The Purpose Driven Campaign

Social Marketing: The Possible Link between Journalism and Advertising

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The Question of Influence

While the Information Age leaps into the Connected Age, the power of a free press is offered daily to start-up bloggers. Newspapers are downsizing. Amateurism is becoming the new professionalism. Online media producers replace today’s broadcast directors; all making the grey shades of influence between the information and its consumers a thunderstorm waiting to happen. Social marketing is in the middle of this storm. But, how? In today’s world, who holds more influence to create these changes, a journalist, advertiser or a social marketer? How can one tell the difference? Is there a difference? And, do the professions work together? Could they? Should they? This research hopes to add to the discussion on the evolving definition and role of social marketing, using agenda-setting relationships to examine its influence and attempt to determine its position between advertising and journalism.

It is 1961. A time when questions were raised and hope diminished as borders became grey and a rise of an international community emerged. Two Portuguese students were imprisoned for declaring a public toast towards their dream, rooted in an idea – freedom. Having their freedom stolen from them for displaying a human right of expression, a newspaper article was written, and with it, a movement spurred. This movement would form Amnesty International (www.amnesty.org). Social change is possible, and it begins with an idea. Social marketing is an increasing movement currently being expanded because of its foundation in ideas about positive change for the welfare of the public.

Though specific definitions differ, social marketing achieves social change objectives by applying the marketing mix of product, place, promotion and price. Currently, social marketing is used mostly in public health communications and is expanding in the realms of environmentalism, civil rights, urban renewal, public service and raising awareness of international issues.

This study will examine the perceived level of influence found among social marketing, journalism and advertising. It may also be a prelude to an advanced study that quantifies the degree of influence among the three professions.

To compare the three practices, one needs a firm understanding of the concepts individually. First, advertising works to influence behaviour (Berger, 1999). For advertising to change behaviour, it must first alter attitudes. Similarly, social marketing’s main essence relies on changing attitudes and behaviours. Social marketing’s products, per say, are ideas, movements, public service; it is not driven by profit or sales. This is why influencing behaviour is critical to social marketing’s design.

In 1969, researchers Gerald Zaltman and Philip Kotler first coined the term social marketing (Lazer and Kelly, 1973, 46). Today, the applications and uses of social marketing are growing and its definition evolving. Ask 20 social marketers, ‘What is social marketing?’, and there may be 20 different answers. However, one point remains – social marketing is a practice to ignite social change.

Social marketing is a dynamic and multi-dimensional practice that delves into public policy, gender and cultural studies, business models, communications, non-profits, ethics and philosophy. Understanding how social marketing relates to other practices, especially journalism and advertising, increases its understanding and influence. Social marketing researcher Alan Andreason created a chart that outlines how social marketing compares to commercial advertising.
Social Marketers
Want to do good
Funded by taxes/donations
Publicly accountable
Performance hard to measure
Behavioural goals long term
Often targets controversial behaviours
Often choose high risk targets
Risk averse managers
Participative decision making
Relationships based on trust
Intangible product
**Borrowed from Andreasen 2000.

Commercial Marketers
Want to make money
Funded by investments
Privately accountable
Performance measured in profits and market share
Behavioural goals short term
Typically non-controversial products/services
Choose accessible targets
Risk taking managers
Hierarchical decision-making
Relationships are competitive
Tangible product

Journalism can be described as the marketplace of ideas, the public sphere, the printed word, a public service, a way of informing or educating and many more ideas buzz about journalism’s purpose. One point of this study is to show how journalism has developed and is changing. However, two questions have been debated the most when defining journalism: 1) Is journalism, as Walter Williams claimed in the Journalist’s Creed, a public service?; and 2) What is objective journalism?

The Influence of Ethics

Debating the roles of advertising and journalism brings up crucial components of ethical theory, including: social contract; social responsibility; and social responsible existentialism theory. Examining ethical theory provides a better understanding on the foundation each practice is built on and the purposes each hopes to fill.

The social contract theory says ‘society is an intellectual system in which each member of society entered into an implicit contract with every other member that defines the norms of human behaviour and the terms of exchanges and tradeoffs among individuals and organizations, both private and public’ (Lazer and Kelly, 1973, 226). This applies to advertising through the theory of exchange. And, since social marketing shares the same basic components with advertising (price, product, promotion and place), this means social contract relates to both practices. In social marketing, social contract theory tells audiences to adapt the ideas found in the social marketing campaigns, since they work to increase society’s welfare. Within this context, there is the assumption and evidence that advertising holds great power because of its influence on attitudes and behaviours. With this power comes responsibility. Critics of advertising think it focuses too much on the economic gains created, while others qualify this as merely being the industry’s business model.

Due to this debate, Cunningham (1999) developed a three-dimensional model among the media, advertisers and consumers. This model suggests that advertisers have a social contract with the public that includes service because of advertisers’ power to influence. Therefore, social marketing is advertisers’ avenue for social responsibility and public service through influencing institutions and social norms; adding information to the public dialogue; providing increased public forums; and highlighting public policy, all of which serve the public beyond economics.

Related to Cunningham’s research and to social contract theory are two other theories – social responsibility theory and existentialism. Jane Singer (2006) uses these two theories to compare a social marketer and a journalist. Social responsibility theory says people and organisations have a responsibility to use their power to benefit society. Singer uses this theory to describe a journalist’s role: to be truthful, comprehensive, fair; go beyond previously held perceptions; provide in-depth information about facts; act responsibly; and that news organisations have a public responsibility.

Singer goes further by exploring the theory of existentialism, which is based on the idea individuals create their own reality. Many journalists feel existentialism tells them they should use freedom as a tool to be a government watchdog and reveal social weaknesses. The way Singer describes the role and responsibility of a journalist may overlap with the role and responsibility of a social marketer.

In conclusion, a social marketer knows that advertising holds power; and hence, they use this power to fulfill a public responsibility – informing the public with truth, revealing social weaknesses, while also inspiring change. These behaviour changes are achieved through establishing social norms, illuminating knowledge and influencing attitudes. Some elements of journalism and advertising overlap, and social marketing may continued...
represent a link between them. The research may also show how social marketing is not a department of advertising, but an emerging and developing practice for social change.

Journalism and advertising have long been separated while social marketing floats somewhere between them. This research suggests the two practices may actually share common denominators, and that social marketing may be the possible link to increased collaboration, public service and social change. The results may also suggest that journalism and advertising are no longer two distinct professions supporting each other, but becoming further intertwined in common agenda-setting relationships, creating a grey and messier world of implications when it comes to influencing governments, publics and consumers.

Method

From this thesis, these research questions explore the relationship between journalism, advertising and social marketing, while also comparing the perceived influence of these professions through agenda-setting relationships.

R1  How does the practice of social marketing fit into the media landscape with regards to the practices of journalism and advertising?

R2  How do the ethics and values that guide social marketing relate to the set of standards created for the practice of journalism?

R3  How do ethics and values that guide social marketing relate to the set of standards created for the practice of advertising?

R4 What is the relationship between social marketing, advertising and the practice of journalism?

The chosen method is in-depth interviews with top social marketing practitioners and experts from organisations. The interviews will be transcribed and assessed for complete analysis.

An Internal Social Marketing Approach to Reducing Organisations’ Carbon Emissions

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Introduction

There is growing awareness of the potential for social marketing to achieve important social goals. However, social marketing programmes and theorising are typically focused on the individual consumer, possibly including the role of family and other reference groups. Where organisations are included, this usually reflects their role in service delivery, communication, policy making or resource allocation, and not as a context for the focal change. Additionally, although the role of organisations in both creating environmental problems and potentially being part of the solution is well recognised, discussion typically focuses on ‘hard’ issues such as reduction in packaging; changes in production and transport methods; and so on. The project described here focuses on how attitudinal and behavioural change within organisations can achieve major reductions in the level of carbon emissions and thus contribute to global climate change solutions. Further, it is suggested that the adoption of ‘internal social marketing’ techniques and approaches provides a basis for understanding an individual’s work-based environmentally-related behaviours, and for implementing programmes for change.

The project aims to identify the barriers (or constraints) which prevent pro-environmental behaviours in organisations; and develop the concept of ‘a meaningful social marketing exchange’ and ‘product’ within this context. We aim to develop an internal social marketing planning approach which can then be implemented across a diverse range of organisations. By eschewing the technological path of most carbon reduction initiatives in favour of a focus on employee behaviour, we are targeting low or no-cost changes in working practices which will lead to sustainable results. The pilot programme involves six organisations chosen for their diversity. The discussion below provides an insight into our theoretical perspective and the nature of the pilot work.

Internal Social Marketing

Explicit discussion of internal marketing entered the marketing and service management literature in the late 1970s (Varey and Lewis, 1999). The major emphasis was on marketing’s key role in creating external customer satisfaction. The main attitudinal and behavioural changes required were those necessary to provide improved products (and particularly the service element) for the final customer. Implicit in discussions of internal marketing is the need for all organisational members to focus on key goals of customer satisfaction/retention and competitiveness. Hogg and Carter (2000), for example, argue that ‘internal marketing is an integral part continued...
of overall marketing orientation’, involving ‘the use of marketing techniques within the organisation to create and communicate corporate values’.

The potential for developing the concept of ‘internal marketing’ into one of ‘internal social marketing’ is illustrated by those authors who adopt a stakeholder approach. The marketing literature generally has been criticised for focusing on only two stakeholder groups (consumers and competitors) whereas, it is argued, this should be extended to include other key stakeholders (Greenley and Foxall, 1998). Daub and Ergenzinger (2005) describe how, even when a wider stakeholder perspective is adopted, profitability has remained the main business objective. They argue that the concept of ‘sustainable management’ means that enhancing the value of a business is about reconciling economic, environmental and societal goals. What is significant and new (they argue) in sustainable management is an explicit emphasis on the equal weighting and importance of this ‘ triple bottom line’. Further, they introduce the concept of the ‘generalised customer’. This positions the individual consumer as a member of a wider range of stakeholder groups and within society in general. Consequently, the traditional notion of customer satisfaction is changed into something which is compatible with a wider organisational focus including societal benefits. Internal social marketing, we argue, can be constructed within this wider context to focus on achieving satisfaction for the ‘generalised customer’. Furthermore, the key to our project is the premise that internal social marketing can be adopted so as to focus employees on a range of organisational goals including carbon reduction.

Development of a an ‘internal social marketing’ model

Our theoretical approach reflects that proposed by Maibach and Cotton (1995) for effective health message design, that is, the integration of social cognitive theory and the transtheoretical model (also known as stages of change theory). We will adapt Bandura’s (1986) social cognitive model (often used for social marketing studies and programmes) to the organisational context. For example, Bandura emphasises the role of beliefs of personal efficacy in behavioural change. He also argues, in a way relevant to our context, that:

Efficacy beliefs are not confined solely to judgements of personal capabilities. The theory also encompasses perceived collective efficacy representing shared beliefs in the power to produce desired effects by collective action (Bandura 2002 (271)).

We will examine Bandura’s classification of personal factors, environmental factors and behaviours through a combination of qualitative and quantitative techniques, as outlined below. Measures will also be developed so as to measure stages of change within an organisational context, and to assess the nature and drivers of change from one stage to another, for example from pre-contemplation to contemplation of behavioural change. The advantage of this model is its practical acknowledgement of the different starting points of organisations committed to improve their environmental performance. Indeed, several of our pilot sites have well-established policies and norms, but consistently fail to close the gap to implementation. The programme bridges this gap by adopting a social marketing perspective rather than the coercion or wishful thinking which can often stall the best environmental intentions.

The programme will simultaneously support potential facilitators of change, for example, through increasing motivation and efficacy so as to move individuals and groups through to the achievement of behavioural goals. These are likely to be simple/small changes in working practices but which lead, long-term, to significant reductions in carbon emissions.

The Project

The interventions in each organisation (working with a previously-identified group of employees such as a department or work team) are sequenced into three phases of:

1. developing a shared understanding
2. making changes
3. sustaining improved ways of working.

These three phases have some degree of overlap. For example, developing a shared understanding (phase one) is likely to be enhanced by the attempts at change which follow it, and the sustainability of changed behaviour may be subject to further iterations between all three phases. But the activity which characterises each phase is distinct.

Developing a shared understanding relies on research, communication and insight. This involves a specialist carbon audit performed by an independent consultant, as well as focus groups, interviews and observation. A major contribution of the pilot will be the development and delivery of a reliable research instrument to gauge attitudes and behaviours before and after the intervention. This process will draw on classic scale development methodology (Churchill 1979; Shimp and Sharma 1987).

This first phase ends in generating change initiatives with participants. A number of methods will be trialled here. The consistent focus is on engaging participants in surfacing the issues which face them in identifying and implementing change. One such methodology is ‘World Cafe’ (Brown and Isaacs 2005), a technique based on creating a cafe-style ambience for conversation, listening and insight development. Cafe participants will be invited to imagine what a carbon-constrained future will look like, and to devise personal and team-based behaviours which will contribute to organisational carbon reduction targets.

continued...
The second phase, making changes, is supported by a variety of techniques which reflect the role of ‘traditional human resource management techniques’ in internal marketing programmes (Berry and Parasuraman 1992). This phase corresponds with the ‘preparation to action’ stage of the transtheoretical model, and requires the expectations and self-efficacy beliefs carried over from earlier stages to be bolstered by skills development in reframing issues, planning and problem-solving. This is addressed by coaching – the one-to-one support of key change agents in the team – and partnering, where the value of social networks is leveraged.

The final phase – sustaining improved ways of working – features the minimisation and finally withdrawal of external support as the initiatives become self-sustaining and, afloat on successfully transferred skills, radiate out into other departments and teams throughout the available networks. Each participating organisation will work with a legacy of techniques and resources assembled for and with them during the pilot. The experiences and learning from the pilot will then be made available generally through dissemination of case studies and other research findings. An important feature of the project is the production of evidence, again through carbon audit and social research, that the intervention has met the targets set both in terms of reduced emissions and changed attitudes and behaviour.

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REFERENCES


YOUNG ADULTS AND HEALTHY LIFESTYLES: MYTH OR REALITY?

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Background
This research involves a detailed critical review of young adults, aged 19 to 26, in terms of the food and alcohol they consume and the physical activities they engage in. The combination of focus groups, self-reported lifestyle diaries, and in-depth interviews will allow for detailed profiling of the overall lifestyles of these young adults. This segmented profile then provides the basis for a targeted social marketing programme. This is to be developed to address the identified barriers that are currently preventing these young adults from maintaining a healthy lifestyle, and to help encourage and facilitate long-term behavioural change in their lifestyle choices.

Such research is of paramount importance, given that the lifestyles of young adults can be characterised by erratic food choices, binge drinking, and sedentary activities, which when combined together result in rising obesity rates, amongst many other outcomes. While previous work has more often researched such lifestyle behaviours as stand-alone variables, this research investigates these lifestyle variables in a more holistic manner, offering insight into how these behaviours may be interlinked, and the most appropriate ways to consider and influence them.

Objectives
The objectives of this project are to identify the attitudes and perceptions of young adults with respect to their lifestyle behaviours; to profile the typical lifestyle of a young adult; to examine the identified barriers for engaging with and sustaining healthier behaviours; and to develop a targeted social marketing plan, to encourage and facilitate lifestyle behavioural change. The primary audience are young adults aged 19 to 26, and who (primarily) live in the North East of England.

Target behaviours specifically include: aiding these young adults to recognise and evaluate their current lifestyle behaviours, while motivating them to adopt healthier behaviours; and to raise awareness of recommended food, alcohol and physical activity guidelines, alongside information on healthier lifestyles, including social marketing.

Abstract Description
The results presented here are based on the first data collection stage, being focus groups. These occurred during April to June 2007, with 54 young adults. Within these groups their current lifestyle behaviours were discussed, alongside health information sources that they refer to, and recommendations for leading a healthier lifestyle. The second phase, currently underway commenced mid-February 2008, with the individual interviews to be held May/June 2008. Thus any benchmark criteria not discussed here will be considered at a later date, when further results are obtained.

I. Customer Orientation
In reference to the social marketing benchmark criteria (French and Blair-Stevens, 2006), a thorough understanding of the consumer is paramount. Regarding the focus group results and the exhibited behaviours, attitudes, and beliefs of these young adults, there are distinguishable behaviours in relation to food, alcohol, and physical activity.

When looking at food choices, a lack of time and knowledge on how to lead a healthier lifestyle are just some of the many issues that influence food behaviours for these young adults. This does not mean that these young adults are not willing to lead healthier lives, just that they have expressed difficulty in doing so. The results do show a strong attitudinal current focusing on effort and convenience. It would seem that these young adults prefer behaviours that are ‘quick and easy’ to follow, and as such if healthier behaviours involve a great proportion of effort, then their motivation to follow healthier behaviours appears to diminish. However, such personal factors cannot be seen in isolation from other variables. Indeed, social and environmental influences are also present. These young adults indicated that they are greatly influenced, be that positively or negatively, by parents, friends and partners.

Additionally it was indicated that their food purchases may not necessarily be due to complete freedom of choice. Here cost, time, location and accessibility issues impinge upon their food purchase decisions. While this may depict a dire situation in terms of young adults and their food behaviours, more optimistic expressions were made. For instance, some of these young adults indicated that they positively value food preparation behaviours and cooking. For some, choosing, preparing, and ultimately consuming foods can act as a stress relief, and can even be a hobby. Thus, for such individuals it would even appear that they actively choose healthier food practices, based on enjoyment.

continued...
In understanding these adults and their relationship with alcohol, numerous behavioural observations are evident. Social, binge and sporadic alcohol consumption behaviours were expressed, alongside (perceived) drinking cultures. Alarming, some of these behaviours are perceived as ‘normal’ and even ‘typical’ behaviours, to be expected from young adults.

Lastly, attitudes towards physical activity varied greatly, with some young adults reporting that they lead active lifestyles, while others can be classed as largely sedentary. Their awareness of the benefits that accrue from physical activity additionally varies. Once again however, these young adults do report that they face accessibility and cost issues, in terms of being able to participate in the physical activities that they enjoy. Such barriers appear to be insurmountable for some.

II. Exchange concept/competition
The results clearly illustrate both positive factors and negative barriers, impacting on the lifestyles of these individuals. Both internal and external factors combine to influence behaviours. Thus, clear costs and benefits, as well as competing factors, are evident. Examples of positive internal factors include maintaining good health; weight regulation; body image concerns; personal goals; and individual feelings, including enjoyment. These factors encourage and motivate these individuals to adopt healthier lifestyle behaviours. Further positive but more external variables include the influence of others; the influence of the media; and education. Whilst this may seem promising, there are of course negative barriers, which can compete for an individual's time or financial resources for instance, and be at significant cost to individuals. Such negative and internal factors include habits and addictions; effort and personal responsibility required; negative attitudes to healthier behaviours; and a lack of enjoyment. Further external negative barriers include the financial cost of leading healthier behaviours; employment requirements; time pressures; the influence of others, which includes peer pressure; and cultural issues. It is important to emphasise here that these factors do vary among individuals, with some variables seemingly related to participant demographics.

III. Audience Segmentation
To illustrate a further social marketing benchmark criterion, that of clear audience segmentation, examples will be drawn from results based on health information sources. While such initial data primarily indicates segmentation based on demographic characteristics, key segmentation is evident based on psychographic influences, such as motivation and awareness. For instance, the use of health professionals as sources of advice on healthier lifestyles was mainly cited by young female adults, while the males of the sample seemed to prefer sources such as the internet. Here a distinction could be made in terms of the level of formality required, in that males prefer more informal and indirect sources, in comparison to females.

IV. Voluntary Action
Finally, the last social marketing principle that is referred to here is voluntary action. These young adults examined what they would recommend to encourage 19 to 24 year olds to adopt and sustain healthier lifestyle behaviours surrounding food, alcohol and physical activity. In doing this, insight was gained into what would most likely influence them, and offered possible courses of voluntary action that could assist them in leading healthier lifestyles. Such recommendations include the practicalities of increasing physically active behaviours; including improving access to facilities; and more widely promoting available physical activities. Re-framing physical activity and avoiding the use of the word 'exercise' was of additional importance, especially to avoid demotivating these individuals before they even engage with such healthier behaviours. Alcohol-related recommendations covered encouragement to lower or moderate alcohol intake, with suggestions in relation to food consumption to ensure healthier food is more accessible than unhealthier food items. While these actions will go some way to encourage and support these individuals, they do however recognise that personal responsibility is paramount, in relation to their individual lifestyle behaviours.

Evaluation
While this research is still a work-in-progress, it nevertheless highlights that the lifestyle behaviours of these young adults are complex in nature. This research has already uncovered a substantial insight into what these young individuals currently do, think and feel in relation to their food, alcohol and physical activity behaviours. Also emerging are key findings distinguished by both demographic and psychographic methods of segmentation.

Both costs and benefits, and areas of competition, that act either as conflicting or motivating forces, in relation to their lives and healthier lifestyle behaviours are evident, numerous, and complex; which can be framed by existing behavioural theory. It is envisaged that the lifestyle diaries and the following in-depth interviews will further build upon this insight and will be used in relation to other social benchmark criteria, such as the methods mix, to develop the social marketing plan.

References
IDENTIFICATION OF CONSUMER CLUSTERS FOR TARGETING STRATEGIES TO IMPROVE FOOD SAFETY BEHAVIOURS: IMPLICATIONS FOR SOCIAL MARKETING

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Background
The increased incidence of foodborne disease over the past 20 years has generated a substantial social and economic burden on society. Research has identified significant microbiological risks associated with poor consumer food-handling behaviours (Redmond and Griffith, 2003). Such risks are known to contribute to the incidence of foodborne disease. Therefore, effective consumer food safety education strategies are required to reduce the prevalence of unsafe behaviours used during food preparation in the home.

For food safety education to be effective in changing behaviour, there is a need for identification and targeting of coherent market segments/groups of individuals. Traditionally, targeting ‘at-risk’ consumers has been based upon demographic or life-stage characteristics. The majority of approaches have been ‘expert driven’ and largely based on the provision of standardised materials. Communication of messages has essentially involved widespread distribution of knowledge-based information using the mass media, directed at large numbers of people (Freimuth et al., 2000). Although knowledge of the consequences of unsafe food-handling practices can enhance consumer motivation to change behaviour (Bruhn, 1997), research has established that provision of knowledge does not necessarily translate into practice (Ackerley, 1994). To date, public initiatives to encourage adoption of safe food-handling behaviours have had minimal success (Kretzer and Larson, 1998).

Social marketing has been proven to be an immensely powerful tool for effecting massive behavioral change in a number of areas of public health, (Andreason, 1995); however, application to improving food safety behaviours has been limited. In the UK, an assessment of the potential application of food safety to social marketing has been piloted, and findings have indicated that social marketing processes, principles and developmental techniques can be utilised to improve consumers’ food safety behaviours (Redmond et al., 2000). In the USA, Sutton et al. (1997) applied social marketing to food preparation behaviours at BBQs, and more recently the approach has been used in a large campaign to promote thermometer usage to a segment of American consumers identified as ‘boomburbs’ (USDA et al., 2003).

Audience segmentation is considered to be a necessary prerequisite to creating health messages that are responsive to the needs, concerns and perspectives of specific populations. However, there have been limited attempts to target UK consumers based on attitudes towards home food safety; perceptions of risk; control and responsibility; and experience and opinions of food safety education. Analyses of such variables are believed to be essential for the development of effective consumer-orientated strategies.

Aims/Objectives
This study aimed to utilise data indicating cognitive influences on food safety behaviours to segment the UK population into consumer clusters based upon attitudes towards food hygiene in the home, food preparation behaviours and perceptions of food safety initiatives. The use and benefits of consumer clusters will be specified within the context of targeting future food safety strategies using a social marketing approach.

Method
A nationwide survey was conducted using in-home interviews and the Computer Assisted Personal Interviewing (CAPI) technique on a representative cross section of the UK population (n=2014). Interviews determined consumer attitudes and risk perceptions of food safety in the home; personal experience and risks associated with food poisoning; awareness, exposure, recall and experience of food hygiene initiatives and interventions; evaluation of sources of food hygiene information; preference for sources, format, content and context of food safety information; likelihood of receptivity to food risk messages; and identification of trusted and credible spokespersons and organisations. Responses were recorded on a five point Likert-type rating scale and ten point attitude scales using a variation of a Likert-type visual analogue scale.

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To identify consumer clusters, a factor analysis of responses enabled identification of groups of attitude statements (factors). This was followed by a cluster analysis which used a statistical procedure to group respondents into similar categories/clusters according to factor responses. Attitudinal statements in the food hygiene survey were grouped into eight factors: openness to advice; knowledge of food safety; hygiene conscious; confidence in own food safety in home; short-cuts; information seeking; awareness of advice; importance of cooling.

Results and Discussion

Attitude statements in the food hygiene survey were grouped into eight factors, including variables such as ‘openness to advice’ and ‘confidence in food safety behaviour at home’. A ‘consumer cluster’ was defined as a group of individuals who shared a particular set or combination of attitudes towards different aspects of food hygiene and food safety education. Six clusters were identified and named according to perceptions and attitudinal responses: ‘Self-Confident’ (14 per cent respondents); ‘Clued-up’ (17 per cent); ‘Uncertain but Receptive’ (13 per cent); ‘Concerned’ (19 per cent); ‘Don’t Know or Don’t Care’ (24%); ‘Unhygienic’ (13 per cent). Key characteristics obtained for differing consumer clusters are outlined in Table 1.

Table 1. Summary of Key Characteristics for Identified UK Consumer Clusters.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consumer Clusters</th>
<th>Key characteristics</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CLUSTER 1: ‘Self-confident’ consumers</td>
<td>Confident in food preparation and food safety ability and perceived a low risk of food poisoning occurring in their own home. Members of this group were more likely to be white, older and female and generally not open to advice.</td>
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<tr>
<td>CLUSTER 2: ‘Well-informed’ consumers</td>
<td>Well informed, aware of the importance of food poisoning and unlikely to take short cuts. Members of this group were highly educated, open to advice and confident in food safety practices. Likely to be females aged between 40 to 50 years from social groups A and B2.</td>
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<tr>
<td>CLUSTER 3: ‘Uncertain but receptive’</td>
<td>Reasonably knowledgeable about food safety but less confident than Cluster 2. Unaware of food safety advice available and were least likely to recall seeing food hygiene information. Females aged 50 to 65 years, housewives or retired from social groups C2 and E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLUSTER 4: ‘Concerned’ consumers</td>
<td>The most worried about hygiene, much less confident in food safety knowledge but relatively hygiene conscious. Most likely cluster to seek out information and preferred leaflets. Members were most likely to be in social group C1, aged 30 to 40 years, in full time employment and with young children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLUSTER 5: ‘Don’t know and don’t care’</td>
<td>Lacked knowledge of key food safety issues, were the least hygiene conscious and reported implementing malpractices. Members were likely to be young males and in social groups C2, D, E, less likely to have children and more likely to unemployed or students. Laziness and forgetfulness were the main reasons for being unhygienic. Perceived they have less control and responsibility for food safety than other people and are less likely to cook foods from raw.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLUSTER 6: ‘Unhygienic’ consumers</td>
<td>Less distinguishable demographically and relatively knowledgeable about food safety related to cooking and cooling. In contrast they lacked knowledge of cross contamination and cleaning practices. They do not display great receptivity to advice but would prefer this from TV rather than leaflets.</td>
</tr>
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Results indicate that consumer attitudes towards food safety in the home differ widely and food safety knowledge; confidence in personal ability; and receptivity to advice is variable between consumers. Key distinguishable characteristics and attitudinal responses for each consumer cluster will be presented in the context of targeted food safety strategies using the social marketing approach.

The consumer-orientated approach of social marketing provides a framework for tailored communication strategies to be developed for specific consumer audiences. Previous research has suggested that different groups of consumers respond to food safety information in different ways (WHO, 2000) and targeted interventions can be more effective for bringing about desirable behavioural change (Andreason, 1995).

Consumer-orientated initiatives, tailored according to attitudes and perceptions of specific consumer clusters, may be required prior to achieving behavioural improvement. For example, the illusion of relative invulnerability to hazards may mean that people are less likely to adopt health-promoting behaviours (Raats and Sparks, 1995), and failure to associate home food-handling practices with foodborne illnesses is considered to be a serious impediment to convincing consumers to change inappropriate food-handling behaviors (Fein et al. 1995). Findings from this study identified consumers from the ‘Self-Confident’ Cluster (1) to have perceptions of personal invulnerability and lack awareness of risks associated with acquiring food poisoning from their own food preparation at home. Similarly, consumers from Clusters 5 and 6 were continued...
identified to have perceptions of optimistic bias (Redmond and Griffith, 2004) and a lack of personal responsibility for food safety. All of such perceptions may have negative implications for the effectiveness of food safety initiatives and thus hinder efforts to change food safety behaviours implemented in domestic food preparation. Further formative research into specific cluster groups is required to develop tailored interventions that each relevant Cluster would perceive to be personally relevant.

Conclusions

The use of data indicating cognitive influences upon home food safety behaviours has facilitated identification of six consumer clusters in the UK population. Findings highlight that UK consumers from different age groups, social classes, genders and family circumstances have differing attitudes towards food safety in the home; different perceptions of risk, control, responsibility, trust, and respect; and differing preferences for intervention formats and design. Targeting consumer groups according to attitudinal factors, as ‘clusters’, can inform effective tailoring of consumer orientated food safety strategies. This study provides valuable information which could form an important component of the ‘Initial Planning Stage’ of a UK social marketing food safety initiative.

References

EXPLORING LEGACY-GIVING IN THE UK HIGHER EDUCATION SECTOR

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Introduction
Within the context of social marketing, the concept of legacy-giving can be firmly located within the field of ‘altruism’, where an individual acts with the goal of benefiting another (Piliavin and Hong-Wen Charrng 1990). A legacy, defined as ‘a gift in a will to a person or organisation’ (Institute of Fundraising 2006), can take two common forms: a residuary legacy, which is a gift of the residue of the estate; and a pecuniary gift, which is a fixed sum of money.

Recent figures from the Institute of Fundraising recognise legacy income as significant. The total value of legacies was £1.6 billion in 2006, and accounted for 40.4 per cent of voluntary income. Major charitable organisations such as the RSPCA and Cancer Research UK state that a significant percentage of their income comes from legacies, around 60 per cent and 50 per cent respectively. Furthermore, legacy giving has continued to grow, by 4.6 per cent in 2006 compared to the voluntary income average growth of 4.2 per cent (Institute of Fundraising 2006). The individual value of legacy gifts is also increasing, with the average residuary legacy now valued over £50,000, and the average pecuniary legacy over £3,000.

Within higher education, evidence from the US suggests that legacy gifts accounted for 22 per cent of giving by individuals in 2006 (Kaplan 2007), and in the UK, approximately six per cent of all individual giving benefits the education sector (UK Giving 2007). Anecdotal evidence also suggests that the average residuary legacy can amount to significant levels of funding, in some cases up to, and even beyond, £300,000 per annum.

Legacy fundraising remains vastly under-researched, particularly in comparison to smaller charitable income streams (Sargeant and Hilton 2005), with little understanding of the motives of donors. This may be due to sensitivities around death issues and the fact that charities are often not notified of a gift until after the person has died. However, such information is invaluable for marketers who seek to effectively segment their market, and generate communication strategies that address both the desires and concerns of potential donors. This being the case, the aim of this research is two-fold: to understand why individuals choose to give a gift in legacy form, and understand why they choose to leave a legacy to a higher educational institution over and above other charitable causes.

Literature Review
In accordance with any other choice-based activity, it might be assumed that when an individual decides to make a legacy gift, he or she is doing so on the basis of goal seeking behaviour (Solomon, Bamossy, and Askegaard 2002). Assuming goals have valence, consumer choice is made either on the basis of the attainment of some form of benefit (Bettman 1979; Bettman, Luce, and Payne 1998) or the minimisation of potentially negative consequences (Hogg and Banister 2004). However, whilst material benefits are deferred until the passing of the donor, aspects of consumer psychology suggest that donors have the potential to derive a number of intrinsic personal benefits within their lifetime, through their association and identification with a given charitable institution.

When choosing how and to whom to leave a charitable donation, rational choice theory (Downs 1957) suggests that individuals will weigh up the costs and benefits and settle upon the option that most closely corresponds with their ultimate goal. However, there is some evidence that choice criteria used by individuals do not always appear to be totally rational and totally altruistic, and that the donor indeed does derive intrinsic benefits on the basis of group identification and/or membership.

Identification with, and attachment to, a specific group has the potential to yield such intrinsic benefits to an individual (James 1890). Three main types of benefit are visible in the literature: validation of existing value systems and beliefs; completion of the self concept; and the support and augmentation of self-esteem.

Social comparison theory (Festinger 1954) proposes that individuals use groups strategically to positively reinforce and validate their belief systems. This proposition is developed by self verification theory, which states that individuals not only seek out reinforcement but also self-definition (Swann, Milton, and Polzer 2000). This desire for self-definition through group membership also relates to the second of the benefits: the construction of the self concept. The self concept, defined by (Solomon, Bamossy, and Askegaard 2002), is ‘the beliefs an individual holds about his or her attributes and how he or she evaluates these qualities’ (p.208). For those who experience incomplete self-definition, symbolic self-completion theory states that it is often the case that they seek symbols and affiliations that complete this identity (Wicklund and Gollwitzer 1982).
Group membership also has the potential to augment levels of self-esteem. Self-esteem may be defined as the degree of positivity felt toward the self concept (Solomon, Bamossy, and Askegaard 2002). In instances where individuals perceive their ideal selves to be positively at variance to their actual self, self-esteem is likely to be high. However, where it is negatively at variance, self-esteem is likely to be low. In such cases, self affirmation theory (Steele 1988) and the self-esteem hypothesis (Hogg and Abrahams 1990) suggest that seeking membership of, or association with, a group such as a charitable cause is likely to yield benefits in terms of improved self worth or self-esteem.

Thus far, we have considered the intrinsic benefits that might be derived by a donor from a legacy gift. Moving on, social identity theory (Tajfel 1982), offers insight as to why donors are drawn to choose one charitable cause over another. It suggests that individuals will favour one group over and above others if a level of self-identification exists. Sargeant and Woodliffe (2007) concur, and highlight ‘similarity’ as a significant driver with donors predisposed to help those they considered similar to themselves in some way, for example, social class; ethnicity; geographic proximity; value systems; and even personality type.

Methodology

Taking account of the literature thus far, we propose the exploration of the following research question:-
‘Why do prospective donors choose to give legacy gifts to higher education institutions?’

In line with Guba and Lincoln’s (1989) conceptualisation of critical realism, we propose to undertake a constructivist grounded theory approach which was deemed most appropriate in light of the lack of the extant theory in the field (Glaser and Strauss 1967, Charmaz 2000, Goulding 2001).

Data collection will take the form of qualitative focus groups, a practice well-suited for understanding external influences upon consumer perception and the dynamics of perceptual and behavioural change (Mariampolski 2001). Theoretical sampling permits the researchers to target respondents who have specific experience with the phenomenon at hand. Following each of the groups, data will be analysed for emerging themes, which will be explored and developed until the point of saturation is reached.

References


Reducing the Individual Cost of Behaviour Change: The Successful Implementation of a Tractor Safety Social Marketing Intervention

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Social marketing has been used with considerable success to address a wide variety of public health concerns (Rothschild, Mastin, and Miller 2006; Reger-Nash et al, 2006; Kipp, Kabwa, and Mwesige 1992; National Highway Transportation Safety Administration; Zucker 2000). Quite often, firmly entrenched, unhealthy behaviours exist because individuals firmly believe that the costs related to change far outweigh the benefits. Social marketing is an ideal approach because it takes a customer-centered perspective, aiming to remove perceived barriers and accentuate motivators in an effort to reconfigure the individuals cost-benefit analysis.

An excellent example of a safety issue which has proved resistant to traditional intervention approaches, is that of tractor overturn fatalities in the U.S.. The agricultural sector reports the highest rates of fatality in U.S. industries (National Safety Council 2004), with a large percentage of these fatalities related to the farm tractor (roughly 30 to 60 per cent) (Hard, Myers, and Gerberich 2002; Murphy and Kassab 2006). Tractor overturns are responsible for the majority of these tractor fatalities (Donham et al 1997) and are largely preventable with the use of Roll-over Protective Structures or ROPS (NIOSH Agricultural Safety and Health Centers 2004). Although newer tractors (those manufactured after 1985) are equipped with these devices, older tractors that are still frequently in use are not. Retrofitting older tractors can be both a timely and expensive proposition, involving several calls to dealers, researching kits, scheduling installation and paying anywhere from $600 to $1500 for parts and installation. As a result, approximately one third to a half of the U.S. tractor fleet lacks these essential safety devices (Myers and Snyder 1995). Despite successful attempts to retrofit older tractors in other developing countries (Springfeldt, Thorson, and Lee 1998) (most of which have involved a combination of legislation and rebate assistance), the U.S. has done little to alter the ratio of protected to unprotected tractors. Legislation is unsupported by the farm community, and despite years of tractor safety education, few farmers have considered retrofitting (Sorensen et al 2006).

In response to the significant nature of overturn fatalities and the resistance to change in the farm community New York, researchers and the Academy of Educational Development (AED) worked to develop a process to create and evaluate a ROPS social marketing intervention (See Figure 1). An outline of the formative research and intervention design that were utilised in this campaign will be featured in the poster presentation.

Formative Research: Initially, the New York farming population was segmented by several key demographic variables (farm owner’s age; commodity; farm size; geographic location; presence of child operators; readiness to retrofit; and so on) to identify a viable intervention target. A phone survey was conducted with a random sample of New York farmers. Results indicated that most New York farmers were aware of the risk of overturns, but hadn’t considered retrofitting. The survey also indicated that 86 per cent of farmers with only one or no ROPS protected tractors were small-scale crop and livestock farmers, and thus these farmers were targeted for the intervention. A qualitative research assessment was then conducted to explore how these farmers perceive risk and the potential benefits and motivators related to retrofitting. Results indicated farmers didn’t believe they were personally susceptible to overturn fatalities, but did believe that children, employees or wives could be, due to lack of experience. Farmers also stated that the time and expense to retrofit were considerable barriers. Thus, the formative research phase indicated that 1) ROPS must be made more affordable; 2) researching kits and scheduling installation needs to be easier; and 3) messages need to target the risk to less experienced tractor operators.

Designing Incentives/Messages: Researchers then worked to persuade New York legislators to provide a rebate for 70 per cent of the cost to retrofit up to $600 (based on research regarding the level of rebate required to interest farmers in retrofitting, Hallman 2005), and to develop a hotline for researching and locating the different ROPS models available. In addition to financial and logistical incentives, message platforms were developed and tested with the target population. A phone survey of popular media channels was also conducted with 1399 small crop and livestock farmers, in order to target the most promising message distribution channels.

Piloting the Intervention: Following these initial steps in campaign development, researchers organised a randomised control trial of campaign components. In order to evaluate the effect of each these components,

continued...
four regions were selected for the pilot test. The following figure indicates each region and a brief description of intervention components employed (Figure 2).

To evaluate the efficacy of each of these intervention components, researchers designed a baseline and post intervention survey that would assess an individual’s readiness to retrofit, as well as their attitudes; social norms; perceived behavioural control; and behavioural intentions relative to retrofitting (intra-individual analysis). Measures of actual behaviour change were also included in the survey. A sample of small-scale crop and livestock farmers with either none or only one ROPS protected tractors was then randomly selected from a National Agricultural Statistics Service (NASS) database and surveyed. In addition to surveys, a random sample of New York dealers was selected to measure differences in sales of ROPS kits before, during and after the intervention campaign.

Results from the randomised control trial:

- Significant changes in readiness to retrofit were found in the two regions, which received rebates for retrofitting (p<.016). The most pronounced change in these regions was from the ‘not considering retrofitting’ stage to the ‘considering retrofitting’ stage.
- Individuals in the ‘social marketing’ region who remember seeing ads had the most significant increase in readiness to retrofit, as compared to individuals who remember seeing ads in other regions (p>.05).
- More individuals (39 per cent) recalled seeing ROPS ads in the ‘social marketing region’ than in the ‘rebate’ (25 per cent) or ‘message’ (21 per cent) regions (p>.0001).
- The ‘social marketing’ region showed the most significant increase in behavioural intention (p>.003).
- Increases in behavioural intentions were most highly correlated with increases in social norms (social norms p>.0001, perceived behavioural control p>.0005, and attitudes p>.006). The most significant increase in social norms occurred in the ‘social marketing’ region.

Results from the hotline and tracking of retrofit sales:

- The hotline received over 800 calls (first six months)
- National supplies of several ROPS models were exhausted (first three months)
- Data from the largest manufacturer shows a ten-fold increase in ROPS kits sold to NY (19 in 2005-6; 199 in 2006-7)
- The largest percentage of hotline calls came from the targeted population, small crop and livestock farms (31 per cent)
- 98 per cent said the ROPS hotline facilitator was easy to reach and they would recommend the programme to others
- 76 per cent felt ROPS was affordable with the rebate
- The highest density of ROPS retrofits occurred in the ‘social marketing’ region.

In summary, New York researchers found it was possible to successfully motivate New York farmers to retrofit unprotected tractors. Researchers believe that an essential component of this success was related to a considerable investment in formative research, consistent and repeated testing of evaluation components and the final development of an intervention which successfully altered farmers’ cost-benefit perceptions.

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Does Trying to Do Good Equate to Doing No Harm? 
Ethical Dimensions of Social Marketing

Primary Author: Lynne Eagle, Ph.D. Bristol Business School.

Other Authors: Sara Bird M.A., Alan Tapp Ph.D., Fiona Spotswood M.A.

Background

Social marketing aims to improve the health, welfare and wellbeing of society as a whole, or specific population segments. In the process of trying to achieve positive outcomes, social marketing interventions may cause unintended harm, including increased anxiety and desensitisation to issues. Furthermore, the choice of ‘desired’ outcomes poses ethical questions, yet these topics receive little coverage in literature or texts.

Objectives

To provide a critical review of the literature, including factors leading to unintended harm, together with the usefulness of common ethical frameworks and the effectiveness of ethical codes.

Abstract Description

In the process of pursuing positive behavioural outcomes, unintentional harm may be done to some sectors of society by social marketing, not necessarily the same sectors as those specifically targeted by the social marketing activity (Cho & Salmon, 2007), yet there is little systematic analysis in the literature of the issues or possible solutions. There is a lack of unambiguous ethical frameworks to guide social marketers, with different outcomes possible under intention-focused (deontological) reasoning versus consequence-focussed (teleological) reasoning (Ferrell & Fraedrich, 1994). A further problem is the lack of clear and unambiguous interpretation of the frameworks. For example, using the Ferrell and Fraedrich (1994) interpretation, the recent Department of Health (DH) fear-based smoking cessation ‘fishhook’ campaign would be acceptable under deontological reasoning. Others would argue that it is unacceptable to knowingly cause anxiety under deontological reasoning (Duke, Pickett, Carlson, & Grove, 1993; Hastings, Stead, & Webb, 2004).

Segmentation, targeting and fear-based message appeals each present special challenges (Brenkert, 2002; Hastings et al., 2004; Murphy & Bloom, 1992), as does determining desired behaviours on behalf of target populations (Guttman & Salmon, 2004); cultural factors further complicate the issue (Pires & Stanton, 2002). An additional factor is the effectiveness of different communication styles: at least one study has found that consumers in similar countries across Europe respond differently to positively or negatively framed advertisements (Orth, Oppenheim, & Firbasova, 2005).

Many social marketing texts provide, at best, only brief discussions of ethical challenges; much of the material promoting the potential benefits of social marketing is devoid of any significant consideration of ethical issues (see, for example, Andreasen, 2006; Kotler, Roberto, & Lee, 2002; Weinreich, 1999). One edited text focussing specifically on ethics in social marketing (Andreasen, 2001) does not provide a consistent framework across the various contributions.

There appears to be no question that consistently high levels of ethical behaviour should be expected of social marketers (Murphy and Bloom, 1992). The potential negative consequences for ongoing social marketing activities of consumers feeling that they have based decisions on incomplete information or have yielded to coercive activities on the part of social marketers may be severe (Murphy & Bloom, 1992).

Ethical codes exist in some areas of marketing (European Association of Communications Agencies, 2007) and have been proposed for social marketing (Hunt & Vetile, 2006; Lere & Gaumnitz, 2007); these do not offer a panacea. A doctor, accountant, lawyer or member of an established, recognised profession potentially could lose the right to practice in their profession if found guilty by their peers of a significant transgression...
of professional ethics (see, for example, Cruess & Cruess, 1997). Marketers are not subject to the same level of
peer control; there is no requirement that they be licensed and membership of sector organisations is
voluntary. Marketers lack the ability to enforce such codes in the way that professional groups are able to do
(Hunt & Vitell, 2006), leaving the question of the effectiveness of any proposed enforcement mechanism for
social marketing ethical codes as an area requiring investigation and debate.

Evaluation
A systematic literature review of the issues, complexities and potential solutions is provided, followed by
recommendations for future research and current practice.

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Theory – But Does it Work In Practice?

A Critique of the Transtheoretical Model

Primary Author: Lynne Eagle, PhD, Bristol Business School

Other Authors: Sara Bird MA, Alan Tapp PhD, Fiona Spotswood MA

Background
The Transtheoretical or Stages of Change model is widely used to develop social marketing interventions, yet may
not be as powerful as its proponents suggest. There is a need for an objective analysis of the available evidence.

Objectives
To provide a critical evaluation of the evidence for and against the effectiveness of the Transtheoretical model
within the available literature, and to discuss the implications for those developing and implementing social
marketing programmes.

Abstract Description
Theories can be used to guide both the development and implementation of interventions through identification
continued...
of important influences on actual and potential behaviour (National Cancer Institute, 2003) and thus guiding ‘researchers to routes to persuasion and to beliefs to target in persuasive efforts’ (Fishbein & Cappella, 2006: 268). For example, designing and implementing a smoking cessation programme may be aided by reference to the Transtheoretical model of behaviour (Prochaska & DiClemente, 1983) which highlights the different stages a smoker goes through before quitting:

- pre-contemplation: not thinking about ceasing behaviour / adopting new behaviour
- contemplation: thinking about ceasing behaviour / adopting new behaviour
- preparation: planning to stop behaviour / adopt new behaviour in near future
- action: stopped behaviour / initial behaviour change made in recent past
- maintenance: stopped behaviour / maintained new behaviours for more than six months
- termination: permanently stopped old behaviour / adopted new behaviour.

Proponents of the model assert that it allows an appreciation of the various stages of knowledge, beliefs and willingness to change and to target messages appropriately (Bock, Marcus, Rossi, & Redding, 1998; Glanz & Maddock, 2000).

However, considerable confusion exists due to different versions of this model being used, some with additional stages or different definitions of stages, together with differences in questionnaires used to measure stages; the result is a lack of comparability across studies (Etter & Perneger, 1999; Littell & Girvin, 2002).

More seriously, critics suggest that there are major flaws in the model, including arbitrary boundaries between stages, the assumption that plans are logical and unwavering (West, 2005). Additionally, critics claim it neglects the deep-rooted and relatively non-conscious nature of many behaviours (Robinson & Berridge, 2003).

The harshest critics of the model suggest that it simply states the obvious: that people who want or specifically plan to change behaviours are more likely to be successful than those who do not (West, 2005). Further, it is claimed that evidence put forward in support of the model owes more to rhetoric than quality evidence, and that the model does not translate readily to behaviours other than smoking, that is, it lacks external validity (Whitelaw, Baldwin, Bunton, & Flynn, 2000). These critics assert that the model has some use as a descriptive tool but does not provide superior predictive power compared to other behaviour theories. For example, in a study of the promotion of exercise behaviour, stage-based interventions were not found to be more effective than other interventions (Naylor, Simmonds, Riddoch, Velleman, & Turton, 1999). There is some evidence that, even for interventions targeting smokers, stage-based interventions are also no more effective than other interventions (Quinlan & McCaul, 2000).

**Evaluation**

A systematic literature review of the evidence for and against the model’s effectiveness is reported and the implications are discussed. Recommendations for future research in the area conclude the evaluation.

**References**


MODELING PRO-SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR: INFLUENCES OF PRO-ENVIRONMENTAL BEHAVIOUR AND ETHICAL CONSUMPTION

Presenter: Lena Lam, MSc Candidate
Affiliation: University of Guelph

Social issues affect all individuals in a given society. They are problems that question the moral values of individuals, and are concerned with what people are willing to give up to benefit the collective. There is growing public concern about social issues, such as those pertaining to the environment and ethical consumerism, and the consequences of harmful human behaviour, especially behaviour that may catalyse a detrimental outcome.

Background

Research is needed to investigate pro-environmental behaviour and ethical consumerism in order to understand how to encourage individuals to participate in pro-environmental and ethical consumerism initiatives. Research in both domains suggests that there is a gap in understanding what links attitude and behaviour. While previous researchers attempted to link attitude to behaviour, using attitude as a predictor of behavioural intention or actual behaviour, they have also identified a multitude of potential variables that moderate this relationship, and ones that may account for this gap.

With the discovery and further application of the many potentially influential variables, pro-environmental and ethical consumerism researchers have generally conceded that there are too many situational and personal variables to account for, and that there is still much research to be conducted to further understand these complex relationships. However, over the years, it has become increasingly evident that inconsistencies between attitude and behaviour still remain, and that attitude actually may not be a suitable determinant of behaviour after all.

The objective of this study is to develop a model that examines why individuals comply or do not comply with pro-environmental behaviour and ethical consumption behaviour. This study aims to uncover motivators and barriers to compliance, by adapting a boycott decisions model and making it relevant to compliance to pro-environmental behaviour and ethical consumerism. It is appropriate to apply this model because, like pro-environmental behaviour and ethical consumption, boycotting can be considered a pro-social behaviour. In particular, when driven by a pro-social cause, boycotting is a type of ethical consumerism behaviour that is defined as the act of avoiding a purchase or use of a product or service. However, it differs from other types of ethical consumerism because boycotting is the deterrence of consumption, whereas behaviour like positive buying is a promotion of consumption. Thus, a boycott is the act of not purchasing a product or service, and non-compliance is the act of not participating in a requested behaviour, therefore they are clearly related.

The boycott model was selected for this study over many other models for various reasons. Because most previous research conducted in pro-environmental behaviour and ethical consumerism tends to create models based on specific behaviours (such as composting behaviour or fair-trade coffee purchase behaviour) rather than pro-environmental and ethical consumption behaviour in general, many of the variables in the models are specific to that particular behaviour. However, the influential variables used in this model were felt by the author to be general enough to reflect some key determinants of pro-environmental behaviour and ethical consumption found in previous research. This proposed model was used to attempt to bridge the two types of behaviour and to test a simpler yet comprehensive model.

Many studies have attempted to uncover the various factors that moderate pro-environmental consumer behaviour and ethical consumer behaviour. Moderators such as personal and social norms; awareness of consequences; ascription of responsibility; and knowledge of the issue are often used in studies to predict or understand the behaviour within these domains. For example, common moderators of pro-environmental and ethical consumerism behaviour, such as knowledge of the subject, are incorporated into the Motivators of Compliance Decisions model as perceived egregiousness and ‘counterarguments’; the moderator of locus of control is considered in the motivations categories ‘make a difference’; and opportunity to participate in pro-social behaviours or economic factors is incorporated in the motivation category of ‘constrained consumption’.

The Proposed Model

Rather than investigate attitude as the main determinant of pro-environmental behaviour, the Motivators of Compliance Decisions Model (please see Figure 1) examines perceived egregiousness of a social issue as an individual’s main motivation to comply with a pro-environmental behaviour requested.
The Motivators of Compliance Decisions Model states that the likelihood of an individual complying with pro-environmental behaviour or ethical consumption behaviour is dependent on the perceived egregiousness (the belief that the social issue is important, wrong and has negative and/or harmful consequences) of the issue. The more an individual perceives a behaviour or issue to be serious, wrong and harmful, the more likely that individual will take action against that behaviour or issue.

The four variables ‘make a difference’, ‘self-enhancement’, ‘counterarguments’ and ‘constrained consumption’ all moderate the relationship between perceived egregiousness and willingness-to-comply.

The ‘make a difference’ category in this compliance model refers to willingness-to-comply based on the efficacy of compliance, doing one’s part, and the capacity to bring about change. An individual’s willingness-to-comply is also affected by perceived efficacy. For example, willingness to use a travel mug for coffee can be affected by the belief that using a travel mug contributes to reduce the demands of deforestation through reducing the demands of creating paper cups. If consumers do not believe using a travel mug is effective at reducing deforestation, their willingness-to-comply is affected. Individuals may also feel it is his or her duty to participate in actions that address a social issue, such as sorting household waste for the city to collect. The belief that complying with an action will result in change is another component to ‘make a difference’. Consumers may actually walk more and drive less if they believed it reduced smog. The relationship between egregiousness and compliance is stronger for individuals who believe deciding to comply can influence social change.

The ‘self-enhancement’ motivation category is also relevant to the compliance model. One particular ‘self-enhancement’ factor that may affect the purchase of free-run eggs is the feeling of guilt. Consumers may purchase free-run eggs to avoid the actions that encourage the cruel treatment of chickens. Other ‘self-enhancement’ factors that may influence this situation are feeling uncomfortable if seen by others and feeling better about oneself. Examples here include the chance that the cashier at the supermarket and other consumers in line will witness the purchase and hold this free-run egg purchaser in a higher regard. This may result in a consumer feeling better about his- or herself because he or she contributed to a cause and feels satisfied by his or her efforts. Thus, self-enhancement moderates the relationship between egregiousness and compliance decision; individuals will be more likely to address the issue if they see an opportunity for self-enhancement.

‘Counterarguments’ also moderate decisions involving the pro-environment and ethical consumerism. Consumers may try to free ride when reducing waste. Consumers might believe that enough people are currently recycling and throwing a few recyclables into waste will not matter because the end goal of landfill reduction will still be achieved collectively. Similarly, consumers may also believe that one or two cans may not make a big difference if recycled or not especially if only certain cities or provinces in the country have these programmes. Consumers may also be concerned that not purchasing goods made using sweatshop labour may actually harm the sweatshop labourers they are trying to help. By not purchasing these goods, consumers could fear that sweatshop labourers will lose the very little income and support they currently rely on. ‘Counterarguments’ also moderate perceived egregiousness when considering an issue. If counterarguments are larger and outweigh the importance of perceived egregiousness in an individual’s mind, that person may choose to not to address the issue.

Finally, ‘constrained consumption’ refers to the direct cost of deciding to comply with the action that addresses the issue in question. Consumers may be too used to their current behaviour or not have viable substitutes. Individuals who habitually engage in a behaviour (for example, throwing out organic waste, draining toxic substances in the sink or leaving the lights on) may find it difficult to break their routines. If viable substitutes do exist, they may be too expensive. For example, automobiles that run on vegetable oil do not emit any greenhouse gases but they can only travel as fast as 60-80 km/h. Organic foods are an example where consumers have to weigh the cost and benefits of purchasing pesticide- and chemical-free food but at a relatively steep premium. The degree to which deciding to comply will constrain an individual’s consumption will influence the effect of egregiousness. However, even if the issue is considered serious, compliance may not be achieved unless continued...
practical substitutes exist. In this situation, it may be too costly for a consumer to comply and address the issue.

Research Questions

Given the proposed adaptation of a previously developed boycott model, this study will seek to answer two important research questions:

1. Does the proposed adapted model (the Motivators of Compliance Decisions model) apply to compliance decisions related to pro-social behaviour?
2. If not, do some factors apply and can these be used to create a new model?

If this model is applied successfully or an alternative is developed, social marketers could use the model as a tool to create social marketing campaigns and communication materials. Also, this study will help research in pro-environmental behaviour and ethical consumerism gain further understanding why individuals comply or do not comply with pro-social behaviour.

Applying the Behaviour Resistance Diagnostic

Margaret Craig-Lees, AUT School of Business - AUT University

There is wide acceptance that the ultimate goal for social marketing programmes is behaviour modification (Goldberg 1995; Rothschild 1999; Kurani and Torrentine 2002; Andreasen 2002, 2003, 2006). Central to behaviour modification is the accurate assessment of the targeted group’s resistance to the desired change. Tools to identify, diagnose and to direct behaviour change strategies are mostly programme-specific and within the academic sphere; Rothschild’s (1999) tripartite approach to behaviour change management. Rothschild’s triparte model is based on the Motivation, Opportunity and Ability (MOA) model of MacInnis, Moorman, and Jaworski (1991). The MOA focuses on understanding an audience’s motivation, opportunity and ability to process the message delivered. Rothschild suggests that the MOA can be used in the context of social marketing in that targets can be grouped into those who are accepting of the proposed behaviour change, those who for various reasons are unable to adopt the behaviour and/or those who are resistant. Craig-Lees (2007), though accepting the logic of Rothschild’s framework, argues that the framework does not provide guidelines whereby the antecedents of the MOA can be identified. Craig-Lees incorporating diffusion theory with Rothschild’s diagnostic framework developed the Behaviour Resistance Diagnostic (BRD) and set out possible strategic responses.

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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This paper reports on the initial test of the Behavioural Resistance Diagnostic in relation to the use of bottled water and plastic shopping bags in New Zealand. Publications about the detrimental impact on the environment of products such as bottled water and plastic bags have served to raise awareness of the key issues in New Zealand. Nevertheless, behavioural response is minimal. Compared to global consumption, consumption of bottled water in New Zealand is a low (14L per person), but growth is estimated to be around 8 per cent. The Packaging Council of New Zealand in 2007 embarked on the Make a Difference campaign, whereby participating...
stores agreed to reduce use of plastic bags at their checkouts. The 2003 Bagsmart campaign, the Bag the habit campaign, waste campaigns by the Ministry for the Environment and Bags Not lobby group have had limited success. Thus far, there have been no formal campaigns directed at bottled water consumption, though the issue has been the topic of a number of articles and documentaries.

When seeking to understand purchase and consumption behaviour, consumer researchers consider the degree of resistance and/or interest in the product category, and context of the purchase in terms of perceived risk and importance, frequency of purchase and occasion. Bottled water and plastic bag use within this perspective share similar characteristics and so one would expect minimal resistance to adoption, and this is the case, reflected in the rate and scope of adoption of both products. Intuitively, one would expect similar underlying factors driving resistance to non-use, particularly the degree of risk and the degree of change behaviour required. However, given that the non-use of plastic bags is being primarily managed by regulation, this may not be the case.

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Perceptual Defense of HIV and AIDS Advertisement: A Study on Youth of India

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Second Author: Dr. Mridula S. Mishra, Degree: PhD (BITS, Pilani)

Background
India has one of the youngest populations in the world, and is the third largest country as far as HIV/AIDS-affected people are concerned. This dubious distinction necessitates immediate and effective HIV/AIDS awareness and prevention campaigns. Although HIV/AIDS is still largely concentrated in the at-risk populations, surveillance data suggests that the epidemic in India is moving beyond these groups and into the general population.
Objectives

Given the above background, the target audience of many anti-HIV/AIDS campaigns is the sexually active and economically productive general population of India, and the target behaviour is safe sex practice. In the orthodox Indian society, HIV/AIDS campaigns are subject to viewers’ scepticism as they are related to safe ‘sex’ behaviour, and ‘sex’ is still a taboo to be heard, discussed or spoken about in the culture. Consequently people are quite sensitive in processing the information disseminated. The content of the anti-HIV/AIDS advertisement, language and mode of expression are some of the factors that affect the consumers’ choice of viewing such kinds of advertisement. Keeping this in mind, this paper has two objectives. On one hand, it seeks to map the ‘feeling’ of the human mind while it is viewing the same anti-HIV/AIDS advertisement in different media. On the other hand, the study aims to examine whether there is a perceptual defense of anti-HIV/AIDS advertisement which arouses negative feeling or ‘affect’.

Abstract Description

Media choice affects the credibility of anti-HIV/AIDS advertisement, and enough care needs to be taken when choosing the media for such advertisements. Print medium is better compared to radio, which is again better compared to television for HIV/AIDS advertisements. We also found that if there is perceptual defense of the irritable content of HIV/AIDS advertisement, behaviour change is absolutely impossible due to non-processing of advertisement content.

Evaluation

The concept of perceptual defense prevalent in consumer behaviour literature has been examined in the context of social marketing practices for the first time, thereby advancing knowledge of efficacy of social marketing campaigns.

Social Marketing Principles: The paper addresses the social marketing principles of:
(a) customer orientation with the aid of formative consumer research to identify audience characteristics, and draws the concept of ‘perceptual defense’ primarily used in commercial sector to gain better understanding of audience;
(b) uses behavioural theory across psychological and social domains;
(c) helps develop insight of the target audience of social marketing campaign; and
(d) identifies an appropriate marketing mix in the informing and designing environment domains of operational social marketing mix.

Social Marketing Approaches: We have attempted to understand the reception of anti-HIV/AIDS advertisement by general/low-risk population, with a view to formulation of better campaigns, thus targeting change in communication strategies by ‘upstream’ policymakers.

Theoretical Description or Research Results: When the culturally sensitive content of HIV/AIDS advertisement arouses negative ‘affect’ like irritation, perceptual defense of the content takes place, and there is no further processing of the advertisement. Hence, advertisement content of social marketing campaigns like anti-HIV/AIDS campaigns should refrain from adversely affecting the sensitivities of the target audience.

The Need for Effective Internal Marketing to support External Social Marketing Strategies

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Other Authors: Lynne Eagle, Ph.D. Alan Tapp Ph.D., Fiona Spotswood M.A.

Background

Social marketing is increasingly advocated by governments, and utilised by organisations, to achieve behavioural goals for public health, safety and quality of life. ‘Social marketing’, however, is often treated with suspicion by the very people who are asked to implement the resulting strategies, and such internal issues must be addressed in order to maximise the success of these strategies.

Objectives

To examine case studies within the UK fire service and health services to identify internal barriers to the implementation of social marketing strategies to external audiences, and to propose strategies to avoid or overcome these barriers.

Abstract Description

Anecdotal evidence suggests that many of those entrusted to deliver social marketing interventions are wary of ‘social marketing’. This appears to affect those at the frontline of service implementation, with direct customer contact, more than those in positions of management, and to affect public sector organisations more than continued...
their commercial counterparts. Parallels from commercial marketing suggest a number of possible explanations; however, primary research is conducted in public sector organisations to explore these and to bring to light previously unidentified barriers to the adoption of social marketing throughout an organisation.

One such factor may be the use of effective internal marketing to engage employees in the concept of social marketing. Successful exchanges with external markets rely upon effective implementation by employees (Boshoff & Tait, 1996). With customer satisfaction related to levels of employee satisfaction (Piercy, 1994; Watson Wyatt, 1995), it is important that new strategies are accepted and embraced by employees. The view that organisations face two markets, external and internal, has led to the successful implementation of commercial marketing strategies (Thomson, 1991), with George (1990) and Lings & Greenley (2005) contending that this is dependent upon the use of effective internal marketing. This research questions how internal marketing interacts with external social marketing objectives.

The implementation of marketing strategies is also related to the market orientation of the organisation (Heiens, 2000), however, public sector organisations have traditionally struggled with adopting market-orientation (Caruana, Ramaseshan & Ewing, 1997; Laing & Galbraith, 1996). This may threaten the adoption of social marketing strategies and this research questions this assertion.

During the introduction of a relatively new strategy such as social marketing, leadership style is also implicated in the effective dissemination of customer-centric strategies, with success dependent upon the ability of managers to implement change (Charan & Colvin, 1999). Again, this research looks at managerial style to determine its effect upon the implementation of successful social marketing strategy.

This original piece of research reports upon the perceptions of social marketing of employees from two UK public sector organisations: a fire service and a primary care trust. Qualitative interviews with employees at various levels, from executives to operational firefighters and nurses, were conducted to identify such perceptions, how they have changed over time, and their likely sources.

We then go on to review the implications of these findings for effective implementation of social marketing interventions, and to consider how this reflects internal culture and internal marketing practices. Recommendations for the successful introduction of social marketing to public sector organisations are then made, linking internal marketing theory with the implementation of social marketing in practice.

Evaluation

This exploratory research identifies and investigates internal barriers to social marketing in public sector organisations, and recommendations are made to address these and maximise the potential for success of social marketing strategies.

References:

continued...
Social marketing tools are increasingly used by government agencies to educate and persuade the public regarding health concerns (Grier and Bryant 2005). For example, in the United States, the National Cancer Institute, in partnership with the federal government and the vegetable and fruit industry, conduct 5 A Day for Better Health, a national social marketing program that urges Americans to consume five or more servings of vegetables and fruit daily for better health, especially as an aid to cancer prevention.

Segmentation and targeting, in particular, are two key marketing tools commonly used by government agencies in the development of health policies and public health intervention programmes. Segmentation and targeting involve the identification of, and focus on, populations distinguished by categories such as race, gender, and age. ‘Segmentation’ is the process whereby a population is sorted into subgroups or segments based on criteria relevant to a focal behaviour such as race, age or gender. ‘Targeting’ involves carrying out specific actions towards a defined segment, and is exemplified by the development of programs for specific population segments. Consider that one of the two national objectives of Healthy People 2010, the government’s strategic plan for population health, is the elimination of health disparities among consumer segments, including differences that occur between groups defined by gender, race or ethnicity, education or income, disability, geographic location, or sexual orientation (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services 2000).

Racial and ethnic segmentation and targeting, in particular, is used in the development of public policies and programmes to address health disparities (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services 2000; Williams and Kumanyika 2002). Disparities among different ethnic groups exist across the majority of major health issues. For example, heart disease death rates are more than 40 per cent higher for African Americans than for whites, and African American women have a higher death rate from breast cancer despite having a mammography screening rate that is nearly the same as the rate for white women (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services 2000).

Accordingly, government officials and federal agencies develop and debate programmes and policies designed to affect the health outcomes among specific racial and ethnic groups such as African-Americans or Latinos. For example, the NCI remoulded the ‘5-A-Day’ for Better Health message to better speak to ethnic markets. The agency more than doubled the communications budget to $7.4 million over three years, and allocated a sizeable portion of the budget to target African American males, hoping to increase fruit and vegetable consumption as a way to reduce risk of chronic diseases among this consumer segment (National Cancer Institute 2001).

The process of rationalising, selecting, describing, and delivering health programmes to particular consumer sub-populations through segmentation and targeting has a powerful influence on the policy agenda, as well as on the design of policy. Understanding the use of such social marketing-related activities in a governmental context is important because these processes contribute not only to programme design, but also to the allocation of resources; the way in which programmes are delivered (for example, selection of programme partners); the development of industry self-regulatory guidelines; and consumer response to public health interventions. Yet, despite the importance of social marketing-related practices by government agencies to the policy process, as well as the substantial resources devoted towards such efforts, limited research has examined the ways in which segmentation and targeting are discussed in the policy process.

In the present research, we investigate how government policy actors discuss racial and ethnic segmentation and targeting through an examination of relevant policy and programme-related discourse. Discourse analysis is used to analyse communications so that the perspectives they bring to the policy and programme development process can be understood (Sutton 1999), and aims to show systematic links between texts, communication practices, and sociocultural practices (Schiffrin et al. 2001). The development of public health interventions are shaped by related discourses which function to simplify complex problems, and to serve the interests of some groups over others by defining the issue about which policy is made; providing the framework in which alternatives are considered; and influencing the options which are chosen and impact on the implementation process (Sutton 1999). The discourse surrounding a particular issue is reflected in policy tools and processes such as internal and external communications, briefings, press releases, programme documents and workshops. For example, government workshops are often held to discuss health policy issues such as food marketing to children and obesity (such as The Federal Trade Commission 2006; U.S. Department of Health and Human Services 2005). Such workshops serve a distinct role in the policy process by framing health problems, highlighting alternatives and developing policy networks that create and sustain policy communities, and foster policy transfer and knowledge uptake (Tepper 2004). More generally, the dominant discourses regarding a particular policy challenge can have significant consequences on the process of policy-making.

We examine discourse related to the segmentation and targeting of African-Americans in the context of the public health response to the obesity epidemic. Obesity is a critical health problem in the United States that poses a major economic and health threat to society (Visscher and Seidell 2001). Further, ethnic minority status...
is associated with higher than average obesity prevalence among children and adults, particularly women (Ogden et al. 2006; Ogden et al. 2002). And ethnic minorities have experienced greater increases in overweight during the past decade compared with white populations (Flegal et al. 2002; U.S. Department of Health and Human Services 2001). Although the current obesity epidemic in the US population was not recognised as a crisis until the early nineties, obesity was identified as a major modifiable risk factor contributing to excess deaths among minority populations relative to the majority population in the 1985 Secretary’s task force on black and minority health (Kumanyika 2002).

We conducted a discourse analysis of government documents at the federal level. We sought to describe the ways in which the segmentation and targeting of African-Americans has been described, rationalised and debated within government documents and policy venues in the context of an engagement with the problem of obesity. Our analytical framework has been drawn from a theoretical perspective on the ways in which health policies and programmes are developed (Brownson et al. 1997; Sutton 1999). We analysed government data (such as records of public hearings and workshops, legislative histories, and targeted programme information) within and across selected policy venues at the Federal level over a five year period. Documents were identified through searches of publicly available information from those federal agencies (such as the FTC, the HHS, the NIH, and the FDA), that have readily identifiable concerns or practices related to targeting ethnic minorities.

The first stage of the research involved an initial exploration of the available documents; development and pre-testing of a preliminary search strategy; and identification of specific electronic databases and other documents sources. Our search identified 120 documents, containing more than 16,000 paragraphs of text. The second stage of research consisted of the construction of a coding form for data abstraction and analysis. The coding scheme was developed through brainstorming key categories relevant to each of our research questions; an examination of prior literature; and a review of sample documents. We developed key categories and then pilot tested them with another sample of documents to refine the scheme. The final coding scheme included the following nine categories: 1) document type; 2) speakers type; 3) intended audience; 4) racial context and group references; 5) problem assessment; 6) rationale for intervention; 7) causal attribution and responsibility for the problem; 8) recommended action; and 9) description of targeted actions.

The analytical approach used was that of a framing analysis (Reese et al. 2001). First, we identified and characterised the major frames. Then, we identified the sources or sponsors of the frames, as well as the primary channels through which the frames were delivered. Finally, we compared the frames in terms of their prevalence, evaluation, and association with other frames. Key actors, agents, and institutions associated with each particular frame were also identified. We examined frequencies in terms of the number of text units (paragraphs) coded in a particular fashion in different documents and then identified patterns and relationships between these coded within and between documents. Secondary analysis focused on examining the relationships between qualitative frames and their sponsors on the basis of insights emerging from the initial analyses.

Results of our analysis demonstrate the particular social construction of racial targets, provide insight into the nature of the discourse surrounding racial segmentation and targeting, and suggest how race factors into the process underlying how social marketing-related public health interventions address obesity, and other health disparities. Results also contribute to a more complete understanding about the use of social marketing in, and as, public policy.

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A novel approach to segmenting a target audience: the use of advertising theory in sun protection social marketing

Authors: Keryn Johnson MPH
Sandra Jones PhD
Don Iverson PhD

Introduction
While many sun protection programmes are targeted to specific age ranges, few interventions have fully utilised segmentation as a means to understand and define subgroups within sun protection audiences. One approach to segmentation, which to our knowledge has not been previously used within the sun protection field, is the division of target audiences along ‘brand loyalty’ lines as described in the Rossiter-Percy Model (1997). We propose that the use of this method of segmentation will show a truer description of different patterns of sun protective behaviour, thereby allowing a more subtle tailoring of material and strategies, and at the same time offering insights into why people choose to protect or not protect.

Brand loyalty and sun protection
The promotion of sun protective behaviours may initially be difficult to picture within the brand loyalty approach to target audience selection. However, viewing the total potential audience along awareness-attitude-behaviour grounds may provide useful audience segments who will respond differentially to communication messages. In this approach, adequate sun protection is envisaged as a ‘brand’ in competition with rival ‘brands’ of no sun protection, inadequate/poor sun protection, and dangerous sun behaviour (such as tanning). Table 1 shows how these brand loyalty divisions may relate to the ‘brand’ of sun protection behaviour.

Segmentation of a young adult population
As a preliminary investigation of the applicability of brand loyalty segmentation to a sun protection market audience, a survey was undertaken of students at an Australian university. The purpose of this survey was to determine:
1) how the student population would categorise themselves within these segments with a single five part question;
2) whether inclusion in a Brand Loyalty category was related to attitudes and beliefs regarding sun protection and tanning;
3) whether inclusion in a Brand Loyalty category was related to temptations to tan or not protect; self-efficacy; perceived risk for skin cancer; thinking about sun protection; skin type; and demographics;
4) how inclusion in a Brand Loyalty category related to actual incidence of sun burn over the previous summer; and
5) how inclusion in a Brand Loyalty category related to constructs from the Transtheoretical Model.

As analysis is still being conducted, only limited results are given.
Table 1: Brand loyalty division of sun protection markets

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Sun protective behaviour</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>New category users (NCUs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>People who are unaware of the need for sun protection behaviours.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Brand loyals (BLs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>People who consistently practice adequate sun protective behaviours.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Favourable brand switchers (FBSs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>People who generally practice adequate sun protective behaviours but don’t when the price becomes too high (such as peer pressure, too uncomfortable, miss out on an opportunity for sport) or forget sun protection in certain situations (such as watching children at sport, gardening).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Other brand switchers (OBSs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>People who are aware of the need for sun protection but lack the ability or motivation to adequately protect themselves, varying between inadequate or no sun protection, or perhaps tanning, dependent on situational circumstances.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Other brand loyals (OBLs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>People who see the tanned skin ‘brand’ of behaviour giving them more benefits than the sun protection ‘brand’; or people who don’t practice sun protective behaviours because they see the price outweighing the benefits (for example, can’t be bothered).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Method

A convenience sample of university students (N=342) were approached during a university open week, and asked to complete a survey about their sun protection habits. Students were given a choice of a small juice or chocolate bar as incentives to complete the survey. As these results are part of a larger project looking at adolescent and young adults’ sun protection, results are shown only for those students aged 17 to 25.

Brand loyalty measure

Brand loyalty segments were assessed using one question, as shown in Figure 1, where participants were asked to place themselves into one category which described their usual sun protective behaviour, with one or more sub-categories chosen as applicable.

Figure 1: Brand loyalty survey question

A. Regarding sun protection, please tick ONE of the following 5 categories that best applies to you, and also tick one or more sub-categories if applicable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I do not need to protect myself from the sun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I know I should protect myself from the sun but I choose not because:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use some sun protection but I choose not to protect myself fully because:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I generally protect myself adequately, but there are times when I don’t because:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I protect myself adequately from the sun at all times</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to tan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The difficulties of doing so outweigh the benefits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I also like to tan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is too difficult to protect myself fully</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel some sun exposure is good for you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want a bit of a tan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I forget</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is too difficult in the circumstances</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am unprepared</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>continued...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Other questions relevant to this analysis assessed students’ attitudes to 1) sun protection and 2) tanning, on seven-point semantic differential scales. The statements preceding the adjective pairs were, ‘I feel protecting myself from the sun is…’ and ‘I feel tanning is…’ followed by three items related to cognitive properties of attitude (useful/useless, harmful/beneficial, wise/foolish) and three items related to affective properties of attitude (enjoyable/unenjoyable, pleasant/unpleasant, stressful/relaxing). Cronbach’s alpha for each scale was 0.67 and 0.87 respectively. Incidence of sunburn, skin type and colour, and demographics were also recorded.

**Results**

A total of 299 students within the age range of 17 to 25 years completed the questionnaire. The mean age of participants was 20.2 years; 32 per cent were male and 68 per cent female. Results for brand loyalty categorisation are presented in Table 2; results are given for 294 students, as five students selected more than one category.

The majority of students in this survey (62 per cent) categorised themselves in the ‘Favourable Brand Switchers’ segment (generally protect but at times don’t); while a further 11 per cent are ‘Brand Loyals’, as they categorised themselves as always protecting themselves adequately from the sun. Only 6 per cent of respondents did not protect themselves at all because they stated they did not need to protect themselves from the sun (2 per cent) or chose not to even though they knew they should (4 per cent).

### Table 2: Categorisation of sun protective behaviour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Segments</th>
<th>N=294</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New Category Users</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.0 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Brand Loyals</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.7 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Brand Switchers</td>
<td>61</td>
<td></td>
<td>20.7 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Favourable Brand Switchers</td>
<td>183</td>
<td></td>
<td>62.2 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Loyals</td>
<td>33</td>
<td></td>
<td>11.2 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td>100.0 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Analysis of variance was used to determine mean differences across the Brand Loyalty segments over a number of variables. Mean differences are reported for those variables significant at p<0.05, across the Brand Loyalty segments (See Table 3). Post hoc tests found Brand Loyals had significantly more positive affective attitudes to sun protection than all other segments, and less positive affective attitudes to tanning than Favourable Brand Switchers and Other Brand Switchers segments. New Category users had less positive cognitive attitudes to sun protection than all groups. Other Brand Loyals had a higher incidence of sunburn than Brand Loyals.

### Table 3: Analysis of variance and Tukey follow-up results for variables related to sun protection and tanning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>F (df)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Tukey’s HSD*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Burns this summer (Levene p&lt;.05)</td>
<td>2.65 (4)</td>
<td>.033</td>
<td>BL &lt; OBL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temptation to tan (Levene p&lt;.05)</td>
<td>7.95 (4)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>BL&lt; OBS, NCU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temptation to not protect (Levene p&lt;.05)</td>
<td>17.64 (4)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>BL&lt;FBS, NCU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Think about sun protection</td>
<td>25.45 (4)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>BL,FBS &gt; NCU, OBL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-efficacy (all situations)</td>
<td>2.79 (4)</td>
<td>.029</td>
<td>BL &gt; NCU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Sun Protection Attitude (Cognitive)</td>
<td>12.31 (4)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>BL,FBS, OBS, OBL &gt; NCU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Sun Protection Attitude (Affective)</td>
<td>13.04 (4)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>BL&gt;FBS, OBS, OBL, NCU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Tanning Attitudes (Cognitive)</td>
<td>3.07 (4)</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>BL &lt; NCU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Tanning Attitudes (Affective)</td>
<td>4.79 (4)</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>BL&lt; OBS, FBS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beliefs re tans</td>
<td>7.89 (4)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>BL&lt; OBS, OBL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

continued...
Discussion
This approach to the division of the sun protection target audience potentially holds many advantages over other methods of segmentation that may be used in this area, as it divides on current behaviour but also incorporates elements of knowledge (for example, those who are aware of the need for sun protection versus those who are not); attitudes and beliefs (for example, towards the benefits of sun protection); competition (from social norms regards tanned skin); and decisional balance (where the beliefs and attitudes towards the benefits of sun protection need to be balanced against the cost of sun protective behaviours for each individual). It also recognises the situational aspects of sun protection, where sun protection for individuals may change dependent on barriers or facilitators they perceive at any given time. This preliminary analysis shows there may be some specific differences in attitudes between Brand Loyalty segments which may prove useful in understanding the differences in sun protection behaviour between individuals. Further analysis is underway to more clearly delineate these differences.

References

What can social marketers learn from social movements?
Dr Lucy Woodliffe, Senior Lecturer in Marketing, Bristol Business School

Introduction
Social marketing and social movement theory are both concerned with affecting social change through upstream and downstream audiences. Whilst social marketing tends to focus on persuading individuals to change their behaviour voluntarily, social movements are characterised by collective action involving informal networks of individuals and social movement organisations (SMOs).

Social movement theory is well-developed within the disciplines of sociology and politics, yet very few marketing scholars have utilised this body of knowledge which potentially has much to offer social marketing. As Andreasen (2003) notes, it is important to improve our understanding of, and advocates, how social marketing can complement other approaches to social change, now that the discipline has started to mature. Similarly, the current literature on social movements has neglected marketing issues, instead focussing on particular dimensions (like culture, identity, emotions); processes (such as networks, framing, resource mobilisation); and contexts (such as globalisation) of social movements (summarised by Snow et al. 2004).

So, the key question is, what can (new) social movement theory offer to social marketing, and what can social marketing offer social movement theory?

Literature
In one of the leading texts on social movements, Della Porta and Diani (1999 p. 16) define social movements as ‘informal networks based on shared beliefs and solidarity, which mobilize about conflictual issues through the frequent use of various forms of protest’ Conflictual issues could be resisting (such as Pro-Choice); undoing (such as Slow Food movement) or delivering (like Fair Trade movement) social change. Alternatively, social movements can be viewed as instruments of identity ‘that push political systems and mainstream culture in the direction of a subgroup’, such as African American youth and hip-hop music (Trapp, 2005). Whichever definition is adopted, the outcome is that elites, authorities or cultural codes are challenged through collective behaviour. It is also worth noting that social movements tend to have temporal continuity, that is, the collective action is sustained over a long time period, possibly experiencing ‘cycles of protest’ reflecting fluctuating levels of interest in the movement (Snow et al. 2004).

As observed above, the study of social movements has not yet attracted the attention of marketing scholars, with the exception of Kozinets and Handelman (2004), who focus on activists in consumer movements (anti-advertising, anti-Nike). Another exception is Holzer (2006), who considers the role of SMOs in political consumerism, thus marrying social movements with consumption behaviour. As a consequence of this gap, the broader sociology and political science literatures have been consulted.

McAdam et al. (1996 p.2) identify three broad factors relevant to the emergence and development of social movements:
- mobilising structures (the forms of organisation available to insurgents);
- framing processes (the collective processes of interpretation, attribution and social construction that enable action); and
- political opportunities (the structure of political opportunities and constraints confronting the movement).

The first two factors would appear to offer the most fruitful routes into the marketing-related aspects of social movements, and it is mobilising structures, and formal SMOs in particular, which will form the focus of this continued...
project. An SMO 'is a complex, or formal organisation that identifies its goals with the preferences of a social movement...and attempts to implement those goals' (Zald and McCarthy 1987 p. 20). For example, Friends of the Earth and Greenpeace form part of the environmental movement.

Kriesi (1996) provides a four-cell typology of movement-related organisations, based on mode of participation in action (direct or indirect) and orientation (aim activities primarily at society or at public authorities). In his typology, SMOs combine direct action with an orientation towards public authorities. In this project, movement-related organisations which involve direct action aimed primarily within society (Kriesi gives the example of self-help women's groups) will also be included.

SMOs fulfil a number of functions, including mobilising resources from the surrounding environment; neutralising opponents; and increasing support from both the general public and the elite (McCarthy and Zald, 1987). Whilst most of the literature on SMOs focuses on organisational structure, style, leadership and organisational peculiarities such as those summarised by Della Porta and Diani (1999), very little is known about how SMOs increase support from the general public and other constituencies. This project will therefore address a gap in the social movement literature, as well as providing social marketers with an insight into how to induce collective behaviour change.

**Research objectives**

This exploratory project will focus on the marketing practices of SMOs and will address the following objectives:

- to identify and evaluate ‘marketing’ (whether explicitly referred to as marketing or not) practices used by social movement organisations, with an emphasis on segmentation and targeting, research and communication;
- to identify gaps in marketing practice and incidences of good practice which could be adopted by other social movement organisations and social marketers; and
- to reveal how social marketing can best complement and harness learning from social movement organisations with a view to delivering behaviour change.

**Methodology**

A qualitative approach to data collection will be taken in the form of a series of in-depth interviews with key personnel in professional SMOs based in the UK. To reflect the diversity of this sector (types of movement and type of organisation), it is anticipated that approximately ten interviews will be conducted, using a purposive sampling approach. To reflect the network aspect of social movements, three movements have been identified (sustainable transport, organic food, environmental), which will each be represented by three or four SMOs, for example, SUSTRANS, The Soil Association, and Freecycle respectively.

The interview topic guide will explore which conventional marketing and social marketing practices are employed within the organisation to effect social change, and then assess their perceived effectiveness; identify any innovative approaches to bringing about social change; establish attitudes towards marketing and its usefulness; and explore how the SMO organises its marketing activity (organisational structure and planning).

**References**


What role has the mediatisation in social marketing programmes for improving mental health of a population?

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Abstract

Media representation indicates what knowledge and issues are considered important in a society and conversely, what is ‘unimportant’ and therefore invisible. The media has considerable power to determine the form in which issues become visible, and to legitimise certain themes and how they are discussed. In this respect, the media plays a key role in the ‘management of visibility’ (Thompson, 1995; Castells, 2000). The mass media constitutes a field where the health agenda is shaped; where behaviours relevant to health are exposed; meanings of health and illness are outlined; and a whole range of risks, which individuals and/or organisations are supposed to calculate and be responsible for, is communicated. An extensive body of research indicates that people get the majority of their health information from the media, and this is also the case in Slovenia (Kamin, 2006). The extent of media coverage which explicitly deals with health, has in Slovenia, as in other Western countries, significantly increased. There are new magazines dealing with health or health and beauty, new health supplements in national newspapers and more and more space for health themes in lifestyle magazines (Kamin, 2006). One would therefore expect that mental health has a greater media profile as well, and research data indicates that this is the case. There has been a major growth in lifestyle magazines which do not address mental health directly, but discuss quality of life; well-being; a sense of happiness and purpose; self-esteem; work satisfaction; creative expression; capacity to function effectively under stress; and the ability to celebrate one’s life. These tend to be described in terms of individual choices in the area of physical activity, beauty, culinary experience and other forms of consumption. In the national daily media, on the other hand, mental health is underrepresented and, when it is on the agenda, it is mostly dealt with in negative or sensational terms. Since the mass media have a major influence on shaping public opinion and represent a primary source of information on mental health and related issues for diverse public, it is important how gets mental health presented in the media. The media are usually blamed for poor presentations of issues of public concern. However, reasons for under-presentation of mental health issues are more complex. Public health advocates should have a significant influence on mediatisation of mental health. But the research data suggests that public health advocates have a less important role and less visible media agenda setting effect. This is also due to their poor marketing knowledge and insufficiently developed and applied communication strategies. This paper will address this issue and provide evidence based discussion on marketing communication strategies that public health authorities should or already use for achieving their particular organisational and/or wider public health goals.

The evidence for the discussion in this paper is generated through a quantitative and qualitative content analysis of mental health coverage in the Slovenian national press in the period of one year. The paper will present research findings about: the media agenda on mental health; the main promoters for mediatisation of, and reporting on, mental health in Slovenia; type of information on particular mental health disorders in the Slovene mass media; and communication tools used by the main Slovenian public health advocates for mediatisation of issues on mental health.

The paper suggests that one of the major challenges for poor mental health literacy amongst both the general public and experts and professionals is related to lack of knowledge in strategic social marketing, and poor communication and media relation skills of public health advocates.

The paper will contribute to the academic discussion on social marketing on two levels:
(1) It points out pitfalls in designing and implementing social marketing programmes
(2) It discusses the role of mediatisation in social marketing theory.

Key words: mental health, mass media, social marketing, NGOs, public health, health promotion, media advocacy

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