point where global practices have overtaken written policies, and that practitioners are in effect running before they can walk (Donovan & Henley, 2003; Kotler & Lee, 2006; Lefebvre, 2013). It would certainly seem that the practice of social marketing has advanced significantly in the last twenty years, and given that it is such a relatively new phenomenon, it should maybe not be a surprise to see that the theoretical underpinnings of the practice are still under debate. While it could be argued that one part of that theoretical scaffolding is the need for a global definition of social marketing (Gordon, 2012) others would argue that flexibility and adaptability are the very nature of social marketing (Peattie & Peattie, 2003). Thus a global definition will have to be all embracing. However, in its developmental stage is an attempt to craft a global social marketing definition, led by Jeff French and supported by eminent academics, practitioners, researchers and global social marketing organizations (Gordon, 2012).

On a more practical level, social marketing as a concept and a profession has come a long way from the 1970s to the twenty first century, making tremendous gains along the way, but there are still areas where more clarification is required. For example, there is a need for some professional clarification on the role and reach of social marketers. There is a need for the profession to be on par with other major professions, thus giving it more academic stature (Lagarde, 2008).

This is a salient point as social marketing's principles and practices have become a part of the 'medical model' dealing with health issues and health inequalities (French & Blair-Stevens, 2006).

Arguably, more important is the need to have some understanding of the content of social marketing campaigns and an understanding of how certain elements, practices, initiatives and methods contribute towards their successes. Much more awareness is required for the promotion of successful social marketing interventions (Smith, 2006). The identification of best practice, using the benchmarks indicated in all campaign planning, underpinned by quality relationship interactions, will present a learning curve for practitioners thus helping to advance the profession of social marketing. This thesis aims to make a contribution to such developments.

2.5 Linking Social Marketing to another Aspect of its Development / Linking Social Marketing to another Lineage

The above chronology of social marketing shows that even in its maturity social marketing's links with the commercial marketing system are still strong. Global practices are using aspects of commercial marketing processes like're-branding', 'relational marketing' and 're-positioning', in order to progress their interventions and connections with target audiences. As we have seen some commentators such as Weinreich, (2003) and Peattie & Peattie, (2003) argue that new models and terminologies need to be developed to make social marketers' efforts more successful in their interactions with target audiences.

It has been argued that the roots of social marketing are very much linked to the 'social system' (French & Blair-Stevens, 2007), linking social marketing to another dimension. Since social marketing's inception in the 1970's, the aspect of its 'social good' has matured as a discipline, evidenced in many successful campaign studies (Hastings 2007), that highlighted its social context and the awareness of its links to social sciences (French & Blair-Stevens, 2005). In this context, French & Blair-Stevens' (2007), offered a two parent metaphor for the concept of social marketing - a social parent and a marketing parent, see figure 2. 1.

This paradigm has suggested that, the 'parents' can facilitate social marketing's ability to nurture and develop positive behavioural changes in many target audiences.

Figure 2.1 A Two Parent Metaphor

Figure 2.1 Diagrammatic sketch: Developed from French & Blair-Stevens diagram (2007:16).

In the diagram above the origins of the social parent and that of the marketing parent are shown and from their combination come social marketing, showing its basic capabilities.

2.5.1 The Social Parent

It could be argued that the social parent paradigm relates to the interpersonal level. This is a level of social interactions where social norms, mores and social decision making affect a target audience's response to behaviour change suggestions. Arguably, target audiences are made up of individual people with individual needs, wants and the expressions of self. Their behaviours are underpinned by both rational and emotional factors (Hastings, 2007).   Helping this process along is the use of positive images to promote a social marketing message.   Positive effects can be used to stress the benefits of healthy behaviours (Monahen, 1995; Hastings, 2007, p.99). The social parent symbolizes a closer interaction with a target audience, and indicates the caring nature of a social marketing change-programme for target audiences at the time of introduction. The change-programme is deemed beneficial to each member of a target group and their community and not to the marketer, a point that should be emphasized by the marketer at all times (Andreasen & Kotler 1995; Maibach, 2002; French & Blair-Stevens, 2007).

2.5.2 Marketing Parent

The development of commercial marketing's 4Ps by social marketers (Maibach, 2002) fits in with the advancement of their 'social change messages' (Andreasen & Kotler, 2003). Their interactions with target audiences supported by commercial marketing's principles, underpin their planned elements of change. Within a commercial marketing ethos, social marketers have developed other Ps such as policy and partnership (Weinreich, 2003; Weinreich, 2011) the existence of which has benefited many social marketing campaigns.   Examples such as campaigns against drink-driving and the use of illegal drugs have shown that the involvement of policies and laws have helped towards a better social marketing intervention outcome. Partnership alliances with both downstream and upstream target audiences have also brought social marketing successes (French & Blair-Stevens, 2005).

Commercial marketers are said to be *'...indisputably successful in influencing behaviour'* (Hastings, 2007: 43). This is observed when their consumers purchase and re-purchase advertised goods. In many cases commercial marketers create positive images of their goods in order to sell the goods or to sell a new lifestyle. But what underpins their success is having knowledge of the consumers' needs and wants and, creating desires, and making the goods available and affordable.

The gathering of formative information is the social marketers' way of getting to know target audiences and this is necessary and important. This allows the marketer to be more focused on the different kinds or groups of target audiences in order to achieve an efficient message delivery. For example, campaigns targeting teenagers that smoke should be designed and marketed in a different way from a campaign targeting 35 to 45 year olds smokers. There is no one size that fits all in social marketing interventions. Arguably, if the marketing mix is right, the results will be those planned for. Hastings (2007) suggested that if marketers focus on the 4As – *appealing, affordable, appreciated and available* - they should not lose sight of the target audience's perspective.

2.6 Social Marketing and its Definitions

Social marketing as a concept entered an era of challenges when in 1971 it was given its present name. As its chronology charted its advancement through the decades (see section 2.2 to 2.4), its growth and development in those early years were sustained by the activities of practitioners, researchers and academics such as Lazer & Kelley (1973), Kotler (1975), Kotler & Roberto (1989),Williams (1989) and many more. Their combined efforts strengthened the need for the concept of social marketing, proffering further discussions and suggesting different definitions and interpretations, in order to broaden the meaning and understanding of social marketing's capabilities.

Its conceptual framework continued to be developed through further research, discussions, teachings; conferences and global acceptance of its importance in the social marketing fields in

communities and in health (Egger, Donavan & Spark, 1993; Andreasen 2000; Donavan & Henley, 2003; Chang et al, 2007; Evans & McCormack, 2008).

Many text books were written in the early years specifically, for example, areas such as: Business Schools by (Kotler & Andreasen 1996; Rados, 1991 and Sargeant 1999); for Marketing Practitioners by (Herran 1997, and Radtke 1998) and for specialized Journals by authors such as Andreasen (2000 & 2006).

Different authors expressed their interpretations of social marketing as they experienced it and what they felt it ought to be doing. Each interpretation or definition brought to the social marketing table, so to speak, another aspect of its incredible versatility and ability to influence, develop and nurture the behaviours of others for their 'social good' and that of their communities. As social marketing continues to develop, and its principles and practices improve, many practitioners and academics concern themselves with the development of new social marketing definitions. Many definitions have been put forward, of these thirteen definitions are highlighted and six of them are later discussed in detail as each expresses different aspects of the characteristics of the concept. Each definition and their authors' interpretations will demonstrate the broader picture of how the authors see social marketing and what social marketing encompasses.

2.6.1 The Selection of Social Marketing Definitions

To understand the mechanism that drives the process of social marketing it is necessary to look at its defining variables and developing descriptions. It is also important to keep in mind the strong beliefs of its inceptors and other writers in the marketing arena, to get a full picture of social marketing versatility and the variables that are predictors of its success. Greyser (1995) argued that,

"The increase in both the practice and study of what is called social marketing has broadened the definition of marketing and its impacts on behalf of society." (p 340)

Major public campaigns aimed at smoking cessation and drugs avoidance (Hecht et al, 1993), have used theories of social marketing in their campaign designs. Thus, their outcomes have helped to shape the concept of social marketing. Results from such campaigns have also highlighted important *dos* and *don'ts* for social marketers and have contributed to the many social marketing definitions. Six definitions are shown in table 2.1; they depict the developmental and embracing ability of social marketing. The definitions were penned by Kotler and Zaltman, 1971; Andreasen, 1995; Donovan and Henley, 2003; Kirby, 2007; Schwartz, 2007 and French and Blair-Stevens, 2006.

Table 2.1 Some Definitions of Social Marketing

Authors	Definitions
Kotler & Zaltman, 1971:5 & 12.	"Social marketing is the design, implementation, and control of programs calculated to influence the acceptability of social ideas and involving considerations of product planning, pricing, communication, distribution, and marketing research."
Andreasen, 1995:7.	"Social marketing is the application of commercial marketing technologies to the analysis, planning, execution and evaluation of programs designed to influence the voluntary behaviour of target audiences in order to improve their personal welfare and that of their society."
Donovan & Henley, 2003:6.	"Social marketing is the application of commercial marketing technologies to the analysis, planning, execution and evaluation of programs designed to influence the voluntary or involuntary behaviour of target audiences in order to improve the welfare of individuals and society."
Kirby, 2007:42.	"…the application of appropriate marketing tools and the systematic analysis, development, implementation, evaluation and integration of a set of comprehensive, scientifically-based, ethically-formulated and user-relevant programme components designed to ultimately influence behaviour change that benefits society."
Schwartz, 2007:43.	"…a programme planning process which promotes voluntary behaviour change based on building beneficial exchange relationships with a target audience for the benefit of society."
French & Blair-Stevens, 2007:34.	"Health-related social marketing is: The systematic application of marketing, alongside other concepts and techniques, to achieve specific behavioural goals, to improve health and reduce health inequalities;"

The definitions in table 2.1 are salient because each highlights a different aspect of social marketing that are relevant and are dealt with in the application of social marketing interventions; as well as giving more depth and meaning to the concept, social marketing. A number of these definitions will be examined further regarding their impact on behaviour

changes and to determine if, or how they have contributed to successful outcomes in social marketing campaigns.

In table 2.2 are a further selection of social marketing definitions. These complete the numbers of definitions, thirteen in total that were referred to previously. Social marketing has many, many definitions and these, like many others, contributed another feature to the jigsaw of what social marketing is all about. The researcher believes that the points alluded to in the definitions accentuate the complexity and difficulty in formulating a global definition of social marketing.

Table 2.2 Another set of Social Marketing Definitions

Authors	Definitions
Manoff, 1985	"Social marketing is the adaption of marketing to public health imperatives …it is a strategy for translating scientific findings about health and nutrition into education and action programs adopted from methodologies of commercial marketing."
Kotler & Roberto, 1989	"A social-change management technology involving the design, implementation, and control of programs aimed at increasing the acceptability of a social idea or practice in one or more groups of target adopters."
Andreasen, 1995	"The application of commercial marketing technologies to the analysis, planning, execution and evaluation of programs designed to influence the voluntary behavior of target audiences in order to improve their personal welfare and that of their society."
Kotler, Roberto & Lee, 2002	"Social marketing is the use of marketing principles and techniques to influence a target audience to voluntarily accept, reject, modify, or abandon a behavior for the benefit of individuals, groups, or society as a whole."
Smith, 2006	"A program management process designed to influence human behavior through consumer-oriented decision-making leading to increased social benefit."
Serrat, 2010 (Asian Development Bank report)	"Social marketing is the use of marketing principles and techniques to effect behavioral change. It is a concept, process, and application for understanding who people are, what they desire, and then organizing the creation, communication, and delivery of products and services to meet their desires as well as the needs of society, and solve serious social problems."
Dann, 2010	"The adaptation and adoption of commercial marketing activities, institutions and processes as a means to induce behavioral change in a target audience on a temporary or permanent basis to achieve a social goal."

Table 2.2 More Social marketing definitions Adapted from Lefebvre, 2013:21.

2.6.2 Exploring Various Definitions of Social Marketing

This section looks in more detail at some key authors and their definitions of the term. Kotler & Zaltman's in1971 penned the first definition of social marketing **(see table 2.1),** under much controversy at the time. Although underpinned by commercial marketing's four 'Ps'- 'product', 'price', 'place' and 'promotion' the focus was very much on 'social benefits' to society as a whole. These four 'Ps', having been adopted from commercial marketing, have been moulded to fit social marketing's processes and practices. Within Kotler and Zaltman's definition *product* is seen as the message of behaviour change that the target audience is encouraged to adopt. *Price* is the value target audiences will attach to the process of behaviour change to be adopted. This could be in the form of time, emotional input or inconvenience to them but not necessarily monetary. *Place* represents the venue the target audience will be exposed to the 'offer' or message of behaviour change. Finally, *promotion* is about how the message is being conveyed to the target audience in order to elicit an acceptable and voluntary response (Weinreich 1999, p 9-16). It could be argued that this definition, as one of the first and one that accompanied the naming of the new concept - social marketing - has been very influential in stimulating the thinking of others into more dynamic and harder hitting definitions.

The second definition selected is authored by Andreasen (1995), see table 2.1**.** He focuses mainly on the voluntary behavioural change objectives that benefit individuals and their society at large. Andreasen confirms the transfer of commercial marketing technologies to the various stages in the process of social marketing. In this definition, the marketer seeks to attract the target audiences' voluntary involvement in meeting set social marketing goals relevant to the behaviour change to be influenced. This is a work-in-progress definition but a good foundation that will be further explored.

Donovan and Henley's (2003) is the third definition selected (see table 2.1), and this adds to Andreasen's definition, with their incorporation of the 'involuntary' behavioural aspect of change. This they argued is just as important as the influencing of 'voluntary' behaviour. Target audiences 'involuntary' behaviours are affected by various social determinants resulting from the social structure of society in areas such as, workplaces, education and community cohesion and

these have affected target audiences 'involuntary' behaviours (Heath & Heath, 2010; Kotler & Lee, 2008).

Donovan and Henley suggested that Andreasen's definition was too "constrictive in its emphasis on voluntary behaviour'. As in marketing, third parties are involved. They cited the example of a campaign relating to the 'reduction in the consumption of saturated fats', and suggested that when manufacturers are persuaded to reduce their input of saturated fat in their products and they comply, this action is regarded as voluntary. However, the change in the level of saturated fat intake by the target audience, their action is regarded as involuntary.

Lefebvre's (2004) critical review of Donovan & Henley's work noted that their development of the principles and the concept of social marketing were significantly different to the views of others. Lefebvre further asserts that, while there is merit in Donovan and Henley's distinctions in saying that both the involuntary and the voluntary actions of target audiences are influenced; further exploration in the applications of their concepts to the work of social change is needed.

Many writers have agreed that the product of 'social change' is the social marketer's 'message' and in relation to the four 'Ps' Donovan and Henley are not the only writers of social marketing processes that regard the 'message' in this process as the 'product'. Indeed, the product is the 'message' of 'behaviour change' that is being 'sold' to a target audience. Kotler and Roberto (1989) suggested another way of looking at the meaning of 'product'. They suggested dividing it into "actual product", that relates to behaviour change; the "core product" that relates to the benefits it brings and "the augmented product" that relates to the "tangible objects and services to support the behaviour change" (Hastings, 2007:73). This encourages marketers to think deeply about their offer to their target audiences.

Niblet (2005), and Lefebvre (2004), are both in agreement that:

"...social marketing process is an excellent strategic planning and implementation tool for addressing social issues across a wide spectrum" (Niblet 2005:11).

However, they prefaced the above quote by advocating that the goal of a social marketing programme is not just to educate or communicate but to bring about action leading to social change in order to achieve the outcome planned for.

Kirby, (2007) in her definition (the fourth definition selected, (see table2.1), alluded to Donovan and Henley's (2003) definition. Together with indicating the technological transfer of techniques, Kirby placed the emphasis of her definition on the comprehensiveness of a 'message' that needed to be user-friendly, relevant and ethically sound for the target audience's benefit. It could be argued that the more attractive a message of behaviour-change is packaged the more tempting it would be to a target audience.

Social marketing is all about transferring the technology of commercial marketing principles and techniques to its practices (Hastings, 2007), and adopting these to fit the needs and wants of target audiences always, marketers have little choice but to do so.

Schwartz's definition shares some commonalities with the previous definitions but emphasized an additional aspect of what social marketing is. In this definition Schwartz, (2007), (see table 2.1), specified that the process of social marketing will promote voluntary change but based on useful or valuable exchange alliances; a build-up of a relationship between target audience and marketer as a precursor to the target audience considering a change in their behaviour. The thesis will explore, through case studies, how the building of relationships impact on behaviour change processes and their many effects and the sustainability of such behaviour change outcomes.

French & Blair-Stevens (2006) (the sixth definition, see table 2.1), focused on a 'health model' within a social marketing framework. This definition suggested that 'improving health and reducing health inequalities is the marketer's message of 'behaviour change', the goal to aim for. In order to achieve success, the marketer's approach has to be planned and logically applied. This should be underpinned by core concepts such as customers' insight, benefits to customers that outweigh the costs to them and support for customers to stave off competition. These

techniques encouraged target audiences to change their present behaviours, on a voluntary basis, to the one the marketer is offering.

French and Blair-Stevens' developed their definition in conjunction with the UK's 'Cross-Government White Paper of 2004, called Choosing Health'. This set out its commitment to improving the health of the nation by helping people to make healthier choices. Another document of the 'White Paper 2004', contained directives to the National Health Service regarding the tackling of health issues along social marketing lines.   However, at that time, guidance was incongruous and access to meaningful budgets to carry out those directives was not available. In the summer of 2006 the National Consumer Council, commissioned by the Department of Health, launched an independent Review of its services called 'It's Our Health', and this Review was carried out by the National Social Marketing Centre that was established earlier in the year (Academy of Marketing News Letter, 2007). The Review findings put forward strategic and operational recommendations as to how social marketing techniques should be applied to health issues, health inequalities and health promotions. These approaches were incorporated in a 'health model', to improve the impact and effectiveness of services in England (ibid.2007). These recommendations were accepted by the Government and the Department of Health, and so became part of the first *National Social Marketing Strategy for Health* in England, coupled with the benchmarks guidelines they developed the year before (ibid. 2007).   Improvements in health issues and the reduction in health inequalities became the goal for social marketers within the Health Services. In order to achieve these goals they proposed putting the target audience at the centre of all their social marketing campaign planning; a point alluded to by Kirby in the fourth definition (see table2.1). This became a new way of working in the history of the National Health Service (French, Blair-Stevens, McVey& Merritt, 2010).

As an expansion to the health related sixth definition, French and Blair-Stevens (2007) created what they called a Customer Triangle (see Figure 2. 2).   This technique was promoted as being operationally better to accommodate the UK Health Service's very diverse target audiences.

Figure 2.2 Customer Triangle: Core Concepts
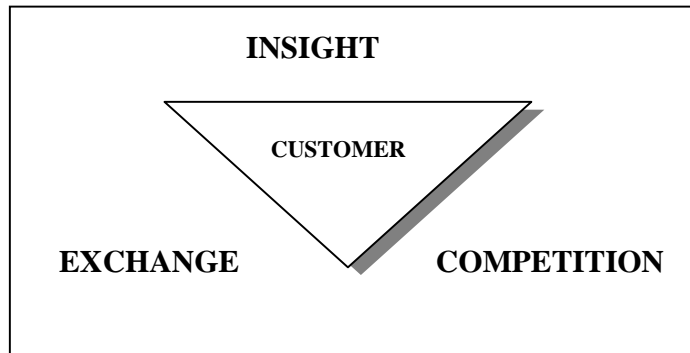
Figure 2.2   Diagram developed from French & Blair-Stevens, 2007:36.

The core concepts of this customer triangle are, *'insight', 'exchange', and 'competition'* (French & Blair-Stevens, 2007). Embracing these three core concepts would underpin a more effective planning strategy to successful outcomes in that:

- '**Customer insight'** gives valuable knowledge about the customer's wants, needs, life experiences and life expectations thus facilitating the concept of customer.

- **'Exchange'** helps in the setting of realistic goals for behaviour changes; goals that must be achievable argue Donovan & Henley (2003) in their definition (table 2.1). This relates to knowing that the target audience can maximise benefits from the goals to be achieved through the messages presented by the marketer in the social marketing campaign. Coupled with this, the marketer will be aware of the effects of:

- **'Competitions',** the ones that the target audiences will have to contend with. These competitions can present both internal and external challenges to all target groups when they are considering the marketer's social marketing messages of behaviour changes for their social good.

To reinforce these Core Concepts, French & Blair-Stevens suggested the inclusion of 'three Core Principles', which are, behaviour goals and theory, intervention and marketing mix and segmentation, see figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3 Customer Core Principles
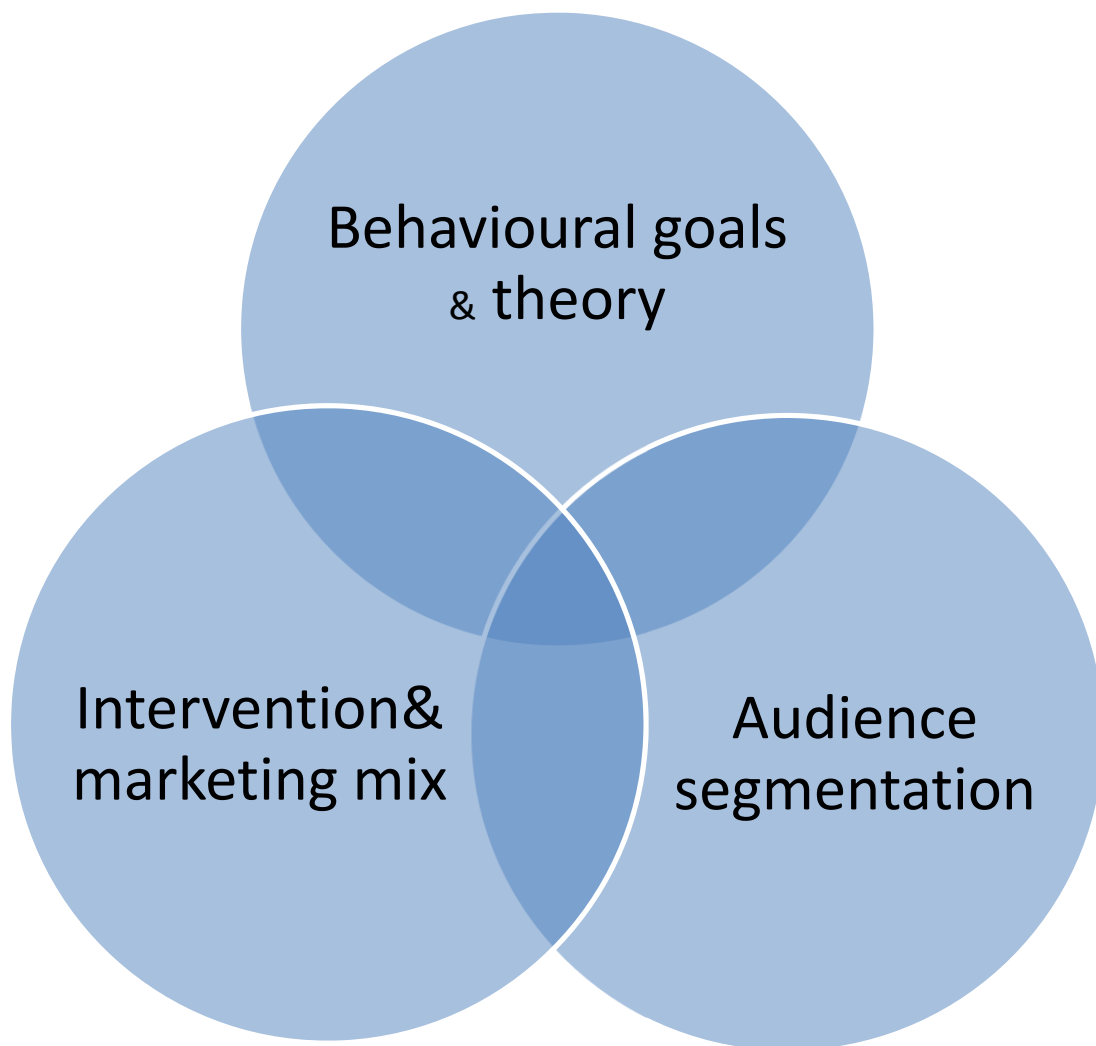
Figure 2.3 Customer Core Principles (*Developed from the ideas of French & Blair-Stevens, 2007: 37*).

In the diagram are:

* **'Behavioural goals and theory'**, these show that the goals to be achieved are tangible and measurable;

* **'Intervention and marketing mix'**, these show different ways of promoting a social marketing 'message', in order to get the optimum mix that would achieve potentially the greatest beneficial effect;

* '**Applying audience segmentation'**, gives the marketer the option of getting away from the traditional focus on epidemiology and demography, thus tailoring social marketing interventions to the specific needs and wants of individual segments of a target audience (French & Blair Stevens, 2007: 35 – 37).

 It is argued that applying these 'core concepts' and 'core principles' to social marketing campaign planning and implementation will go a long way towards a marketer's successful outcomes.

2.7 Social Marketing Definitions that Underpin the Study

The study is concerned with:

(a) Variables that clearly state what a social marketing process is;

(b)   How partnerships between the marketer and the target audiences can or can't make a

   difference to social marketing campaigns' designs, implementations, outcomes and

   sustainability of any behaviour changes achieved;

(c) How can partnership alliances with others (for example, stakeholders), impact on

   campaign planning and outcomes;

(d) The key criteria that are the predictors of successful campaigns.

The emphasis of this research is to identify policies and practices that can be instrumental in achieving successful outcomes from social marketing campaigns. Therefore, any variables that are the key predictors that subscribe to successful results will be sought. In the development of the study three definitions from table 2.1 are most relevant and applicable to the study and it is a combination of these that will support and aid the research and exploration of issues pertaining to the research question. These core definitions are, Andreasen's1995; Schwartz (2007) and French and Blair-Stevens (2007).

Andreasen's (1995) definition highlights the importance of transferring marketing technologies to social marketing's planning, execution and evaluation of programmes. Influencing the behaviour of any target audience and their voluntary acceptance of any intervention from a marketer is an important concept in getting and sustaining a behaviour change. This clearly indicates that a marketer's interaction with the target audience is a basis for building the target audience's confidence in his or her 'message' and a basis for building a partnership. From this partnership many things could emanate such as, improved execution of the 'message. This research seeks to explore how important these issues may be in predicting success.

These key points from the definition are set out diagrammatically, and are referred to as 'the success mode' and shown in figure 2.4. This shows links between each section of the process to the potential benefits that could influence target audience to accept the desired behaviour goals.

Figure 2.4 The Success Mode: A Diagrammatic Presentation of Andreasen's definition

```
            ┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
            │     Commercial marketing technologies     │
            └─────────────────────────────────────────┘
                              ↕
   ┌──────────────────────────────────────────┐
   │  Social marketing Programmers              │
   │                                            │
   │    The Behaviour change message            │
   └──────────────────────────────────────────┘
              │                          ↑
              ↓                          │
       ┌──────────────────────┐          │
       │  Planning            │          │
       └──────────────────────┘          │
                  │                       │
                  ↓                       │
          ┌──────────────────┐            │
          │  Execution       │            │
          └──────────────────┘            │
                     │                    │
                     ↓                    │
             ┌──────────────────┐         │
             │  Evaluation      │         │
             └──────────────────┘         │
                       │                  │
                       ↓                  │
        ┌──────────────────────────────────────────┐
        │            B E N E F I T S                 │
        │                                            │
        │  **Influencing the voluntary behaviour of** │
        │  **target audiences**                       │
        └──────────────────────────────────────────┘
```
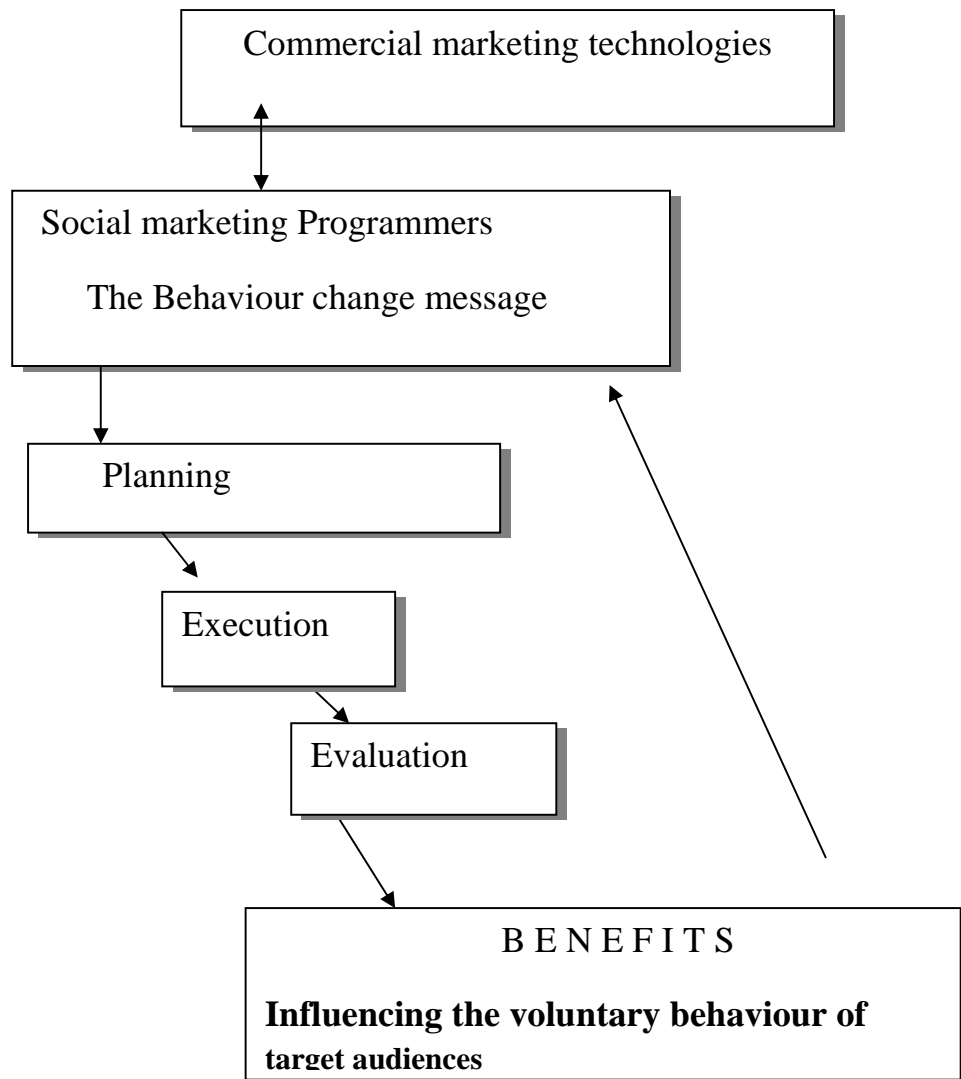
Figure 2.4 Andreasen, 1995. A Diagrammatic Presentation.

The diagram highlights the key points in Andreasen's social marketing definition which are also key points to be used in getting and sustaining behaviour changes for successful outcomes.

The definition from Schwartz (2007) not only suggested the promotion of voluntary behaviour change but linked this to benefits derived from the **'**building of exchange relationships' that can be interpreted as building partnerships, between target audiences and marketers. Any changes obtained are the product of 'an exchange of value', in that, an item that is of value to one person but costing them much less in the process of exchange, will elicit more voluntary change (Smith 2002; Kotler et al, 2002). Cost to the target audience can of course be monetary as well as subjective costs in the form of time, energy, self-esteem, power, prestige and so on.

With so many factors in the equation, the promotion of behaviour change through voluntary means will bring better results as long as the target audience has understood the meaning and implications of the social marketing message. These voluntary responses are achievable through a programme of planned processes and meaningful interactions between target audiences and marketers (Schwartz, 2007) Andreasen & Kotler, 2003).   Figure 2.5 depicts these diagrammatically. Voluntary behaviour change will be further discussed in a later chapter.

Figure 2.5 A Diagrammatic Presentation of the Marketers' Message Promotions and

Interactions with target audiences (Schwartz, 2007)
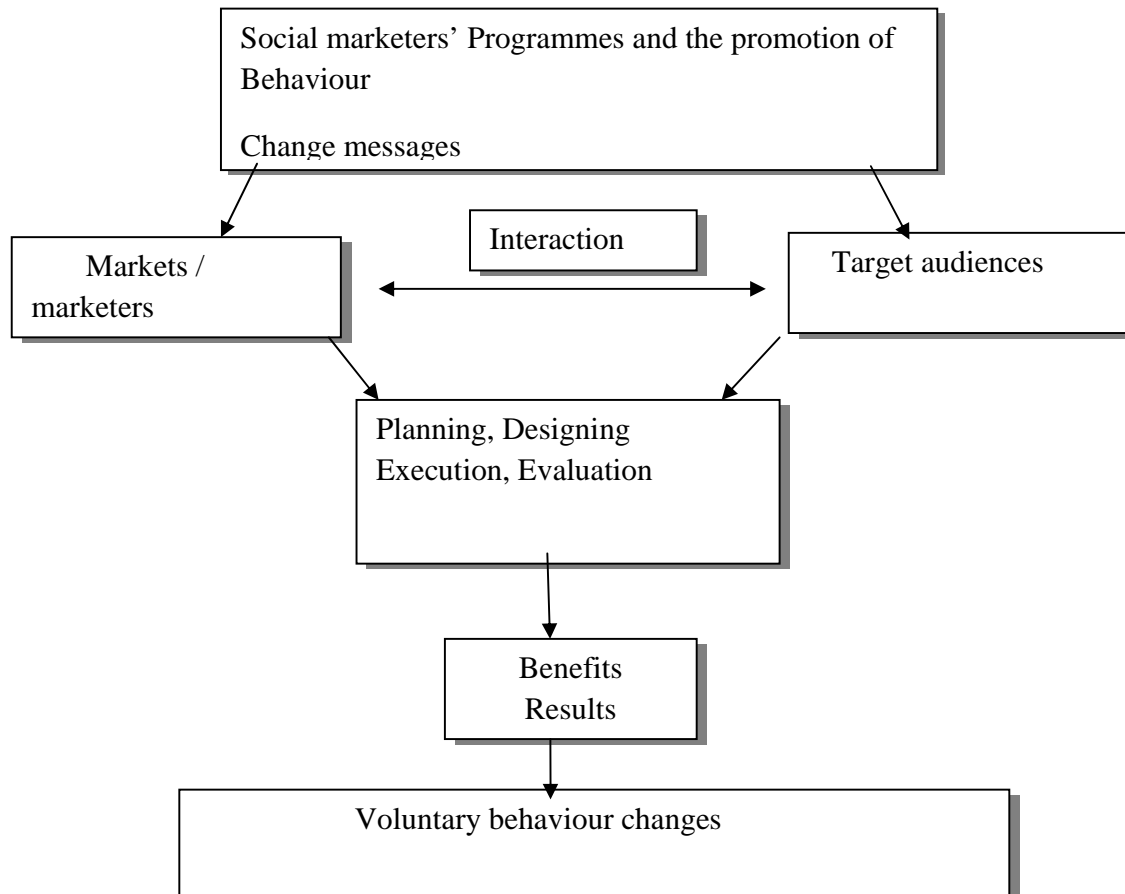
Figure 2.5

The diagram shows the promotion of behaviour change messages achieving voluntary responses facilitated by a programme of planned processes and meaningful interactions by marketers for benefits.

The health related social marketing definition by French and Blair-Stevens (2007) presents an overwhelming picture of the target group or customer taking centre stage in any marketer's plan, design and launch of any social marketing campaign as depicted in figure 2.2.

These definitions of social marketing have highlighted the many facets of this paradigm and exemplify some of the difficulties that can be experienced by marketers' in their interactions with target groups. This makes the exploration of the literature more fascinating and throws up many interesting points. Two such points are that, the impact the behaviour change message makes on target audiences should,

 (a) lead to voluntary and positive responses for the target audiences' benefits and not the marketer's benefit and

(b) when these results take place they should be regarded as successful outcomes.

These points are core to the central theme of this study. Social marketing has many facets and depending on the marketing mix, results are different even if they relate to the same marketing message. Therefore, it is important to consider the exact nature of what social marketing entails in relation to specific target audiences.

2.8 Social Marketing: What It Is and What It Is Not

The concluding section of this chapter returns to understanding the key attributes of social marketing. Social marketing distinguishes itself from other areas of marketing because of the "primary end goals of the campaigners" (Donovan & Henley, 2003:8; Weinreich, 2011; Lefebvre, 2013; Kotler & Lee, 2008). Social marketing is designed not just to educate, change values or attitudes but to be part of a planned process by which to influence behaviour (Andreasen & Kotler, 2003:329; Weinreich, 2011). Thus, the social marketer should have a message of *behaviour change* that is believed to be in the best interest of a target audience and

their community. That being the case,   Andreasen & Kotler (2003) and Kotler & Lee (2008) believed anyone can carry out social marketing activities be they an individual marketer, part of a single purpose group or part of an organization.

The key is that the objective of the social marketing programme must be to influence present undesirable behaviours and elicit a voluntary behaviour change towards more 'socially desirable' behaviours that will be beneficial to those targeted and to society as a whole. In the long term, marketers wish such behaviour changes to be sustainable (Andreasen, 1996; Weinreich, 1999).

Social marketing is a behaviour change strategy (Pirani & Reizes, 2005), a behavioural intervention that considers and addresses the needs and wants of individuals within a wider social context (French & Blair-Stevens, 2007).   The consideration of this is important because peoples' environments and their interactions with those around them influence their life processes and decisions. Trying to encourage a change of behaviour in a target audience or an individual without exploring their background and the context of their present behaviour is unlikely to be successful.

Social marketing therefore uses marketing principles to influence behaviour for the social good to bring improvements to the present circumstances of individuals. This is achieved by the transference of commercial marketing technologies to the planning processes of a social marketing campaign (Andreasen, 1995; Lefebvre, 2011a; Lefebvre, 2012).

These technologies have been moulded and fashioned by social marketing practitioners to make them more relevant for the purpose of dealing with social issues. Fox and Kotler's (1980) arguments confirmed that social marketing was conceived to be an application of marketing concepts and techniques to the marketing of various socially beneficial ideas and causes, something very different from the marketing of products and services that typify a traditional marketing approach. (p25). However, because the term social marketing can be synonymous

with 'social cause marketing' or 'social ideas marketing', other writers have given different meanings to the terms (Fox and Kotler, 1980). For example, Lazer & Kelley (1973) identified examples of social marketing that they considered misplaced under the headings of 'social responsibilities' and 'social impacts' marketing.

Laczniak et al, (1979), have been criticized for wrongly equating non - profit organizational marketing with social marketing in their article 'Social Marketing: Its Ethical Dimensions', by:

  "... improperly including the marketing of political candidates and urban police departments as examples of social marketing" (p25).

Fox and Kotler (1980) therefore upheld the fact that social marketing should be differentiated from *'societal marketing and 'non-profit organizational marketing'* because social marketing is not just about mass media advertising as it is in the case of commercial marketing whose marketers need to make profits (Donovan & Henley, 2003). It is further argued that social marketing also differs from generic marketing because social marketing deals with *'sensitive, hard to reach issues'* with very high expectations and benefits that are difficult to portray and are also subject to public scrutiny especially when public funding is involved (Kotler and Andreasen, 1996).

Table 2.3 has been presented in order to clarify the key characteristics of social marketing and to highlight what social marketing is not, see table 2.3 below.

Table 2.3 Social Marketing: What it is and what it is not

What Social Marketing is	What Social Marketing is not
Social marketing uses marketing strategies alongside other methods for the benefits of other people rather than financial gains for marketers (Andreasen & Kotler, 2003).	Social marketing is not just an educational process that changes values perceptions or done in a vacuum.
It analyses the competition to the desired behaviour changes and develops strategies to address it (Stead, 2006).	It does not deal with competition by ignoring it or increases adverts to counter its effects
It's a behaviour change strategy, well designed, planned and executed (Hastings, 2007).	It is not a clever slogan or messaging strategy.
It aims for behaviour changes that are long term and sustainable (Smith, 2006)..	Not a one-off intervention or transaction,
It thinks about social change and manages it (Stead, 2006).	Not just about communication for profitable outcomes or social advertising-
Puts the target audience at the centre of social marketing thinking to encourage behaviour change (French & Blair-Stevens, 2005; Stead, 2006; Donovan & Henley, 2003).	Marketers and their organizations take the accolade for achievements.
Social marketing activities are funded from public funds and donations, publicly accountable (Donovan & Henley, 2011).	It is not funded by private investors or is an investment, privately accountable to shareholders and directors
Deals with high risk, challenging behaviours and hard to reach target audiences (Hastings, 2007; Andreasen, 2006).	Deals with more accessible and willing audiences.
Interventions, relationships often based on building trust (Donovan & Henley, 20011).	Interventions, relationships often based on a more competitive platform.
It is strategic and requires efficient use of resources (Pirani & Reizes, 2005).	An image campaign
Social marketing promised benefits are often delayed due to complexities on both personal and social levels (Kotler & Andreasen, 1995).	Promised benefits delivered more quickly; instant gratification.
Tends to operate within a system that inhibits success and exacerbates the social problem (Donovan & Henley, 2003:34)	Does not operate within social systems conducive to market forces.

Table 2.3 Adopted from the various authors as referenced under each statement.

2.9 Differentiating Social Marketing from Other Approaches

The processes of influencing social change and getting positive voluntary actions from targeted individuals or groups can take many forms. These processes encompass major approaches which can be legal, educational, technological, economical and informational and these are defined below.

(a) **Legal Approaches:** These entail passing laws and public policies that use coercion to get a non- voluntary behavioural response or action from a target group or individuals. These approaches are always accompanied by threats of penalties such as monetary fines for non–compliance (Maibach, 2002:9), for example, exceeding the speed limit, excessive CO2 emissions in the air (Lee & Salaver, 2004), and the taking of illegal drugs (West & O'Neal, 2004; Ennettel et al, 1994).

Social marketing campaigns that have promoted social causes such as, 'smoking cessation' (Hastings, 2007: 278`); 'the wearing of seat belts' (Andreasen & Kotler ,2003: 422) and 'reduction in alcohol consumption' (Hastings 2007) have had laws and public polices associated with influencing behavioural changes. Those social causes have had an effect on individuals and society as a whole. Therefore, when positive behavioural changes are achieved they will benefit society in general. However, such social causes are greatly underpinned by environmental issues and public policies past and present. It could be argued that such major issues that affect a whole community or the society at large, social marketing alone cannot always untangle the process; it requires re-enforcement, and that support is via legal approaches.

Maibach, (2002) and Fox & Kotler, (1980) have argued that laws and public policies by definitions are not marketing-based approaches although, in certain circumstances, the use of coercive methods can be applied and have been applied. The application of such methods, for example, in the case of 'excessive use of alcohol' may be used to reduce access to those goods and services at certain times and certain places.

Maibach (2002) states that policies used in this way are increasingly considered as a

"...marketing-based approach to behaviour change, as they seek to influence elements of the competition's marketing mix, price and /or placement" (Maibach, 2002:10).

(b) Educational Approaches: These cover information put together with the intention to persuade a target audience to voluntarily behave in a certain way (Rothschild 1999). Although social marketing uses education in this format, it is not synonymous with it. However, educational material on its own is insufficient to influence changes in behaviour (Fox & Kotler 1980). Only when packages of benefits in comparison to others are more favourably, desirable and more attractive to the target audience, can it be put into the social marketing bracket and labelled social marketing. Maibach (2002) agrees but points out that when packages of benefits are not as appealing and the costs of changing behaviours are higher than other competing elements, education alone will not make the desired impact. The example, a '*Sudden Infant Death Syndrome*' case (Cotroneo, 2001), shows that information via educational materials made a tremendous impact on target audiences, resulting in widespread behaviour changes. However, this case was underpinned by good formative information, relevant segmentation and targeting of the target groups and effective marketing strategies. In two other examples concerning obesity (Gately, 2003), and drink driving (Grier and Bryant, 2005), although the marketplace was flooded with educational materials, other factors made the message more muddled and as a result the achievements of the campaigns have been less successful.

Although in the cases above the educational materials encouraged individuals to behave in a more responsible way and within the law, and to take the necessary steps to get help and advice, the operational processes were very different. In the case of obesity, it was found that many persons obesity was genetically linked (Public Policy Issues, 2003) and needed to be dealt with medically, while others needed to address the issue in other ways. Unlike the 'SIDS' example, different solutions were required and this made it more difficult to market the message.

With drink driving, target audiences are often very resistant to change. This is when other forms of interventions are needed to strengthen the 'message' and effect successful outcomes.

(c) Technological Forms of Approaches: The development of this 'innovation' are aimed at helping target audiences comply with the changes of behaviour required (Fox & Kotler, 1980). For example, in smoking cessation' campaigns in different parts of the world, anti-smoking pills and nicotine free cigarettes are made available (Medical Reports 2007). Obtaining and using these products are helpful in stimulating behaviour changes for the good of everyone involved and their acquaintances.

(d) Economic Approaches: These approaches usually affect the cost of the customer's present behaviour. For example, if a customer is a heavy drinker or smoker, raising prices of these goods through higher taxes and or penalizing individuals through higher insurance rates may influence some behaviour changes in these social habits but not in all cases (Fox & Kotler 1980). This is potentially a key issue especially with regards to addressing obesity and promoting healthy diets as currently fast foods and fatty foods tend to be cheaper, easily obtainable and sometimes far more appealing than what is believed to be good healthy foods.

(e) Informational Approaches: Social marketing is said to be synonymous with social advertising This is because in many cases, persuasive advertising are often directed at certain target groups to influence their behaviours; such as in family planning processes to acquiring better eating habits. Informational messages are seen on billboards, seen in leaflets and through advertisements on the radio. All too often these are the only steps taken to motivate new behaviours (Fox & Kotler 1980; Andreasen & Kotler 2003). This kind of informational approach is by itself inadequate in changing and sustaining new behaviours (Maibach 2002). This may be because the information may affect only a small segment of a group targeted; it will not be insight driven; the concept of exchange and competition will not be addressed and measurement of behaviour changes will not be easily attainable (French & Blair-Stevens 2007).

Social marketing has many weaknesses and there are many ways in which its systems can be distorted by others (Smith, 2006). However, Smith feels that social marketing

"...extends a hand of hope – if we really listen ..." (Smith, 2006) to the targeted audience.

In so doing, we may be able to create more sustainable social change if people are treated as individuals. Therefore, their individual feelings, ideas, hopes and aspirations should be respectfully listened to, taken into consideration and acted on where possible in order to fulfil wishes that will benefit them and others around them. In fact, by working in partnership with individuals, target audiences and stakeholders optimizes the chances of achieving the goals desired or goals set. These key points are summarized diagrammatically as seen in figure 2.4.

2.10 SUMMARY

This chapter has discussed the development of the concept of social marketing depicted through an historical journey. This encompassed the birth of social marketing, its childhood, adolescence and maturity. The chapter highlighted social marketing's links to another lineage, commercial marketing being it's first, and explored various definitions of social marketing including those that underpin the study. The chapter concludes with two issues firstly, a table clarifying the characteristics of what social marketing is and what social marketing is not. Secondly, it highlighted the differential aspects of the concept of social marketing and its links to 'five major approaches' that also influence peoples' behavioural actions. The second literature review will address issues of behaviour changes and exchanges relationships, looking also at what target audiences contends with, in the process of their decision making. The examination of benchmarks, strategies and ethical issues will conclude this chapter.

3.0 CHAPTER THREE: SECOND LITERATURE REVIEW: THE MECHANICS OF SOCIAL MARKETING BEHAVIOUR CHANGES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

It is clear that the aim of the social marketing process is to successfully obtain target audiences' voluntary behaviour change to meet the marketer's objectives (Hastings, 2007; Andreasen & Kotler, 2003). If these objectives are to be met then the process of social marketing planning, designing and implementation has to be motivated, coordinated and structured to those ends. Ideally, this should happen whether the marketer is working in partnership with his or her target audiences in groups or with individuals, or working in partnership with stakeholders or other upstream target audiences. A well planned and executed social marketing campaign is far more likely to achieve success and will create opportunities and methods for achieving sustainable behaviour change.

While the preceding chapter focussed on the history and evolution of the social marketing concept, this chapter addresses the people being targeted by social marketing campaigns and the contents and approaches of such campaigns. It will explore the target audiences' behaviours and behaviour changes and will consider how social marketing campaign goals can be achieved. The chapter aims to explore the various factors that may be important for the success of social marketing campaigns and will examine emerging benchmarking criteria and strategies. The exploration of ethical issues relating to social marketing research and their meanings within non-profit organizations and in the medical field will conclude this chapter.

3.2 The Importance of Behaviour Change in the Social Marketing Process

Social marketing is all about finding strategies for changing behaviours (Kotler & Roberto, 1989; Baranowski et al. 2002), and the core of the social marketing process is to see how behaviour changes can be achieved through exchange, the core concept of marketing (Andreasen, 1995; Donovan & Henley, 2003).

Schwartz (2007) suggested social marketing is:

"…a programme planning process which promotes voluntary behaviour change based on building beneficial exchange relationships with a target audience for the benefit of society' (Schwartz, 2007).

People's patterns of behaviour are complex (Smith, 2006). Therefore, understanding their needs and wants and hence the factors that motivate them to adopt sustained behaviour changes is important. This has become the cornerstone of the concept of marketing in general and social marketing in particular (Williams, 1989; French & Blair-Stevens, 2007; Hastings, 2007).

Although not all individuals in target groups have the same needs or levels of needs, together they will have a strong impact on the effectiveness of planned programmes, marketing communications and outcomes (Rothschild, 1987). Fundamentally social marketing aims for aggregated behaviour changes (Lefebvre, 2013).

Hornik (2002) contends that for a marketer to gain a major impact on behaviour changes there has to be an 'intensity of focus' on behavioural goals. These behavioural goals are the overarching determinants in any behaviour-change process (French and Blair-Stevens 2005), as these behaviour-change processes are the situations that influence behaviour change (Hornik, 2002). These behaviour-change processes can either enable a target audience's decision making

or they can impede such decisions. For example, even if the target audience accepts a message about, for example, healthy eating and exercise, the availability and accessibility of a means of achieving the desired behaviour change is vital. If the target audience is unable to access fresh fruits and vegetables or does not have a safe place or time for exercise, then the message is wasted (Lefebvre 2013).

These change processes include educating or changing the values and attitudes of the target audiences so that the behavioural objectives or the goals the marketers have set are achieved.

However, social marketing is not just about education or changing attitudes; its ultimate criterion is to successfully influence behaviour and obtain a voluntary behaviour change for the good of individuals and that of their wider community and thus, social marketing has to be much more than an education campaign (Andreasen, 2006:91).

Because of the complexities surrounding such behavioural changes, it is sometimes hard to attribute the outcomes of change processes to specific influences (Honik 2002:2; Jami et al, 2007). This is because there are many other influential determinants that can play a part in any decision making process that leads to voluntary behaviour change. Andreasen (2006:148), concurs highlighting that the social marketing process, more times than not, is only operational after upstream structural changes have been made. For example, the availability of facilities to foster whatever a campaign planned behaviour changes are. When such changes take place target audiences are given greater freedom and the ability to make desired and informed choices in their efforts to comply with the behaviour change message. Additionally, there are target audiences' influencers which can aid or impair behavioural changes. These include the existence or otherwise of supportive infrastructures and the support (or not) of friends, families and others (Solomon et al, 1999; Williams, 1989; Kotler & Lee, 2008), such as providing an income stream for target audiences' affordability.

3.3 Behaviour Changes and Exchange Behaviours

Hastings, (2007) argues that there are three key issues in effective social marketing. He talks about the need to fully understand and relate to those being targeted by the initiative, as

"Successful behaviour change is built on a thorough and well-built grounded understanding of current behaviour and the people engaged in it" (Hastings, 2007:41).

He also puts significant emphasis on the transference of learning to influence changes in social and health behaviour and the importance of strategic planning to promote good.

This focus on the 'customer' is important (Hastings, 2007; French & Blair-Stevens, 2007) and listening to the customer, gathering formative information and having a complete understanding of their situation makes it easier for marketers' messages to influence their target audiences.

As a result, target audiences are better able to respond (Hastings, 2007; Smith, 2006; Love, 2006). Hastings (2007) argued that by listening to the target audience marketers get a better understanding of the limitations of their own initiatives and the narrowness of their own views. Thus, when behaviour changes are promoted, it is with the belief that there will be improvements to target audiences' health, wellbeing, safety and the environment; not only contributing to their good but that of their community and society in general (Kotler & Roberto, 1989).

Smith, (2002:46) argued that social marketing's main contribution to social change is the belief that voluntary behaviour change is achieved through *'an exchange of values'* with another who in return gain something that is also of value. Understanding what a target group or individuals value, is the key to influencing their behaviour for positive outcomes (Smith, 2002).

Although there may be doubts as to the existence of the exchange concept in some areas of social marketing (Donovan & Henley 2003:25) there are strong and clear arguments for regarding the exchange concept as a core element of the social marketing approach (Hastings, 2007; Lee & Kotler, 2011). By using the exchange concept, an adaptation of commercial marketing

principles, the social marketer promotes messages. These messages, ideas or social issues are promoted with a preconceived rationale and pre-emptive confidence that target audiences will only effect actions leading to voluntary behavioural changes if circumstances are right for them (Smith, 2002). That is, the exchange value is in their interest (Smith, 2002). A decision to change their behaviour will also be made on the premise that the 'exchange' the marketer is promoting will be better than alternatives, including doing nothing (Kotler & Andreasen, 1996). Figure 3.1 highlights this theory. The exchange concept is an adaption of commercial marketing principles.

Figure 3.1 Exchanges reciprocal character
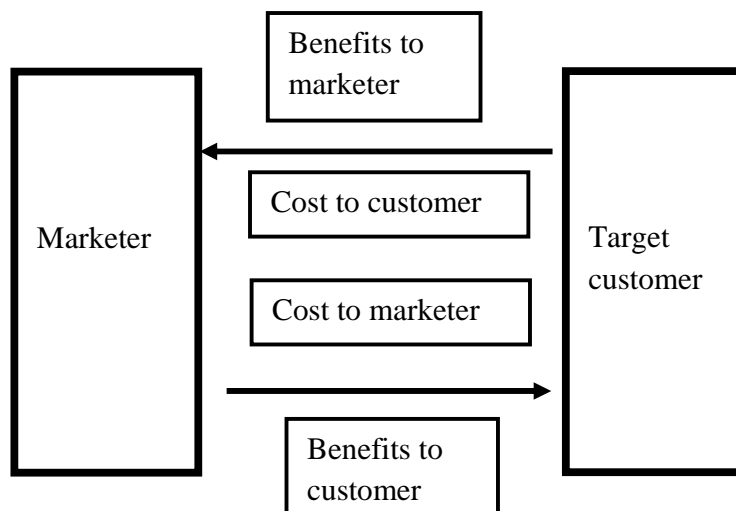
Figure 3.1Kotler & Andreasen, 1996:111.

The exchange process is fundamental and can be used to highlight the challenges and opportunities faced by marketers (Miline & McDonald, 1999), because

"Marketers are in the profession of creating, building, and maintaining exchanges" (Andreasen & Kotler, 2003).

3.3.1 Prerequisites to Behaviour Changes

In social marketing, exchanges between target audiences and the marketers tend to be more intangible than tangible. In this process of exchange interactions or relationship connections, the five prerequisites to any exchange taking place need to be operational (Bagozzi, 1979; Kotler, 2000, Andreasen, 2002). These are:

1. At least two parties are involved.

2. Each party has something that might be of value to the other party.

3. Each party is capable of communication and delivery on promises.

4. Each party is free to accept or reject any offer from the other and

5. Each party believes it is appropriate or desirable to deal with the other party (Andreasen, 2002).

Pivotal to the suggestions above are the assumptions that exchange must be mutually beneficial to both parties (Hastings 2007), and providing perceived benefits outweigh perceived costs, voluntary behaviour changes will most likely take place (Maibach, 1993; Hastings, 2007). Hastings (2007) further argued that the exchange process should not be seen as one in which there is a 'winner' or 'loser' but circumstances in which both parties are 'winners'. This means that the target audience's needs are met and the organizational objectives via the marketer are also met agrees Lefebvre, (2013).

3.3.2 Choices and the use of Choices

In the exchange of behaviour or the behaviour change process, target audiences have choices. These behaviour changes emanate from messages promoted to them, what they see and hear and what they observed through interactions with their marketers. Those choices are also affected by powerful influencing determinants around them such as families and friends and the affordability, availability and accessibility of the objects of their choice**.**

Choice is essential to our autonomy, fundamental to our well-being and serves to improve the quality of our lives Schwartz (2004). However, Schwartz also recognizes that there is a down side to this aspect when we are overloaded with choices. Having an abundance of choices can lead to hesitation, procrastination and the questioning of one's ability to make right decisions and one's judgment of the situation. This could lead to making the wrong choices (Schwartz, 2004). This is a process many people experience in their daily lives, for example, the choice of driving to work or riding a bicycle to work. The decision to be made here is between costs that will be incurred by the use of the car plus its addition to Co2 emissions in the atmosphere and, the healthier option of using the bike with added improvements to fitness levels.

In situations where choices have to be made, information and knowledge of such situations become important. For example, if a target audience is given relevant and adequate information about the product or message of behaviour change, they are more empowered to make informed choices, to change or not to change their behaviour. Such information may even give them an option to decide on time limits to such a behaviour change, depending on the benefits to be derived from the decision (Kotabe & Helsen, 2000; Legace, 2002). Choices can be used to liberate a target audience rather than debilitate them. When target audiences are not given relevant information, packaged to accommodate their understanding, their vulnerability is increased and they are put at a disadvantage (Kangun, 1972; Smith, 2002). In such circumstances others will make decisions for them (their influencers, family, friends, and the community) rather than them making those decisions for themselves. Such circumstances are unlikely to engender positive steps towards sustainable behaviour changes.

If certain behaviours are viewed by a marketer as harmful and damaging and need to be changed, it must be recognised that the behaviours in question are usually affected by other anomalies than those that are obvious. This is because one person's set of behaviours are influenced by his or her other sets of behaviours and together they contribute to the whole person. For example, the habit of not eating healthily could be harmful and could contribute to obesity (although not necessarily so). This action could also contribute to ill health which will affect a persons' life style and their living. Choice plays a part in this process. Therefore, there should be a balance

between the choices target audiences have and a clear indication of the rewards they will get for making the choices that will prove to be beneficial to themselves and others about them.

Target audiences have choices and when faced with social messages of behaviour change they should be allowed to exercise those choices although there may be extenuating circumstances that limit those choices. The marketers' influences will impact greatly on those choices depending on the strategies used and the marketing mix employed, such as the 4Ps and relevant extra Ps.

3.3.3 Behaviour Drivers

It is accepted that target audiences' decisions are affected by choices, informed or not, and by influencing elements of one kind or another. But their behaviour changes are also influenced by what is referred to as 'behaviour drivers' (Andreasen & Kotler, 2003). See figure 3.2. Behaviour drivers are said to contain a vast complex of factors that can affect target audiences' behaviours both internally and externally (Andreasen & Kotler, 2003).   Andreasen (1995) suggested that there are four key drivers that affect behaviour changes, and these are, 'benefits, costs, others and self-efficacy,' referred to as BCOS**.**

Figure 3.2   Behaviour Drivers.
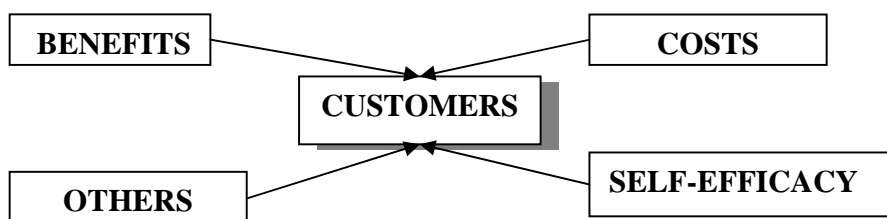
Figure 3.2   Adopted from Andreasen & Kotler, 2003:92

In this process, benefits and costs are the most frequently used in behaviour change interactions

between marketer and target audience. These are also the first two factors the target audience contemplates. Therefore, if a marketer *'creates a compelling package of benefits'* showing minimum costs and the target audience understands this to be so, they will more likely be influenced into considering a behaviour-change.

The third driver *'others'* can be an influencing force of interpersonal and social pressures resulting in decisions either for or against behaviour change in a target audience's decision making process. *'Others'* can be in the form of one group or a number of groups, (see section 3.3.4) depending on the groups to which the target audience is closely affiliated.

The influences exerted here by any group could make or break a target audience decision in the acceptance of new behaviour suggestions.

The fourth driver *'self-efficacy'*, is a culmination of the other drivers (Bandura, 1969, & 1997; Andreasen & Kotler, 2003). This driver inspires individuals of the target audience to believe that they can actually achieve the suggested behaviour change without any problems at all. In some cases, a target audience may view the aspect of changing behaviour as simplistic to achieve. For example, the reaction of smokers who want to quit smoking could portray how convinced they are in achieving their goal because of the level of group support they have within their target audience (Andreasen & Kotler 2003). However, it could be argued that in many cases individuals struggle, as self-doubt takes over, leading to unsuccessful actions.

Andreasen & Kotler (2003) suggested that marketers should be aware of the intricacies in the stages of these behaviour drivers and their influences on target audiences' decision making, especially the stage of self-efficacy. In so doing marketers should go a step further and address individual self-efficacy in their programme planning, an important stage towards any programme's success (Andreasen & Kotler, 2003).

3.3.4 Groups and their Influencers

Human beings are social animals, only differing in the way they define themselves and in how they make relationships (Homey, 1950). They belong to groups from which they get cues on how to behave and when and where to express such behaviours (Williams, 1989). Individuals interact with many different groups including family groups, extended family groups, social

groups, work groups and special interest groups. A group's impact on an individual is significant because it will normally satisfy or address their particular needs. With a desire to fit into the various groups, individuals go to great lengths to please group members (Solomon et al, 1999: 269), and to keep the group as harmoniously cohesive as possible. Therefore, incurring a group's disapproval could mean rejection (Williams, 1989). Individuals generally try and avoid being rejected by the groups that matter to them and from which they derive benefits in terms of support in many things including decision making in the behaviour change process.

Lefebvre (2001) stated that:

"most of the behaviours we work with, and the circumstances in which we work with people, happen in a context of dynamic social networks and systems — both theirs and ours." *Lefebvre, 2001.*

Therefore, it is argued that:

"Behaviour change is often a quantum event, rather than a linear and predictable one ". (Resnicow & Page, 2001).

In other words, behaviour changes can be seen as susceptible to influencers and conditions that are impacting on individuals within target groups at the time of making important decisions.

3.3.5 Relationships in the Exchange Behaviour Process

In social marketing it is necessary to consider both the exchange concept and the exchange analysis. The concept of exchange is seen as benefits to the customer versus the costs the customer incurs in order to change their behaviour. French & Blair- Stevens, (2007) argued that 'the full cost to the customer in achieving the proposed benefits' should be analysed as well as the 'perceived /actual costs versus the perceived/actual benefits' (p.88). Because each target audience differs in their perception, rewards, recognition, incentives and disincentives must be suited to each target audience's attitudes and values in order to keep them interested in achieving

stated goals (Hastings, 2007; Levitt & Dunbar, 2005). The five prerequisites that Kotler (2000) and Andreasen, (2002) suggested are needed in exchange behaviour process, see section 3.3.1.

"Social marketing is potentially powerful but flexible structures for helping target audiences achieve specific and measurable impacts on different types of behaviours" (NSMC Report 2, 2005:5).

Social marketing's principles, developed from the stable of commercial marketing, have been used meaningfully and efficiently in many campaigns with tremendous success. However, Smith (2006) observed that social marketing has many weaknesses and there are many ways in which its system can be distorted by others. Smith (2006) explained that even in such circumstances if a marketer worked closely with his or her target groups, working from an individual's perspective, a more sustainable social change can be created. This is working within a 'planned programme of behaviour change'. These points are summarised diagrammatically in figure 2.4 - The Success Mode, section 2.7.

If social marketing is approached as a specific process that affects behaviour changes, underpinned by positive and strategic interventions, it is much more likely to be amenable in its application and successful in its outcomes. Therefore, knowledge of the characteristics of social marketing can evolve.

3.4 Characteristics of Social Marketing: it's Differentiating Factors

The following five points depict the characteristics of social marketing, they are:

- Social marketing is evidenced based; based on what works and what does not work (Devlin, 2006: 3, Hastings, 2007).

- Its bottom line is behavioural change. It is the influencing of target audiences and their voluntary behaviour change results that distinguishes it from other disciplines like Government Laws and Regulations.

- A social marketing process takes time out to understand the customers / target audiences. It is a matter of getting to know the customers by focusing on their needs and wants and what moves and motivates them (Andreasen, 1994: 108-114, French & Blair–Stevens, 2005; Lefebvre, 2013)

- A good social marketing process listens to the customers and builds programmes of interventions from their perspectives (Weinreich, 2004:1-3, French & Blair –Stevens, 2005; Smith, 2006).

- Social marketing addresses elements of the basic marketing-mix which is commercial marketing's four Ps – product, price, place and promotion – and input additional Ps of its own when necessary such as, publics, partnerships, policies, and purse strings (ibid:1-3).

The greatest accomplishment in social marketing is experienced when the marketing mix is just right for an intervention and for the group targeted. This makes the implementation of the social marketing process more likely to be successful in its outcome.

Social marketing interventions will always seek to effect voluntary behaviour changes in target audiences whatever their cultures, ages or gender or, whether their infrastructure meets expectations. In these situations, social marketing can combine a range of techniques, methods and processes to form a *'dynamic and integrated discipline'* with inbuilt flexibility and adaptability to effect good results (French & Blair-Stevens, 2007).

3.5 Benchmarks

In addition to the characteristics of social marketing as those discussed above, there are other aspects of social marketing that are important in achieving the desired end results. Efforts have been made by various scholars and practitioners to use these as a basis for an extended framework for defining specific social marketing principles. They have been presented as (a) benchmarking criteria and (b) strategies. Andreasen (2002), French & Blair-Stevens, (2007), Lefebvre, (2006) and Lefebvre, (2013) are some of the authors who have formulated benchmarks

and strategies. Firstly benchmarks will be discussed and secondly, the discussion relating to strategies will show how these have been used by marketers in various combinations in various campaigns.

Andreasen, (2002) formulated six benchmarking criteria that gave guidelines to marketers in their quest to design, plan and execute social marketing campaigns for behaviour changes (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1 Andreasen's six benchmarks

Benchmarks	Definitions
1.Behaviour changes	This benchmark is used to design and evaluate interventions that are the desired goal or outcome.
2.Audience research	Audience research or formative research is used to (a) understand target audiences at the outset of interventions, (b) routinely pre-test intervention elements before implementation, (c) monitor interventions as they are rolled out.
3. Segmentation and targeting	This ensures maximum efficiency and effectiveness in the use of scare resources in developing a tailor-made 'message' of behaviour change for specific target groups.
4. Exchanges	These are central elements in influential strategies, working with target audiences.
5. Marketing mix	The strategy of using all '4Ps' of the traditional marketing mix plus other 'Ps' relevant to social marketing, such as, policy, people, purse string, partnership, etc.
6.Competition	Internal and external competition affects the 'desired behaviour' or 'change behaviours' and needs to be addressed in the interest of success and sustainability.

Table 3.1 Benchmarks, Andreasen, 2002

Andreasen argued that the six elements of his benchmarks must be met for a programme to claim to be a social marketing intervention. Although, he conceded that, not all programmes will be able to meet each benchmark in equal measure as each campaign's circumstances and personnel involved are unique.

3.5.1 Expanding Andreasen's Benchmarking Criteria

Building on the benchmarks Andreasen formulated, French & Blair-Stevens (2006) from The
National Social Marketing Centre mirrored and broadened the six benchmarks into eight
benchmarks. These eight benchmarks are presented in table 3.2 with brief explanations.

Table 3.2 Social Marketing Benchmark Criteria

Benchmarks	Explanations
Customer orientation	Intervention clearly seeks to impact on behaviour with specific and measurable goals.
Consumer research	Formative consumer / market research used to identify audience characteristics and needs.
Theory-based and informed	Mixed theory-based approach used to underpin and inform the development of the interventions.
Insight driven	The focus is clearly on gaining a deep understanding and insight into what moves and motivates the consumer. Identifying and developing 'actionable insights' using considered judgement, rather than simply generating more data and intelligence.
Exchange concept	Clear analysis of the full cost to the consumer in achieving the proposed benefit. Analysis of the perceived costs versus perceived benefits.
Competition	Strategies employed to minimise the potential impact of competition; both internal and external competition to be addressed.
Segmentation approach	This is beyond a simple demographic or epidemiological targeting; segmented approaches are used to focus on what motivates a specific target audience, using psycho-graphic data: the study that classify people according to their attitudes, aspirations, etc. especially in marketing research.
Integrates a mix of methods	Range of methods used to establish an appropriate mix of marketing methods. Methods and approaches developed taking full account of any other interventions in order to achieve synergy and enhance the overall impact.

Table 3.2 Benchmarks adapted from French, Blair-Stevens, 2006.

French & Blair-Stevens (2007) suggested that the benchmarking criteria could be used in a
whole variety of ways far beyond the core aim of devising a campaign plan to influence target

audiences into changing their behaviours. These other ways include promoting or commissioning work in social marketing with regards to training , planning, developing, evaluating and researching aspects of social marketing.

3.5.2 Further Expansion in the use of Benchmarking Criteria

Benchmarking criteria can also be utilized for the detection and exploration of social marketing campaigns that have already taken place as well as an aid for good planning. These benchmarks can be used **a**s a measurement tool to scrutinize aspects of the campaigns in order to ascertain whether social marketing principles and practices are being complied with.   If the findings are positive the campaigns' social marketing definitions can be legitimized.

Lefebvre (2006) suggested five key questions that could help in identifying and evaluating genuine social marketing processes or help in the planning of the same. These five questions are:

(*a*) *"Do the authors have an insight into their target audience?*

(*b*)   *Are they focusing on behaviour as their 'product' (what are they encouraging a large number of people to adopt or sustain?*

(*c*)   *Do they influence or try to alter the relevant balance of incentives and costs for either maintaining the current behaviour or adopting a new one?*

(*d*)   *Do they attempt to increase access and opportunities for the audience to try new behaviours and then sustain them?*

(*e*)   *Are communication and other promotional techniques used to reach and engage the audience in ways that are relevant, attention-getting, tap into existing motivations and aspirations and have sufficient frequency to be remembered and acted on?"* (Lefebvre, 2006).

These questions point to the importance of ascertaining formative information to achieve a better intervention 'fit' with the target audience and to support potential behaviour changes through communication and sustainable resources.

Hastings (2007) argued that in the application of benchmarking criteria there is a need to start with a clearly defined behaviour and target group. The use of benchmarks as a measurement tool can be applied to any targeted group such as individuals or community groups, (referred to as 'down-stream' target audiences) or professionals or policy makers, (referred to as the 'up-stream' target groups). Whichever group is being targeted it is necessary, through formative research, to have an insight into their needs and wants. This knowledge will facilitate an efficiently planned intervention or establish an individual's working alliance. This would only ever be put in operation with an individual's full co-operation.

French & Blair-Stevens (2007) argued that regardless of which groups are being targeted the marketer should be customer focused whereby the customer becomes the centre of any planning. This means the marketer is starting from the customer's perspective in order to design an efficient plan to work comfortably with the target group and towards a better behaviour change. In this way the marketer will not be applying the same theoretical framework in each social marketing intervention but will be able to detect and effectively use the relevant *'bio-physical, psychological, social and environmental / ecological'* behavioural theories (French & Blair-Stevens, 2007:72).

3.6 Strategies: Their part in the Marketing Intervention

Marketers use benchmarks as a guide (Andreasen, 2002) to plan and design a campaign process and these benchmarks can become the engine that helps to drive a campaign. However these benchmarks are enhanced by the use of strategies. Selecting the most appropriate strategies will allow marketers to apply greater flexibility in their interactions with target audiences, thus helping them to build relationships that ultimately affect the exchange goals desired.

If there is a possibility that all benchmarks are linked to the idea of being predictors of success and if strategies are being deployed with benchmarks, then they are also accountable as predictors of success.

Strategies support marketing goals and objectives and therefore help to drive the desired outcomes. Social marketing campaigns utilise all types of strategies, the actual ones used in each campaign are dependent on the behaviours being targeted. For example, in a series of successful campaigns (reports written by the same authors, Kotler & Lee, 2005) a number of strategies were used in their interventions that positively enhanced the campaigns' progress. The marketing interventions were strongly underpinned by partnership alliances and "Corporate Social Marketing", referred to by Kotler and Lee, (2005) as a *"powerful if often misunderstood strategy",* that utilizes marketing principles and techniques to encourage behaviour changes.

The first successful campaign based in the USA (Kotler & Lee, 2005), was a partnership alliance instigated between an insurance company and the Fire Department of a town. The goal was to change the Town's citizens' values and attitudes about fires as a preventative measure to avoid the devastating effects of the regular 'wild fires' that destroyed houses and land. A combination of strategies were used including education and training; community programmes; focus groups; motivation building,; mass media incorporating billboards, posters and brochures; videos,; community meetings and other multimedia initiatives. The campaign was so successful that it was used as an example by other towns with similar vulnerabilities.

The second campaign operated in three cities in North America, (Kotler & Lee, 2005) aimed to engage the public concerning water shortages and drought prevention, was similarly successful. The goals of the campaign were, 'to conserve water, a preventative measure against droughts. They used a whole raft of strategies including personal interactions; web-based information; logos; personal interest commitment; other partnership levels; nurturing enthusiasm and giving support.

Launched along social marketing lines, was the third campaign (Kotler & Lee, 2005) that aimed to combat a *'Silent epidemic'* of oral disease in America, especially among children from low income families. The social marketing campaign was the result of a joint partnership between a large toothpaste firm and senior members of the Boys and Girls Clubs of America. Schools were a major stakeholder as over 51 million hours of schooling were lost due to dental-related diseases. Special efforts were made to use strategies that would help, encourage and support new habits in dental care. This included many strategies from the campaigns mentioned above as well as school based programmes; parental involvement; partnership support and education and training pitched at different levels to accommodate the children's different age group, their careers, teachers and community volunteers.   Not only was behaviour change their goal but sustainability of that change was a major issue, as reflected in their aim "to create a cavity-free next generation of children."

How marketers used strategies and the reasons for using them and the combinations in which they are used will impact greatly on the results of each campaign. The results will also be affected depending on the target audiences and the behavioural exchanges aimed for. This is why many campaigns can use the same strategies, complied with the same benchmarks but get different results.

3.7 Exploration of Ethical Issues in Social Marking

 Marketing is an action that could be referred to as inanimate, devoid of life or feelings and therefore unable to act consciously in deciding what is right or wrong. This being so, it is incumbent on social marketers to fully understand the ethical concept and its application and the need to support and put in operation an ethical framework as part of the planning and designing of any social marketing campaign (Andreasen, 2001; Siegel & Lottenberg, 2007; Truss & White, 2010). This is regarded as a complex process (Laczniak & Murphy, 2006; Ferrell & Gresham, 1985).

Because this study has not conducted any actual social marketing itself and has created its original data out of pre-existing information, there were no major ethical issues that it had to deal with. However in practice, ethical issues in social marketing interventions with target audiences form an important consideration of the planning and designing of programmes.

For this reason it is necessary to briefly explore the subject.

"Ethics is the philosophical discipline concerned with the education and justification of norms and standards of personal and interpersonal behaviour" (Karhausen 1987: 25),

As such, ethics is relevant to the processes of interaction between marketers and target audiences. This branch of philosophy addresses the issues of human behaviour relating to the process of what is right and what is wrong and has developed into *"society's code of moral conduct" (Remonyi et al, 2011).* This is necessary for marketers in their dealings with target audiences.

Because social marketing is essentially a behavioural intervention and marketers influencing the behaviours of target audiences from downstream, upstream and midstream environments, ethical issues are impossible to avoid. Concurring with Hastings' (2007) argument:

"Every step of the social marketing process raises ethical dilemmas but marketing itself is amoral" (p219).

Therefore, the process that drives social marketing to effect behavioural changes brings with it many ethical issues and must first be addressed before the continuation of a social marketing campaign (Blair-Stevens, Slater and French, 2006; Hastings, 2007), because ethics is situation-related. The processes of social marketing have a powerful effect on the lives of target audiences socially, physiologically and psychologically (Hastings, 2007; Smith 2002). Such effects affect human actions, motives and their motivations and will ultimately affect communities and sometimes societies at large. As such, the need for an ethics based approach is paramount (Remenyi et al 2011).

3.7.1 The Need for Ethics

The changes that were made to Human Rights Legislation (1998) and the societal changes that led to the need for The Data Protection Act (1998) have brought the need for ethics and its ramifications to the forefront of society's thinking and society's operations (Ethical Guidelines, 2003). Ethics Protocols and Research Ethics Committees (REC) are now an established part of universities and indeed other institutions that interact with people through different types of services and research activities. Research Ethics and Ethics Protocols are required for the protection of both researchers and their participants. These are underpinned by the *Nuremberg Code of practice 1948*, which covers from experimentation on human beings to simpler interactive research processes.

 Hastings (2007) stated that,

"…responses to ethical dilemmas are influenced by our environment and social norms",

In the developed regions of the world many formal ethical rules and regulations were established in the interest of those people with whom marketers' interactions took place or would take place in the future. The developing world appears to be playing catch up. Empirical evidence has shown that incentives offered to a target audience in relation to a behaviour change was lacking in ethical considerations for the group's understanding, cultural ramifications and the short and long term impact on their actions

Medicine, being a well established profession, has built up an ethical foundation over the centuries and ethics have always been a predominant feature (Maibach & Cotton, 1995), although not without its controversies (Karhausen, 1987). Businesses and Research Practices have improved their research protocol in the late 20th century and early 21st century by the proliferation of 'Ethics Committees' and accompanying procedures and guidelines (Remonyi et al , 2011). Legal ramifications for non-adherence to these can be the outcome, as observed in the media at various times.

3.7.2 The Question of Ethics in social marketing and research

During the early development of social marketing, Laczniak and his colleagues had doubts about the process of 'social marketing' and ethical issues and how these would be encompassed in the process (Laczniak et al, 1979). They had their concerns investigated by conducting a survey among experts in the fields of Psychology of Social Issues, Economic History, Marketing and Ethics. These experts' opinions revealed that, although social marketing, at the time, was perceived to have major beneficial elements it also had the potential to create significant ethical controversies.

This came as no surprise to Laczniak and his colleagues. But now that they had evidence they felt that they could forge ahead to have ethical issues incorporated in the establishment of the concept that was to be 'social marketing'.

Considering the above and the underlying ideals of social marketing behaviour change messages, it could be argued that ethics is fundamentally important in the process of social marketing. It is therefore incumbent on marketers to be ethically sensitive and sound in their interaction with target audiences at all times to prevent misunderstanding and misconception of their intentions and targeted outcomes (Remenyi et al., 2011; Hastings, 2007; NSMC, 2006).

3.7.3 An Ethical Framework

Kent (1975) argued that:

"...moral principles should be universal or at least universalized" (p27).

In other words, any given action is a moral action for an individual if that action is permissible. For, if a person in the same situation is accepting the given action this is intimating the *'greatest happiness for the greatest number',* which is the ethics of consequence (Kent, 1975). Karhausen (1987) stated that there is a kind of utilitarian ethics that affects social and health welfare as well as freedom, democracy and justice.

Karhausen (1987) expanded his thinking into deontological ethics and explained that, any given ethical behaviour is ethically right because of its obligatory nature and not its desirable consequences. However, it can be argued that public health is essentially utilitarian. Therefore, ethical philosophy will not give unequivocal answers to moral questions without a deeper understanding of scientific facts (Kent, 1975). Karhausen (1987) reiterated the point that there has to be a continual interchange in the process until a coherent view is reached in the relationship between the practices of a profession, for example medicine or social marketing interventions and ethics. It could be argued that this could be regarded as a kind of mutual adjustment of principles not a process of social judgment. These key observations could form an ethical framework to be operated in any relevant procedure.

3.7.4 Ethical Issues in Health

The language of ethics is prescriptive while the language of medicine, deemed a science, is descriptive, the *'two modes of speaking are deductively independent'*; therefore conflict regarding ethics in health will always arise (Karhausen 1987; Rumbold. 2005). Hume, (1960) is quoted as saying:

"one can never derive an ought from an is."

This is further expounded using the example of cigarette smoking and adverts about cigarettes. The notices in the news and on billboards are seen to state that *cigarette smoking* causes lung cancer. Figures are put forward to support this statement as Health Departments try to make a point.

Arguably, there is also a 'common' statement that is absorbed by the public which is, *"...cigarette smoking is bad for you",* and this has been observed in many media spaces.

Karhausen (1987), agreed that this is a value statement in that, one can observe the smoking of a cigarette and the disease of cancer but one cannot observe *'badness'*.

This appears to be a common factor that has been overlooked by some marketers that is, the value statement in their message. Karhausen (1987) deemed the above statement's reasoning as illogical and suggested the injection of an 'ought' in such an inferred statement. If this takes place, the statement would be as follows,

*"...cigarette smoking causes lung cancer; [therefore] we **ought** to eliminate the causes of cancer"* (Hume 1960, p26).

It could be argued that the wording of this second statement would make a greater impact on target audiences in social marketing smoking cessation programmes, as it can be deduced that the **'ought to'** brings to this health-issue statement a more realistic understanding. This could bring together the normative nature of ethics and the descriptive nature of the above health problems. Thus arguably, there could be a more relevant way of evaluating the whole situation and agreeing on some kind of ethical framework for the good of the service; arriving at what can be deemed *the common good* and the consideration of the individual's autonomy.

3.8 Summary

This chapter has considered five areas:

- Behaviour changes and exchanges behaviours.

- The importance of choices for target audiences and what influences and drives their decision making.

- Relationships in the exchange behaviour change process.

- Benchmarks and strategies and the uses made of these by marketers.

- Ethical issues in its historical context and present day ethical protocol that is now a part of research activities.

This chapter has therefore explored the use of benchmarks in social marketing and has reviewed early attempts at creating a framework for good practice. Emerging from this as a key area of importance is the necessity of understanding the perspective of the target audience or customer.

The actual practical content of campaigns has also been explored in terms of the strategies used by marketers and some consideration of the success of these has been considered. However, it would seem from the literature that no study has been undertaken that has explored the true contribution of the identified benchmarks or the strategies and their relative importance. This thesis aims to remedy this oversight and will explore the use of benchmarks and strategies in terms of their role in delivering successful social marketing campaigns. The next chapter will explain the conceptual model and the methodology employed in order to address the research questions presented in chapter one.

4.0 CHAPTER FOUR: METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The concept of social marketing is a developing global discipline. As such its processes are subject to the interpretations of practitioners who implement intensive and extended programmes on a range of topics under the umbrella concept of social marketing. This kaleidoscope of applications has meant that few campaigns are the same, as they are being shaped by the varied interpretations of the social marketing process and the diversity of target audiences. Despite these vagaries social marketing has become a popular method for influencing behaviour, especially in target populations with poor lifestyles and poor health. However, this popularity has been fashion-driven rather than evidence based and there is an urgent need to establish what elements of social marketing are most likely to promote behaviour change in target audiences for successful outcomes. Therefore, this research aims to identify key benchmarks and strategies that are most likely to result in successful social marketing campaigns.

This chapter outlines the rationale and methods used to achieve these aims. The research was undertaken in two stages with both stages using a research population derived from social marketing case study campaigns.

4.2 Aims and Objectives

The aims and objectives of the study are
1. To identify benchmarks for successful social marketing campaigns from the literature review.
2. To investigate case studies using a mixed methods approach, in examining strategies adopted by marketers, whether from profit or not-for-profit organizations when designing and implementing social marketing campaigns.
3. To identify and analyse a set of criteria for benchmarks and possible strategies with which to carry out social marketing campaigns.

4. To provide a coherent set of "predictors of success" to use in social marketing campaigns.

To effectively manage this process, a conceptual model is presented as a guide (**Figure 4.1).**

This model pulls together the themes of the research and provides a simple overview of the methodologies employed to address the research question which is, "what are the key criteria that act as the predictors of success in a social marketing campaign".

As witnessed by the literature review, the development of social marketing is comparatively recent and while there are a variety of interpretations and definitions, no one universally applied definition has immerged. This may be the result of the multiple applications and uses of the term which has meant that finding such a universally applicable definition is almost impossible. This lack of a clear view of the nature of social marketing has not prevented it form being a very popular method used throughout the world by organizations, communities and governments to try and engender positive behaviour change. The lack of, or confused connection between meaning and practice, that is, not clear cut, is represented in the diagram below with a two way arrow, with a question mark in the centre. This thesis attempts to explore this link and aims to consider whether this confused area needs to be clarified and if so, how. It does this by addressing the three research objectives. These aim to identify areas of best practice one being, applying the appropriate marketing mix to the audience targeted to effect satisfactory behaviour changes; and to see if having knowledge of best practice can help to inform the meaning and definition of social marketing. This research therefore aims to identify key criteria that should be employed by social marketing campaigns in order to maximize their success.

The research is undertaken in two stages. Stage one is a qualitative survey of twelve social marketing case study campaigns. The aim of this stage is to identify benchmarks and strategies that are commonly used in social marketing campaigns. This is informed and linked strongly to the literature in chapter three. Stage two of the research is a quantitative study that will test how the benchmarks and strategies identified in stage one are used and applied in a wider sample group of 100 social marketing cases study campaigns.

The results of the analysis will then be considered in light of the meanings and definitions of social marketing with the hope that the clarity of best practice can lead to a better understanding of the meaning and definition of social marketing that will then inform practice in a way that addresses the current 'confused' area between meaning and definition, and practice, shown in figure 4.1 depicting the box with the question mark.

Figure 4.1 Conceptual Model

```
                        ┌─────────────────────┐
                        │  Social Marketing   │
                        └─────────────────────┘
                            ↙           ↘
┌──────────────────────┐  ┌───┐  ┌──────────────┐
│ Meaning and Definition│←→│ ? │←→│   Practice   │
└──────────────────────┘  └───┘  └──────────────┘
                            ↓
                    ┌──────────────────┐
                    │ Characteristics of│
                    │ Social Marketing  │
                    │ Campaigns         │
                    └──────────────────┘

┌────────────────────────┐  ┌──────────────────────────────┐
│ Identification of criteria│  │ Qualitative Survey            │
│ that are linked to successful│  │ 12 Case Campaign Analyses     │
│ outcomes                │  │ (Research Methodology Stage 1)│
└────────────────────────┘  └──────────────────────────────┘
                                  ↙                ↘
                        ┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────┐
                        │  Benchmarks  │   │  Strategies  │
                        └──────────────┘   └──────────────┘

        ┌────────────────────────────────────┐
        │ Quantitative Survey (Research       │
        │ Methodology Stage 2)                │
        │ 100 case campaigns                  │
        └────────────────────────────────────┘
```
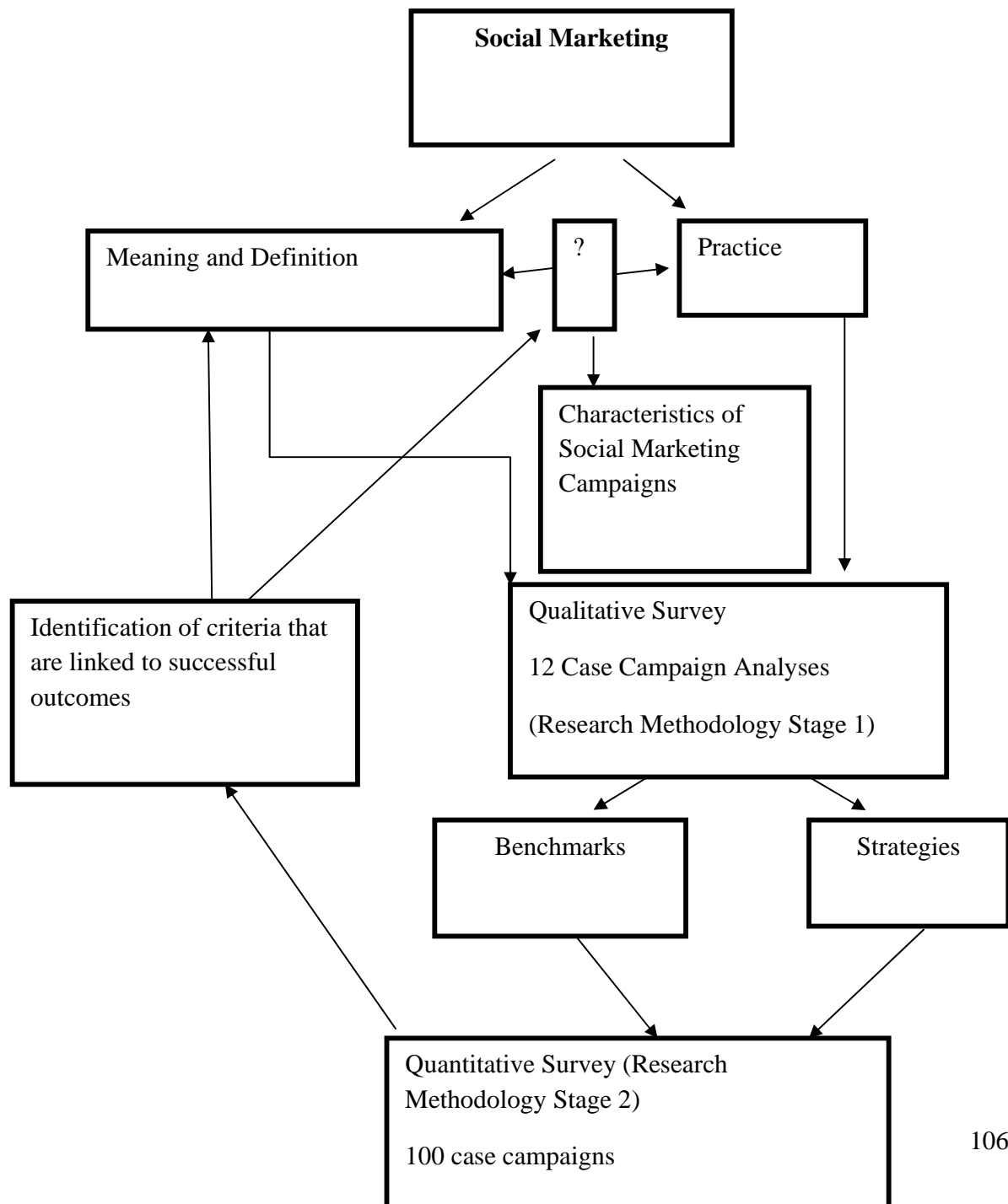
4.3 Research Design

The research has drawn on both qualitative and quantitative methodologies in order to gain the relevant information necessary for answering the research questions.

Hammersley and Atkinson (1995:24) argued that '*research design should be a reflective process which operates throughout every stage of a project*'. Creswell's, (1998) ; Creswell's, (2003); Babbie's, (2005), ideas of research design are that they are an approach and suggested that research design deals with the research proposal at the beginning of the process and the final reports at the end of the process. Whatever the various arguments are, the research design sets out a pathway that encompasses all criteria and strategies. In so doing, it uses all components that get the investigative process completed to the highest satisfaction.

Maxwell (2003) & Flick, (2007), set out an interesting model of research design that simplifies the understanding of the process, see figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2: An interactive model of research design
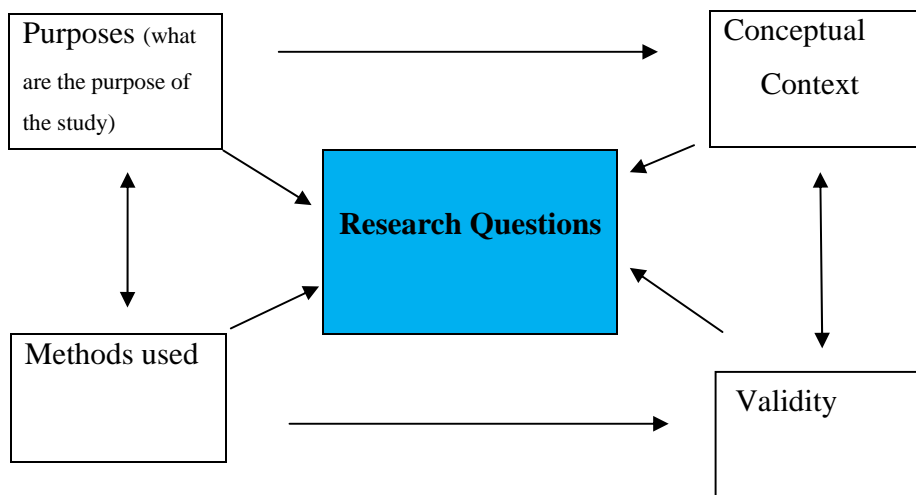
Figure 4.2 Maxwell, 2005:5; Flick, 2007: 38.

The above diagram shows the relationships between each of the five components (of a qualitative design). The arrows between them indicate a two way connection.

These connections are important in the relationship although there are also meaningful connections between Purposes and Methods and, Conceptual Context and Validity. For example, the indication is that a research question should have a clear relationship to the purposes of a study; thus verifying another connection between them all.

4.4 Qualitative and Quantitative Methodologies

4.4.1 Qualitative Methodology

The qualitative enquiry has its origins in the social sciences where, principally the world is regarded as socially constructed and therefore subjective, as each human being gives their own meaning to the world around them. Using the technique of qualitative enquiry provides a richness and depth of factors that contribute to and place an emphasis on how things work in specific contexts (Saunders et al, 2003).   As a result, data-rich analysis becomes the end product and offers an insight into the circumstances explored. It is claimed that qualitative research has its inherent weaknesses, due to the lack of human understandings and the explanations of the social world (Mason, 2002).   While there may be some skewed human interpretations and understandings of the world around them, the characteristics of a qualitative enquiry mean that its application embraces the *'subjective side of the human feelings and emotions'* (Hennink et al, 2011) and interprets these further. This is because qualitative methods seeks answers to the questions 'how', 'why', and 'what', in-order to offer explanations. This is aptly applied to the complexities of the study's Research Population as it encompasses people in diverse social marketing campaigns.

Mason (2002) stated that:

"Through qualitative research we can explore a wide array of dimensions of the social world, including the texture and weave of everyday life, the understandings, experiences and imaginings of our research participants, the ways that social processes, institutions, discourses or relationships work, and the significance of the meanings that they generate"(p1).

Qualitative methodology is therefore multi-method in focus and involving an *'interpretative, naturalistic approach to the world*' of the subject under scrutiny (Thomas, 2003 & Flick, 2007). In such circumstances, this method makes sense of what meanings target audiences bring to their natural environment. Therefore the uses of qualitative methods have enabled the identification and conceptualization of the issues of various participants' behaviour changes in the study's different social marketing campaigns. Employing the use of qualitative methods has also allowed for the identification of issues from the study's perspective while making clear the meanings and interpretations that can be given to target audiences' behavioural activities (Hennink et al., 2011).

Its application also brings to the forefront the opportunity to examine in detail people's activities and specific experiences gained through various processes; for example, focus groups, interviews, and questionnaires as depicted by the strategies marketers used in various social marketing campaigns in the research population. Babbie (2005:388) reminded us that there is a continuing interplay between data collection and theory, interrelationships among variables and the diction of patterns across various cases under study.

4.4.2 Quantitative Methodology: Measured and analysed statistically

Creswell, (1994) stated that

"...a quantitative study...is an inquiry into a social or human problem, based on testing a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers, and analysed with statistical procedures, in order to determine whether the predictive generalizations of the theory hold true" (Creswell,1994: 2).

Elaborating on Creswell's (1994) argument, quantitative methodology is used to provide a numeric description of the study with the intention of presenting as *'complete a picture'* of the study as possible. Robson, (2002) defined quantitative methodology as complex and specialized but able to facilitate a flexible research design covering a wide range of areas from the analysis of simple data to more complex data requiring extensive statistical analysis.

In the exploration of the circumstances of any study, a quantitative research method can be used to establish the broad contours of a field study or coded responses from a questionnaire or an interview, but cannot quantify it until qualitative analytical results are established (Silverman, 2006). This methodology can also identify patterns of behaviour and relationships in the data (Silverman, 2006).

Quantitative methodology thus analyses what is referred to as "hard" data such as, established variables and pre-determined methods within the subject under scrutiny in a study (Walliman, 2005, Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Therefore, the results of a quantitative methodological process based on such known variables and existing theories, are allowed to be as accurate as possible making their validity and reliability more assured.

There are crucial differences between qualitative and quantitative methods of analysis, although many aspects are correlative (Walliman, 2005; Silverman, 2006; Hennink et al., 2011). This study utilizes those features to present a wealth of inductive data as well as a structured deductive design. These differences are simplified and set out in table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Differences between qualitative and quantitative research methods

Qualitative :	Quantitative:
1. Understand meaning individuals give to situations inductively. 2. Non-numerical assessment and interpretation of observations, behaviours and other issues under scrutiny. 3. Interprets analysis of words and images. 4. Subjective side of feelings and emotions 5. Case study, identification of issues. 6. Knowledge base: to recognize the process for the reasons 'why', 'how' and 'what'. 7. Develop an initial understanding to identify and explain behaviour, beliefs or actions. 8. Regarded as soft science. 9. Small scale, micro aspects of social life. 10. Offers explanations of data collected. 11. Reports bias. 12. Study things in their natural setting; understand the complexity of single ideas.	1. Test theory deductively to support or refute it. 2. Observations recorded on predetermined schedule on a numerical basis. 3. Numerical / statistical analysis of information. 4. Objective. 5. Survey / measured variables. 6. Knowledge base: measuring and quantifying a problem; to know 'how much', 'how often', and 'what proportion' of e.g. a relationship exists. 7. To identify prevalence, averages and patterns in data and generalize this to the research population. 8. Regarded as hard science. 9. Large scale, macro aspects of social life. 10. Gives numeric values to data collected. 11. Takes steps to remove bias. 12. Test specific variables that form hypotheses.

Table 4.1 Adopted from: Pirani & Reizes, 2005. With additions from Hennink et al. 2011

4.5 Methods used in the study

It is advantageous to use both qualitative and quantitative research methods, as the combination of these provides a more complete picture of the patterns, themes, in-depth knowledge and other generalizations to be found in the exploration of social marketing case study campaigns (Creswell et al., 2003, Stake, 1995) in social research. The combination of both methods is a useful way of building evidence from data obtained, understanding the research population and their interpretation of the world around them and triangulating the results. Such a combined approach can add new meanings to the research and could prevent important insights of the subjects under scrutiny from being lost (Brennen & Moss, 1991; Tashakkori &Teddlie, 2003).

Both methodologies are used to combat limitations of information that would have occurred if only one method was applied (Ragin & Becker, 1992, Creswell, 1994).   It would also be limited in its scope, as the findings would not have been subject to the same scrutiny regarding the reality of knowledge and the relationships between them from an ontological and epistemological point of view (Creswell, 2009). The combination provides an expanded understanding of research problems (Creswell, 2009). Therefore, this mixed method provides a richness and fullness of the data analysis.

A mixed method research is defined as a research-design, *"… with philosophical assumptions as well as methods of inquiry"* (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007:5).   These philosophical assumptions act as signposts for the management of information - the collection and analysis of data in the research process - whether the approaches used are through qualitative or quantitative methods. Each method can be applied sequentially, independently or concurrently (Flick, 2007). In this study however, the methods are used sequentially and independently and their results give a better understanding of the concepts being dealt with. These philosophical assumptions (referred to above) are of ontology – refers to, how can the things that exist be known or the nature of reality- and epistemology –that relates to, what knowledge is actually real. It is argued that what is perceived through the human senses is created as a reality in the mind, such as the minds of target audiences; while researchers are influenced by their experiences (Willis, 2007).

Therefore, ontological and epistemological perspectives are sign-posts for researchers towards understanding what knowledge is, how people view the world around them and in so doing achieve more informative data. These philosophies are explained in section 4.5.1.

The study looks at peoples' lives and behaviours, data acquired from a global marketing mix of social marketing case study campaigns. Individuals and groups are looked at within their influencing surroundings in order to understand what affects their decision making and hence the outcomes of social marketing campaigns, in order to answer the core research question of the study. Due to the nature of the study's focus, mixed methods research is most relevant. This process helps the researcher deals with the collection of initial information about target groups and *'established conceptual maps of product category'* (Andreasen & Kotler, 2003:136), and campaign planning actions (Creswell, 2003; Crothy, 1998). In this way, the study can be presented as *'rigorous and interconnected and can be evaluated as a mixed methods project'* (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007:107).

The utility of the mixed methods research enables answers to be obtained for the research questions which other mixed methods may not be able to give. 'It provides the opportunity for presenting a greater diversity of divergent views and stronger inferences (Tashakkori &Teddle, 2003:674). A better understanding of the research problem would not be had if each method was employed singularly (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007), as the qualitative analytical result could be further quantitatively analyzed to give more meaningful outcomes.

4.6 Methods of Data Collection

To acquire data, the researcher required a global mix of social marketing case study campaigns that had dealt with diverse target groups, presenting a mix of behavioural issues, and being supported financially or otherwise, by a mix of statutory and non-statutory organisations. These social marketing case study campaigns so acquired would form a 'sampling frame' for the research population. The acquisition of one hundred and thirty five social marketing case study campaigns formed the sampling frame of the research population.

This purposive sampling needed to identify the key characteristics of social marketing employed in each of the campaigns in order to highlight the ontological perspectives of the target audiences' nature of their reality; together with specific information involving their activities from epistemological perspectives (see sections 1.4 & 1.4.1,Chapter one: definitions of these philosophies).

4.6.1 The Research Strategy

The research strategy is underpinned by two stages;

Stage One

This initial, but highly important stage was necessary in order to identify the content of good social marketing campaigns in terms of how they were organized, how they engaged with existing target audiences or groups and what benchmarks and what strategies they employed. The criteria for selecting the initial twelve social marketing case study campaigns were that they had to be within the social marketing remit; within the public domain; from sources that were peer reviewed (see section 4.8); complied with most of Andreasen's (2002) benchmarks (see table 3.1) and as far as possible, were globally mixed and dealing with a variety of behavioural issues and a variety of target audiences.

4.6.2 Methods Employed

These initial twelve social marketing case study campaigns taken from the sampling frame formed the initial research population and an intensive qualitative analysis of the twelve social marketing case study campaigns was undertaken. This sought to identify benchmarks, strategies and other variables important in the evaluative outcomes of those campaigns. In so doing, each of the twelve campaigns was content analyzed. There are three approaches that can be used, -the conventional approach in which the data can be coded in categories;
- the direct approach in which the research findings can be used to create initial coding strategies and,
-a summative approach that involves counting and comparing the content; and where needed interpreting any underlying content (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Lefebvre, 2013).

Two approaches were employed, the conventional approach and the direct approach. Simons et al., (2008), argue that using more than one approach to analyze qualitative data can give depth and understanding to the process but can put a slightly different emphasis on the results. The social marketing case study campaigns are diverse therefore; the combination of the approaches can be useful in allowing a clearer interpretation of the data content.

However, to explore and understand how people see their problem behaviours and possible solutions, the conventional and direct approaches seemed appropriate.

4.6.3 Data Content Categorized for Analysis

The data content of the twelve global social marketing case study campaigns from a diverse group of people, presenting a diversity of behavioural problems, was looked at individually. The campaigns had already met the research criteria of using social marketing principles and meeting most of Andreasen's (2002) benchmarks. It was now necessary to gather more relevant information about each campaign and their particularities. First, it was important to ascertain and record the country location and the location within each country that the campaign was operational. Next, the kind of behavioural problems being addressed and the group or groups targeted. These contents were categorized for analysis. Added to these were information relating to marketers, their partnership alliances and stakeholders involved in the planning and designing of the campaign as well as how long campaigns lasted , how funded and their outcomes. It then transpired that marketers had to have a tool kit by which to engage with and promote their behaviour change message to their targeted audience. This plan of action was labelled strategies of inquiry.

Some campaign reports were more clearly written than others while some were quite lengthy, however, each campaign report was read many times to extract the variables necessary for coding. The category headings became:

Variable 1 problem: the behaviour to be addressed.

Variable 2 locations: the country.

Variable 3 research site: the location within the country.

Variable 4 targeted group (s): downstream, mid-stream or upstream.

Variable 5 strategies of inquiry: strategies and benchmarks used.

Variable 6 stakeholders: those having an interest in the outcome.

Variable 7 finances: amount of funding and by whom.

Variable 8 length of campaign: period of time taken.

Variable 9 results: type of outcomes, goals met.

This process was quite onerous and required a number of reviews to ensure the benchmarks and strategies used by each campaign were accounted for and coded correctly. Where results were not clearly stated and email links provided in the reports these were followed up for further information. The qualitative analysis of these twelve social marketing campaigns yielded nineteen benchmarks and thirty three strategies.

Cooper et al, (2003) and Thomas, (2003) pointed to major challenges and limitations that could be experienced in the use of limited numbers of subjects. In this circumstance, they are social marketing campaigns and the limited number is twelve case studies, used to test the importance of the various variables for success. The concerns of Cooper et al (2003) and Thomas (2003) are addressed in the next stage of the research.

4.7 Stage Two of the Research

Stage two built on the results of stage one and sought to test whether the various benchmarks and strategies employed in the twelve social marketing case study campaigns could be important for success in a wider sample of cases.

A total of one hundred social marketing campaigns were identified to form the research population for this analysis.

According to Sirkin (1995) and Grunert & Willis (2007), data from large samples are usually more reliable, have less sampling errors and offer more information for statistical analysis from a quantitative perspective. Therefore, this final research population sample size of one hundred social marketing case campaigns will lend more weight to the breadth and depth of this research study.

4.8 Why the Social Marketing Campaigns were Chosen

All the campaigns that were selected for inclusion in the first stage of this study were in the public domain, were peer reviewed and met most of Andreasen's six benchmarking criteria. The selections reflected the global application of social marketing. The aim was to have a sample that provided a variety of procedures, processes and applications of strategies and benchmarks that would or could address problems from different cultures, in different ways, and subject to different infrastructures across various countries. By so doing the information from such a wide sample could validate and identify the factors that are predictors of successful social marketing campaigns.

4.9 Summary

The core focus of the overall study is the analysis of social marketing campaigns and testing how well identified benchmarks and strategies correlate with success in each of those campaigns. Because stage two builds on the results of stage one, it is necessary to present the full details and results of stage one before proceeding to discuss the larger quantitative stage. The next chapter therefore presents these results.

5.0 CHAPTER FIVE: THE QUALITATIVE RESEARCH STAGE ONE

5. 1 Introduction

This chapter addresses the nature of twelve social marketing case study campaigns and presents the results of their in-depth qualitative analyses which resulted in the identification of nineteen benchmarks and thirty three strategies. The table below summarizes the twelve initial social marketing case studies campaigns. Further explanations are given in section 5.2.

Table 5.1: Qualitative data analysis of 12 campaigns: including main problems and results

Case	Location	Main Problems	Target Groups	Stakeholders	Finances	Length of Campaign	Results
1	Canada	Prevention of sudden infant death syndrome	Parents & primary care givers	Canadian Foundation for the study of Infant Deaths, Canadian Institute for Child Health, Paediatric Society, Proctor & Gamble, Parents & Other Care Givers	Not stated	Five years	Very successful
2	Canada	Clean air Environmental health	City individuals	Community Groups & Associations, five Regional Health Units of Toronto, Schools in ECO School Partnership & others	Funds by many large companies, funds & in-kind from partners Amount not stated	Not stated	Successful
3	Tanzania	HIV /Aids prevention And domestic violence	Adults over 16 years old	Horizons International Centre for research on Women, Johns Hopkins University, Mahimbili University College of Health Sciences.	Not stated	Five years	On going

Case	Location	Main Problems	Target Groups	Stakeholders	Finances	Length of Campaign	Results
4	UK	Welfare Prisons	Judiciary	Politicians, Judiciary, Probation& Police Services, Youth Justice, Victim Organizations, Media, Public.	Not stated	Four years	Partially successful
5	UK	Smoking cessation	Pregnant women	University of New Castle, Department of Health, Researchers and other professionals	Funded by public funds not stated	Ten years	Successful
6	U.S.A.	Mental Illness	General public	Idaho Department of Health & Welfare, Persons with Mental Illness, Caregivers, Psychologists, Idaho Public TV, the State Children's Health Insurance	$700,000. 00	Over five years	Very successful
7	China	General health	Women19 – 70 years old	State Council of China, Ministries of Health, Education & Agriculture, Organizations of local communities, nine other partners.	Amount not stated	15 months	Successful
8	Canada	HIV prevention	Gay men 30 to 40 years old	Canadian Regional Agencies, Aids Bureau, Aids Vancouver, Quebec Ministry of Health & Social Services	$250,000.00 CDN plus other funding not stated	Six weeks	Successful

Case	Location	Main Problems	Target Groups	Stakeholders	Finances	Length of Campaign	Results
9	U.S.A.	Youths' violence	Adolescents	Middle School Youth (TA), Public companies , County Health Departments, National Training Collaborative for SM @ University South Florida, The County's Youth Steering Committee	Not stated	Not stated	Successful
10	U.S.A.	HIV testing	Adolescents	ACCESS & Six Cities, Schools, Public Health Service Agencies, Health Committees	Modest funding received, amount not stated	Six months	Successful
11	U.S.A.	Reducing access to tobacco	Youths	Citizens of the communities, Community Organizations, Policy Makers Institute of Health, Universities of the area	Grants from the National Institute of Health, amount not stated	Thirty two months	Partially successful
12	New Zealand	Sun-screening precautions	Children 12 & under	Cancer Society of New Zealand, Health Sponsorship Council, Skin Cancer Control Steering Group	Not stated	Two years	Partially successful

Table 5.1 Qualitative data analysis of 12 social marketing campaigns

5.2 Selection of the twelve social marketing campaigns: Exploration of the qualitative analytical process of 12 social marketing case study campaigns with rationale for their selection in the study

The reasons these twelve social marketing campaigns, shown in table 5.1, were selected were because they presented a range of problems for social marketers to deal with and represented a variety of countries from around the world (see section 4.8). The table 5.1 above shows that various campaigns addressed a variety of topics, although most represented attempts to address health issues. The target audiences and groups clearly varied, and while this was not an issue for the first stage of the research that is, the qualitative analytical process, it did present problems during stage two (see chapter six) in which groupings had to be made. The stakeholders also varied widely. They came from the general community, local and national charitable organizations as well as businesses and Government Departments. The issue of finance was a problem as many campaigns did not reveal their expenditure. Those campaigns that did the details were sparse as to where and how the money was spent or where it came from.
The length of time each of the campaigns took varied ranging from six weeks to ten years. Arguably the most important descriptor of any social marketing campaign relates to the success or otherwise of the marketers' interventions. Outcomes were mixed but during further analysis they were categorized into three areas which were, successful, partially successful and not successful. The meanings of these are expanded on below.

5.2.1 Divisions and Definitions of Success

The issue of success is clearly a crucial factor and requires some further explanation. Success is defined by the researcher as the accomplishment of planned or desired goals for a behaviour change in social marketing campaigns, as agreed by target audiences, marketers and stakeholders. In reality, interactions with various target audiences in their varied situations will mean that outcomes will differ. There will most likely be different levels of expectations as well as different levels of outcomes achieved. Therefore success has been divided into three sections, 'successful, partially successful and not successful'. See table 5.2.

Table 5.2 Divisions and definitions of successes

The Variable success	Definitions
Successful	A campaign that has achieved its planned outcomes; the goals the target audience, marketer and stakeholder hoped for and which was part of the campaign design before implementation.
Partially successful	Planned campaign outcomes or desired goals have not been fully attained.
Not successful	The campaign goals for behaviour change were not realized or failed to fulfil any of the marketing planned outcomes as agreed by the participants.

Table 5.2 Divisions and definitions of success

5.3 How success was measured

The principles used in the assessment for the measurement of success were simple:

(a) The marketers' evaluation reports of their campaigns' results were accepted. When an evaluation was not clearly presented, the evidence regarding the results of the campaign was in the reports and this was utilised.

(b) From this evidence an assessment was made, mindful of the language used in the report, such as, 'favourable response' or 'excellent response'. There are other anomalies that could be taken into consideration but would be difficult to measure, such as individuals' feelings.

(c) The campaign reports were very helpful in their evaluations and suggested results that met the marketers' satisfaction or disappointments and those of their funders.

(d) Account had to be taken of the bias in human interpretations associated with successes or failures.

5.4 Benchmarks and their definitions: Utilized by social marketers in the twelve social marketing campaigns

The twelve social marketing campaigns were scrutinized against the literature on benchmarks and social marketing criteria. This analysis shown in table 5.1 was the first stage of the research undertaken in order to address the research objectives which are:

- To identify benchmarks for successful social marketing campaigns.
- To investigate strategies which are used by marketers, whether from statutory or not-for-profit organizations when designing and implementing social marketing campaigns.

From the qualitative investigations of the twelve social marketing case studies nineteen benchmarks were identified along with thirty three strategies of intervention. The nineteen benchmarks and their definitions are presented first.

1. **Peer Reviewed**

Social marketing campaigns that have been written up in journals and other publications suggest that they have already passed through a quality control process that has adhered to set standards laid down by their peers. Although this is included as a benchmark, this is obviously slightly different to the others as it is not about the actual method of conducting a campaign. However, its use as a benchmark lies in its evaluative application of past campaigns.

2. **Formative Research**

Pre-gathering information about target audiences before designing a social marketing campaign is fundamental to its development and success (French & Blair-Stevens, 2007). Thus the utilization of 'formative research' is of key importance.

3. **Pretesting**

Linked to the collection of formative research data, it can provide important additional information to strengthen the delivery of a social marketing campaign. For example, the pretesting of a planned campaign on a priority audience can clearly indicate changes required to improve the delivery of the message.

4. **Questionnaires / in-depth interviews**

Gathering salient information through questionnaires and interviews can maximise positive outcome. Campaign planning can be significantly aided by such information if the appropriate groups are targeted and the data efficaciously evaluated.

5. **Piloting**

Piloting is always important for any research as the data gathered will help to deal with problems that may arise in campaigns; it can also help to diminish flawed assumptions.

6. **Segmentation and Targeting**

Interventions should be tailored to specific audience segments. Good segmentation and targeting facilitate a campaign's 'message' acceptance. This means, time, money and energy will be efficiently utilized.

7. **Further segmentation and Targeting**

 To be more successful it is often necessary to use different strategies to deliver the same message. In so doing, the message will be more relevant, catering for a sub-set's needs, aspirations and motivations, while accounting for language differences, levels of understanding and cultural biases.

8. **Upstream Targeting**

 Upstream audiences are the creators of Regulations, Policies and Laws, with consequences when disregarded. Their involvement through partnership alliances can strengthen 'messages' of behavioural change. **Mid-stream target audiences**, are 'power-brokers', facilitators, manufacturers and suppliers of merchandise needed to advocate compliance of behaviour change. These audiences must be targeted to work with marketers, to improve such things as infrastructure and accessibility of resources required increasing greater outcomes; for example, the promotion and provision of HIV testing venues (Futterman et al. 2001).

9. **Relationship Building**

The quality of any relationship is difficult to quantify, but meaningful rapport, good interactions built up over periods of quality time engender trust and confidence (Weiss et al 2004).

10. **Clear Benefits**

These ensure that the behaviour changes being encouraged by marketers have obvious beneficial gains that outweigh any costs or efforts incurred by target audiences. New behaviours are more likely to be adopted when seen as beneficial and achievable (Lefebvre, 2006: 88-97). Target audiences are usually comfortable with their present behaviours, often supported by friends and families. The force of interpersonal social pressure can be a very powerful influence, both for

and against campaigns (Andreasen, 2002:103). Therefore, the benefits of a behaviour change must appeal to target audiences and their influencers. Benefits must significantly outweigh costs while the targeted audiences' confidences are boosted by making them feel that they can and want to achieve behaviour change for their own good. Examples of such processes lie in some smoking cessation campaigns such as Lowry et al, (2004) and Forster et al. (1998).

11. **Measurable Benefits/stand up to scrutiny**

 All benefits should prove to be beneficial, affordable in time and effort, available and useful. They must be evidence based for target audiences to have confidence in the behaviour changes being encouraged. This means planned campaigns must execute their promises.

12. **Sustainability / Sustainable Support**

Good support systems are more likely to sustain the growth and development of desired behavioural changes. The setting up of these systems should be a part of a campaign's design and planning, and activated when the campaign is in progress. These support systems help to combat any internal and external competitions that might negate behavioural changes taking place. For example, convincing target audiences to eat healthily will not happen quickly. However, having relevant and effective support systems in place will serve to strength confidence and their resolve. Smith (2002) argued that *'… people change not because they are smarter or forced into action, but because they get something they value in return' (p.46).* And support for behaviour change achieved this which is vital for sustainability.

13. **Marketing Mix / Extra "P's"**

'Product, Price, Place and Promotion' are the traditional marketing 4Ps, and are also fundamental to social marketing. As social marketing develops, new ideas emerge (Peattie & Peattie, 2003) and other Ps such as policy, purse string, people, and partnerships, have evolved. All have the potential to contribute to the implementation and delivery of social marketing campaigns. Marketers need to identify the most effective mix of these elements for their specific target

audience in order to achieve the desired outcomes. A relevant/effective marketing mix is a key component of social marketing. It provides one of the differential points in bringing about behaviour and social change (Luca & Suggs, 2010).

Smith (2002) stated:

"... programs exhibiting the greatest change have been those in which a product have been developed to meet the needs of consumers and then ... promoted consistent with marketing principles"(p48).

14. Multimedia Initiatives

Multimedia can help to promote the 'message' to a wider audience. Raising awareness, heightening interest, informing and educating not just target audiences and their influencers but other stakeholders can help the promotion of social marketing. Such 'prevention-interventions' engage the concept of social cognitive theory and social – contextual aspects of decision making. These key issues go beyond simple advertising to make the message clear.

15. Understanding the Concept of the Target Audience's Environment

 "Good marketing starts by appraising the situation, defining the problem, assessing the competing forces and only then beginning to deduce possible solutions " (Hastings, 2007:10). This knowledge will help marketers launch their interventions at the correct level, aid the identification of potential challenges and evidence the level of support required by the target audience for each stage of their behavioural-change journey.

16. Marketers' Systematic Analysis of own results

The process and results of the intervention need recording and evaluating. This is a learning experience for the marketer but also aids operational development. Sharing this information is beneficial to other marketers.   Evaluation should be built into all stages of the intervention process. This may include statistical analysis or qualitative measures. On-going evaluation

although costly, minimizes damaging inefficiencies and takes advantage of positive elements that can be prepared and factored into the intervention process, or any follow-up actions. French and Blair-Stevens (2007:138) argued that good evaluation can boost good achievement and could directly inform further resource decisions for on-going work, while ensuring that results are not overlooked or abandoned.

17. Biases and Flaws

The value of qualitative research is in its planning and design. It encompasses methods, management and control. Flick (2007) argued that there is potential bias in data collection which can confound the research results. One way of dealing with this is by open discussion with the planning team in order to identify potential biases. Marketers' biases can also arise by the way their intervention is interpreted, pretested and applied, (Creswell & Clark, 2007). These biases can show up in the analysis of results when marketers find that their planning was flawed in some way. For example, if further segmentation of the target group would have been a positive step towards the desired outcome and addressing this would have improved the quality of the marketing intervention.

18. Incentives

Incentives are encouragements to target audiences to be part of the intervention process. These can be tangible or intangible. Some social marketing campaigns use specific inducements as part of a campaign process. These are usually built into the campaign plan from the beginning rather than added on later.

19. Disincentives

Sometimes successful campaigns include specific constraints or barriers if members of the target audiences do not wish to consider the 'message' being promoted. Disincentives could be in the form of monetary costs or other consequences. For example, legislation to combat drink driving

or the non-wearing of seatbelts. Such legislation has helped respective campaigns to achieve better results.

The table below summarizes the benchmarks that each of the twelve case studies campaigns used. In the table the 'Y' represents a campaign's use of the benchmark and the 'N' represents a campaign that did not use the benchmark.

Table 5.3 Qualitative Analysis of 12 campaigns in relation to the19 benchmarks.

	Case Study Numbers											
Benchmark Criteria	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**	**11**	**12**
Peer Reviewed	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y
Formative Research	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Pre-testing	N	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Questionnaire/ in-depth interviews	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y
Piloting	Y	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
Segmentation & Targeting	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Further Segmentation	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
Upstream Targeting	Y	N	Y	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	N	Y	N
Relationship building	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	N	N
Clear benefits	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Measurable/stand up to scrutiny	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Sustainability Support systems	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Marketing mix/extra "P's"	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Multimedia initiative	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y
Understanding concept TA problems	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Analysis of own results	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	N	N	Y	N	Y	N
Biases/flaws	Y	N	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y
Incentives	Y	N	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	N
Disincentives	N	N	Y	Y	N	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N
Scores	**17**	**15**	**15**	**15**	**14**	**13**	**12**	**12**	**12**	**11**	**10**	**9**

Table 5.3 Twelve campaigns and the benchmarks they employed

Table 5.3 shows that, although there are widespread uses of the benchmarks, no campaign has used them all.   This is an important issue that needs to be considered when evaluating any campaign studies against the proposed nineteen benchmarks.

This initial qualitative analysis identified these potential benchmarks but a wider study of their use, within a greater number of campaigns could also be beneficial. Such an approach using quantitative analysis would triangulate, or otherwise, the results of the campaign studies works and would allow stronger conclusions to be drawn. This aspect of the study is explored in the next chapter.

5.5 Strategies Identified

Further qualitative analytical investigations of the original twelve social marketing case studies have led to the identification of thirty three strategies of interventions which are presented here.

5.5.1 Strategies and their definitions: Utilised by marketers in the twelve social marketing case study campaigns

These strategies are seen as key instruments in the marketer's tool box (See table 5.4). Marketers select the strategies that are considered most appropriate in order to achieve behaviour changes within their target audiences. Thirty three strategies were identified as follows:

- Financial incentives: These are inducements to the target audience to comply with the behaviour change plans; some are in the form of cash vouchers, others take the form of reductions in the cost of services or goods.
- School based programmes: Schools that set up and run programmes which promote and enhance the campaign message(s).
- Personal interaction: Marketers, stakeholders, volunteers, give personal time and effort to individuals in the target audience in their support of the message.
- Building Motivation over time: Various initiatives are taken such as, telephone help-lines, planned on a step by step basis to work with and encourage target audience toward behaviour change.

- Work based programmes: Large companies show their commitment to the marketing message by setting up programmes on work premises, promoting and organizing actions that are link to workshops.

- Partnerships encouragement: One of the extra Ps marketers use in their campaigns. In some programmes, target audiences both downstream and upstream are encouraged, and do respond to being part of the campaign's planning and implementation team.

- Community programmes: Behaviour changes relating to the whole community, the processes are so setup that the whole community can take part in activities.

- Mass media: Using public communication venues and services for example, news media, TV, and radio. Advertisements being broadcast during key periods to attract specific target audiences. (These are known times that are suitable to the group targeted).

- Workshops / group work: Setup to raise awareness and increase knowledge of the issues under discussion. Support actions.

- Websites: Technology used to engage specific groups in the development of the massage and goal achievement.

- Word of mouth: Verbal information regularly given to others about a campaign and its development. Passing on information in this way is believed to be most effective.

- Newsletter: Updated report about the campaign's programmes are issued periodically to others and members of the specific group.

- Information sharing: Facts about behaviour change, the implementation process and their developments are relevantly and periodically shared.

- Home visits: Visits made by trained personnel who provided extra and relevant information and support to encourage and promote campaign message.

- Surveys: In some instances these took the form of testing campaign participants' knowledge and understanding of information given or conducted in a work group. In other instances these are carried out to assess the campaign's impact on a target audience.

- Feedback: Motivating actions seen as credible communication.

- Obtaining a commitment / pledges: Individuals' personal commitment is sought; if verbal agreement is reached a token of recognition as well as reminders of their pledges are given.

- Focus groups: These are special group meetings held to explore the marketers' proposed strategies of the campaigns, knowledge and levels of understanding of the message deliverance, and to obtain feedback.

- Peer support groups: This happens mostly within sub groups, results of further segmentation and targeting, where the behaviour change process are extremely difficult to achieve. Peer support is another form of resource input.

- Work books: Individuals or in groups keep records in the form of work books to monitor their progress, can take place in any setting such as work premises.

- Parental involvement: Campaign programmes that involved particular age group children and their schools also involved the parents, voluntary or mandatory.

- Norm appeal / Information sharing: Public recognition given to conscientious individuals, whose actions were inspirational to others; giving accolades. Linked to information sharing and word of mouth information.

- Posters, logos, billboards, banners: Media outlets used in campaigns.

- Books, brochures, magazines: These media outlets lend themselves to certain types of marketers' intervention.

- Formative research: Pre data collection regarding the group (s) to be targeted.

- Prompts / reminders: Reminders to individuals in the form fridge magnets, kits, and or regular telephone calls or announcements regarding the campaign's message.

- Education & training: Where needed this is set up for the target audience to help them understand the marketing message and benefits that can be gained.

- Video: Another form of technology used to promote campaign intervention.

- Road show, local events, and talks: Campaigns that are more community focused are showcased at community events.

- Analysis: Campaign in progress have data collected concurrently and analyzed; content analysis under taken to identify major themes in the target audience's beliefs and experiences and to determine their saturation limits of information from the programme.

- Pretesting: Concepts developed were pretested with the same kind of target audience. Other marketers pretested and revised their programme strategies, the campaign messages and materials through individual interviews until they are clear which concept would work most effectively with all in the audience to be targeted.

- Interviews, questionnaires, lobbing, and petitions: Face to face interactions in promoting the message; planned and intercept interviews / questionnaires taking place.
- Audits: Examination of progress (so far) during the campaign's operations but less detailed as in the analysis process.

Table 5.4 below shows the strategies utilized in each of the 12 campaigns. Again, it is clear that it would be almost impossible for any campaign to utilize all of the strategies, but it serves to demonstrate the breadth of activities involved in social marketing campaigns.

Table 5.4 Strategies Employed in the Twelve Case Studies Campaigns

Strategies	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Mass media	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	N	Y
Personal interaction	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	N
Posters/logos/billboards /banners	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y
Financial incentives	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
Focus groups	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y
Interviews/lobbying/ questionnaires	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y
Newsletters	N	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N
Information sharing	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Feed back	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Surveys	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	Y
Peer support groups	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y
Work shop, group work	Y	N	N	N	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	N
Community programmes	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	N	N
Formative research	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Parental involvement	N	N	Y	N	N	N	N	Y	Y	N	N	N
Motivation building	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	N	Y
Norm appeal/ prizes/ rewards	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
Training & education	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	N
Website use	N	Y	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y
Booklets/magazines/brochures	Y	Y	N	N	N	N	N	Y	Y	N	N	Y
Work based programmes	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N
Pledges /obtaining commitment	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y
Home visits	Y	N	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
School based programmes	N	N	Y	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N
Partnership	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N	Y	N
Reminders /prompts	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N	Y
Pretesting	N	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y
Road shows / local events	Y	N	N	Y	Y	N	N	Y	N	Y	N	N
Analysis	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N	N	Y
Work books	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N
Word of mouth information	Y	N	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y
Videos	N	Y	N	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
Audits	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N	N
SCORES	21	22	19	17	23	18	22	15	13	15	14	17

Table 5.4 The strategies employed by marketers in their respective social marketing campaigns

In the grid above, 'Y' indicates that the strategy was used and 'N' indicates that the strategy was not used by the marketer in an intervention.

Although no individual social marketing campaign has used all thirty three strategies, it would appear that the mix of uses would have suited the marketers' 'marketing mix' for his or her marketing interventions. This is further exemplified by the next section in this chapter when four of the campaigns are presented and discussed with regard to their use of benchmarks and strategies.

5.6 Four Social Marketing Campaigns: Demonstrating Social Marketing versatility and uniqueness in a variety of ways

The principles of social marketing have been applied to diverse human behavioural situations with varying degrees of outcomes, underpinned by the levels of interactions between marketers and target audiences. Four campaign studies, selected from the twelve campaigns in table 5.1are presented to illustrate this in more detail. These campaigns' activities demonstrated social marketing's versatility and uniqueness by the way marketers utilized the various benchmarks and strategies. These four cases also resonate with the five key features in Andreasen's (1995) definition of social marketing, namely:

- Transference of commercial marketing concepts to social marketing programmes;
- Segmentation and targeting with a good marketing mix and evaluation procedure;
- Influencing voluntary behavioural outcomes; (knowing what the message is);
- Exchange benefits for improved personal welfare and that of society; (exchanges) and
- Background information of target audiences, (customer insight).

The examples of the four cases also emphasize some marketers' and target audiences' differences in their interactions as well as the various partnership alliances that contributed to the success of the campaigns.

5.6.1 The Four Social Marketing Case Study Campaigns

The campaigns whose in-depth analysis is presented are as follows;

- Campaign 1,"Back to Sleep – Health Canada SIDS Social Marketing Campaign"
- Campaign 2, "20/20 The Way Forward to Clean Air"
- Campaign 3, "Preventing HIV and Partner Violence"
- Campaign 7, "Social Marketing Improving the Consumption of Iron-fortified Soy Sauce among Women in China".

The campaign numbers are as indicated in **table 5.1 only**(qualitative data analysis).

The campaign stories will be told in brief. Each one will be discussed with regards to the following descriptors: overview, objectives, target groups, partnership alliances, getting informed and delivering the program, types of interventions, behaviour change goals, audience research, segmentation and targeting, exchanges (benefits versus costs), marketing mix, competition, and lastly, any areas where the program fell short.

5.7 Campaign number 1, "Back to Sleep -Health Canada SIDS Social Marketing Campaign".

5.7.1 Overview

Health Canada is a government led Health Organization with responsibilities for public health across Canada. It has been involved in past research, dealing with the health of infants and children. The following is the process that presents their accomplishments as a consequence of their last research procedure.

A significant public health concern that has plagued Canada for some time is the sudden and unexpected death of 'apparently' healthy infants. This is referred to as "Sudden Infant Death Syndrome" or **SIDS** as it is commonly called.

Canadian statistics have shown that one death in every 1,400 live births occurred in infants over four weeks old. That has accounted for three babies in Canada dying of SIDS each week. Previous researches into the problem had been undertaken, but, in 1998 a new research was completed which updated those. This research indicated new precautionary measures against SIDS. Health Canada implemented the new findings by, *'re-tooling, re-vitalizing and re-launching'* its former social marketing strategy with this new 'product / message' under the banner **"Back to Sleep".** The message stated that infants should be placed on his or her back to sleep in order to lessen the risk of sudden infant death syndrome – SIDS - of healthy babies.

5.7.2 Objectives

The overall objectives were to,

    (a) Teach Canadian parents and primary infant care givers risk avoidance techniques associated with SIDS;

    (b) Generate public education through awareness programmes that would project accurate information as well as quality support for families suffering from the trauma of SIDS;

    (c) Update other professionals and infant care educators as to their present research findings and to suggest programmes to help families and

(d) Reduce the incidents of SIDS by 10% within a given timeframe.

The aim was, to achieve their objectives within five years starting from 2000 to 2004 inclusive. Enlisting partners of corporate status who *'bolster their message'* impact, and enabled them to be well on their way to achieving their goals within two years.

5.7.3 The Target group(s)

Health Canada stipulated two target audiences, primary and secondary. The primary target audiences were parents and primary infant care-givers. The primary target audience when segmented further included expectant and new mother; partners and peers aged 20 to 30 years old; grandparents and other caregivers.

The secondary target audience included professionals who were directly involved in the provision of infant health care and those engaged in the dissemination of educational materials for the health and wellbeing of infants. Paramount to this target group was public health units, hospitals, doctors and pre and post natal educators.

5.7.4 Partnerships alliances

Health Canada's strategy was to cultivate partnership alliances with peer health organizations and others organizations in order to maximise and reinforce their message and steer it towards achieving their set objectives. Health Canada developed four influential partnerships with:

- *The Canadian Paediatric Society* a voluntary professional body known nationally for its advocacy, commitment to the health needs of children and youths since 1922 and as an establisher of standards, guidelines and professional opportunities for paediatricians. The Society's involvement would lend credibility to the campaign's communications.
- *The Canadian Foundation for the 'Study of Infant Deaths'*, an organization that has dedicated its resources to solving the mystery of sudden and unexpected infant deaths (SIDS), through (a) promotion of relevant programmes, (b) support of high quality and innovative research, and (c) public education and awareness programmes.

- T*he Canadian Institute for Child Health;* who had worked with the Federal Government on policy issues and the advancement of knowledge and professional development. Their knowledge of families had ensured the development in the fields of nurturing, protection, educating and empowering children in order *"to give all Canadian children the best possible future"* (campaign study, p5,).

- *The Pampas Division of Proctor and Gamble Manufacturers* was also part of the campaign. The company is reported to have served more than five billion consumers across 140 countries. This Division dealt with products for infants and children and their involvement represented a useful addition to Health Canada's intended *'multi component community interventio*n'.

5.7.5 Getting informed and delivering the programme

The marketers of Health Canada had already utilized many benchmarks and strategies (as set out in this research) to create a well-planned campaign. They continued by using pre-gathered data (formative research) to assure them that the first target group had a strong propensity to adopt behaviours demonstrated to be in the best interest of their infants. They were also aware of what moved and motivated this target group but were not complacent, so they launched an 'Awareness and Attitudes Survey' involving six hundred respondents as reinforcement for the planned campaign activities. It is accepted that the integration of social marketing and,
'…*community engagement is an effective strategy for changing the behaviour of people on a community-wide or population-wide level'* (Case Study 50, ref– 27-31).
Social marketing is based on the assumption that new behaviours can be adopted when they are seen as beneficial to the recipients and *'achievable'*.
Nonetheless, effecting behaviour change can be more complex especially when dealing with a population of mixed cultures and other diversities as in this campaign study.

The link between the intended launch of the campaign across Canada – a multi cultural country with millions in its population - and the 'Awareness and Attitudes Survey of only 600 respondents, begs the question, 'should a much larger number of respondents be surveyed?' Part of the social marketing strategy is to remove barriers that may block messages to a target

audience, and bring such messages into the target audience's environment. This campaign study material however did state that competition was very low. The 'Awareness and Attitudes Survey' did provide 'print templates' for the campaign; these were used at focus groups held in three cities and from these the marketers established their own 'benchmarks' that were later used to evaluate the campaign's impact.

The campaign was rolled out across Canada, but no regional differences were indicated, although there must have been some in such a multi-cultural country that has two official languages which are French and English. However their 'further segmentation and targeting' of the target groups would have counteracted any anomalies met.

5.7.6 Types of intervention

The 'Back to Sleep' campaign was launched in 2000 but prior to this, 600 respondents were surveyed to test their awareness and attitudes to the intended campaign (the pretesting group). From this data, benchmarks and templates were established and were used in focus groups. Mass media advertising and promotional contents were jointly developed by the partners and stakeholders; this maximized the campaign's objectives and emphasized a clear and consistent message to the target audiences. In this the TV and public service promotions were mainly for target audiences with lower literacy levels. Taking the message much further and into the target audience's arena was accomplished by utilizing the strategies of giving personal advice, preparing newsletters and posters, encouraging information sharing, and printing the message 'Back to Sleep' in English, French and Spanish on the smallest sized diapers for the audiences targeted.

Benchmarks met.

5.7.7 Behaviour change goals

For the primary target audience the aim was to increase awareness and knowledge of the risk reduction elements in the message 'Sudden Infant Death Syndrome'. For the secondary target group, the aim was to update them with new research data and planned strategies of intervention that would enhance their dissemination of infants' health care and information.   These aims were achieved successfully and for the long term benefits in the reduction of SIDS.

5.7.8 Audience research

This was achieved and it furnished the target audiences background, both downstream and upstream, regarding their knowledge, awareness and attitudes to the pending behaviour changes. This gave the marketers a good platform from which to launch their campaign.

5.7.9 Segmentation and targeting

This was a Canadian wide campaign, targeted at mothers, expectant mothers, partners and peers age 20 to 30 years old; as well as grandparents and other infant care givers, regarded as the primary target group. The secondary target group consisted of health workers of various levels who disseminated infant health care information to the primary target group. The targeting was quite wide, so to increase effectiveness, the message was made simple, consistent and in three languages.

5.7.10 Exchanges (benefits versus costs)

Sudden Infant Death Syndrome (SIDS) is a significant public health concern with a devastating impact on families that suffer this trauma. From past research, Health Canada became aware that infant care givers were disposed to adopting behaviours proposed to be in the best interest of their infants.

The new research findings were promoted to reflect this positive aspect showing that beneficial gains would be more than costs outlay by the target groups, and such benefits were measurable and could stand-up to scrutiny.

5.7.11 Marketing mix

Although mass media marketing played an important role in the campaign's marketing strategies, the coordination of the outlets was embraced by good management, simplicity and clarity of the message (the product), *'Back to Sleep'*.   Kept within social marketing principles, consideration of the target audiences were key determinants of the organization of the other three Ps – price, place and promotion. The fifth 'P' – partnership, was the linchpin that spear headed the campaigns' successful achievement, as the partners were influential and hands on players in the 'message' dissemination, a good example for other marketers and their campaigns.

5.7.12 Competition

This mass media influenced campaign was underpinned by social marketing principles, and coupled with prior surveys, informed the marketers that *"…barriers to behaviour change were low, relative to the motivation to participate" (Campaign study p2).* Internal and external barriers to success and sustainability of the behaviour changes were catered for by the improved information and professional support to target audiences from the various partners involved.

5.7.13 Where the programme fell short

Limitations:	The Significance of these:
1. The overall objective was to 'reduce the risk of SIDS by 10% over five years, from 2000 to 2004'inclusive (p1) Yet, partnership alliance was very strong and they were sure that parents and other care givers would 'buy' the new 'message' with little or no barriers to prevent then.	1. Was there a hidden major factor of a health or social variety that prevented the marketers from being more adventurous with their desired percentage outcomes and goals over five years? What did the marketers or writers not reported?
2. Surveys, from which guidelines and templates were established, were not carried out across Canada only among 600 respondents, although the programme was country-wide intended and applied.	2. A country wide survey targeting more respondents, even in selected cities may have yielded different results on the overall objectives and time scale. What were the barriers?

5.7.14 Summary

The marketers formed a formidable partnership alliance with dedicated and experienced experts in the field of children health care. Most of the partner organizations were involved in both research work and health care of children and families across Canada.
However, many health professionals who dispensed infant health care and information needed to be brought up to-date with new research findings. They became one of the target groups and were subject to relevant training.

Although mass media played a major part in the campaign, the marketers' *'understanding of the concept of the target audiences'* led to the provision of massages that stated *'clear benefits'* that were *'measurable and could stand up to scrutiny'*.

The support they provided meant that any competition the target audiences had to contend with were void, making the behaviour changes more *'sustainable'*. The marketers had a five year goal to reduce SIDS to 10% but within two years they achieved the desired results successfully. This was borne out by their evaluation Tracking Survey of 605 respondents which showed increased acknowledgement and actions from both the primary and secondary target groups. The campaign was launched country wide. Their initial survey however was localized and their percentage target and time limit at face value were not adventurous enough. However, it appeared that the partnership alliances that were formed were countrywide enough to contribute to the success of the campaign countrywide.

5.8 Campaign number 2, "20/20 The Way to Clean Air": Environmental Issues in the Greater Toronto Area (GTA) in Canada

5.8.1 Overview

The Toronto Public Health contracted a social marketing firm – Eric Young Enterprise (EYE) – in 1999 to develop an 'education programme' that could engage residents in activities that would bring about *"long-term changes in air quality"* (Campaign study, p1) in the homes, schools and on the roads. The firm completed a strategic framework in March 2000 with a brand name **"20/20 The Way to Clean Air"**. (Campaign study, p1) A *'risk reduction and smog reduction activities' were conducted;* this was to create a platform for long–term changes in air quality. The focus on residents being involved as partners was a key determinant but they needed to commit on a long term basis, individually and collectively, while the marketers implemented the campaign in stages, over a period of time.

A "20/20 Planner" was developed to serve as a guide to each stage of the campaign and to be seen as a supportive document to participants. The goal was that each household across the Greater Toronto Area would receive a copy of the 150,000 Planners by 2010. In the summer of 2004, Toronto Public Health conducted two survey assessments to measure (a) participants' achievements in reaching an overall 30% home energy reduction and (b) a 20% vehicle use reduction per household.

5.8 2 Objectives

The aims and objectives of this campaign were to engage and motivate residents in the Greater Toronto Area, individually and collectively, in taking action to reduce air pollution to 20% overall and to be partners in the delivery of the marketing Programmes to homes, schools , work places and road users.   These are spelt out as follows:

(a)   Twenty corporate firms to become a '20/20' work place by 2005;

(b)   Five hundred schools to be one of 'EcoSchools partnership' programme by 2010;

(c)   Each household to received one of the 150,000 '20/20' Planners by 2010;

(d)   A 30% reduction in home energy use to be realized by 2020 and

(e)   Reduction in vehicle usage by participating households to achieved 20% .

Individuals were asked to make personal *'commitments of easy to do activities over a set period of time'.*   Partnerships were established in every sector while support systems and incentivizes were initiated to help householders *'create a platform for long term change on air quality' (*the Campaign Study).

5.8.3 Target group(s)

The target group was made up of five categories of people, (a) & (b) those who live and work in the Greater Toronto Area; (c) those attending schools in the area, predominantly Elementary Grade 5; (d) those conducting corporate businesses in the area and interested in promoting energy efficiency, and (e) selected neighbourhoods whose first language was not English. Segmentation and targeting and further segmentation were carried out in order that different strategies could be applied to achieve a more effective message application.

5.8.4 Partnerships alliances

The Toronto Public Health and other Health Units in the region of York, Peel, Halton and Durham, came together with an array of partners from,

- 'Clean Air Organisations,
- District School Boards,
- Transit Organisations & Commission,
- Community & Residential Association,
- Environmental Organisations and
- Two other Professional organizations' to form a working partnership alliance.

They designed, planned and implemented the campaign "20/20 The Way to Clean Air".

5.8.5 Getting informed and delivering the programme

Appeals that were made to individuals for them to make commitment to *'easy to do activities over a set period of time'* were agreed as the best way forward. The professional company - EYE - that was engaged at the beginning of the programme established a brand name that became "20/20 The Way to Clean Air". This captured the imagination of residents individually and collectively for the action of (a) smog reduction, (b) educational programmes on 'smog and air quality', (c) reduction of home energy and (d) vehicle use regarding air pollution. The marketers developed a strategic framework along social marketing lines to engage the target audiences in partnership action in reducing air pollution and energy use in the Greater Toronto Area.

The 'Best Practice Analysis' (a booklet) with its twelve energy reducing activity guidelines, was used as a template to deliver the programmes to home, school, and vehicle users. A '20/20' Planner and a '20/20' EcoSchool Planner with teachers' guide, were successful developed and distributed.

5.8.6 Types of intervention

Twenty families were used in the pretesting of draft materials and these were in the form of exercises, referred to as 'Living labs', which took place in the year 2000.   They were supported by incentives and regular telephone contacts from a partner in one of the five regional health units. After pretesting, refinement of the programme took place after which there was a pilot study that involved 250 families in the Toronto and Peel Regions. This trail was completed in May 2002 and gave a clear indication that a 20% energy reduction goal was achievable.

The extensive pretesting, referred to as 'Living labs', and the pilot study informed the marketers that not only was (a) 20% energy reduction achievable but, (b) a pledge for action and comprehensive resources to guide those actions as well as supportive incentives were needed; (c) having measurable benefits required; (d) easy access to basic home energy-savings opportunities and easy-to-use tracking tools were needed; (e) more support for priority neighbourhoods and (f) partnership with local service providers, to deliver better work-based initiatives. Self-efficacy theory was kept alive by regular interactions between marketers and target groups. Through the medium of letters, energy saving goods, tangible rewards for milestones met and two way feedbacks were utilized.

Benchmarks met.

5.8.7 Behaviour change goals

Target groups were engaged at both individual and collective (partnership) levels for new learning activities at home, work, and school and in the use of vehicles, for the reduction of air pollution.   Partnership alliances achieved good delivery of services and programmes to others.

5.8.8 Audience research

The programme was pretested using 20 families and further piloted via 250 families. The data collected from these processes informed the rest of the campaign programme and allowed for

useful changes thus giving the 'message' a wider distribution and allowing for a much more measurable success.

5.8.9 Segmentation and targeting

This benchmark was effectively achieved.   Individuals living, working, driving and attending elementary schools grade 5 in the area targeted, and firms interested in air pollution reduction appeared to have been dealt with adequately, coupled with the deployment of further segmentation and targeting.

5.8.10 Exchanges (Benefits versus costs)

 The benefits were reduction in energy costs and less polluted air.   However, the result was not instantly achievable and was more intangible than tangible to the residents of the Greater Toronto Area. But, supported by participants' commitment, encouraged by various incentives and disincentives with easy to do activities over a set period of time, with support systems serviced by a large group of partners, the process became more manageable and appeared more tangible and meaningful. The benefits out weighted the costs to the participants over time and were measurable.

5.8.11 Marketing mix

 The effective application of the five Ps – product, price, place, promotion and partnership - encouraged greater involvement of target audiences' partnership-support, a display of community togetherness with two way feedback and measurable results.

Co-ordinated multimedia initiatives provided adverts as well as the access of basic facts about home energy-saving opportunities and information kits that enhanced the campaign. The message was also extended to multi-ethnic communities, work and school based groups through the use of community mobilization and partnership alliances.

5.8.12 Competition

Interactions and regular two-way feedback not only formed a link but built and strengthened the relationships between the target groups and the marketers. This provided a supportive system for the behaviour changes achieved by all.

5.8.13 Where the programme fell short

Limitations:	The Significance of These:
1. Overwhelmingly, the campaign showed that participants' continuous and positive outcomes relied on various incentives to keep their interests alive. The building of that relationship may be strong enough to sustain the behaviour change. Appeared to be more theory led than consumer led.	1. There is a danger that marketers over compensated in order to get and keep participants on board, to achieve their goals and the goals set by the Canadian Government. Although the two way feedback between marketers and participants was a very positive and successful process and a platform for good relationship building.

5.8.14 Summary

The planning, design and implementation of the campaign extended from November1999 to summer 2004, and ending with two surveys to measure participants effective use of the "20/20 Planner" and the efficient feed-back as to the achievement and barriers to success. The pathway leading to the final measurements were accentuated by incentives, disincentives, supportive interactions and partnership alliances. These processes embraced the whole community of the Greater Toronto Area, from corporate firms to EcoSchools to individuals living, working and motoring in the area. However, the goals were met. Could it be because the campaign appeared to be more theory led than consumer led, although the target groups were participating in the activities? The marketers argued that:

"*Behavior change is incremental and happens over time. Contributions (from the smallest to the largest) of each participating household add up over the years into meaningful emission reductions on a collective level*" (Campaign study p6).

The researcher agrees with the campaign suggestion that the '20/20 programme' needs to be promoted to a wider audience in terms of sharing its contents knowledge, supportive aspects and measurable results (Campaign study p5), as there is something beneficial to share.

5.9 Campaign number 3, "Preventing HIV and Partner Violence, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania"

5.9.1 Overview

This was a three year community-based intervention to change attitudes and behaviours relating to violence and HIV /AIDS. The study began with six months formative research. Set in Tanzania, The Horizons Report (December 2004), stated that the formative research estimated that 17% of females age 15 to 19 years were infected with HIV, but only 8% of males were. The reasons were that,

"factors including social and economic circumstances aided by poor economic infrastructure limit women's ability to determine when and how sex takes place" (Campaign Report :7).

Gender is therefore identified as a key determinant of sexual power dynamics, which in turn influence HIV risks. Gender also appeared as a dominant player in the shaping of that society's norms with reference to specific roles for males and females, although there were some differences   observed across their cultures. The marketers believed that, the development of target audiences' 'belief systems' of behaviour patterns and the initiation of intimate relationships were formed during young adulthood. Thus, the risk factor for HIV infection reverberated around infidelity. This appeared to be underpinned by a lack of trust by all within the target group, a lack of meaningful communication, intimate-relationship-violence and a culture of women's submissiveness. To combat these major enhancing factors to HIV infection, the marketer's interplay had to bring about drastic changes to culturally imbedded norms via the voluntary behaviour change route of young minds caught up in a swirl of their society's poor economic status.   With such insights of the target group, working with the young people, particular males, the marketer's challenges of 'unhealthy gender norms', control through violence in sexual relationships and, the support for HIV-prevention behaviours, were strategically positive.

5.9.2 Objectives

The objectives were to bring about awareness and to repair the lack of communication and trust in the male / female intimate relationships and to dissipate the high risk factor of HIV infection. Those two factors would serve to challenge unhealthy gender norms regarding violence and control in sexual relationships.   It would also help to mobilize support for HIV-preventative behaviours such as, abstinence, partner reduction and condom use.

5.9.3 Target group(s)

Target groups were the 16 to 24 years old males from two comparable communities in Dar es Salaam. Females in this age group were not directly a target group but were caught up in the problems needing a solution. One community was used as the **study site** and the other as the **control site**.   Recruitment of young people was from places where they congregated such as market places, sport grounds, bus depots and bars. Most young people were single but had intimate partners while some men were stated as having *'serial sexual relationships'*. The young men had a minimum educational input of seven years while most of the young women did not complete primary school education.

5.9.4 Partnership alliances

The partnership group consisted of Horizons International Centre for Research on Women, Johns Hopkins University and Muhimbili University College of Health Sciences, Kimara Peer Educators, a local NGO, The Voluntary Counselling and Testing Centre in Dara es Salaam and the University of Dar es Salaam Department of Fine and Performing Arts.

5.9.5 Getting informed and delivering the programme and Types of intervention

Several forms of interventions were used including focus groups, a control site and a study site. These were underpinned by the social influences of cognitive behavioural theories, which lead to cultural norm balance, peer education and support, together with commitment and trust among intimate partners.

The community based interventions were strengthened by the creation of a Community Theatre with help from members of the University Department of Fine and Performing Arts. Using the life experiences around them the 'Community Theatre Group' created a script and story line that focused on themes that emerged from the formative research that was undertaken.   This helped to highlight the role infidelity played in the young people's lives.

There were good uses of 'place' and 'promotion' as the theatre performances were taken to 'places' where the young people of the study site normally gathered. The strategies of engaging the audience in discussions and group activities after each show were dynamic. The impact on behaviour change could have been more successful than envisaged by the marketers as the activities tended to stimulate thinking, both positive and negative.

The behavioural learning theories or social learning theories, from the behaviourist's perspective assumed that

"…*learning takes place as a result of responses to external events*" (Solomon 2002:72-80).

 In so doing, some argued that the mind is a 'black box' where *stimulus* goes in and *reaction* comes out and that *reaction* attracts feedback which in turn, shapes *life experiences*. This interrelates to cognitive learning theory where the individual's internal mental processes use *"…creativity and insight during the learning process"*(Solomon 2002).

 Marketers appeared to use these strategies to affect maximum shift in *behavioural thinking* and *actions;* a good way in which to dislodge imbedded cultural norms that are seen as harmful to the fabric of any target group's society.

 Voluntary behaviour change encompassed these two theories, thinking and actions, but the researcher argues that the third member of the triangle is **'attitude'.** Attitudes are responses that locate and communicate information from one person to another as they are a part of cognitive life and social discourse (Augoustinos & Walker 2001: 14 & 94). All these points played an important part in the process of this campaign's marketing mix.

Benchmarks met

5.9.6 Behaviour change goals

The behaviour change goals achieved were a challenge to' *unhealthy gender norms and violence and control in sexual relationships'* and the development of supportive HIV-preventative behaviours in order to safeguard both women's and men's health and well being and that of their society.

5.9.7 Audience research

Six months of formative research into social and cultural norms such as, violence in sexual relationships among young adults, poor communication and the absence of relationship building. Extensive pre-testing was also carried out which helped to shape the campaign' design and hence the delivery.

5.9.8 Segmentation and targeting

This was achieved by using two comparable communities in Dar es Salaam; one community was used as the intervention site and the other as the control site.   Young men 16 to 24 years old from both sites were targeted. The young women were not stipulated as a target group but featured in the campaign planning as they were affected by the men's violence and their transmission of HIV infection.

5.9.9 Exchanges (benefits versus costs)

The desired behaviour is the creation of new cultural norms to support partner fidelity, communication and trust. These benefits are important to most of the young men and all the young women.   If achieved, the benefits will outweigh the costs. Most importantly, the communities as a whole would benefit from a reduction in HIV infection. Great strides were made and some behaviour changes were achieved.

5.9.10 Marketing mix

The operationalisation of social marketing strategies to capture the hearts and minds of a young target group was immersed in cultural norms and a set lifestyle. Using six Ps – product, price, place, promotion, people and partnership a number of focus groups and in-depth interviews were supported by a raft of other group activities including, community theatre, peer education, training and support, information sharing, community events, personal interaction, feedback and relationship building. These strategies appeared to have made an impact on the target group of the intervention site and *"Group sessions [also] provided young men a safe space to discuss sexual behaviours, HIV and conflict resolution" (Campaign Report, p 9).*

5.9.11 Competition

To counteract competition and inject sustainability in the successes made, regular monthly training sessions were held. In these sessions, small groups of young men were taught the necessary skills to build-up their self-esteem and trust in their sexual partnerships. These sessions, led by male leaders, ran for over a year.

5.9.12 Where the programme fell short

Limitations:	Significance of These:
1. Females' attitudes were not measured like the males' attitudes were in the target age groups. In evaluation, the men's opinions will be considered but the women, the recipient of infidelity, violence and HIV infection, will not.	1. This would engender a more balanced evaluation of the programme's success and be of more benefit to their society and a learning curve for others.
2. Not looking at the community in a wider social and environmental context, although, the male target group is identified as the key determinants of sexual power dynamics which in turn controls HIV risks.	2. This not only gave a wider aspect to the robust picture of the programme but would be beneficial in, increasing the public's perception in the form of public education. Raising awareness to the links between sexual activities and HIV/Aids and could even raise the status of women in that society – gender status awareness.
3 Some educational information on schools' curriculum for early teens re sexual health education was filtering into family life and upbringing.	3. An opportunity to forge links with the upstream section of society; example, Education & Health policy makers, as healthy minds create healthy attitudes, create healthy bodies and create a healthy society.
4 Linking domestic violence to the Criminal Justice System, making it a crime.	4. Upstream involvement needed policy changes; widening the public's acceptance for the need to change; policy could be used as a tool to

5. More efforts to empower women, notwithstanding their economic status appear to determine their sexual behaviour coupled with poor education and lack of other opportunities.	empower the submissive gender in the society 5. Clear but simple strategies enabling women to feel empowered and supported. This should include the males voluntarily developing positive attitudes to females, linking behaviour with health and healthy outcomes. More opportunities for women would help them to be less dependent on financial support from sexual relationships.

5.9.13 Summary

This case is ongoing but the intended evaluation will
"measure attitudes, knowledge and behaviours among 400 young men ages 16 to 24 in the intervention community at baseline one year later and comparing these changes to pre- and post- data from 400 young men in the control community" (Campaign Report, p.9).

An extensive partnership alliance worked well in this campaign. They appeared determined to achieve their objectives. All Andreasen's (2002) benchmarks, as well as an excellent mix of strategies, gave a positive turning point for successes in a deeply ingrained cultural setting and in a society that has a poor economic structure.

5.10 Campaign number 7, "Social Marketing Improving the Consumption of Iron-fortified Soy Sauce among Women in China"

5.10.1 Overview

This campaign is regarded as the first attempt to promote a fortified condiment in a poor area of China although other nutrition focused social marketing programmes have been successful in campaigns. Iron deficiency anaemia (IDA) was billed to be the most common nutritional problem in the world by The World Health Organization. The China Nutrition and Health Survey in 2002, reported that IDA in its population was 20.1% overall with the children and the elderly reaching a rate of 30% overall. In 2000, the Province of Guizhou, an economically depressed area of China, the IDA rate amongst the children was found to be 58%. To redress the problem in such a deprived area, 'food fortification' was believed to be the most feasible, cost effective and sustainable way to improve their health. Soy sauce condiment was selected as a food vehicle to make the improvement in their iron deficiency, because of its high level of use in the region.

Integrating six Ps - Product, Price, place, Promotion, Policy and Partnership, and using Andreasen's (1995) definition of social marketing, the process was customer driven and the marketers created an attractive benefit package for an exchange of voluntary behaviour. A customer driven campaign was launched in December 2004 and lasted for fifteen months. Being community based, the campaign designers dealt with two distinct areas of Guizhou Province, rural areas and urban areas, which had different expectations and different community infrastructures. These areas were further segmented and grouped under four headings which were, experimental rural area, identified as 'ER'; experimental urban area, identified as 'EU'; control rural area, identified as 'CR', and control urban area, identified as 'CU'. The campaign was funded by Global Alliance for Improved Nutrition, Geneva, Switzerland.

Policy support for iron-fortified soy sauce intervention came from the Country's State Council and was administered through a number of Ministries and the Chinese Food and Nutrition Development Program 2001 to 2010. The female members of both rural and urban areas were the focus of the intervention as they are regarded as having responsibility for their families' shopping and cooking.

5.10.2 Objectives

To test the feasibility and effectiveness of social marketing intervention, on the improvement of women's knowledge, attitudes and behaviour changes to iron-fortified soy sauce (FeSS).

5.10.3 Target group(s)

The target groups were women 19 to 70 years old in the urban and rural areas of Guizhou Province who were responsible for shopping and cooking for their family.

5.10.4 Partnerships alliances

There was a strong partnership alliance among the following: The State Council of China; Ministries of Health, Education and Agriculture; the General Administration of Sport; Department of Disease Control; Guizhou Provincial Centre for Disease Control and Prevention; Institute of Sanitation Inspection; Organization of Health, Education and Health Promotion,; China Condiment Industry Association; Local Condiment and Business Associations and organizations of the local communities. The partnership and collaboration among these organizations made it possible to market the 'message' effectively.

5.10.5 Getting informed and delivering the programme

Formative research was carried out that incorporated detailed questionnaires based on the 'Theory of Planned Behavior' (Montano & Taplin, 1997), and a 'Health Belief Model' (Strecher & Rsenstock, 1997). The campaign design was also piloted. Both processes gave good insights into the target group's needs as well as their life styles, health, health issues, financial positions, attitudes, likes, dislikes, educational attainment and their communities. Insights were attained as to the target group's concept of the importance of FeSS to IDA and their attitude and behaviour towards its acquisition and consumption.

5.10.6 Types of intervention

Having an understanding of the target groups' communities' infrastructure and their access to and the availability of the products in question, the intervention was tailored to fit the target groups' needs (French & Blair-Stevens, 2007). Integration of the six Ps – product, price, place, promotion, policy and partnership with stakeholders, and using social marketing strategies, a customer driven campaign was launched. The marketers could be said to use the following pattern, see figure 5.1

Figure 5.1 Patterns of data collection; Diagrammatic presentation
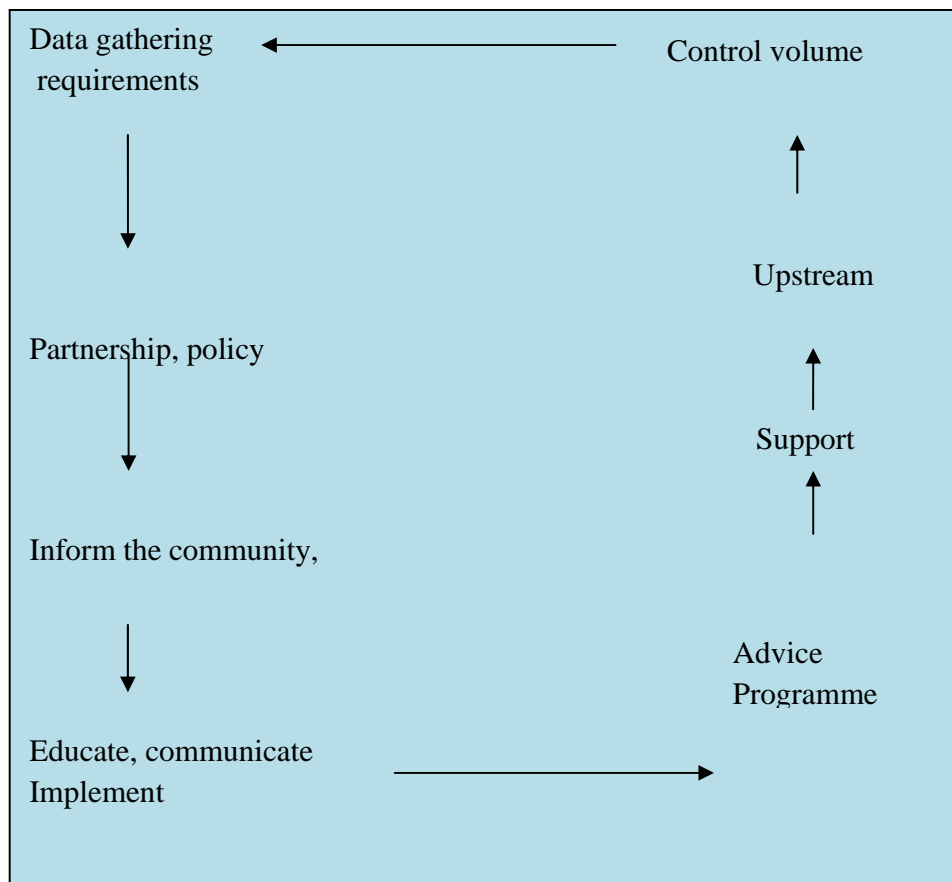
Idea adopted from French & Blair-Stevens (2007), developed & expanded by researcher Robinson-Maynard (2009).

Benchmarks Met

5.10.7 Behaviour change goals

The process of social marketing was used to test the feasibility and effectiveness in the improvement of women's knowledge, attitudes & behaviours to iron-fortified soy sauce (FeSS).

5.10.8 Audience research

Formative research and detailed questionnaires based on the *'Theory of Planned Behavior'* and *'Health Belief model'* were carried out.

5.10.9 Segmentation & targeting

Women (only) 19 to 70 years old, (although age was deemed an unimportant factor from both the urban and rural areas of Guizhou Province), who were responsible for buying household commodities and cooking for the family. Using a stratified selection process, participants were recruited from two urban communities and two rural communities in the Huishui County in Guizhou Province and were randomly divided into two intervention and two control groups of about 145 women each. The communities' areas of commonality related to their economic status and the women's sparse knowledge of the characteristics, benefits and availability of FeSS. Marketers' good planning led to further segmentation and targeting in the sub divisions of both rural and urban areas to aid effective delivery of their message.

5.10.10 Exchange (benefits versus costs)

The availability and affordability of FeSS in the poorest areas of China helped to reduce the prevalence of IDA - iron deficiency anaemia - among those communities. Improvements in the knowledge and attitudes of the women in the target group were achieved as well as improvements in the physical growth of the children.

5.10.11 Marketing mix

The integration of the 6 Ps made excellent use of the interactions between 'up stream' and 'downstream' partnerships and the use of mass media to promote the campaign. Coupled with a combination of 'baseline' surveys, sample sizing, specially designed questionnaires, to aid those with limited educational ability as well as help to fill in the questionnaires, follow up surveys in the four target areas were done. Through the marketing mix process, the marketers' alliance with selected partners increased the availability and affordability of soy sauce for the women in the different regions.

5.10.12 Competition

The Government's policy –the sixth 'P'- provided powerful support for the campaign and minimized negative impact of external and internal influences and influencers, in the promotion of iron-fortified Soy Sauce.

5.10.13 Evaluation / outcomes

The target groups were from urban and rural Guizhou Province in China and were divided into four areas, two experimental and two control groups – Eu & Er and Cu &Cr. The intervention process was more intense in the experimental groups than the control groups but both were evaluated at the end of the campaign. Examples of the intervention in the groups are as follows:

Experimental Groups	Control Groups
Eu input: • Interpersonal communication on nutrition, health lectures, health consultations • Regarding iron deficiency, provision of calendars with FeSS information & FeSS gift bags.	**Cr input:** • Because this area's level of understanding was less than Eu, they were given the same as Eu plus – more information about the characteristics of FeSS in order to provide greater awareness of its benefits and so their behavioural intention to buy was enhanced.
Reported results Eu & Er: • Diminished worries about FeSS (overcoming barriers to purchase) interpersonal communication added to mass marketing campaign brought significant improvement in the adoption of desired behaviour, an increase of 30% more than in the control groups.	**Reported results, Cu & Cr:** • Significant improvement in their 'Posthest Score' related to (overcoming barriers to purchasing FeSS) • Indication that the mass media section of the campaign 'was sufficient to result in behaviour change for some people'.

5.10.14 Where the programme fell short

Limitations:	Significance of These:
1. The Report indicated that long term tracking of participants in the social marketing campaign was limited.	1. No way of knowing the long term commitment and sustainability to the purchase of FeSS for the improvement of health.
2. The programme only addressed the 'knowledge, attitudes and purchasing intentions of women, although the prevalence of iron deficiency anaemia affected the whole population (despite the special reasons for addressing females only).	2. Family support could prove helpful especially in times of diminished monetary resources which could increase reluctance on the women's part to buy soy sauce. A need for 'physiological' testing, but perhaps this was a more costly venture.
3. The Report indicated a higher attrition at the follow up survey than expected. This could have happened because registration details were not correct, surveyors received wrong information or participants moved away.	3. This decreased the sample size thus decreasing the resulting outcomes and correctness of such figures. However, the analysis of paired application between the groups enabled a more balanced report to some extent.
4. A 'stratified sampling' was used to select participants from two districts – urban and rural communities in Guizhou instead of random sampling. Secondly, the campaign was in the most 'economically disadvantaged areas of China.	4. Therefore, the recorded results can only be meaningfully applied to areas of similar backgrounds and conditions. If IDA affects all of China, albeit in different percentages, the campaign could be rolled out to other areas but incorporating many major changes.

5.10.15 Summary of campaign seven

Much was learnt by the targeted groups from the application of social marketing strategies to the promotion of iron-fortified condiment. The mass media campaign alone brought some positive results, however there was no long term tracking as to the sustainability of the campaign's impact on the targeted groups, as the groups as a whole would have been affected by economic changes from time to time. This is a negative point in the whole process. If free gifts with soya contents continued to be distributed at public events, a good balance of IDA would be sustained in the communities highlighted for its duration.

5.10.16 Conclusion

The rationale behind the in-depth appraisal of four of the twelve campaigns was to showcase the complexity and kaleidoscopic nature of social marketing. They demonstrated the necessity and versatility in dealing with social problems complexities, the variety of target audiences and the issues that are sometimes hamstrung by different infrastructures or inadequate ones. The shortcomings the case studies have presented do not detract from the processes that can and were employed within the social marketing remit or from the successes achieved. These limitations highlighted the possibility of achieving even greater success if they can be dealt with.

These four in-depth profiles have demonstrated the breadth of activities used in social marketing campaigns which, in the study overall, have resulted in the identification of 19 benchmarks and 33 strategies. In the first step towards understanding how these benchmarks and strategies might be linked to success, a preliminary analysis of these variables and their usages in all the twelve cases was undertaken.

5.11 Relationships between Benchmarks and Strategies and Successes in the Twelve Social Marketing Campaigns

The research population at first centred around twelve global social marketing case study campaigns that conformed to the research strategy criteria (section 4.6.1). These campaigns are shown in table 5.5, depicting the campaigns' country of location, their main problems, the groups targeted, benchmarks, strategies and results.

Table 5.5 First Research Population: Twelve Social Marketing Campaigns

Campaigns	Locations	Main problems	Target groups	Benchmarks used	Strategies used	Results
1	Canada	Health SIDS prevention	Parents & primary care givers	**12**	**13**	**Very successful**
2	Canada	Environment clean air	City individuals	**15**	**17**	**Successful**
3	Tanzania	HIV/Aids prevention	Adults over 16	**11**	**15**	**On going**
4	UK	Welfare	Judiciary	**10**	**14**	**Partially successful**
5	UK	Smoking cessation	Pregnant women	**15**	**18**	**Successful**
6	USA	Mental illness	General public	**14**	**23**	**Very successful**
7	China	Health issues	Women 19-70 years old	**17**	**21**	**Successful**
8	Canada	HIV prevention	Gay men 30 – 40 years old	**9**	**17**	**Successful**
9	USA	Youths violence	Adolescents	**12**	**22**	**Successful**
10	USA	HIV testing	Adolescents	**15**	**22**	**Successful**
11	USA	Reducing access to tobacco	Youths	**15**	**19**	**Partially successful**
12	New Zealand	Health Sun screening	Children 12 years & under	**12**	**15**	**Partially successful**

Table 5.5 Twelve Social Marketing Campaigns

Twelve social marketing campaigns shown in the table above have their country of location, the main problems marketers dealt with, the groups targeted together with the total number of benchmarks and strategies used and the campaigns results.

To ascertain the variables that were used by successful campaigns, the 12 social marketing campaigns of the research population were quantitatively analyzed and the results, as recorded above, show the total number of benchmarks and strategies employed in each of the campaigns.

An attempt was made to find out if there were any correlations between benchmarks, strategies and the interventions' outcomes. However, no statistically significant relationship was identified. For example in campaign **8,** nine benchmarks and seventeen strategies were deployed in its intervention and the results were successful. In contrast, campaign **11** used fifteen benchmarks and nineteen strategies but the results turned out to be partially successful. Another example as depicted in campaigns **1** and **12.** In campaign **1,** twelve benchmarks and thirteen strategies were deployed in its intervention leading to very successful outcomes. However, in campaign **12,** twelve benchmarks and fifteen strategies of intervention were utilized but with an outcome that was partially successful. The lack of significant relationships being shown between these variables could be a result of the small sample size of the research population. Stage two of the research **(Chapter six)** addresses this concern by increasing the research population to one hundred social marketing campaigns and undertaking a quantitative analysis of that total.

5.12 SUMMARY

This chapter has concentrated on the qualitative analysis of the twelve social marketing campaign studies, exploring their different aspects and appraising their variables against Andreasen's (2002) benchmarks. The research study, Stage One, looked at 12 social marketing campaigns and from that developed 19 benchmarks and 33 strategies, which have been discussed in some detail in this chapter, highlighting the preliminary analysis of the benchmarks and strategies and their usages undertaken as a first step towards understanding how these are linked to success. The next stage of the research is to test these benchmarks and strategies quantitatively to ascertain their importance in successful social marketing campaigns. The next chapter therefore presents the results of the quantitative analyses of the data collected from an increased research population of social marketing campaigns that forms Sage Two of the research study.

6.0 CHAPTER SIX: STATISTICAL RESULTS OF THE STUDY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the analysis that was undertaken to explore the results of stage two. The chapter begins by discussing the various statistical techniques used in this analysis. Being aware of and being able to understand statistical analysis and select the tests needed to be applied is important for successful and accurate research (Bryman & Cramer, 2001). Selecting the right tests gives a more relevant outcome to the data being analyzed (Bryman & Cramer, 2001 and Babbie, 2005), and is fundamental to the comprehension of the interactions between variables. Before the study's data are quantitatively analyzed and the statistical results set out, an explanation of the items involved in the process will be given as well as the rationale behind their use.

Firstly, the chapter will address the variables to be used. Secondly, each analytical process employed will be fully explained at the point of the analysis and the results of interactions will be clarified in relation to the research population.

This chapter therefore will describe a quantitative analytical survey of one hundred social marketing campaigns, using SPSS PAWS, version 18. It will present the analytical results of the nineteen benchmarks, and their interactions with the dependent variable 'success'; the analytical results of the thirty three social marketing strategies that marketers used in their campaign interventions and will discuss the outcomes of the relationships between variables consistent with expected outcomes and the hypothesizes of the study.

6.2 Reiteration of Research Objectives

At this stage it is helpful to reiterate the research objectives that frame this research:

1. To identify benchmarks for successful social marketing campaigns from the literature review.

2. To investigate case studies using a mixed methods approach, in examining strategies adopted by marketers, whether from profit or not-for-profit organizations when designing and implementing social marketing campaigns.

3. To identify and analyse a set of criteria for benchmarks and possible strategies with which to carry out social marketing campaigns.

4. To provide a coherent set of "predictors of success" to use in social marketing campaigns.

6.3 Data Analysis Explained

It is argued that the editing and reduction in data gathered is a form of data analysis (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). Accepting that to be the case, analysis is one of the tools the researcher has at his or her disposal to clarify and make sense of the vast amount of data gathered from the field of enquiry. The analytical processes employed in the study will therefore examine and describe in some detail the data presented. The data were analyzed quantitatively. In so doing, the data gathered were created into manageable sizes from which summaries were developed, themes were extracted and to which different forms of statistical analyses were applied. This revealed underlying meanings and underlying patterns of relationships among variables. Behavioural factors, knowledge, opinions and attitudes were subject to quantitative analyses (Cooper & Schindler, 2006; Field, 2005), but these had built upon the results of the qualitative analyses

presented in the previous chapter. The aim or expectation is that the quantitative analyses will strengthen the qualitative analytical processes that were undertaken (Babbie, 2005).

6.4 Variables: what they are

The following types of variables are explained as most of them are employed in the study.   The one hundred social marketing campaigns being processed are referred to as units and the units referred to as variables. These variables are symbols to which values are assigned and therefore can be measured (Sweet & Grace–Martin, 2008). The variables of the study's campaigns are referred to as logical groupings of attributes (Babbie, 2005) which also carry numeric values. As an example, the variable 'gender' is made up of two other variables which are 'male' and 'female'. In a statistical analysis, using the SPSS process, the variable 'female' is given the value of '0' while the variable 'male' is given the value of '1'; this process is referred to as being given a '*value label*' (Sweet & Grace-Martin, 2008).

To test the research hypothesis, the variables of the research data are measured for their inputs and outcomes; as they vary between the target groups, the target groups' behaviours, the target groups' locations, and any finances involved in dealing with those processes.

6.4.1 Types of Variables Used

There are different types of variables. The ones discussed here are used in the analytical processes of the study. The brief explanations of these variables will facilitate a better understanding of their interactions with each other, and as a guide to the depth of use they should be employed. These types of variables are **continuous variables, dependent variables, independent variables, categorical and dichotomous variables.**

6.4.2 Continuous Variables

To analytically measure continuous variables a numeric value is always given. Continuous variables can take on any value of a 'measurement scale' being used (Field, 2005) and can have an infinite number of possible values when they use the facility of decimals numbers (Sweet & Grace-Martin, 2008).

6.4.3 Dependent variables

Dependent variables are also called '*outcome variables*' (Field, 2005). The values of these variables are dependent upon other variables or are caused by another variable when 'manipulated' by the use of an independent variable in order to show a result of data relationship (Babbie, 2005, Cooper & Schindler, 2006). This is because it is important to identify the relationships between dependent variables and independent variables. The study makes major use of this variable

6.4.4 Independent variables

Independent variables are regarded as variables with values that are not *'problematic in analysis but are taken as simply given' (*Babbie, 2005:484). Their values are not dependent on any other variable. Within this study, '*success'*, is a function of the various benchmarking criteria, therefore '*success'* is regarded and is used as a dependent variable. However, it is argued that given another set of analytical circumstances '*success*' could be used as an independent variable (Field, 2005), but this second phase is not undertaken in this study.

6.4.5 Categorical variables

These variables are made up of groupings of objects or entities but are still identified as categorical variables because of the 'value labels' attached to them (Hair et al., 1998). There are different types of categorical variables namely, non-metric, nominal, binary and qualitative or taxonomic variables (Hair et al., 1998). The study's variables are generally categorical variables.

6.4.6 Dichotomous Variables

These variables comprise of only two categories, examples of which can be (a) 'gender' or (b) 'a driving test'. In example (a), there can only be either male or female and in example (b) there can only be a pass or fail in the case of 'driving tests'. The study depicts many dichotomous variables such as, when referring to a target audience's health; they can be regarded as either suffering from the HIV virus or they are not suffering from the HIV virus, but the group of variables are referred to as dichotomous.

6.4.7 Variables used for Significant Testing

Variables are tested for their outcomes and their relationships between each other. Tests of significance is a testing process used to determine if a relationship between two or more variables in a data sample is the *'result of chance 'or not (*Sweet & Grace-Martin, 2008). If another sample was taken from the same source would a similar relationship pattern emerge? Significant tests are based on probabilistic reasoning which severely limits what can be concluded from any results (De-Vaus, 2002 & Field, 2008). However, there are different ranges of tests of significance but those applied in the analyses here are:

(a) Cross- tabulation and

(b) Correlation.

6.4.8 Descriptive Statistics

The characteristics of the various elements of the data are displayed by this process and in which analytical investigations give a picture of and make inferences from the data. Four main types of descriptive statistics are used in the study's quantitative analysis, these are:

(a) Cross – tabulation and Pearson's chi-square tests

(b) Logistic regression

(c) Correlation and

(d) Multivariate analysis.

These will be discussed in their relative sections.

6.5 The Study

The question this research seeks to answer requires an understanding of how important individual benchmarks are at achieving success *and whether some benchmarks are more important than others for attaining successful outcomes* in the social marketing campaigns they are deployed.

To answer the question, quantitative analytical testing using cross-tabulation with cell counts and statistical testing using chi-square outputs were employed. We already know that in the small twelve sample survey, none of the benchmarks and strategies correlated with success, but it is hypothesized that this was largely due to the very small sample size used in the first research population.

Testing a larger sample of social marketing campaigns will give a more robust result, regardless of whether that shows correlations or not. Therefore, a total of 100 campaigns formed the second research population. The new sample size conformed to the former selection criteria and sampling frame used to identify this first research population.

6.5.1 Descriptive Characteristics

Table 6.1: Second Research Population - countries of location and the numbers and Percentages of social marketing campaigns undertaken in each country

Country Locations	Campaign Frequencies	Percentages
Canada	30	30.0
UK & UK/Europe	16	16.0
USA	35	35.0
China	1	1.0
New Zealand	6	6.0
Norway	1	1.0
Denmark	1	1.0
Brazil	1	1.0
Tanzania	1	1.0
Panama	1	1.0
Indonesia	1	1.0
Cambodia	1	1.0
Kenya	1	1.0
Australia	2	2.0
India	1	1.0
Pakistan	1	1.0
Total	100	100.0

Table 6.1 Second Research Population

As seen in table 6.1, most of the campaigns were operational in North America, Canada and Western Europe, accounting for 35%, 30%, and 16% respectively.

This geographical bias in the sample reflects the availability (at the time) of peer reviewed campaign reports and articles from which the data were gathered. It was very difficult accessing detailed reports from less developed countries; it appeared that many campaign reports were driven by western academics and practitioners and indeed were some campaign designs.

Although these campaigns were in action in different countries around the world, their reports showed that in many instances the marketers' knowledge and skills were globally shared, even though the marketers had to contend with vast differences of the different countries' infrastructures or lack of it and the differences in cultures, customs and mores.

Table 6.2 Descriptive characteristics

Main problem	Health & social: (48%)	Environment: (38%)	Safety: (4%)	Violence & anti-social: (5%)	Financial planning: (5%)	
Groups targeted	General public, householders: (37%)	Young mothers families, students: (30%)	Males, young and middle age: (4%)	Women 16-40 and working adults: (13%)	Co. employees, care staff: (11%)	Male sex workers, gays, bisexual: (5%)
Areas targeted/locations	Households: (26%)	City, state, province: (19%)	Regional: (29%)	National (whole country):26%)		
Stakeholders	Health (48%)	Public / private companies: (70%)	Environment (energy Council s etc.): (22%)	Community groups, volunteers, parents etc.: (52%)	Local Authority, Federal owned companies :(39%)	Schools, professional boards, universities researchers, Horizons Council: (23%)
Length of campaigns	One week to 11 months :(20%)	One year to three years: (33%)	Three yrs. one month to five Yrs: (13%)	Five Yrs. 1 month to eight yrs. :(5%)	Over eight years: (2%)	
Cost of campaigns	Up to £50k: (17.9%)	£51k to £500k: (46.2%)	£5001k to one million: (7.7%)	Up to six million: (15.4%)	Up to ten million & over: (12.8%)	
Success of campaigns	Successful: (76.6%)	Partially successful: (12.8%)	Not successful: (10.6%)			

Table 6.2 The descriptions of the variables that make up the campaigns.

This descriptive analysis revealed that the various campaigns addressed five key problem areas and that there was a huge variety in terms of the types of targeted groups. The stakeholders

involved with the social marketing campaigns came from six specific areas of business and the community. The length of time each campaign took and the costs of each campaign were very variable and have been condensed into five groups. The campaigns' outcomes are mixed but they fitted into three specifications which are successful, partially successful and not successful, as discussed earlier in chapter **four.** The decisions made in terms of managing this complicated data base are discussed below.

6.5.2 Main problem

The data was organized into five main 'problem' sectors namely health and social issues; environmental concerns; safety issues; violence and anti-social behaviour and financial planning. Health and social issues formed 48% of the problems that marketers dealt with. This is not surprising as health issues underpinned many social marketing campaigns and covered a whole spectrum of subjects including HIV / Aids, smoking cessation and drug dependency. The next highest sector represented in this study concerned environmental issues such as maintaining clean air and recycling household items, accounting for 38%. Household recycling has now become an income stream for many large businesses thus providing less material for landfill sites. The emission of CO_2 in the atmosphere was an even more problematic issue until the Clean Air Act of 1970, updated in1993, (Government Regulatory Bodies, UK1993) tried to make a difference. Campaigns highlighting the damages caused by air pollution to the natural environment and to health have been successful. Through public education and grassroots activities, there have been better made cars, cleaner manufacturing plants and smokeless zones, all have contributed to minimizing negative health effects.

Violence and anti-social behaviour and financial planning issues accounted for 5% each. And issues of safety were addressed by 4% of the campaigns analyzed.

6.5.3 Groups Targeted

The groups being targeted by the various campaigns were many and varied. However, some grouping had to be achieved that would allow some rudimentary analysis of this aspect of the data. Ultimately six headings were used. It was a daunting task trying to identify all the targeted groups within the 100 campaign cases. Many campaign's targeted groups were further segmented - for better message delivery - and this added to the complexity of the task. However, the attempt that was made to identify these groups was undertaken as sympathetically as possible. This is however a compromise and the grouping together of some of these target groups may well be an area of research that could be improved.

The main groups the various campaigns focused upon were the general public and householders. Together these groups formed 37% of the groupings. Young mothers, families and students accounted for 30%. The other four groups targeted were unevenly distributed in percentage terms but ranged from 13% women 16 to 40 years old, farm workers and working adults; 11% company employees and care staff; male sex workers, gay and bisexual men as well as young males and middle aged males accounted for 5% and 4% respectively.

6.5.4 Areas of Location

The campaigns were undertaken at a variety of levels within society. The sample achieved a rather uneven split in terms of this variable. 26% of the campaigns were undertaken at the household level, 19% at the state or city level and 29% at the regional level. The remaining 20% of the campaigns were national. This is an excellent result as it will allow a comparison of the campaigns across these different levels of application. It will be interesting to find out if there is any significant difference between the strategies and benchmarks employed in the various campaigns.

6.5.5 Stakeholders

As identified in chapter one, stakeholder can play a crucial role in social marketing campaigns' designs, planning and implementation of the marketing message. They help to facilitate the best operation of the system for the benefit of those involved (Wilkie & Moore, 2003).

Support from stakeholders take many forms for example, they can give tangible support in the form of finance and sponsorship as well as less tangible support such as time and goodwill which are not always quantifiable.

The analysis of this research sample (table 6.2) showed that public/private companies' stakeholders had a 70% input in the campaigns' interventions. Companies that were in public ownership and companies that were privately managed, had a mixture of resources and so were able to input these resources in many different marketing campaigns, giving both tangible and intangible support. Therefore, the analysis showed a higher percentage of such involvement which is 70%, much higher than others. The campaigns' reports showed their involvement to be both financial and in-kind.

Further analysis highlighted community groups, volunteers from community organizations and parent groups made up 52% of stakeholders' input. This indicated a high level of interest and enthusiasm from these community based public groups in the principles of social marketing and the social marketing campaigns.

Health stakeholders input have been quantified as 48% although from the analysis of the campaign data, they also input a massive amount of time and effort which are not quantifiable. However, the campaigns' main problems as shown in table 6.2, are analyzed as health and social issues so there could have been an expectation of greater input from stakeholders in the health related organizations and government health departments with vested interests.

The involvement of stakeholders from local authorities and federal owned companies in these campaigns were 39%. The analysis showed that documentary encouragement was given by some campaign organizers to these stakeholders but this did not improve their involvement financial or otherwise in the social marketing campaigns they were involved with.

Schools, Boards of Governors, Universities and their researchers and The Horizons Council Organization were major groups from which stakeholders came. Their input into specific campaigns accounted for 23% while stakeholders from Environmental Organizations such as Energy Organizations and specific council departments, contributed 22% of their time and resources to the various social marketing campaigns in which they could engage more actively.

6.5.6 Length of Campaigns

This variable refers to the lengths of time campaigns lasted for. These times varied enormously, starting from one week to over eight years and so they were condensed carefully into five groups for analytical purposes.

Table 6.2 shows that 33% of campaigns lasted between one to three years while 20% of campaigns operated between one week to 11months and 13% lasted three years to five years. Campaigns that operated for five to eight years were 5% and those that ran for over eight years amounted to 2% of the total number of campaigns in the data for analysis. The details are set out in appendix 'E'.

6.5.7 Cost of Campaigns

This was one of the variables that caused significant problems in terms of data collection. Many reports did not supply this information. This may be as a result of the sensitive nature of the subject but it may also be due to a lack of clear data on costs and accountability versus outcomes.

This is a topic that should be investigated further in subsequent research. 61% of the reports had data missing for this variable and this certainly undermined any statistical analysis. However, in order to summarize this data the remaining 39% of the data were condensed into five groups. The analysis illustrated that 46.2% of campaigns spent between £51,000 and £500,000; 17.9% of campaigns spent up to £50,000; while 15.4% of campaigns spent up to £6 million. A further 12.8% of campaigns spent over £10 million while 7.7% of campaigns spent £500,000 to £1million. However, regarding this study, it remains inconclusive the part financial input really played in the acquisition of success because 61% of the data was not revealed. Appendix 'F' gives the analysis of the cost of campaigns.

6.5.8 Success of Campaigns

This section is divided into three areas (see table 5.2; section 5.2.2 and table 6.2). The analysis showed that 76.6% of the campaigns were categorized as successful, 12.8% as partially successful and 10.6% not successful. 6% of the reports in the sample were inconclusive and were recorded as missing data.

These groups of variables that is, length of campaigns, costs of campaigns and success of campaigns, were further quantitatively analyzed to highlight the parts they played as variables that are or may be predictors of success in social marketing campaigns.

6.6 Strategies of Interventions

The qualitative analysis of the 'first research population' of twelve social marketing campaigns yielded thirty three strategies of interventions that were used by marketers in their campaigns (See Chapter 5). The 'research population' was increased to one hundred social marketing campaigns and therefore formed the 'second research population' from which the strategies gained were the same. These strategies were quantitatively analyzed to ascertain how frequently

they were used by each of the one hundred campaigns. The quantitative analytical results are shown in **table 6.3**.

Table 6.3: Strategies of intervention showing the frequencies of their use by Campaigns in percentages

Strategies of intervention	Percentage of campaigns that used the strategy
Personal interaction	77%
Formative research	76%
Mass media	69%
Feed back	65%
Community programmes	63%
Posters, logos, billboards, banners	59%
Training & education	59%
Interviews, lobbing, questionnaires...	59%
Information sharing	55%
Financial incentives	53%
Focus groups	52%
Peer support	51%
Surveys	47%
Booklets, magazines, brochures	46%
Workshops / work groups	45%
Motivation building	42%
Analysis	42%
Obtaining a commitment	41%

Reminders	39%
Road shows, local event, talks	35%
Strategies of intervention	**Percentage of campaigns that used the strategy**
Newsletter	34%
Pretesting	32%
Info .sharing/ reward in public	28%
Word of mouth	26%
Website	26%
Partnership encouragement	25%
Parental involvement	22%
School based programmes	19%
Home visits	19%
Work based programmes	16%
Video	15%
Workbooks	9%
Audit	6%

Table 6.3 Strategies

The quantitative analytical tests showed how frequently, in percentage terms, each of the thirty three strategies were used by the various social marketing campaigns, appendix 'G' shows an extended analytical process - 'Frequencies of Strategies'.

6.6.1 Further quantitative analytical tests of strategies and success

In order to address the research question it was necessary to investigate which strategies had significant relationships to successful outcomes in social marketing campaigns. Thus a quantitative analytical process was employed. Pearson's Chi-Square testing, based on probabilistic reasoning that determines a relationship between variables as statistically significant, was employed. This process used the dependent variable –'success of campaign'- against each strategy as the independent variables to ascertain statistical results.

The quantitative analysis indicated that no individual strategy had a specific statistical significant relationship with social marketing campaigns successful outcomes. It would have been very useful if the research was able to identify strategies that were statistically significant to results, in the greater chance of success, as obtained from the analytical results of the benchmarks (table 6.6). However, successful social marketing campaigns do involve strategies that appear important and relevant to the campaigns. For example, the qualitative analysis of the research population of social marketing campaigns had yielded thirty three strategies of intervention, indicating that strategies are important in campaign operations and results, see section 5.5.1. This was also borne out in section 5.11, '*relationships between benchmarks, strategies and successes in social marketing campaigns*'; in table 5.4, *a grid* depicting strategies employed in twelve selected social marketing campaigns and in table5.5 that showed a number of strategies used together with benchmarks to attain success. Strategies used by marketers are relevant and appropriate to social marketing planned campaigns and the audience targeted, in order to affect successful outcomes.

6.7 The Benchmarks

As discussed in Chapter 5, nineteen benchmarks were established (see Table 5.3 in Chapter 5).

Table 6.4: Nineteen individual benchmarks yielded from the qualitative analysis of the first Research Population

peer review	Pretesting
formative research	piloting
questionnaire and in-depth interviews	relationship building
segmentation and targeting	further segmentation
upstream targeting	clear benefits
measurable benefits (stand up to scrutiny)	sustainable support
marketing mix plus extra Ps	multimedia initiative
understanding concept (target audience's problems)	own analysis
absence of flaws	Incentives
Disincentives	

These benchmarks were further quantitatively analyzed to ascertain how frequently each was used by individual campaigns in the research population of one hundred campaigns.

6.7.1 Analyzing the variable 'success' against 19 benchmarks & the   correlation of benchmarks to success

This next stage of the analysis was conducted in order to find out whether the level of campaign success was in any way related to any of the individual benchmarks.

Each individual benchmark was analyzed quantitatively to see whether there were any specific correlations with success. These analytical processes used success of campaign as the dependent variable, with its three categories – successful, partially successful and not successful- against each independent benchmark variables.

With the use of multiple benchmark variables the multivariate analytical process is incorporated in the testing. This is because the deployment of multivariate analytical process is likely to create *realistic models* that will satisfy quantitative and theoretical assumptions (Sweet & Grace-Martin, 2008).

The results of the initial analysis showed that the campaigns considered being successful mainly used the ten benchmarks shown in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5: Benchmarks mainly used by successful campaigns

Benchmarks	Percentages of use by successful campaigns
Clear benefits	72
Segmentation and targeting	72
Measurable benefits	70
Marketing mix	70
Relationship building	70
Questionnaire and interviews	70
Sustainable support	69
Understanding concept	66
Formative research	65
Peer review	64

Table 6.5 Showing the Ten Benchmarks used

6.7.2 Significant tests with chi-square outcomes

Significant testing is based on probabilistic reasoning. These tests determine if a relationship is **'statistically significant'** which means that an observed pattern would likely continue to exist if another sample data was taken from the entire 'population' (Bryman & Cramer, 2001).

The test undertaken to ascertain whether the proportion of benchmark variables applied to successful outcomes of social marketing campaigns in the sample data is or will be similar to that in any other specified sample. This test was therefore conducted using **cross tabulation and correlation analysis with a multivariate analytical process,** as this is likely to create more *'robust results'* (Sweet & Grace-Martin, 2008).

To finally establish if any of the benchmarks presented have a statistically significant relationship to campaigns that are successful, an analytical process using **'success of campaign'**, with its three categories –'successful, partially successful and not successful' – as the **dependent variable** against the nineteen benchmarks as **independent variables** was undertaken**.** To complete the analytical process, the application **of Pearson's Chi-square and Linear by Linear Association and Asymptotic Significance (Asymp. Sig.), were further applied.** The results showed that four benchmarks were statistically significant in their relationships with successful social marketing campaigns. These benchmarks are:

- Understanding concept
- Sustainable support
- Clear benefits and
- Piloting.

These SPSS analytical tests results of the benchmarks are set out in table 6.6 a, b, c, & d.

Table 6.6: Benchmarks shown to be statistically significant in their relationships with success

(a) Understanding Concept

Significant testing	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.672a	2	.013
Likelihood Ratio	6.210	2	.045
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.433	1	.011
N of valid Cases	94		

a. 2 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.17.

(b)   Sustainable Support

Significant Testing	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.518a	2	.014
Likelihood Ratio	5.786	2	.055
Linear-by-Linear Association	7.444	1	.006
N of Valid Cases	94		

a. 2 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .74.

(c)   Clear benefits

Significant Testing	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.490a	2	.014
Likelihood Ratio	4.574	2	.102
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.298	1	.012
N of Valid Cases	94		

a. 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .11.

(d)   Piloting

Significant Testing	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.291a	2	.043
Likelihood Ratio	9.765	2	.008
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.692	1	.193
N of Valid Cases	94		

a. 2 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.09.

6.7.3 The results in table 6.6: a, b, c, & d explained

The statistical outcomes of the four benchmark variables seen in Table 6.6: a, b, c & d are the results of chi-square statistics showing the independence (or dependency) of those variables to success. It is suggested that, if the **significant value** (the Asymp. Sig. figure) is less than .05, the hypothesis that the variables are independent has to be rejected (Field, 2009). Therefore, it has to be believed that the variables are in some way related. The analytical processes demonstrated that, for example, the variable *'understanding concept'* which has an Asymp. Sig. figure of .013, in statistical terms, is less than .05. This indicates that *'understanding concept'* has a significant relationship with 'successes as the dependent variables**.**

The significant levels of the other three variables as shown in the table 6.6: b, c, & d are also less than .05, the Asymp. Sig. figure. It can therefore be accepted that those benchmarks namely, *"sustainable support", "clear benefits" and "piloting", all* have a statistical significant relationship with the dependent variable 'success'. Because their significant figure levels are all less than '.05' means that 'chance' is not a factor in their relationships with 'successes' but a 'reality'. Therefore, it is more than likely that the social marketers who incorporate those benchmarks as part of their campaign planning, designing and implementation will have greater chances for successful outcomes.

The data was further subject to analytical processes to verify any other significant relationships but no other statistical significant findings emerged. For example, there were no significant statistical relationships between lengths of campaigns, their geographical locations or financial input with the dependent variable success. Although in the latter example this analysis was compromised by the missing data, this was not the case for the others.

6.8 SUMMARY

In this chapter statistical techniques were used to explore the relationships and levels of relationships between variables, specifically the strategies employed, the benchmarks addressed and their relationships with the successes of campaigns. Although strategies were found to play major roles in terms of the percentage of usage in campaigns that were successful as shown in table 6.3, no statistical significant relationships were accounted for, in relation to objective 2. However, the outcomes of the analytical processes between benchmarks and success of campaigns identified four benchmarks as being statistically significant (table 6.6). This result addresses objectives 1 and 3 (see section 1.6). These four benchmarks, having proven to be statistically significant are highlighted as the key predictors in successful social marketing campaigns and in the development of other campaigns. This is in fulfilment of objective 4 and in answer to the research question (section 1.8).

7.0 CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This research aimed to explore the theoretical underpinning of social marketing and to investigate current practice with a view to identifying criteria that could be used to help design and / or evaluate social marketing campaigns.

The premise behind the research was that although much had been written about social marketing, it was still an evolving sector and the literature was far from unanimous in terms of the definition and meaning of the term. Although there were clearly contested elements within the literature the practice of social marketing has clearly taken off, with the 1990s and early 2000's witnessing a huge increase in the number of campaigns that could be loosely defined as social marketing. This, however, presented a problem in that while more and more of these campaigns were being initiated, there were little clear criteria for their planners and managers to use in order to achieve the best possible outcomes. This research aimed to address this knowledge gap.

- The first research objective concerned the identification of clear benchmarks. This research objective arose following the initial literature reviews on the subject. It was clear that several authors were concerned with the nature and practice of social marketing and that in response had made several attempts at identifying benchmarks that could help to devise and guide an efficacious campaign (Andreasen, 1995; Lefebvre, 2006; French & Blair-Stevens, 2007). However, the literature also revealed that while some benchmarks did exist, there was no evidence of them being tested for this efficacy. The first research objective therefore aimed to identify a selection of benchmarks that would be tested for their contribution to the success of social marketing campaigns.

- The second research objective was more concerned with the practical strategies that successful campaigns used. The identification of effective strategies, along with the benchmarks would help to answer the third objective.

- The third research objective identified a set of criteria, encompassing benchmarks and strategies that would act as a planning tool for designing and implementing social marketing campaigns.

- The fourth research objective identified four criteria that are key predictors of success in social marketing campaigns.

The previous chapters have showcased the context, the methodology and the results of this research. Chapter one introduced the topics and areas to be dealt with in the research study, while highlighting the aims, objectives and research questions of the study. Chapters two and three reviewed the literature with chapter two painting a picture of social marketing's historical developmental journey and the controversies surrounding its evolution and definitions; while chapter three addressed the issues and challenges of behaviour change. Chapter three also introduced the notion of benchmarks and strategies in the marketing intervention. The methodology and the conceptual model framing the research are introduced in chapter four. This chapter addressed the methods of data collection, the research strategy and the research population used in the study. Chapter five discussed the results of the qualitative analytical processes of stage one of the research and chapter six discussed the findings of the quantitative analytical outcomes of stage two of the study.

This chapter, chapter seven, will now discuss the implications of the findings of chapters five and six with regard to the four research objectives, the research question and will go on to discuss the contributions of the study to the body of research knowledge and the limitations of the study. It will conclude by suggesting further research that could be undertaken in order to build on this work.

7.2: Benchmarks and Strategies: Benchmarks identified

The results of the qualitative research in stage one identified 19 benchmarks (section 5.4; table 6.4) and 33 strategies that were employed by the twelve social marketing campaign case studies (section 5.5.1; table 5.4). These were tested more broadly in stage two using a quantitative analytical process.

The aim was to identify key benchmarks that seemed to be directly related to the success of a social marketing campaign. Initial quantitative analysis identified ten benchmarks, found to be used by marketers in their campaigns' interventions that were considered successful (Table 7.1).

Table 7.1: Benchmarks mainly used by successful campaigns

Benchmarks	Percentages of use by successful campaigns (%)
Clear benefits	72
Segmentation and targeting	72
Measurable benefits	70
Marketing mix	70
Relationship building	70
Questionnaire and interviews	70
Sustainable support	69
Understanding concept	66
Formative research	65
Peer review	64

Table 7.1 Successful campaigns' percentage use of ten benchmarks

However, when further statistical tests were conducted with the nineteen benchmarks to find those that were significantly related to successful outcomes in social marketing, only four benchmarks were found to fit that criterion. The chi-square tests were then applied which

determined if a relationship between variables is 'statistically significant', based on probabilistic reasoning (Field, 2005; Babbie, 2005). The analysis used success of campaign, with its three categories, as the dependent variable against the 19 benchmarks as independent variables. The results showed that the four benchmarks found to have statistical significant relationships with success are: understanding concept, sustainable support, clear benefits and piloting (Table 7.2).

Table 7.2: Four benchmarks and their statistical significance to success

Significant Benchmarks	Levels of Significance (Pearson's chi sq.)
Piloting	.043
Clear Benefits	.014
Sustainable Support	.014
Understanding Concept	.013

Table 7.2 benchmarks that are statistically significant to success

These four benchmarks resonate with some of the key themes that have emerged from the literature such as customer insight; relationships and successful outcomes. The importance of 'piloting' further extends these as this benchmark refers to the testing for biased or flawed assumptions before launching a programme; while the theme of behavioural change and exchange is clearly represented by the benchmarks identifying 'clear benefits' for the target audience and the necessity to 'understand concepts' that affect target audiences' lives and their decision making. Gaining further customer insight through these measures would seem to be a core predictor for success. 'Sustainable support', both during and after a marketer's intervention, is a crosscutting benchmark and demonstrates the need to fully engage, long term, with target audiences for the strengthening and maintenance of behaviour changes achieved. Marketers who incorporate these benchmarks, **as set out in table 7.2,** as part of their campaigns are likely to have a greater chance of successful, and sustainable outcomes than more short-term, superficial exercises.

It would therefore seem reasonable to conclude that these four benchmarks are the ones that should, ideally be incorporated into the development and planning of any social marketing

campaign. However, even though the remaining fifteen benchmarks were not found to be statistically significant, this does not mean that they do not have value. In fact, all of the benchmarks identified in this research could have significant potential for enhancing success. It is also highly possible that it is not the use of individual benchmarks that can maximise success, but rather the various combinations of benchmarks and even the strategies. This is an area of further study using a larger number of campaign cases in the research population.

It is considered that this research is a starting point in terms of identifying statistically significant relationships to successful social marketing campaigns and that future scholars, with a more statistical focus, could go on to develop this work.

This research has made it clear that the idea of generating a checklist for the use in planning social marketing campaigns as expressed in research objective one was rather naive. The premise was a good starting point for research, but the complexity of applications and foci within the social marketing world makes it almost impossible to prescribe a set of benchmarks that can be applied to all types of social marketing campaigns, it is too diverse. However, despite this it is apparent that some of these benchmarks (particularly the four in table 7.2) are of practical use in the design of such campaigns. It is also argued that even though the other benchmarks were unproven regarding their contribution as being 'statistically significant' to successful campaigns, they are all of value and have the potential to aid in the development of efficacious campaigns. It is therefore concluded that the benchmarks presented in this thesis should be used not as a checklist, but as a guide to the planning of social marketing campaigns to be used intelligently and to ensure that potentially useful actions are not overlooked.

7.3 Strategies identified

The identification of thirty three strategies employed in social marketing campaigns is testimony to the huge range of practices that are taking place globally to help change and sustain behaviour for the social good. The second research objective of this research was 'to investigate strategies which are used by marketers, whether from statutory or not-for-profit organizations when

designing and implementing social marketing campaigns and this has clearly been achieved. However, although the strategies were subjected to the same scrutiny and statistical exploration as the benchmarks, it was not possible to identify specific strategies that were linked to optimal success. None of the thirty three strategies were found to have 'statistically significant' relationships with success and no pattern regarding their use and efficacy were identified. This was initially disappointing and contrary to the hopes of the researcher.

Ideally this study would have identified clear benchmarks and strategies that were strongly linked to success that could then have been used to prescribe best practice.   Although the results fall short of that aim, they serve to underline the broad church that makes up the world of social marketing, bringing us back to the premise that first launched this research.

The rationale behind this research was that social marketing is a huge, complicated and poorly defined discipline that needed some sort of uniformity so that optimal results could be achieved. The third research objective, building on the first two, 'to identify a set of criteria, encompassing benchmarks and strategies that will act as a planning tool for planning and analyzing social marketing campaigns', had at its heart the clear aim of finding a way of making the design and execution of social marketing campaigns, both easier and more effective. However it seems that the reality of doing so is confounded because of the very nature of social marketing. Although only a handful of benchmarks and no strategies can be statistically linked to success, the identification of these strategies and the knowledge of their use can only be helpful to the social marketing community when planning future campaigns, or analyzing past ones.

7.4 The research question explored

The overarching question that this research sought to answer was:

"What are the key criteria that act as the predictors of success in a social marketing campaign?"

The results of this research mean that any answer to that question is unclear. The aim was to find clarity in a disjointed and complex world of social marketing (clarity in the use of benchmarks

and strategies). Instead, the research has confirmed that complexity has to conclude that the very nature of social marketing makes it almost impossible to identify key criteria that will guarantee success; but strong guidelines can be issued.

 Despite this lack of clarity, the research findings are likely to enrich our knowledge base of what determines successful social marketing campaigns, even without the stamp of statistical significance within the group of strategies.

This research highlights the potential for the use of good guidance in the assessment and investigative processes dealing with the diversity of behaviours in social marketing campaigns. In a world of diverse cultures and constrained resources, it is challenging for social marketers to identify methods for changing people's behaviours in a positive and sustained manner. The identification of the benchmarks and strategies in this research could help to define a more efficient marketing mix in a climate of time and budgetary constraints while encouraging quality interactions between the marketer and the target audience.

The research is underpinned by past works of marketers, practitioners and academics such as Andreasen (1995; 2006); Dann (2010); Donovan and Henley (2003); Hastings (2007); Kotler and Zaltman (1971); Smith, (2002); Kotler, Roberto & Lee (2002); Lefebvre (2013); French & Blair-Stevens (2005; 2007), and should therefore be considered as a valuable addition to the knowledge regarding the design, planning, implementation and evaluation of social marketing campaigns.

This research represents the first stage of the identification and testing of key benchmarks and strategies in social marketing. It is acknowledged that the analysis has been conducted on a limited number of campaign case studies and that further refinement will be achieved if a greater research population could be scrutinised. However, this initial step is important as it clearly demonstrates that social marketing can benefit from the various criteria identified in this work and the research represents a significant step forward in understanding the essential components of successful social marketing campaigns.

There are various ways in which this research could be taken forward. The use of a greater sample pool has already been mentioned and that will clearly have some merit if the statistical analysis can be taken further. A more detailed analysis of the relationship between the benchmarks and the strategies would also be informative as there is some suggestion that it is the combination of criteria that are important rather than the individual items.

Thus there are several means of expanding this research from a quantitative perspective. Alternatively, there is also a need to really understand the choices that social marketing teams make when designing and managing campaigns. Although there was a qualitative element to this research in stage one, the researcher never actually spoke to the individuals running the campaigns. It is entirely possible that a very different perspective could emerge if a more participatory or ethnographic approach was taken. Similarly it would be very interesting to understand the target audiences' experiences and their insights of the campaigns and the various methods employed. It is therefore recommended that this study should be followed up by both qualitative and quantitative research that would build on the analysis of key criteria for success that this research has initiated.

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9.0 Appendices

Appendix 'A': Corresponding e-mails from Dr. Kubacki , Griffith University, Australia.

Contemporary Issues in social Marketing: an update

Krzysztof Kubacki [k.kubacki@griffith.edu.au]

Sent: 09 November 2012 02:10

To: Eagle, Lynne [lynne.eagle@jcu.edu.au]; Stephen Holden [sholden@bond.edu.au]; Rebekah Russell-Bennett [rebekah.bennett@qut.edu.au]; Deshpande, Sameer [sameer.deshpande@uleth.ca]; Rettie, Ruth M [R.Rettie@kingston.ac.uk]; Audrey Robinson-Maynard U0574612; Mc Hugh, Patricia [p.mchugh8@nuigalway.ie]; Lisa Schuster [lisa.schuster@qut.edu.au]; Weir, Lisa (Health) [Lisa.Weir@health.qld.gov.au]; Jeff Jordan [jeff@esocuseg.com]; Jeff French [Jeff.French@strategic-social-marketing.org]

Cc: Sharyn Rundle-Thiele [s.rundle-thiele@griffith.edu.au]

Attachments: C2-Contributor agreement.pdf (6 KB); CISM contents Nov2012.docx (15 KB); I7-Submission_Guidelines_2->1.pdf (41 KB); Sample_Page_size_with_figure.doc (118 KB)

Dear Colleagues,

We are pleased to let you know that Sharyn and I have now signed the contract with Cambridge Scholars Publishers in the UK, and the book will appear in the second half of 2013. As there was an unexpected delay in finalising the contract, and to make sure there is enough time to complete all chapters, we have now revised all the submission deadlines as follows:

Step 2: Submit the full manuscript. Contributions should not exceed 5,000 (including references and appendices), but be no less than 4,000 words. A complete draft of your contribution should be submitted by 31st January 2013.

Step 3: Manuscripts will undergo a review process. Feedback will be provided to authors by 28th February 2013. Some authors may need to revise their chapter following the initial review.

Step 4: Submit the final chapter by 30th April 2013.

Please see the attached 'contents' document and a copy of the CSP's submission guidelines; these may also be downloaded from their website under 'information for authors'. Please find attached a sample page for your reference. We've also attached a 'contributor agreement', which all authors will need to sign and return to us with your chapter.

Do get in touch if you have any questions, now or nearer the submission date. Many thanks again for your involvement in the book - and happy writing!

Kind regards,
Krzysztof and Sharyn

Re: Contemporary Issues in Social Marketing

Krzysztof Kubacki [k.kubacki@griffith.edu.au]

Sent: 08 August 2012 09:27

To: Audrey Robinson-Maynard U0574612

Hi Audrey,

I have just had a quick chat with Sharyn about your paper and we both feel that at the moment your work would make a very good contribution to our book and the systematic review of your case studies would be of interest to the potential reader. At this stage we only need a short abstract from you.

As your work develops you might also want to consider submitting it to the JoSM or other journals.

Best wishes,
K

On 31 July 2012 00:27, Audrey Robinson-Maynard U0574612 <A.Robinson-Maynard@hud.ac.uk> wrote:

Dear Krzysztof and Sharyn,

Thank you very much for your mail and invitation to contribute to the book "Contemporary Issues in Social Marketing". I am delighted to accept and will try to meet your expectations.

I would appreciate any suggestions to my paper, as you saw it, to give it a better scholarly fit to the overall book. I will start working on the layout as soon as possible, keeping your deadlines as priority.

Kind regards,

Audrey Robinson-Maynard

From: Krzysztof Kubacki [k.kubacki@griffith.edu.au]
Sent: 27 July 2012 00:43
To: Audrey Robinson-Maynard U0574612
Cc: Sharyn Rundle-Thiele
Subject: Contemporary Issues in Social Marketing

Dear Audrey,

We are writing to invite you to contribute a chapter to the above scholarly edited book. This will be a ten-chapter book, which aims to set out the main themes and issues in social marketing which emerged during the recent International Social Marketing Conference in Brisbane. We are extremely keen to have your involvement in this project. We would like to ask you to contribute a chapter based on the paper you presented at the ISM conference.

The submission process is as follows:

Step 1: At this stage we require a title of your chapter and a short abstract of no more than 200 words by 15th August 2012, to be submitted to the publishers for approval. Please include in the submission a short biography for each of the authors, and the estimated number of photographs or

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CHAPTER THREE

IDENTIFYING KEY CRITERIA AS PREDICTORS OF SUCCESS IN SOCIAL MARKETING: ESTABLISHING AN EVALUATION TEMPLATE AND GRID (ETG)

AUDREY ROBINSON-MAYNARD, JULIA MEATON AND RAY LOWRY

Introduction

The concept of social marketing is a developing global discipline without a universally agreed definition. Its processes are therefore subject to the interpretations of the practitioners who implement intensive and extended programmes on a range of topics under the umbrella concept of social marketing. This kaleidoscope of applications has meant that few campaigns are the same, and they are shaped by the varied interpretations of the social marketing process and the diversity of target audiences. Despite these vagaries, social marketing has become a popular method for influencing behaviour, especially in target populations with poor lifestyles and poor health. However, this popularity has been fashion driven rather than evidence based and there is an urgent need to establish what elements of social marketing are most likely to promote behavioural change in a target audience.

Several researchers and practitioners have identified benchmark criteria for the streamlining of social marketing exercises, including Andreasen (1995, 2002), French and Blair-Stevens (2005, 2007) and Lefebvre (2006). However, these criteria have not been fully analysed regarding their contribution to the success or failure of social marketing campaigns. This chapter reports on an attempt to identify benchmarks that will lead to greater success. This has resulted in an **evaluation template** of

19 benchmark variables, four of which have been statistically proven to contribute to the success of social marketing interventions. This outcome is designed to help busy marketers, constrained by time and budgets, assess past social marketing campaigns and inform and shape future initiatives.

Benchmarks

One of the first challenges of any study exploring social marketing campaigns is the issue of ascertaining whether a case study is an example of social marketing or not. Lefebvre (2006) proposes five questions that could identify genuine social marketing campaigns. These are:

1. *Do the authors have an insight into their target audience?*
2. *Are they focusing on behaviour as their "product" (what are they encouraging a large number of people to adopt or sustain)?*
3. *Do they influence or try to alter the relative balance of incentives and costs for either maintaining the current behaviour or adopting a new one?*
4. *Do they attempt to increase access and opportunities for the audience to try new behaviours and then sustain them?*
5. *Are communication and other promotional techniques used to reach and engage the audience in ways that are relevant, attention-getting, tap into existing motivations and aspirations and have sufficient frequency to be remembered and acted on?* (Lefebvre, 2006: 1).

These questions point to the importance of ascertaining formative information to achieve a better intervention 'fit' with the target audience and to support potential behavioural change through communication and resources.

When Andreasen (1995) attempted to identify benchmarks, their rationale was linked to the following definition of social marketing:

> ...the application of commercial marketing technology to the analysis, planning, execution and evaluation of programs designed to influence the voluntary behaviour of target audiences in order to improve their personal welfare and that of their society (Andreasen, 1995: 7).

This definition includes five key features that embrace the concept of social marketing:

a. Transference of commercial marketing concepts to social marketing programmes;

    b. Segmentation and targeting with a good marketing mix and an evaluation procedure;

    c. Influencing voluntary behavioural outcomes;

    d. Exchange benefits for improved personal welfare and that of society and

    e. Background information of target audiences.

Andreasen (2002) then presented six benchmarks (Table 3-1), arguing that social marketing intervention programmes should meet each of these benchmarks although not in equal measure, as each programme's circumstances and personnel are unique.

Table 3-1: Andreasen's (2002) benchmarks, with explanations

Benchmarks	Explanations
1. Behavioural changes	Used to design and evaluate interventions.
2. Audience research	(a) Conduct formative research, understanding target audiences at the outset of interventions, (b) routinely pre-test intervention elements before implementation and (c) monitor interventions as they are rolled out.
3. Segmentation and targeting	(a) Tailor messages to target audiences' needs and levels of understanding and (b) ensure maximum efficiency and effectiveness in the use of scarce resources.
4. Exchanges	Create attractive and motivational exchanges, which are central elements in influential strategies.
5. Marketing mix	Use all '4Ps' of the traditional marketing mix to create attractive benefit packages, easy access, good communication and minimum costs.
6. Competition	New behaviour attracts challenges that negate such changes and will require addressing.

Andreasen's (2002) benchmarks were mirrored and expanded to eight by French and Blair-Stevens (2007: 38–113) as follows:

1. Customer orientation
2. Behaviour and behavioural goals
3. Theory based and informed

4. 'Insight' driven
5. 'Exchange' analysis
6. 'Competition' analysis
7. Segmentation and targeting
8. Intervention and marketing mix

Lefebvre's (2006) questions and Andreasen's (2002) and French and Blair-Stevens' (2007) benchmarks depict five common themes: *customer insight, behavioural change, support, exchange (relationships)* and *segmentation and targeting*. These are discussed below and link to **the proposed 19 benchmarks:**

1. Customer insight means knowing the target audience's background, where they are 'at' and how best to work with them, taking into consideration their present lifestyles, hopes and aspirations before attempting to engage them in any social marketing intervention. The target audience is therefore kept at the centre of planning, designing and implementation (French & Blair-Stevens, 2007). This formative knowledge determines the relevant and effective marketing mix, so realistic, 'do-able' and sustainable targeted behavioural change can be achieved. It is unreasonable and unethical to ask target audiences to change their behaviour when they, for example, cannot afford or do not have access to the means to do so.

2. Behavioural change can be long, medium or short term. The 'message' needs to be attractive, accessible, achievable and clear to avoid confusion. Value for money is important as target audiences often demand minimum costs for maximum returns (Black & Blue, 2001; Hastings, 2007).

3. Support should be comprehensive, measurable and able to withstand scrutiny. Target audiences must believe that marketers are genuine to engender confidence and the development of good relationships.

4. Exchange is widely accepted as the core concept in marketing (Houston & Gassenheimer, 1987; Bagozzi, 1974). The social marketing exchange process looks beyond value for money, with each engaged person willingly making an exchange to achieve satisfaction. Levy and Zaltman (1975) define marketing as a 'social

system' and conceptualize exchange as something in which interrelated people or groups join together to reach a shared goal. Beneficial exchanges are therefore key to success (Layard, 2005).

5. The term 'segmentation and targeting' means dividing target audiences into relevant groups to progress the social marketing intervention. This means that marketers do not apply the same theoretical framework in each intervention.

Once benchmarks have been identified and tested, they can be used to influence target audiences' behaviours and to promote or commission work in social marketing with regards to training, planning, developing, evaluating and researching aspects of social marketing (French & Blair-Stevens, 2007).

Developing an evaluation template and grid (ETG)

Despite efforts to identify benchmarks and guidelines, very little systematic or quantitative analysis of their efficacy has been conducted. This chapter describes an attempt to identify benchmarks and then reports on the testing of these.

Initial research involved the in-depth qualitative analysis of 12 global social marketing case studies. All but two were selected from peer-reviewed journals and most complied with all of Andreasen's (2002) benchmarks, which suggested that they had been conducted with some rigour. These case studies (see Table 3-2) deal with diverse problems of mixed target audiences and were all in the public domain.

These 12 case studies were scrutinized against the literature on benchmarks and social marketing criteria. The major variables from the 12 cases, as used by their marketers, were appraised against three objectives:

Objective (a): identify the variables evident in successful social marketing campaigns;
Objective (b): evaluate relationship building with target audiences and its effect on advancing and sustaining exchange behaviours and
Objective (c): identify what other variables are predictors of social marketing processes.

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Table 3-2: Twelve case study campaigns

Topics/problems	Locations	References
Case 1: Women's iron fortification	China	Sun et al. (2007)
Case 2: HIV testing	US	Futterman et al. (2001)
Case 3: Youth smoking	US	Forster et al. (1998)
Case 4: Environmental health	Canada	McDowell (2004)
Case 5: Mental health	US	Kirkwood & Stamm (2006)
Case 6: Smoking in pregnancy	UK	Lowry et al. (2004)
Case 7: Male youth violence	US	Quinn et al. (2007)
Case 8: Skin cancer care	New Zealand	The Health Sponsorship Council (2008)
Case 9: Infant health	Canada	Cotroneo (2001)
Case 10: HIV and domestic violence	Tanzania	Weiss et al. (2004)
Case 11: Prison welfare	UK	Stead et al. (2007)
Case 12: HIV/Aids prevention	Canada	Lombardo & Leger (2007)

This qualitative investigation identified **19 potential benchmarks**, which are discussed below.

1. Peer Reviewed

Social marketing campaigns that have been written up in journals and other publications suggest that they have already passed through a quality control process that has adhered to set standards laid down by the researchers' peers. Although this is included as a benchmark, this is obviously slightly different to the others as it is not about the actual method of conducting a campaign. However, its use as a benchmark lies in its evaluative application of past campaigns.

2. Formative Research

Pre-gathering information about target audiences before designing a social marketing campaign is fundamental to its development and success (French & Blair-Stevens, 2007). Thus, the utilization of 'formative research' is of key importance.

3. Pre-testing

Linked to the collection of formative research data, pre-testing can provide important additional information to strengthen the delivery of a social marketing campaign. For example, pre-testing a planned campaign on a priority audience can clearly indicate any changes required to improve the campaign's delivery.

4. Questionnaires/In-depth Interviews

Gathering salient information through questionnaires and interviews can maximize positive outcomes. Campaign planning can be significantly aided by such information, if the appropriate groups are targeted and the data is efficaciously evaluated.

5. Piloting

Piloting is always important for any research as it helps to deal with problems and can diminish flawed assumptions.

6. Segmentation and Targeting

Interventions should be tailored to specific audience segments. Good segmentation and targeting facilitate a campaign's 'message' acceptance. This means that time, money and energy will be efficiently utilized.

7. Further Segmentation and Targeting

To be more successful, it is often necessary to use different strategies to deliver the same message. In doing so, the message will be more relevant and will cater for a sub-set's needs, aspirations and motivations, while accounting for differences in language, levels of understanding and culture.

8. Upstream Targeting

Upstream audiences are the creators of regulations, policies and laws, which have consequences when disregarded. Their involvement through partnership alliances can strengthen 'messages' of behavioural change. Mid-stream target audiences are the 'power brokers', facilitators, manufacturers and suppliers of merchandise needed to advocate compliance. These audiences must be targeted to work with marketers, in order to improve such aspects as the infrastructure and accessibility of resources required to improve outcomes: for example, the promotion and provision of HIV testing venues (Futterman et al., 2001).

9. Relationship Building

The quality of any relationship is difficult to quantify, but meaningful rapport and good interactions built up over periods of quality time engender trust and confidence (Weiss et al., 2004).

10. Clear Benefits

Clear benefits ensure that the behavioural changes being encouraged by marketers have obvious beneficial gains that outweigh any costs or efforts incurred by the target audiences. New behaviours are more likely to be adopted when they are seen as beneficial and achievable (Lefebvre, 2006: 88–97). Target audiences are usually comfortable with their present behaviours, often supported by friends and families. The force of interpersonal social pressure can be a very powerful influence, both for and against campaigns (Andreasen, 2002: 103). Therefore, the benefits of change must appeal to target audiences and their influencers. Benefits must significantly outweigh costs and the target audiences' confidence levels must be boosted by making them feel that they can and want to achieve behavioural change for their own good. Examples of such processes lie in some smoking cessation campaigns, such as Lowry et al. (2004) and Forster et al. (1998).

11. Measurable Benefits/Stand up to Scrutiny

All benefits should prove to be beneficial, affordable in terms of time and effort, available and useful. They must be evidence based for target audiences to have confidence in the behavioural changes being encouraged. This means planned campaigns must execute their promises.

12. Sustainability

Good support systems are more likely to sustain the growth and development of desired behavioural changes. The setting up of these systems should be part of a campaign's design and planning and should be activated when the campaign is in progress. These support systems will help combat any internal and external competitions that might negate behavioural changes taking place. For example, convincing target audiences to eat healthily will not happen quickly. However, having relevant and effective support systems in place will serve to strengthen confidence and resolve. Smith (2002: 46) argues that '…people change not because they are smarter or forced into action, but because they get something they value in return'.

13. Marketing Mix/Extra 'Ps'

'Product, price, place and promotion' are the traditional marketing 4Ps, and they are also fundamental to social marketing. As social marketing develops, new ideas emerge (Peattie & Peattie, 2003) and other Ps, such as policy, purse string, people and partnerships, evolve. All of these Ps could contribute to the implementation and delivery of social marketing campaigns. Campaigns need to identify the most effective mix of these elements for their target audiences in order to achieve the desired outcomes. Smith (2002: 48) states:

> *programs exhibiting the greatest change have been those in which a product was developed to meet the needs of consumers and then... promoted consistent with marketing principles.*

14. Multimedia Initiatives

Multimedia can help to promote a 'message' to a wider audience. Raising awareness, heightening interest, informing and educating not just target audiences and their influencers but other stakeholders as well can help the promotion of social marketing. Such 'prevention interventions' engage the concept of social cognitive theory and the socio-contextual aspects of decision making. These key issues go beyond simple advertising to make the message clear.

15. Understanding the Concept of the Target Audience's Environment

'Good marketing starts by appraising the situation, defining the problem and assessing the competing forces' (Hastings, 2007: 10). This knowledge will help marketers launch their interventions at the correct level, aid the identification of potential challenges and evidence the level of support required by the target audience.

16. Marketers' Systematic Analysis of Own Results

The process and results of the intervention need evaluating and recording. This is a learning experience for the marketer but also aids operational development. Sharing this information is beneficial to other marketers.

Evaluation should be built into all stages of the intervention process. This may include statistical analysis or qualitative measures. Ongoing evaluation, although costly, minimizes damaging inefficiencies and takes advantage of the positive elements that can be prepared and factored into the intervention process or into any follow-up actions. French and Blair-Stevens (2007: 138) argue that good evaluation can boost good

achievement and could directly inform further resource decisions for ongoing work, ensuring that results are not overlooked or abandoned.

17. Biases and Flaws

The value of qualitative research is in its planning and design. It encompasses methods, management and control. Flick (2007) argues that there is potential bias in data collection that can confound the research results. One way of dealing with this is by having an open discussion with the planning team and identifying potential bias. Marketers' biases can also arise through the way in which their interventions are applied, pre-tested and interpreted (Creswell & Clark, 2007). These biases can show up in the analysis of results when marketers find that their planning was flawed in some way. For example, this could occur if further segmentation of the target group would have been a positive step towards the desired outcome and addressing this would have improved the quality of the marketing intervention.

18. Incentives

Incentives are encouragements for target audiences to be part of the intervention process. These can be tangible or intangible. Some social marketing campaigns use specific inducements as part of a campaign process. These are usually built into the campaign plan from the beginning rather than added on later.

19. Disincentives

Sometimes successful campaigns include specific constraints or barriers if members of the target audiences do not wish to consider the 'message' being promoted. Disincentives could be in the form of monetary costs or other consequences. An example would be legislation to combat drink driving or the non-wearing of seatbelts. Such legislation has helped the respective campaigns to achieve better results.

Benchmarks and the 12 case studies

The benchmarks are not a check-list but a guide to the planning of social marketing campaigns to be used intelligently and to ensure that potentially useful actions are not overlooked. The 19 proposed benchmarks could be helpful to busy marketers. Table 3-3 illustrates how these case studies have used these benchmarks and shows that, although there are widespread uses, none have used them all. This is an important

Table 3-3: The 'Grid'. Qualitative analysis of 12 case studies in relation to the 19 benchmarks. Y = Yes; N = No. (Cases as set out in Table 3-2)

Benchmark Criteria	Case Study Numbers											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Peer Reviewed	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y
Formative Research	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Pre-testing	N	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Questionnaire/In-depth Interviews	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y
Piloting	Y	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
Segmentation and Targeting	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Further Segmentation	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
Upstream Targeting	Y	N	Y	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	N	Y	N
Relationship Building	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	N	N
Clear Benefits	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Measurable/Stand up to Scrutiny	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Sustainability Support Systems	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Marketing Mix/Extra 'Ps'	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Multimedia Initiative	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y
Understanding Concept of TA's Problems	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Analysis of Own Results	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	N	N	Y	N	Y	N
Biases/Flaws	Y	N	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y
Incentives	Y	N	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	N
Disincentives	N	N	Y	Y	N	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N
Scores	17	15	15	15	14	13	12	12	12	11	10	9

issue that needs to be considered when evaluating any case study against the proposed 19 benchmarks.

This initial **qualitative** analysis identified the potential benchmarks, but a wider study of their use in a greater number of campaigns was required. This **quantitative** approach was used to triangulate, or not, the results of the case study work and to allow stronger conclusions to be drawn. According to Sirkin (1995), data from larger samples is usually more reliable, has fewer sampling errors and offers more statistical information for analysis; it is considered to be more representative from a **quantitative** perspective. Therefore, a population sample size of 100 cases was identified to lend weight to the breadth and depth of this research study. A global mix of campaigns and target groups was selected in order to amass a global variety of processes and application strategies.

The survey was undertaken using a data framework sheet designed to facilitate the accurate recording of the mechanics of the 100 social marketing campaigns against the 19 benchmark criteria and other descriptive variables. These descriptive variables included *areas of location, target groups, the focus of the intervention, stakeholders, costs* and *the length of time each campaign lasted.* Clearly '**success**' was a key issue and thus the survey instrument included a variable that noted the success or otherwise of the campaigns.

Quantitative measurement of success

'Success' was categorized into *successful, partially successful* and *not successful.* Although this was a subjective measure, attempts were made to ensure accuracy by comparing each case study's set goals with their final evaluation outcomes. For example, in case 5 (Kirkwood & Stamm, 2006), success was demonstrated by proven behavioural changes coupled with multiple national awards. In case 3 (Forster et al., 1998: 1193), their Intervention Group was compared with their Control Group and the '…difference was not statistically significant'; therefore, the campaign was not successful. Case 6 (Lowry et al., 2004: 1) reported that '…innovative intervention has been successful… it is only by diligent application and hard work by the participants that the success has been achieved.' Overall, 60% of the 100 campaigns included in the study were found to be successful. Of the 12 cases featured, 66% were successful and 1% were not successful.

Quantitative analysis

The success of a campaign was used as the **dependent variable** against multiple **independent variables** (benchmarks) in a multivariate analytical process. This created 'robust models' to satisfy the quantitative and theoretical assumptions (Sweet & Grace-Martin, 2008). Therefore, cross tabulation and Pearson's chi-square tests were conducted to show the relationships between the various categories of variables.

The results show that the campaigns considered successful mainly used the benchmarks shown in Table 3-4.

Table 3-4: Benchmarks mainly used by successful campaigns

Benchmarks	Percentages of use by successful campaigns
Clear benefits	72
Segmentation and targeting	72
Measurable benefits	70
Marketing mix	70
Relationship building	70
Questionnaire and interviews	70
Sustainable support	69
Understanding concept	66
Formative research	65
Peer review	64

Significant tests with chi-square outcomes

The chi-square test determines if a relationship between variables is 'statistically significant' and is based on probabilistic reasoning (Field, 2005). The test was used to ascertain whether the proportion of benchmarks applied to successful outcomes of social marketing campaigns in the sample data was or will be similar to that in any other specified sample (Bryman & Cramer, 2001).

The analysis used **success of campaign**, with its three categories, as the **dependent variable** against the 19 benchmarks as **independent variables**. The results show that four benchmarks are statistically significant. These are: understanding concept, sustainable support, clear benefits and piloting. Table 3-5 shows that they are significant to the 0.5 level.

Table 3-5: Four benchmarks and their statistical significance to success

Significant Benchmarks	Levels of Significance (Pearson's chi sq.)
Piloting	.043
Clear Benefits	.014
Sustainable Support	.014
Understanding Concept	.013

These four benchmarks resonate with some of the key themes that have emerged from the literature. For example, the importance of piloting in testing for biased or flawed assumptions before launching a programme and the theme of behavioural change and exchange is clearly represented by the benchmarks identifying **clear benefits** for the target audience and the necessity **of understanding concepts**.

Gaining customer insight through these measures would seem to be a core predictor for success. **Sustainable support**, both during and after the intervention, is a crosscutting benchmark and demonstrates the need to fully engage, long term, with target audiences. Marketers who incorporate these benchmarks as part of their campaign are likely to have a greater chance of sustainable, successful outcomes than more short-term, superficial exercises.

Conclusions

The research findings are likely to enrich our knowledge base of what determines successful social marketing campaigns. This research highlights the use and value of **an evaluation grid** in the assessment and investigative processes dealing with the diversity of behaviours in social marketing campaigns. It suggests that the key benchmarks stated are good predictors of success within the complex field of social marketing.

This research represents the first stage of the identification and testing of the **evaluation template and grid (ETG).** It is acknowledged that the analysis has been conducted on a limited number of case studies and further refinement will be achieved once it is more widely tested. However, this initial step is important as it clearly demonstrates that social marketing can benefit from the criteria of the **ETG methodology**. The research represents a significant step forward in understanding the essential components of successful social marketing campaigns.

In a world of diverse cultures and constrained resources, it is challenging for social marketers to identify methods of changing people's behaviours in a positive and sustained manner. The **ETG** could help to define a more efficient marketing mix in a climate of time and budgetary constraints while encouraging quality interactions between the marketer and the target audience.

The research is underpinned by past works of marketers such as Andreasen (1995); Dann (2010); Donovan and Henley (2003); Hastings (2007); Kotler and Zaltman (1971) and Kotler et al. (2002), and it should therefore be considered as a valuable addition to the knowledge on the planning, implementation and evaluation of social marketing campaigns.

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Appendix 'C': Corresponding e-mails and Acknowledgment from Professor Lagarde, The Canadian Social Marketing Experience, World Social Marketing Conference, April 2013.

OUTLINE

- Timeline: Major Canadian achievements and contributions
- Current opportunities and challenges

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Mark Sarner

INTERNATIONAL MILESTONES

- Adapted from:
  - A chronology prepared by Audrey Robinson-Maynard, currently a doctoral student at the University of Huddersfield, UK
  - The list of seminal events and publications in Lee & Kotler (2011)
- Is not meant to be a comprehensive review, just highlights

Appendix 'D':   The Study's Research Population of 100 social marketing case study campaigns.

1. Commuter challenge.
2. Claremont.
3. Operations research on gender-based approaches in Brazil … launch of program 'H'.
4. Back to Sleep …
5. 20 / 20 The way to Clean Air.
6. Lions-Quest – skills for Adolescence and Working Towards Peace, Detroit.
7. Actions by Canadians / Count me in.
8. Household Guide to Water Efficiency (Resource Alert for Canadians).
9. Iowa City.
10. Pakistan's Iodine Deficiency Program.
11. Bike Smarts.
12. Arhus Bike Bus'ters.
13. Get in the Loop – Buy Recycled.
14. Developing Consumer Information on Sustainable Community Planning …
15. Be Water Wise. It makes Cents.
16. Preventing HIV and Partner Violence, Dar es Salaam, Taszania.
17. Global Action for the Earth
18. Ozone Action Program.
19. Everyday Kyoto.
20. Marley Street Station.
21. Montreal Dietary. (MDD).
22. Kentucky adopts National Media Campaign to influence tweens' physical activity.
23. Promoting Sustainable Agriculture in Panama.
24. A T & T Employee Telework Initiative.
25. Auto$mart Program for Canada's Novice Drivers.
26. British Columbia' Way to go! Program.
27. Autoshare.
28. Quit and Win New Zealand.
29. A marketing strategy to Reduce UK Prison Numbers.
30. Enger Guide for Houses …
31. Multi – University 'Ride an Share' Project.
32. Norway Public School Litterless Lunch.
33. Whitney Public School.
34. Bullying Prevention Program.
35. We're Toxic Free.
36. Spare The Air.
37. Turn it off.

38. Water Smart.
39. The Carnegie International Weight Management Services Summer Camps
40. A Smoking Cessation Programme for Pregnant Women in Sunderland.
41. A S / M Approach to Challenging Stigma: Real Choices System Change (case 2).
42. A S / M Approach to Challenging Stigma: Mental Health Campaign (case 1).
43. Promoting HIV risk awareness & testing in Latinos … US – Mexico border
44. The Food Trust. Corner Store Campaign.
45. The Road Crew.
46. Texas WIC Program. Helping Families Help Themselves.
47. Healthy Penis: San Francisco's S /M Campaign to increase Syphilis Testing among Gay and Bisexual Men.
48. If you Feed Them Will They Come.
49. Social Marketing Improving the Consumption of iron-fortified Soy Sauce among Women in China.
50. 'Thinking About "Think Again" in Canada: Assessing a Social Marketing HIV / Aids Prevention Campaign.'
51. Bob and Martin Quit Smoking.
52. Pit Stop.
53. Better Buildings Partnership.
54. Bert the Salmon: Promoting Natural Law Care in the Seattle Area.
55. 'Headstart' (UK based).
56. Adolescence Perceptions of Violence: Formative Research Findings from a Social Marketing Campaign to Reduce Violence among Middle School Youths.
57. The ACCESS (Adolescent Connected to Care, Evaluation, and Special Services) Project: Social Marketing to promote HIV Testing to Adolescence, Methods and First Year Results from a Six City Campaign.
58. The Effects of Community Policies to Reduce Youth Access to Tobacco.
59. SunSmart Programme 2002 – 2004.
60. Power for Reproductive Health: Results from a Social Marketing Campaign Promoting Female and Male Condoms.
61. A Social Marketing Approach to Increasing Enrolment in a Public Health Program: A case Study of the Texas WIC Program.
62. Promoting Breastfeeding in the WIC Program: A social Marking Case Study.
63. Managing Internal Communications: An Organizational Case Study.
64. A Case Study in Public Health Social Marking: The Immunise Australia Program.
65. WWW. Sorted. Org. NZ: A Case Study.
66. Marketing Social Marketing within NCP Health.
67. Check, Clean, Dry: A Social Marketing Case Study.
68. Manitoba Heavy Construction Association Safety, Health and Environment Program.
69. BC 21 PowerSmart.

Appendix 'E': Length of Campaigns

Data	Frequency	Percentages	Cumulative Percentage
Missing data	**14**	**14.0**	**14.0**
On going	**13**	**13.0**	**27.0**
One week to eleven months	**20**	**20.0**	**47.0**
One year to three years	33	33.0	80.0
3years one month to 5 years	13	13.0	93.0
5years one month to 8 years	5	5.0	98.0
Over eight years	2	2.0	100

Appendix 'F' Cost of Campaigns

Success of campaign * Cost of study Cross-tabulation

			Cost of study
			Missing data
Success of campaign	Ongoing / Missing data	Count	5
		% within Cost of study	8.2%
	successful	Count	42
		% within Cost of study	68.9%
	partially successful	Count	9
		% within Cost of study	14.8%
	not successful	Count	5
		% within Cost of study	8.2%
Total		Count	61
		% within Cost of study	100.0%

Success of campaign * Cost of study Cross-tabulation

			Cost of study
			up to £50,000
Success of campaign	Ongoing / Missing data	Count	0
		% within Cost of study	0.0%
	Successful	Count	2
		% within Cost of study	28.6%
	partially successful	Count	1
		% within Cost of study	14.3%
	not successful	Count	4
		% within Cost of study	57.1%
Total		Count	7
		% within Cost of study	100.0%

Success of campaign * Cost of study Cross-tabulation

			Cost of study
			£51,000 to £500,000
Success of campaign	Ongoing / Missing data	Count	1
		% within Cost of study	5.6%
	Successful	Count	16
		% within Cost of study	88.9%
	partially successful	Count	0
		% within Cost of study	0.0%
	not successful	Count	1
		% within Cost of study	5.6%
Total		Count	18
		% within Cost of study	100.0%

Success of campaign * Cost of study Cross-tabulation

			Cost of study
			£501,000 to £1,000,000
Success of campaign	Ongoing / Missing data	Count	0
		% within Cost of study	0.0%
	Successful	Count	2
		% within Cost of study	66.7%
	partially successful	Count	1
		% within Cost of study	33.3%
	not successful	Count	0
		% within Cost of study	0.0%
Total		Count	3
		% within Cost of study	100.0%

Success of campaign * Cost of study Cross-tabulation

			Cost of study
			£1,100,000 to £6,000,000
Success of campaign	Ongoing / Missing data	Count	0
		% within Cost of study	0.0%
	Successful	Count	5
		% within Cost of study	83.3%
	partially successful	Count	1
		% within Cost of study	16.7%
	not successful	Count	0
		% within Cost of study	0.0%
Total		Count	6
		% within Cost of study	100.0%

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Success of campaign * Cost of study Cross-tabulation

			Cost of study	Total
			£6,100,000 to £10,000,000 & over.	
Success of campaign	Ongoing / Missing data	Count	0	6
		% within Cost of study	0.0%	6.0%
	successful	Count	5	72
		% within Cost of study	100.0%	72.0%
	partially successful	Count	0	12
		% within Cost of study	0.0%	12.0%
	not successful	Count	0	10
		% within Cost of study	0.0%	10.0%
Total		Count	5	100
		% within Cost of study	100.0%	100.0%

Appendix 'G':   An extended analytical process - Frequencies of Strategies:

financial incentives

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	53	53.0	53.0	53.0
	No	47	47.0	47.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

School based programmes

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	19	19.0	19.0	19.0
	No	81	81.0	81.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Personal interaction

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	77	77.0	77.0	77.0
	No	23	23.0	23.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

motivation building

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	42	42.0	42.0	42.0
	No	58	58.0	58.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

work based programmes

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	16	16.0	16.0	16.0
	No	84	84.0	84.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

partnership encouragement

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	25	25.0	25.0	25.0
	No	75	75.0	75.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

community programmes

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	63	63.0	63.0	63.0
	No	37	37.0	37.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

mass media

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	69	69.0	69.0	69.0
	No	31	31.0	31.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

workshop /group work

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	45	45.0	45.0	45.0
	No	55	55.0	55.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

websites

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	26	26.0	26.0	26.0
	No	74	74.0	74.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

word of mouth

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	26	26.0	26.0	26.0
	No	74	74.0	74.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

newsletter

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	34	34.0	34.0	34.0
	No	66	66.0	66.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

information sharing

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	55	55.0	55.0	55.0
	No	45	45.0	45.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

home visits

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	19	19.0	19.0	19.0
	No	81	81.0	81.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

surveys

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	47	47.0	47.0	47.0
	No	53	53.0	53.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Feedback

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	65	65.0	65.0	65.0
	No	35	35.0	35.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Obtaining commitment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	41	41.0	41.0	41.0
	No	59	59.0	59.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

focus group

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	52	52.0	52.0	52.0
	No	48	48.0	48.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

peer support groups

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	51	51.0	51.0	51.0
	No	49	49.0	49.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Workbooks

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	9	9.0	9.0	9.0
	No	91	91.0	91.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

parental involvement

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	22	22.0	22.0	22.0
	No	78	78.0	78.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

info. sharing/reward in plubic

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	28	28.0	28.0	28.0
	No	72	72.0	72.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Posters ,logos, billboards, banners

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	yes	59	59.0	59.0	59.0
	no	41	41.0	41.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

booklet, magazines, brochure

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	yes	46	46.0	46.0	46.0
	no	54	54.0	54.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Formative research

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	yes	76	76.0	76.0	76.0
	no	24	24.0	24.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Reminders

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	39	39.0	39.0	39.0
	No	61	61.0	61.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Video

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	yes	15	15.0	15.0	15.0
	no	85	85.0	85.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Road show, Local events, talkS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	yes	35	35.0	35.0	35.0
	no	65	65.0	65.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Analysis

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	yes	42	42.0	42.0	42.0
	no	58	58.0	58.0	100.0

Analysis

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	yes	42	42.0	42.0	42.0
	no	58	58.0	58.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Pretesting

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	yes	32	32.0	32.0	32.0
	no	68	68.0	68.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Interview, Lob, Ques, Pititions,Tel

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	yes	59	59.0	59.0	59.0
	no	41	41.0	41.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Audits

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	yes	6	6.0	6.0	6.0
	no	94	94.0	94.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	