AASM 2014 International Social Marketing Conference

"Scaling the twin peaks of rigour and relevance"

Conference Proceedings

Monash University, Peninsula Campus (Frankston)

Thursday 17 and Friday 18 July 2014

AASM 2014 Biennial International Social Marketing Conference
17 – 18 July 2014   Monash University, Peninsula Campus, Australia

CONTENTS

OVERVIEW

The AASM *2014 International Social Marketing (ISM) Conference* was hosted by the Department of Marketing, Monash University at its Peninsula Campus (Frankston) on Thursday 17 and Friday 18 July 2014. The conference theme *"Scaling the twin peaks of rigour and relevance"* was widely promoted by the AASM and Monash University through their respective channels, resulting in a record number of paper submissions; attracting strong conference attendee numbers and delivering a profitable event.

COMMITTEE STRUCTURE

The conference was managed by an Organising Committee (see attachment 1) comprising of:
- Professor Mike Ewing (Monash University/Deakin University), Conference Co-Chair
- Kathleen Chell (QUT)
- Paul Loughran (Monash University), Conference Manager
- Lelde McCoy, Conference Co-Chair (The Reputation Group)
- Dr Fiona Newton (Monash University), Conference Co-Chair
- Professor Rebekah Russell-Bennett (QUT)
- Ilan Werbeloff (Victorian Aids Council)

Dr Fiona Newton: Senior Lecturer, Department of Marketing (Monash University)

Paul Loughran: Manager, Department of Marketing (Monash University)

Professor Michael Ewing: Pro-Vice Chancellor (Executive Dean), Business and Law (Deakin University)

Lelde McCoy: Founder & Managing Director, Reputation Group

Professor Rebekah Russell-Bennett: Advertising, Marketing and Public Relations (Queensland University of Technology)

Ilan Werbeloff: Event Co-ordinator, (Victorian AIDS Council)

Kathleen Chell: AASM Student Representative

During the 12-month preparation period, the committee was convened on 8 occasions (one face-to-face meeting and 7 teleconferences) to plan and manage all aspects of the conference including:

- deciding on the conference theme; structure and format
- identifying Plenary Key Note speakers, Panellists and Session Chairs
- developing a marketing plan
- creating communication channels (including the dedicated conference website)
- calling for Expressions of Interest for academic papers and industry cases
- reviewing paper submissions
- setting the conference registration fees
- preparing sponsorship prospectus and securing conference sponsorship
- administering online registration
- providing logistical support
- monitoring the budget

CONFERENCE THEME

Over recent years, the government, Not-For-Profit and corporate sectors have acknowledged the importance of social marketing in managing behavioural change on a range of social issues. 'Relevance' and 'rigour' are key elements that provide the evidence-based validation used to measure the effectiveness of social marketing campaigns. Hence, the Conference theme:

"Scaling the twin peaks of rigour and relevance"

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SONA SYSTEMS

World Social Marketing Conference

CONFERENCE VENUE

Monash University has 5 Melbourne municipal campuses, of which the Department of Marketing delivers programs from 4. As host, the Department of Marketing decided to host the conference at its Peninsula Campus (Frankston). Situated 53 kilometres from the Melbourne CBD, the purpose for hosting the conference at its Peninsula Campus was based on the Department's strategy to establish a footprint in the social marketing space on this campus.

The three plenary sessions were held in main lecture theatre located in Building F. Parallel presentation sessions were held in the classrooms and lecture theatres in Building A (Faculty of Education), located immediately across from Building F.
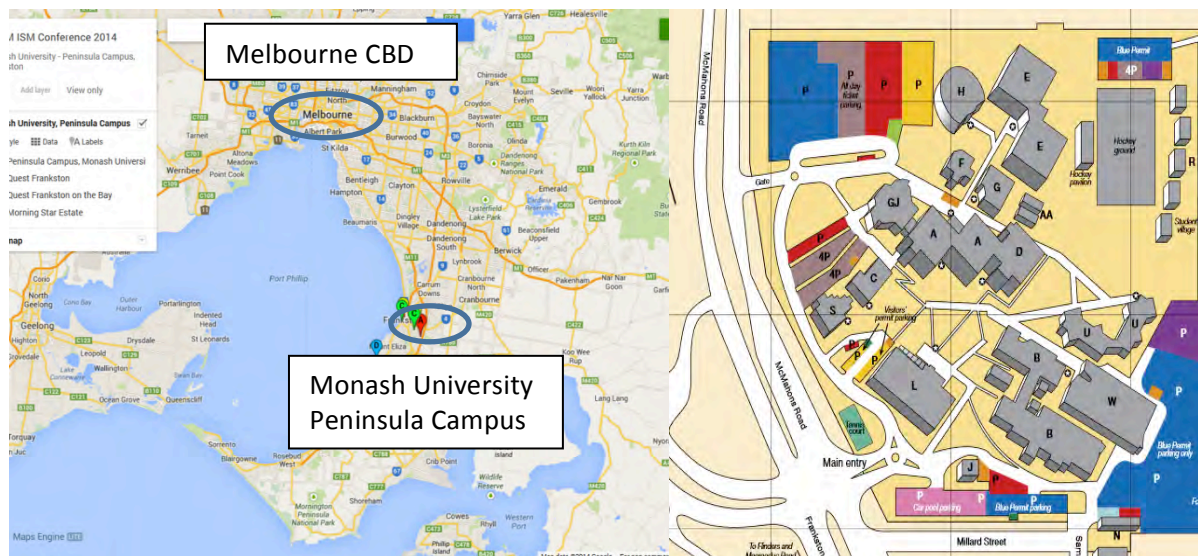
Locality Map

**Monash University
Peninsula Campus Map**

**Building A
Site of Session Presentations**

**Building D
Department of Marketing Offices**

ACCOMMODATION

Delegate accommodation was arranged at either:

- Quest Frankston on the Bay; and
- Quest Frankston

Located approximately 3 kilometres from the Peninsula Campus, buses were arranged to transport the 80+ delegates between the self-contained apartments available at these accommodation venues and the Peninsula Campus.

Image 1:   Quest Frankston on the Bay

**Deluxe self contained apartment**   **Outdoor entertainment area**
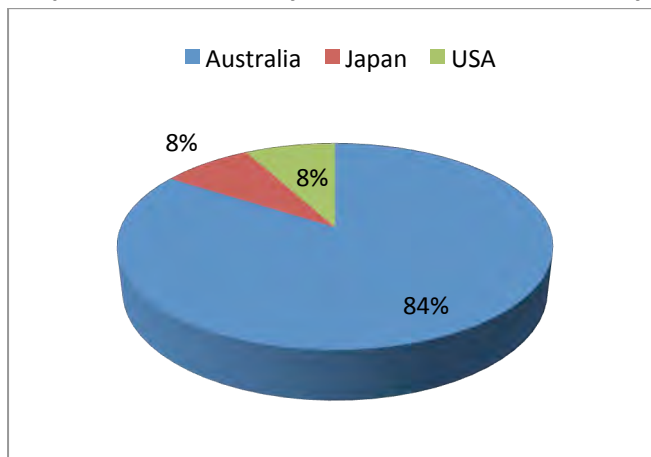
CALL FOR PAPERS

The Call for Papers was initiated on 9 September 2013 with a submission deadline of 14 March 2014. A record number of 101 submissions from 14 countries) was recieved comprising of:

- 51 academic papers
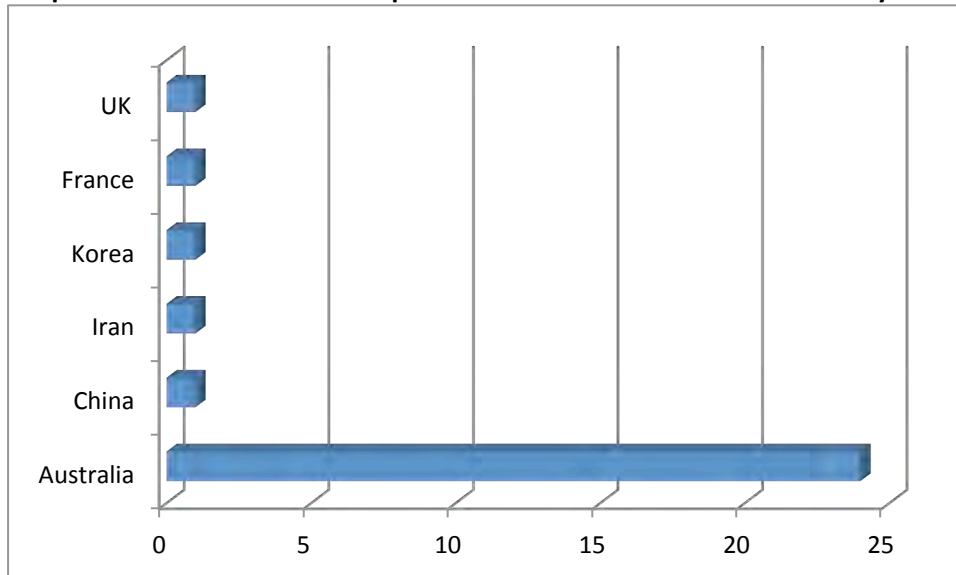- 21 Industry cases
- 29 Student papers

Graph 1a: **Academic Paper Submissions – Country of origin**
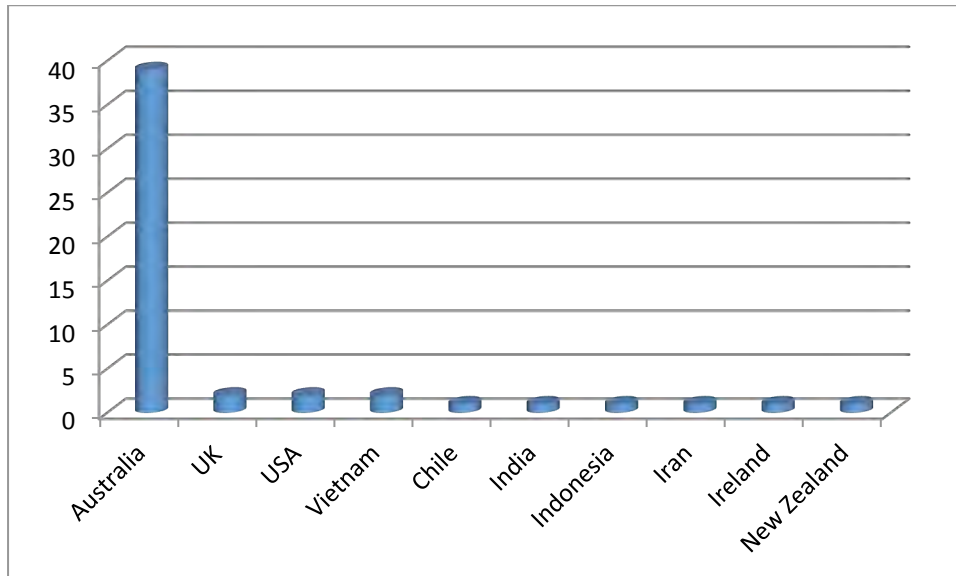
Graph 1b: **Industry Case Submissions – Country of origin**

Graph 1c: **Student Paper Submissions – Country of origin**

PAPER REVIEW PROCESS

Two Panels were convened to review the academic/student papers and industry cases respectively, comprising of:

- Academic/Student Review Panel
    - Prof Mike Ewing
    - Dr Wayne Binney
    - Dr Fiona Newton
    - Dr Josh Newton

- Industry Cases review Panel:
    - Prof Rebekah Russell-Bennett
    - Lelde McCoy
    - Ilan Werbeloff

The submission review process resulted in 81 submissions being accepted and 20 submissions being rejected, an overall rejection rate of 20%, comprising of:

- 6/51 academic papers (12%)
- 4/21 industry cases (20%)
- 10/29 student papers (35%)

Graph 2: **Category breakdown of submissions rejected**
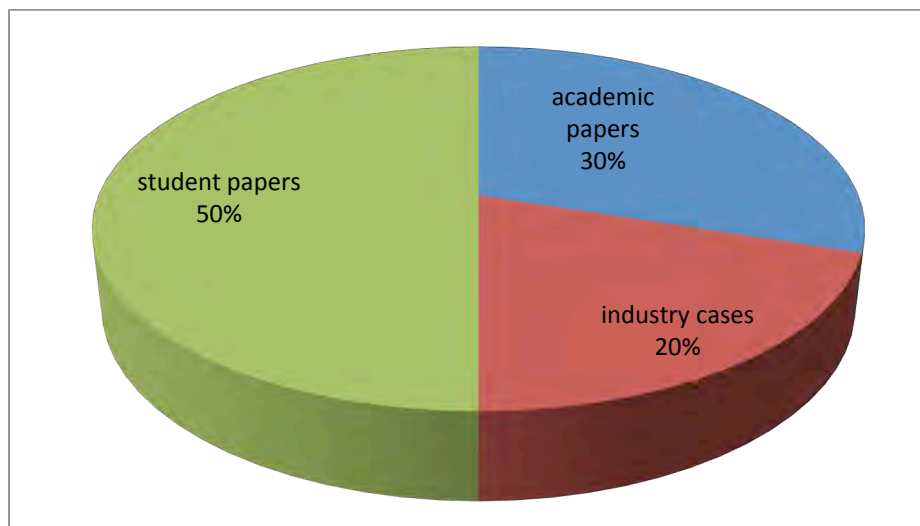
CONFERENCE PROGRAM

Plenary

Thursday 17 July (morning)

Key Note Address:	**David Paterson**
	Chief Innovation Officer, World Vision
Discussion Panellists:	**Tom Carroll**
	Director, Carroll Communications
	Adam Ferrier
	Chief Strategy Officer, Cummins&Partners

Friday 18 July (morning)

Key Note Address:	**Professor Simone Pettigrew**
	Distinguished Research Professor, Curtin University
Discussion Panellists:	**Jeff Jordan**
	Founder, Rescue Social Change Group
	Professor Sandra Jones
	ARC Future Fellow, Australian Catholic University
	Professor Adrian Bauman
	Director, Prevention Research Collaboration, University of Sydney

Friday 18 July (afternoon)

Discussion Panellists:	**Luke van der Beeke**
	Managing Director, Marketing for Change
	Dr Liam Smith
	Director of BehaviourWorks Australia
	Ian Forsyth
	Managing Partner, The Shannon Company
	Matt Wood
	Head of the Marketing Subject Group, University of Brighton

Special Sessions

Thursday 17 July

Presentation theme:	*Synergies between social marketing and the subsistence market places perspective*
Presenters:	- Associate Professor Srini Sridharan (Monash University)
	- David Faulman (Business for Millennium Development)
	- David Paterson (World Vision)
	- Stephen Saunders (Monash University)

Friday 18 July

Presentation theme:	*Transforming consumer's lives through marketing*
Presenters:	- Professor Simone Pettigrew (Curtin University)
	- Dr Nadia Zainuddin (University of Wollongong)
	- Professor Rebekah Russell-Bennett (QUT)
	- Geoff Smith (Australian Red Cross Blood Service)

Presentations Sessions

Thursday 17 July – Presentation themes:
- Healthy lifestyles and eating patterns
- Harnessing technology to bring about behavioural change
- Enhancing physical activity: Theory and practice
- The relevance of social marketing in addressing consumer vulnerability
- Addressing issues around alcohol consumption
- Moving forward: Theoretical issues in social marketing
- Campaign reviews: Lessons learned and ways forward
- Social marketing initiatives in developing world contexts
- Combating gambling and driver anger
- Improving the health behaviours of Australians (I)
- Consumption issues

Friday 18 July – Presentation themes:
- The relevance of social marketing in addressing environmental issues (I)
- The role of social marketing in smoking cessation initiatives
- Moving forward theoretical issues in social marketing (II)
- Practitioner insights: Campaign development and evaluation
- Leveraging social marketing tools to foster healthy eating
- Improving the health behaviours of Australians (II)
- Improving the health behaviours of Australians (II)
- Improving blood donation rates in Australia

Meet the Editor
Friday 18 July – The Journal of Social Marketing (Professor Sharyn Rundle-Thiele)

PRACTITIONER WORKSHOPS

A Practitioner Workshop was included as an optional extra for delegates as part of the conference program. Purposefully designed to appeal to practitioners, the Workshop provided delegates the opportunity to develop skills resulting from lessons learned from practitioners working within the field, in an environment that was engaging and conducive to learning. The Workshop was limited to conference delegates at an additional cost. The Workshop was structured to feature 4 presenters:

- **Jeff Jordan**
  President & Executive Creative Director, Rescue Social Change Group
  Title: *"Because I Felt Like It" - Why teens really engage in risk behaviors and how to use advanced social marketing strategies to change them.*

- **Joan Young**
  CEO, Colmar Brunton
  Title: *"A practitioners guide to Social Marketing - using social marketing theory and best practice to create policy, communications, services, products and programmes that change behaviour".*

- **Tom Carroll**
  Director, Carroll Communications
  Title: *"The critical role of evaluation in the social marketing process - identifying effective strategies to apply, measuring the effectiveness of implementation and assessing campaign outcomes".*

- **Rob Donovan**
  Professor of Social Marketing, Curtin University
  Title: *"But wait ... there's more to Social Marketing ..."*

Pro-social local food consumption motivations and behaviour:
An exploratory study of tourists departing Vanuatu

Dr Maria M. Raciti[1]
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Maroochydore D.C. Qld 4558, Australia

Background

Social marketing is regarded as a way to address social issues in order to boost people's quality of life and enhance society as a whole (Andreasen, 2006). While many social marketing studies address public health issues, Kotler and Lee (2009) regard social marketing as a fitting framework for activities focused upon reducing poverty in the developing world, such as developing sustainable agricultural-based enterprises that utilise indigenous, local food. Understanding the pro-social motivations that underpin decision making with regard to local food in concert with active-behaviours (e.g. seeking out local food) and passive-behaviours (e.g. noticing local food) of tourists; shape endeavours that seek to provide a way out of poverty in emerging economies. This research is set in the South Pacific Islands – namely the popular tourist destination of Vanuatu – and is part of a large project that centres on developing a sustainable, village-level enterprise for the local, indigenous Canarium nut. Stimulating demand for the local nut among the many tourists that visit is vital. The purpose of this study was to empirically explore the relationship between tourists' pro-social local food motivations and their self-reported behaviour. Two hypotheses frame this study being: *H1: Tourists' pro-social local food motivations are positively associated with active-positive behaviours towards local food;* and *H2: Tourists' pro-social motivations are positively associated with passive-positive behaviours towards local food.*

Pro-social food motivations matter. Today's consumers not only care about the physical properties of the food they select and eat (Briggeman & Lusk, 2011) but also about social and ethical circumstances pertaining to the food (Unnevehr, Eales, Jensen, Lusk, McCluskey & Kinsey, 2010). Key considerations of today's consumers include questions about who produces the food, how the food is produced, who benefits from their purchase, and where it comes from (Briggeman & Lusk, 2011). These pro-social food motivations are increasingly commonplace, steadily gaining momentum since the 1980's, particularly with the development of international certified food programs such as Fairtrade, Rainforest Alliance and UTZ (Becchetti & Huybrechts, 2008). Literature from tourism and marketing-related certified food programs was reviewed (e.g. Garcia Gonzales, 2013; Castaldo, Perrini, Misani & Tencati, 2009; Varul, 2010) revealing that the link between tourists' pro-social local food motivations and behaviour toward local food, being the focus of this study, has not been empirically investigated. In terms of types of local foods from the developing world, coffee, chocolate, sugar and bananas are the most common in certified food programs (Fairtrade International, 2013). Nuts seldom feature as a certified food, with the exception of papers by Silvertown (2004) and Bounous (2006). Additionally, there are no studies of the South Pacific Islands beyond Garcia Gonzales (2013) study of internet-enabled sustainable tourism and Hutchens (2011) discussion of the success factors that underpin certified food programs.

South Pacific Island Canarium nuts are the focus of this study. Produced by the indigenous Canarium indicum tree, the nuts are a culturally important, traditional food of the Ni-Vanuatu (Melanesian people of Vanuatu) (Thomson & Evans, 2006). With rising world trade in tree nuts, the opportunity to assist in the development of a sustainable agricultural-based enterprise in Vanuatu is timely (Pacific Agribusiness Research and Development Initiative, 2012). The priority consumer market has been identified as the many tourists (n = 237,346) that arrive into Port Vila, the capital of the Vanuatu archipelago, on the main island of Efate. Australians on holidays are the largest cohort of tourists visiting Port Vila, with 59% being one-day cruise ship visitors (Pacific Agribusiness Research and Development Initiative, 2012).

Method

Departing tourists were intercepted by trained Ni-Vanuatu enumerators who administered the paper-based survey. Respondents were intercepted at 11 locations with this purposive, convenience sample approach resulting in a useable sample of 61 respondents (59% response rate). Screening questions ensured that respondents were over 18 years of age, tourists leaving Vanuatu, and were consumers or purchasers of nuts or value-added nut products. Respondents were relatively equally split in terms of gender (male = 30; female = 31) with 75.4% under that age of 44 years. Over half of the respondents were tertiary educated (57.4%) and described their household income as high (44.3%) or medium (39.3%). Most were Australian residents (67.2%) all of whom were from the east coast, namely Queensland, Victoria and New South Wales respectively.

Adapting existing scales (e.g. Birch *et al.*, 2012), two experts then reviewed the quantitative survey prior to administration. Each item was measured on 5-point Likert type scales as detailed the Appendix. First, tourists pro-social local food motivations scale consisted of five items ($\alpha = 0.82$) with standardised loadings ranging from 0.53 to 0.83. Second, departing tourists' self-reported behaviours with respect to local food from Vanuatu during their visit was initially measured with 8 items. Factor analysis indicated the final 7 item scale was measuring two constructs and adapting Barber's (1972) typology of political behaviour, the constructs were labelled: a) 'active-positive behaviour' whereby respondents actively sort out local food ($\alpha = 0.82$; items = 3; loadings 0.74 - 0.83); and b) 'passive-positive behaviour' being favourable undertakings such as noticing, identifying and having an interest in the background of local food ($\alpha = 0.84$; items = 4; loadings 0.72 - 0.80).

Results

Construct reliability, convergent validity, discriminant validity was apparent with an absence of multicollinearity or common method bias (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003). Composite scales were created prior to testing the hypotheses with the results of multiple regression analysis presented in Table 1. Both hypotheses were accepted.

TABLE 1: Multiple Regression Results

Hypothesised Relationship	β	*F*	Result
H$_1$ Pro-Social Motivations → Active-Positive Behaviour	0.35***	8.25***	Accepted
H$_2$ Pro-Social Motivations → Passive-Positive Behaviour	0.28**	4.82**	Accepted

*Standardised parameter estimates (β) are statistically significant at $p < 0.05$** and $p < 0.01$****

Conclusions

Theoretically, the paper introduces the notion of active- and passive-positive behaviours to the social marketing literature. It was found that departing tourists' pro-social local food motivations are positively associated with both active-positive and passive-positive self-reported behaviours. Furthermore, Hart and London's (2005) 'bottom of the pyramid' notion is applicable in terms of the practical implications of this study.

'Bottom of the pyramid' is typically associated with innovative approaches to marketing in emerging nations and to poverty alleviation. Thus, this study's assessment of active- and passive- positive tourist behaviour provides a new perspective to explain the behaviour of tourists, advantaging Ni-Vanuatu entrepreneurs by providing insight that can direct their efforts at the budding village-level, sustainable agriculture-based enterprises being built around the local Canarium nut.

Appendix

Pro-social local food motivations
(α = 0.82)

Question stem: *"On a scale of 1 'not important at all' to 5 'very important', please rate the following attributes of local nut or local nut products that would encourage you to purchase or purchase more?"*

Item	Loading
Knowing they are from a sustainable source	0.83
Knowing that purchasing them was supporting the local community, local retailers and local producers	0.80
Knowing they are indigenous to the region	0.69
They are easily recognisable as local Vanuatu food	0.64
Knowing they are an authentic Vanuatu product	0.53

Active-positive behaviour
(α = 0.82)

Question stem: *"To what extent do you agree with the following statements concerning local food from Vanuatu?"*

Item	Loading
If local food had been promoted at Vanuatu restaurants; that would have positively influenced me to choose those restaurants.	0.83
When selecting from a menu during my visit to Vanuatu, I specifically looked for local food to order.	0.79
When purchasing food during my visit to Vanuatu, I specifically looked for local food to try.	0.74

Passive-positive behaviour
(α = 0.84)

Question stem: *"To what extent do you agree with the following statements concerning local food from Vanuatu?"*

Item	Loading
I am interested in learning about where the local food I eat comes from and how it is grown and/or produced.	0.80
Local food from Vanuatu was readily available at the places where I shopped.	0.75
Eating local food from Vanuatu did, or could have, made my visit more enjoyable.	0.73
Local food from Vanuatu was frequently included on the menus at eating out places on the island.	0.72

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Can social marketing combat sorcery?

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Lynne Eagle: Professor of Marketing at James Cook University. Research interests include marketing communication effects and effectiveness, including: trans-disciplinary approaches to sustained behaviour change in social marketing / health promotion / environmental protection campaigns, the impact of persuasive communication on children, and the impact of new, emerging and hybrid media forms and preferences for / use of formal and informal communications channels. She has published in a wide range of academic journals, including the *Journal of Advertising* and *European Journal of Marketing*, led the development of both Marketing Communications and Social Marketing texts and contributed several book chapters for other texts as well writing commissioned social marketing expert papers and presenting numerous research papers at international conferences. She is on the editorial board of several journals.

Stephan Dahl: Senior Lecturer in Marketing at Hull University Business School in England. His research interests include health and social marketing, cross-cultural marketing and online/social media marketing and he has published widely in national and international journals. Dr Dahl's current focus is on the role social marketing to increase physical activity, online Word of Mouth and marketing using social networks and marketing green issues.

David R Low: Head of School and Professor of Business at James Cook University. He has been a senior academic leader for many years and has a wide variety of both industry and academic senior management and boardroom experience. His research interests include Cross Cultural Issues; Country of Origin Studies; Ethnicity, Social Media, Social Marketing Market Orientation, Firm Performance, E-Marketing; Innovation, SME's and the use of technology in business value chains. David has recently co-edited a book on E-Novation and Web 2.0. He has supervised to completion a number of HDR students and teaching interests include E-Marketing, International Marketing as well as Marketing Management.

Introduction

We describe several significant barriers to behaviour change in developing countries that must be taken into consideration when developing social marketing interventions. Over 80% of the world's population live in developing countries (Aboud, 2012), with large rural populations, poor health and transport infrastructures, and low per capita incomes, resulting in low life expectancy and significant health problems (Thornton, 2009). For example, 30% of Papua New Guineans live on less than $1 per day (Government of PNG); 3/5 of the Bangladeshi population live below the poverty line (Rahman, & Chowdhury,2007). Literacy rates in countries such as these are low; estimated at approximately 50% overall, but lower for women (Duncan, 2011; Chowdhury & Bhuiya, 2004).   Information sources are thus heavily dependent on verbal communication, including repetition of traditional beliefs. Alleviating hunger is a Millennium Development Goal (MDG), with evidence that many signatories are encountering problems in achieving the targets set (Peterson, 2009). Malnutrition is directly responsible for over 300,000 deaths per annum globally and indirectly for 50% of the deaths of young children (Müller & Krawinkel, 2005). Malnutrition results in growth retardation in early childhood, decreased intellectual development and functional impairment that leads to reduced work capacity later in life (Rahman & Chowdhury, 2007). Behaviour change interventions are noted as cost-effective ways of improving nutrition such as changing food allocations within households or the way food is prepared and served (Horton et al., 2008). However, the impact of these interventions on changing beliefs about the sources of ill-health – including sorcery – is un-researched.

Method

We conducted a structured literature review, drawing on academic literature, governmental documents and grey literature as part of prior pilot research in Bangladesh and in preparation for pilot research within Papua New Guinea which will inform future Social Marketing-based interventions. Lessons learned in these countries, including whether and in what ways social marketing can combat traditional beliefs in sorcery as a cause of ill-health will have application to interventions in other developing countries, recognising cultural, religious and infrastructure differences.

Results

It is important to recognise and work within the existing health systems of these countries, recognising that 'traditional' indigenous health practices vary across regions and co-exist alongside bio-medical science models and, for Papua New Guinea, Christian beliefs (Davy & Patrickson, 2012) and for Bangladesh, Islamic beliefs (Faruque et al., 2008). In these, and many other countries, there are widespread beliefs that serious illness, including infectious diseases such as tuberculosis and HIV / AIDS involves supernatural forces such as sorcery resulting in low success rates for health promotion activity (Ongugo et al., 2011; MacFarlane, 2009; Dundon & Wilde, 2007). Behaviour change approaches must recognise these beliefs.

A range of less dramatic cultural and social structure barriers also exist in developing countries. For example, there are a number of folk-beliefs in Bangladesh that are currently significant barriers to improving maternal and infant nutrition. These include beliefs in 'eating down' (i.e. women should eat less during pregnancy) with evidence of supplementary food being eaten by others or being eaten in place of a normal meal (White, 2009) and of avoiding meat, fish and eggs during pregnancy (World Bank, 2005). While harmful beliefs

such as these are declining, lack of resources remains a significant barrier to women being able to eat more. In Papua New Guinea, pregnant women and their husbands are required to comply with certain prohibitions, stemming from traditional beliefs particularly in relation to 'acceptable' food; and it is believed that defying these will result in "adverse consequences for the health of the mother and child" (Whittaker et al, 2009:104).

Maternal autonomy has been identified as a key factor in improving child nutrition and health in other developing countries (Dancer & Rammohan, 2009). In Bangladesh, mothers are not the main decision makers for nutrition-related practices; mothers-in- law have substantial influence on domestic matters, reinforcing traditional practices; further, men rather than women frequently do household shopping (White, 2009). There is evidence from other countries such as Laos of misuse of products such as coffee creamers where powdered milk is not available or affordable (Barennes et al. 2008); warnings printed on packaging are of little use given low literacy rates in developing countries. Parental smoking is also directly associated with malnutrition. For example, Bangladesh has relatively high smoking rates, with 48% of men and 21% of women smoking and more than twice as much being spent on cigarettes than on clothing, housing, health and education combined coupled with evidence of expenditure on tobacco rather than food when choices are made (Best et al., 2007), a problem not restricted to this country (Block et al., 2009).

Research strategies for data collection is challenging in these countries, with cognitive interviewing, i.e. the verbalisation of thoughts, feelings, interpretations and ideas that come to mind while answering questions being better suited than conventional questionnaires and structured interviews being better suited for use with populations who face literacy challenges and strong oral rather than written cultures (Rosal et al., 2003). Recruitment of research participants is also challenging; for example, the concept of research benefiting people who are not part of the same tight clan ('wantok') system is both alien and culturally inappropriate in Papua New Guinea (Thornton, 2009). Appropriate theoretical foundations need careful consideration. While theory-driven approaches have been found to lead to more persuasive messages across a range of socio-economic groups in western countries (Schneider, 2006), there is debate within the extant literature regarding the appropriateness of western-originated concepts and whether western-originated methods can be modified to be contextually grounded in the specific context under study (Siddique et al., 2011).

The choice of communication channels is obviously important; the rural environment presents challenges, both in terms of the restrictions imposed on the use of printed material due to low literacy levels discussed earlier, but also due to the low penetration of other mass media forms. Mobile phone coverage is improving in developing countries, but a lack of mains electricity in rural areas limits battery recharging; solar energy is increasingly used to recharge batteries (Sovacool & D'Agostino,2012). Mobile phones can also be also perceived as a community rather than individual resource (Watson, 2012) which may impact the nature and framing of messages delivered via this medium.

Conclusion

Education alone will not be sufficient to overcome traditional beliefs if there is not support from other family and community members. Change agents or catalysts for change and empowered leadership, community involvement and provision of visual tools have been found to be successful in past health promotion interventions (Ashwell & Barclay, 2009). Information provision is necessary, but not of itself sufficient to change behaviours, and the role of household and community members in encouraging behaviour change will be paramount. The role of traditional beliefs, including sorcery, and their potential conflict with religious and medical beliefs must be recognised and respected; how their role in hindering or enabling social marketing behaviour change interventions requires considerable research.

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Ethics in social marketing: In search of pronēsis*

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Introduction

Concerns regarding the lack of codes of ethics (CoE) for Social Marketing and related fields such as health promotion have been made for over a decade (Sindall, 2002; Smith, 2001). The establishment of professional associations for Social Marketing (e.g. the Australian Association of Social Marketers (AASM). the International Social Marketing Association (iSMA), the European Association of Social Marketers (ESMA)) has seen increased focus on the issue (French, personal communication, 2013). While CoE are seen by some as a fundamental characteristic of a profession (Sha, 2011), we question what can be realistically achieved with CoE and how they should be developed, communicated and enforced.

In Search of Universal Moral Values

In the wider business context, differences between Anglo-American and European perspectives of professional work have been noted (Evetts, 2011), but the literature is silent on the potential implications for CoE of differences between western and eastern perspectives. Lefebrve (2011:54) notes that Social Marketing thought and practice has "evolved differently in the developing and developed world", making Quinn et al.'s call for the development of a common Social Marketing language challenging. Can a global CoE for Social marketing be achieved based on the identification of "universal moral values" which continue to be sought in the corporate sector (Schwartz, 2005)? We note the recent call for a "transcendental code of ethics" for all marketing professionals (Payne & Pressley, 2013) but suggest these authors grossly oversimplify the magnitude of the task.

What is the Role of a Code of Ethics?

Given that Social Marketing activity aims to change behaviours in ways that benefit individuals, communities and / or society at large, it surprises tyros that ethical issues can arise, yet there is a growing body of literature that documents ethical issues and unexpected impacts of interventions, including issues regarding targeting, segmentation; consequences of focusing on easy-to reach or influence groups rather than those with the greatest need, and the needs of low literate groups and minority groups and cultures (Newton et al., 2013; Domegan et al, 2010; Eagle, 2008; Cho & Salmon, 2007). Communications strategies also present ethical challenges, such as the impact of fear appeals or other "execution techniques that may impact negatively on vulnerable audiences (Donovan et al., 2009). Codes may thus help educate inexperienced practitioners and sensitise them to issues they may face in the future (Eagle et al., 2013).

Positive benefits of CoE include assisting and empowering individuals to make ethical decisions through being able to apply principles, processes and decision-making models to ethical issues (Sonenshein, 2007), clarifying expectations around decision making and encouraging dialogue regarding ethical issues (Helin et al., 2011). There is substantial evidence that CoE will not of themselves prevent unethical behaviour (Messikomer & Cirka, 2010), nor change behaviours in the wider business sector (Painter-Moreland, 2010; Webley & Werner, 2008) or in the healthcare sector (Eriksson et al., 2007), however CoE can offer a range of benefits, including sensitizing people to issues they might face, and educating them on strategies to deal with ethical dilemmas.

Relationship to Corporate and other Professional Codes

A Social Marketing CoE would not operate in isolation; social marketers work for a range of organisations, many of which have their own CoEs; professional codes may apply such as in the health or environmental management sectors may also apply (Carter et al., 2011). Research within the accounting profession suggests that professional CoEs have less influence than organisational environments (Somers, 2001). Whether this finding is in any way generalizable will require further research. What is clear is that there will always be an organisational component to code adherence (Malloy et al., 2009). Whether and how professional associations connect professionalism and organisations has been studied in the medical context (Noordegraaf, 2011), but not within Social Marketing. Again, research is needed in this area.

Competing Theoretical Foundations and Frameworks

Within the commercial sector, competing theoretical frameworks have been applied to the study of CoE, including institutional theory and information economics, resulting in differences in definitions and effectiveness evaluations (Kaptein & Schwartz, 2008; Lere & Gaumnitz, 2003). Further research is needed to determine the usefulness of these theoretical frameworks to Social Marketing specifically. Further, there are several competing ethical frameworks available, including deontology (focused on intentions) and teleology (focused on outcomes), with different values (Carter et al., 2011). How do we guide development of Aristotle's practical wisdom (termed in the original Greek 'pronēsis') in knowing "how, when, where and in what way" (Messikomer & Cirka, 2010: 58) to apply theories, frameworks and other factors in ethical decision making?

Code Development and Communications

It is argued that the development process will influence its subsequent effectiveness (Messikomer & Cirka, 2010). This area is largely un-researched, even in the corporate sector, although it is asserted that the development process is important for building awareness, support and ownership, with ethics training and personnel support enhancing code implementation (Kaptein & Schwartz, 2008). Communications of CoE appear problematic in other areas; despite widespread effects to communication the Academy of Marketing's CoE, they note "a sizable proportion" of members remain unaware of it and "only a very small proportion have read it carefully" (Mowday, 2011: 505).

Conclusion

If a CoE merely lists broad principles, it will, in common with codes in other areas "occupy the role of platitude" (Malloy et al., 2009: 381). If a CoE is to be a living document with value as both an educational and a decision-making support tool, the process of development will require "thoughtful debate" (Skubik & Stening, 2009), be lengthy, but potentially rewarding. The Social Marketing professional organisations will also need, in common with other professions, to consider mechanisms to support those facing significant ethical dilemmas – and code enforcement mechanisms (see, for example, Sha, 2011). For sample codes, see Eagle, 2008.

We make the following recommendations for the exploration of ethics resources for social marketing: In order to inform our own deliberations, comparative cross-jurisdictional and cross-cultural research should be undertaken on the lessons learnt by a range of professional bodies regarding the development of resources, compliance and regulatory mechanisms and on the effectiveness of these resources, including CoEs where they exist or, in the case of health promotion, where a global CoE is being debated (Bull et al., 2012) . We recommend comparison of established professions such as medicine, law and accountancy, plus health promotion, psychology and environmental management, with findings disseminated, and debate encouraged via all three associations.

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The role of social marketing in addressing the treatment of driving anger: A cognitive approach

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Introduction

Many governments and health professionals view road safety issues as a challenge. For example, an average of 17 people die on Saudi Arabia's roads each day because of accidents (Takafi et al., 2011), which means the Kingdom has one of the highest rates of traffic accidents in the world. Researchers in this area have investigated various factors that may influence drivers' behaviour, including driving ability and the driving environment (Shope, 2006), but driver emotion and emotion regulation – in particular anger – have emerged as critical factors in driver behaviour (Mesken, 2006). Several studies have investigated the role of anger in traffic incidents from a number of different perspectives. The results (Stephens & Groeger, 2006) show that those drivers who become angry because of traffic events – as compared to those who enter other emotional states – subsequently demonstrate different risk behaviours (e.g. acceleration and chasing). Following this, the goal of the present research is to determine whether some form of intervention can help to reduce anger, and hence cut the number of accidents.

Many of the previous studies that attempted to manage anger were based on clinical interventions (Deffenbacher et al., 2002), while few applied situational interventions that aimed to manage anger as it occurs. The purpose of the present paper is to pose three questions as a precursor to designing an intervention to address driver anger. The questions are:

RQ1: What types of traffic events cause drivers to experience anger?
RQ2: Why do drivers become angry in those types of traffic events?
RQ3: How do drivers cope with anger during traffic events?

This research aims to understand the emotion of anger in more detail and capture greater specificity in this regard, as achieving this aim should help social marketers to build an effective intervention. This study will adopt the cognitive-motivational-relational (CMR) model (Lazarus, 1991) as guidance in understanding the issue. Lazarus' theory distinguishes anger from other negative emotions and provides the four necessary appraisal components that must be activated for anger to occur in any encounter. These are goal relevance, goal incongruence, type of ego-involvement and blaming.

Method

This study concentrated on Saudi Arabia, a country with significant road safety problems, and the CMR theory guided the qualitative interview method for collecting the required data. The main aim of this process was to investigate how anger is initiated in certain traffic situations. In Riyadh, during April 2013, the researcher conducted semi-structured interviews with twelve drivers (six individually and six in a focus group) aged between 18 and 40 years old (mean age = 22 years) who all had at least two years of driving experience.

The researcher visited coffee shops to find potential candidates. At the beginning of each interview, the researcher introduced himself to the participants, briefly introduced the research and outlined the research aims. The researcher asked for permission to record the interviews – reminding participants that the information collected would be treated in confidence – before asking three lead questions derived from the literature (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The first question aimed to collect information about traffic events that characteristically made respondents angry; the second was designed to investigate and explain why the drivers

become angry in this situation; the last was used to identify the thoughts and actions of drivers when dealing with specific angry encounters

All semi-structured interviews were audio recorded with the aim of securing the collected data and guaranteeing that all data was traceable. A full transcription of each interview was provided (about 40 pages), with a native Arabic speaker paid to transcribe all twelve interviews. Thereafter, the researcher used the interview questions as an outline to summarise the findings, and then translated the required information into English while removing any irrelevant conversation.

Results and Discussion

RQ1: 20 traffic scenarios were developed from the interview results. Content analysis was used at this stage to reduce the data to four categories: progress impeded, hostile gestures, reckless driving and discourtesy (Deffenbacher et al., 1994; Parker, Lajunen & Summala, 2002).

RQ2: The responses could be categorised into two groups: the first involved someone else being blamed for a harmful situation, and the second involved someone else being blamed for an insulting act. The results supported Lazarus' core relational theme of anger as a *"demeaning offense against me and mine"*.

RQ3: There was a strong relationship between aggression and anger in the four traffic categories of RQ1. In addition, the research uncovered three factors that influence the reaction of an angry driver either positively or negatively: whether there were passengers in the car, the driver's experience and who the offender was (whether young or old). In terms of what they did, the responses were separated into two groups: positive thinking (e.g. Quranic teachings) and aggressive reaction (e.g. chasing).

The results suggest that different strategies are required to build an effective intervention. First, any social marketing intervention to reduce the negative effects of driving anger should incorporate two stages simultaneously: the first is anger prevention and the second is managing anger. Second, the results highlight the crucial importance of three different audiences that must be considered when designing an intervention: the drivers, the person who deserves the blame (the other driver) and passengers (if applicable). A range of strategies can be applied in the prevention stage. For example, drivers, especially those who have anger-related traits, could become involved in cognitive therapy sessions. In addition, a road safety educator could include strategies for teaching and training drivers in how to deal with their anger in traffic situations. Promoting road courtesy is crucial in this stage, as the results revealed that an apology from the offender could help angry drivers to calm down. One interviewee stated that, *"I will not do anything if he apologises"*. There are different coping strategies available for drivers at the managing stage; these can be classed as either problem-focused coping or emotion-focused coping (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). One particularly powerful and widely employed strategy is encouraging drivers to reappraise the event positively by "changing the relational meaning of what is happening" (Lazarus, 1993).

Conclusion

The researcher applied CMR theory to investigate the characteristics of driving anger, in an attempt to provide the information necessary for social marketers to develop intervention strategies. The theory is a useful model in guiding social marketers to understand emotions in different contexts, which emphasises the importance of using emotion theories in the context of behaviour change.

The next step is to design a framework to help social marketers conduct a successful road safety campaign. The questions one can raise here for social marketing practitioners are: Should the messages mention the negative results of being angry or the benefits of controlling anger? What type of offered exchange should be promoted? Is there one clear way to prevent and defuse anger, or is each situation and individual different? In addition, more research is required to explore the role of other emotions, such as happiness and jealousy, and the way in which these emotions can be controlled in traffic.

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Battling unemployment: A winning trifecta for mainstream jobs for people with disability

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Introduction/Background

People with disabilities experience 'appalling' (Riley, 2006) and 'dramatically' rising (Chan, Strauser, Maher, Lee, Jones & Johnson, 2010) rates of unemployment. Specialist employment agencies (SEAs) help people with disabilities to find work (Luecking, 2008; Olney & Lyle, 2011) but are most successful finding jobs in sheltered workshops and disability-focused enterprises rather than in mainstream organisations (Huang, Guo & Bricout, 2009). Mainstream employers that recruit broadly from the local labour market (Migliore, Grossi, Mank & Rogan, 2008) have objective and tangible concerns, e.g. financial concerns, that prevent them from hiring people with disabilities (Soloveiva, Wallsh, Hendricks & Dowler, 2010). They also have subjective and intangible concerns, e.g., workplace reactions of others to people with disabilities (Fornes, Rocco & Rosenberg, 2008; NDA, 2011) that prevent them hiring people with disabilities.

Specialist employment agencies face ongoing challenges to find jobs for their clients. We examine workforce and employer perspectives in response to calls for research considering multiple perspectives (Harcourt, Lam & Harcourt, 2005). We do this because general personal contact with people with disabilities varies greatly (Pruett, Lee, Chan, Wang & Lane, 2008) and contributes to individuals' attitudes towards individuals and their disability (Pruett & Chan, 2006). Workers evaluate their out-of-work interactions and experiences with people with disabilities to form attitudes about people with disabilities in other contexts (Forlin, Fogarty & Carroll, 1999) on the basis of knowledge of, comfort around and ability to relate to people with disability (Pruett et al., 2008). More frequent general contact can increase openness towards engaging with people with disability in the future (Siperstein, Romano, Mohler & Parker, 2006). Discomfort in social interactions discourages future contact and fosters avoidance behaviour (Pruett et al., 2008).

From a marketing perspective, frequency and quality of exposure to products and brands are important elements of their salience, i.e. the propensity for a purchaser to remember the brand or product when they are forced to choose one product or brand over another (Sharp, 2010). The pool of applicants employers consider may include people with disabilities but employer propensity to hire people with disabilities may be related to their salience of people with disabilities as viable employees. We conducted two related studies to improve knowledge about employer hiring decisions in relations to people with disability. Study One examines a workforce perspective of their interactions with people with disabilities to determine how these affect attitudes to working with people with disability because employers cite this as a reason not to hire people with disabilities. Study Two considers the extent to which employers consider workforce perspectives in their hiring decisions or whether other concerns drive their decisions to not hire people with disabilities.

Method

These studies are conducted in five outer-urban and rural regions of South Australia where one specialist disability employment service provider operates (Finding Workable Solutions Inc). Computer assisted telephone interviews lasted on average 25 minutes. This single case study (Woodside, 2010) adds depth to an under researched area of disability employment that remains a social concern (Luecking, 2008). Study One (Workforce) comprises 834 people currently or previously employed locally randomly chosen from an electronic public telephone directory by postcode.

Study Two (Employers) comprises 508 business owners, or employees responsible for hiring in their organization, selected randomly from local online business directories in these same regions.

Both studies operationalised the same questions using five point scales (1=very often/never; 5=strongly agree/strongly disagree). Negatively framed questions were reverse coded.

Multi-item variables included Feelings about interactions with PWDs (Forlin et al., 1999), Frequency if interactions (Pruett et al., 2008) and Reasons to hire (Siperstein et al., 2006). We averaged participant responses to construct aggregate items for these variables. Hiring problems (Siperstein et al., 2006) and hired/worked in the past (Siperstein et al., 2006) were single item measures (see Table 1 for survey items). Workforce variables were exported from Study One into Study Two by calculating aggregated items for Hiring problems, Feelings about interactions, Frequency of interactions, and Reasons to hire people with disabilities in each of the five regions in the sample.   We also imported Regional Percent of Workforce having worked with people with disability. We conducted logistic regression analysis to determine what influences the outcome variable having worked ever with (workforce) or hired (employer) people with disabilities.

Results

Table One reports descriptive statistics of all items in both Study One and Study Two. Study One examined Workforce data contrasting those participants that had and those that not worked with people with disability. Logistic regression results reported in Table 2 suggest that the model was fit to the data well with an nsignificant Hosmer–Lemeshow (H–L) test result (i.e., $p > .05$) (Peng, Lee & Ingersall, 2002: 9). Hiring problems (B=-.289, p<.00) and Frequency of interactions with people with disabilities (B=.59, p<.00) are important predictors of whether participants had worked with people with disability whereas Feelings about interactions (B=-.04, n.s.) and Reasons to hire people with disability (B=-.04, n.s.) are not.   Study Two examined Employer data including aggregated regional workforce participant variables. Employer likelihood of having hired people with disability hiring problems (B=-.29, p<.00), frequency of interactions with people with disability (B=.380, p<.05) and reasons to hire people with disability (B<.00) but not Feelings or Regional Workforce concerns regarding Hiring problems, Feelings, Frequency of interactions or Reasons to hire people with disabilities). Employers do not seem to factor workforce attitudes into their hiring decisions.

Discussion and Conclusion

This paper aimed to examine opportunities for mainstream jobs for people with disabilities. Existing literature suggests employers do not hire people with disabilities due to concerns for their existing workforce (e.g., Fornes et al., 2008; NDA, 2011). Our key finding is that workforce and employer participants are similarly affected by frequency of interactions and hiring problems and feelings about interactions with disability have little impact. Our academic contribution is empirical evidence suggesting that employers are concerned about reasons for hiring people with disabilities with hiring decision driven more by their own concerns rather than concerns of the workforce.

Our practical contribution is new insight into a trifecta with which specialist employment agencies will win more mainstream jobs for people with disability. We suggest marketing efforts increase out of work interactions between people with and people without disabilities (particularly employers) to increase salience of people with disabilities, an effective marketing strategy across many product and service categories (Sharp 2010). Further research should determine whether cognitive structures can then be extended and strengthened through normative or personal message based marketing campaigns.

Table 1 Descriptive statistics and regression analysis results for Study 1 and Study 2

	Mean (SD), % or Mean range	
Survey questions	Workforce (n=834)	Employer (n=508)
Interactions with PWDs leave me feeling (Aggregated)	3.79 (0.75)	3.75 (0.78)
Frustrated (reverse coded)	2.69 (1.14)	2.55 (1.09)
Ignorant (reverse coded)	2.27 (1.11)	2.30 (1.08)
Uncomfortable (reverse coded)	1.98 (0.92)	1.91 (0.82)
Frequency - How often have you (Aggregated)	2.76 (0.99)	2.79 (0.96)
Had discussions with people with disability	2.07 (1.32)	2.13 (1.34)
Had long talks with people with disability	3.16 (1.40)	3.18 (1.31)
Eaten a meal with people with disability	2.75 (1.44)	2.67 (1.36)
Visited home of people with disability	2.71 (1.46)	2.57 (1.36)
Donated money to a disability focused organisation	3.10 (1.23)	3.39 (1.14)
Reasons to hire people with disabilities (Aggregated)	3.25 (0.80)	3.10 (0.80)
People with disability lead productive lives	3.50 (1.02)	3.41 (1.09)
Customers can see employer hires people with disability	3.35 (1.08)	3.10 (1.12)
Employees learn about people with disability	3.31 (1.06)	3.12 (1.10)
Preferentially give their business to organisations that hire people with disability	2.94 (0.93)	2.79 (1.01)
Hiring problems with people with disability	2.64 (1.05)	3.44 (1.12)
Worked with/Hired people with disability – No (Yes)	47.2%	52.6%
Yes	52.8%	47.4%
Regional Workforce item means (min-max)		
Interactions with people with disabilities leave me feeling...	3.64-3.92	
Frequency – how often have you....	2.52 - 2.95	
Reasons to hire people with disabilities	3.17 - 3.45	
Hiring problems with people with disabilities	2.52 - 3.00	
% worked with people with disability	46.9 - 100.0	

Table 2 Logistic regression results from Study 1 and Study 2[2]

	Workforce (Worked with people with disability)					Employer (Hired people with disability)				
Predictor	β	SE β	Wald	df	p	β	SE β	Wald	df	p
Constant	-0.63	0.57	1.22	1	0.27	-4.62	22.21	0.04	1	0.84
Interactions left me feeling	-0.04	0.11	0.13	1	0.72	0.12	0.13	0.87	1	0.35
Frequency of interactions	0.59	0.09	47.60	1	0.00	0.38	0.10	13.11	1	0.00
Reasons to hire	0.04	0.10	0.13	1	0.72	0.36	0.12	8.38	1	0.00
Hiring problems	-0.29	0.08	14.31	1	0.00	-0.29	0.09	10.68	1	0.00
WF Interactions						-0.23	5.18	0.00	1	0.96
WF Frequency						0.38	2.72	0.02	1	0.89
WF Reasons						0.95	2.67	0.13	1	0.72
WF Hiring problems						-0.24	1.02	0.06	1	0.81
Model evaluation			χ^2	df	p			χ^2	df	p
Hosmer & Lemeshow			13.79	8	0.08			9.68	8	0.28

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Does religion matter? Exploring the impact of religiosity on charitable organizations in a developing country

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Introduction/Background

Philanthropy is an integral part of almost all religion (Queen, 1996). Helping others is recognized as a universal trait taught by all major religions of the world (Chau et al., 1990). The impact of these teachings is that religion plays an important role in giving and volunteering to charities and non-profit organisations (Eckel & Grossman, 2004; O'Neill, 1989). Despite many indications of the active commitment of religious congregation and individuals to voluntary action (Hodgkinson, Weitzman, & Kirsch, 1988; Cnaan et al., 1993), most of the previous studies are conducted mainly in the developed countries. There has been little research on the perception and attitude of individuals toward religious and non-religious institutions in the context of a developing country, where religion plays an important role in daily life. For example, percentages of people who claim not to have any religious affiliation are only 3.4% percent in Indonesia and 0.1% percent in India (CIA Word Factbook, 2013). Furthermore, the world's poorest nations have the highest proportion of religious people and 98% of them say that religion is important in daily live (Crabtree, 2010). Thus, the purpose of this study is to explore the impact of religiosity on reasons why individuals volunteer and on the pro-social attitudes toward helping others and charitable organizations in Indonesia. This study contributes to the debate regarding the effect of religiosity on pro-social attitudes in a developing country. Ranganathan and Henley (2008) suggest that the ability to measure attitudes toward charitable organisation is important for researchers, policy makers, and practitioners alike. The conceptual framework of this study is based on Behavioural Reasoning Theory (BRT) (Westaby, 2005). BRT explains functional motives or reasons for individual behaviours that serve as a linkage between values, beliefs, attitudes, intentions, and behaviour (Briggs, Peterson, & Gregory, 2010). Thus, an individual's religious value will subsequently influence his/her attitude toward charitable organisations

Method

Indonesia is the fourth most populous nation in the world with around 240 million people and the largest country in Southeast Asia (Population Reference Bureau, 2011). Indonesia is a country of cultural diversity and home to the largest Muslim population in the world with 86.1% of the population, followed by 8.7% Christian/Catholic, 1.8% Hindu, and 3.4% other or unspecified. Despite high percentages of Muslims, Indonesia is not an Islamic state. Indonesia legally recognizes five religions namely Islam, Christian, Catholic, Hinduism, and Buddhism. The data was derived from a convenience sampling at a large private university in Surabaya, Indonesia. Lecturers hand-delivered approximately 300 questionnaires to students in classrooms at the university. However, only 258 questionnaires were usable, thereby offering an overall response rate of 86%. In the sample, 27.5% are male and 72.5% are female. Most were single (95.7%). The majority was Muslim (66.3%), followed by Christians (17.8%), Catholics (9.7%), Buddhist (3.1%), Hindu (1.6%), and others (3.1%).

Measure of all latent variables was captured using previously validated scales. Religiosity was measured using Allport and Ross's (1967) scale that measures intrinsic and extrinsic social attitudes and extrinsic personal dimensions. The revised intrinsic/extrinsic religiousness scales adapted from Allport and Ross (1967) by Kirkpatrick (1988) measured religiousness. Measures of reason for volunteering (i.e. value expression and career reasons) were based on the Volunteer Functions Inventory from Clary et al. (1998). Examples of items from value expression (e.g., *I feel compassion toward people in need*) and career (e.g. *Volunteering allows me to explore different career options*) are important to understand Furthermore, five items were used to capture each of the reasons for volunteering.

Finally, measures of pro-social attitude, AHO (e.g. *People should be willing to help others who are less fortunate*) and ATCO (e.g. *Charitable organizations have been quite successful in* helping the needy) were based on the work of Webb, Green, and Brashear (2000) using a response scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Structural equation modelling using AMOS 21 analysed the data. The two-step procedure of Gerbing and Anderson (1988) was followed,

Results

Religiosity - Intrinsic religiosity of an individual is not negatively related to career benefits. The extrinsic personal religiosity of an individual is positively related to the importance that individuals assign to value expression. Individuals' extrinsic personal religiosity is not positively related to the importance individuals assign to career benefits. *Reason for volunteering and pro-social attitude*- the importance individuals assign to value expression was positively related to their attitude toward charitable organizations. The importance individuals assign to career benefits was not related negatively to their attitude toward charitable organizations. Individual attitudes toward helping others is related positively towards charitable organizations. Intrinsic Religiosity. Intrinsic religiosity of an individual is positively related to value expression ($\beta = .491$, $p < .001$). Intrinsic religiosity of an individual is not positively related to attitude toward helping others. Intrinsic religiosity of an individual is not negatively related to career benefits. *Extrinsic Religiosity* - The extrinsic personal religiosity of an individual is positively related to the importance that individuals assign to value expression ($\beta = .298$, $p < .05$). Furthermore the standardized value was negative but not significant. Individuals' extrinsic personal religiosity is not negatively related to attitudes toward helping others. The standardized value was positive but not significant. Individuals' extrinsic personal religiosity is not positively related to the importance individuals assign to career benefits. Moreover, Individuals' extrinsic social religiosity is negatively related to the importance individuals assign to value expression ($\beta = -.147$, $p < .05$). Individuals' extrinsic social religiosity was not significantly related to attitude toward helping others and the importance individuals assign to career benefits.

Discussion and conclusion

Our purpose in this study is to explore the impact of religiosity on reasons that individuals volunteer and on the pro-social attitudes toward helping others and charitable organizations. In the context of a developing country, this study revealed that religiosity affects the reasons that individuals volunteer. Individuals with high intrinsic religiosity tend to focus more on others. A surprise finding is that individuals with high extrinsic personal religiosity tend to have "other-oriented focus" as well. It shows that getting personal benefits from religion, such as peace, happiness, and comfort did not change ones perspective towards benefiting others. Nonetheless, individuals with high extrinsic social religiosity are less likely to focus on others. Consequently, studies on extrinsic religiosity should separate between extrinsic personal and social religiosity because individuals with high extrinsic personal religiosity may exhibit similar attitude with individuals that have high intrinsic religiosity.

Moreover, intrinsic and extrinsic religiosity did not influence attitudes toward helping others. Our findings support Wuthnow's conclusion that suggested "participation in religious organization, it appears, has a genuine, but limited, effect on charitable behaviour" and that "the kinds of activities that are encouraged seem to be ones closely connected with the church itself" (1991, p. 26).

It shows that the relationship between religiosity and helping others may not be strictly linear (Einolf, 2011) and participation in religious groups may create a relatively closed social network (Smith, 2003; Johnson et al., 2013).

Individuals with high intrinsic religiosity may not extend their compassion to member of out-groups (Batson et al., 1999). Similarly, Cnaan, Kasternakis, and Wineburg (1993) found no significant relationship between religious belief and volunteering unless the volunteer works took place within a religious congregation. It appears that religious people, in the context of developing countries, may act similarly to believers in the developed countries. They first focus on helping within their own congregation then eventually assist others when they are in surplus. This finding may have implications for religious leaders to encourage members to donate and volunteer beyond their own religious walls in order to make more contributions to their community. Religious leaders may not realize the consequences of their teachings where members of their congregations tend to focus on their own group.

Moreover, this study shows that value expression or "other-oriented" reasons contribute to higher levels of AHO and significantly influenced attitudes toward charitable organisations. In contrast, career benefits or "me-oriented" thoughts did not influence attitudes toward helping others. Therefore, government or not-for profits operating in the developing countries should tap into this reasoning, reminding volunteers that philanthropy activities are about helping others more unfortunate than themselves and not about career advancement or getting skills. Promoting volunteering work as a way to help people develops skills, expands networks, gain career-related experience may not be as effective as promoting volunteer as an altruism act that benefits others.

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University students' alcohol expectancies, self-esteem, and consequences

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Introduction

Alcohol abuse has been a matter of concern among university students in many countries including Germany (Martin et al., 2009; Ryan, 2006; Collins & Lapsley 2008; Lewis & Thombs 2005). It has several negative consequences which include violent assaults, accidents, vomiting, unprotected sex, unwanted sex, fatalities, drunk driving, injuries, and suicide (Ray, Turrisi, Abar, & Peters, 2009; Wilson, Pritchard, & Schaffer, 2004). The belief that people hold about the effects of drinking alcohol is called alcohol expectancies (Shell, Newman, & Xiaoyi, 2010; George et al., 1995). Positive alcohol expectancies include beliefs that drinking will result in increased level of assertiveness, increased sociability, enjoyable, and tension reduction; and negative expectancies include increased risk and aggression, and negative self-perception (Zamboanga & Ham, 2008; Bot, Engels, & Knibbe, 2005; Barnow et al., 2004). Expectancies of adolescents are associated with drinking and alcohol consumption levels when adolescents start drinking (Bot et al., 2005). The level of self-esteem, on the other hand, can go up and down based on the individual's perceptions of success or failure (Heatherton & Polivy, 1991). A person with high self-esteem has 'self-respect, considers himself a person of worth' and the person with low self-esteem 'means that the individual lacks respect for himself and considers himself unworthy' (Rosenberg, 1979, p. 54). Those individuals who have a low self-esteem and are experiencing some kind of stress or anxiety tend to use alcohol to relax and cope with anxiety (Glindemann, Geller, & Fortney, 1999). However, the studies based on self-reported drinking, alcohol expectancies, levels of self-esteem and consequences are 'limited or contradictory or otherwise inconclusive' (Glindermann et al., 1999, p. 61). Therefore, this study investigates the following research questions: *RQ1: What are the key dimensions of university students' alcohol expectancies? RQ2: Is there a relationship between university students' alcohol expectancies and their self-esteem? And, RQ3: Is there a relationship between university students' alcohol expectancies and consequences?*

Method

A survey approach was taken to collect data for this study from the students of Baden-Württemberg Cooperative State University Ravensburg, Germany. Altogether 275 students participated in the survey. The survey captured information on: 1) respondents' self-esteem, 2) consequences of alcohol consumption, 3) alcohol expectancies, and 4) the demographic data. Self-esteem questions consisted of 12 items (Glindemann et al., 1999) and alcohol expectancies consisted of 40 items (George et al., 1994). Descriptive statistics, reliability analysis and regression analysis were used for analysing the data.

Results

93% of the respondents were in the age group of 18-24 years, 28% of them were male and the remaining 72% were female. 63% of the respondents had their first alcoholic drink when they were 14-15 years of age and 23% of them had alcohol by the time they were 13 years old. 57% of them were living with their parents or spouse. 75% of them indicated that there was no alcohol policy in their place of residence and 97% of them reported that they lived in a place where alcohol was not prohibited. In terms of consequences of drinking alcohol, having unprotected sex was ranked number one followed by black-outs, missed classes and vomiting. ***Response to RQ1:*** *What are the key dimensions of university students' alcohol expectancies?* Cronbach alpha calculated for the eight alcohol expectancy dimensions ranged from 0.699 to 0.804 indicating high internal reliability.

Descriptive analysis of these dimensions suggest that the 'Cognitive and physical impairment' has the highest ranking followed by 'Social and physical pleasure', 'Social expressiveness', 'Careless unconcern', 'Tension reduction and relaxation', Sexual enhancement', 'Power and aggression', and 'Global positive'.

Responses to RQ2 and RQ3: *Is there a relationship between university students' alcohol expectancies and their self-esteem? Is there a relationship between university students' alcohol expectancies and consequences?* A linear regression analysis was carried out using eight dimensions of alcohol expectancies as independent variables and self-esteem as dependent variable. This resulted in the coefficient of determination value (R^2) of 0.191 which suggests that 19.1% of variability in university students' self-esteem is explained by the variability in the dimensions of alcohol expectancy. It is also found that the alcohol expectancy dimensions such as 'Social and physical pleasure' and 'Sexual enhancement' have a significant positive association (at $p<0.001$ and $p<0.05$ respectively) with individual's self-esteem and the dimensions like 'Global positive' and 'Social expressiveness' have a significant negative association ($p<0.05$ and $p<0.001$ respectively) with self-esteem. A similar analysis between eight dimensions of alcohol expectancies and 'Consequences' resulted in the R^2 value of 0.116 which also showed a significant positive association ($p<0.01$) between 'Power and aggression' and 'Consequences'.

Discussion and conclusion

The study found 'Cognitive and physical impairment' as the key dimension of alcohol expectancies followed by 'Social and physical pleasure'. Consistent with past studies, the students who expected social and physical pleasure are likely to engage in heavy drinking and an individual's belief on the effect of alcohol drinking plays an important role in shaping their drinking behaviour (Zamboanga, 2005). Study also found significant associations between some of the alcohol expectancy dimensions and self-esteem and also with consequences. For example, having a belief that drinking alcohol makes one's future look brighter or some kind of magical feeling or make one feel good when they are frustrated or a bit down 'the items related to Global Positive' can have a significant negative association on one's self-esteem. These findings are consistent with the contentions that the people with low self-esteem tend to drink more than the ones with high self-esteem (Glindemann et al., 1999). A significant positive association between 'Power and aggression' and 'Consequences' also suggests that there can be a negative outcome if the people drink in the hope that drinking alcohol is going to make them powerful and will be in a position to tell someone what they otherwise would not and get involved in arguments and so forth (George et al., 1995; Ray et al., 2009). These findings have significant implications for social marketers in developing a suitable strategic intervention program such as alcohol education program or social norms marketing intervention (Mattern & Neighbors, 2004) or communication messages or other awareness and information campaigns (Vicary & Karshin 2002) focused on behavioural change to correct the misperceptions/expectancies of drinking. Such initiatives could be of value to maintain individuals' high self-esteem and possibly avoid potential negative consequences. In terms of limitations, it may not be possible to generalise the findings of this study as the information for this study was collected from only one university in Germany. The respondents were also not asked as to whether they had any knowledge of possible consequences of drinking and whether any social marketing campaigns were launched to reduce the effect of alcohol and whether those campaigns had any influence in their levels of drinking. Future studies could focus on comparative studies in the OECD countries.

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Self-perception of wellbeing: Implications for social marketing strategies to tackle young adult binge drinking

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Background

Risky alcohol use is a growing public health concern in Australia. It is the second largest contributor to drug related harm after tobacco. It has both short and long term implications for health, including unintentional injury and violence as immediate harms and in the long term it can result in serious health issues such as liver disease or cancer (ABS, 2008; Chikritzhs, Jonas, Stockwell, Heale, & Dietze, 2001). Young adults aged 18-25 years are more likely than others to drink frequently and at greater quantities (ABS, 2008). Alcohol related harm is one of the major causes of death in this population with four Australians aged under 25 dying due to alcohol related injuries each week (National Drug Research Institute, 2008). Alcohol misuse is one of the priority action areas in Australia, however, despite government efforts to tackle the issue it continues to grow as is evident in the increase in alcohol-related hospitalisations nationally (Ministerial Council on Drug Strategy, 2011).

In recent years social marketing strategies have been used to address Australia's drinking culture. Formative research shows that young people tend to highlight the positives of drinking which they see as enabling having a good time or relieving stress, while they struggle to identify with the risks involved in its excessive use. The *'Don't turn a night out into a nightmare'* social marketing campaign was introduced to encourage youth to think about the choices they make about alcohol with a strong emphasis on the negative consequences of excessive drinking, such as violence, injury and humiliation.

While informing youth about the risks related to excessive alcohol use is very important, such a focus on risk ignores the meaning young people themselves place on alcohol. It also does not offer nor promote healthy alternatives that could replace binge drinking, which according to young people themselves is an activity important to increase their sense of wellness. We argue that it is not only necessary to educate young people about the consequences of their drinking, but it is also important to consider complementary strategies or messages which could motivate young people to avoid engaging in such behaviours.

One way to do this is to look at the issue through the lens of wellbeing. There is a growing body of literature that identifies self-perception of wellbeing as one of the factors that influence lifestyle behaviour choices. In particular, some recent research shows that young people with higher levels of wellbeing are less likely to engage in risky behaviours (e.g. drink driving), suggesting that perceived wellbeing is a protective factor (Ravert et al., 2013; Ritchie et al., 2013; Schwartz et al., 2011). However, this link has only recently attracted research attention and has not been fully exploited in the promotion of health of young adults. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to discuss the role of self-perception of wellbeing in shaping lifestyle behaviours among youth and how a better understanding of wellness could influence future social marketing campaigns.

Conceptual Model

Wellbeing is a multidimensional concept that incorporates eudaimonic and hedonic aspects of human wellness. Eudaimonic wellbeing refers to positive human functioning, such as psychological wellness and hedonic wellbeing refers to affective or emotional wellness like happiness, satisfaction with life and balance between positive and negative emotions (Keyes, Shmotkin, & Ryff, 2002). Research on youth perspectives on health and wellbeing shows that they place emphasis on happiness, pleasure, feeling good about oneself and having a social life (Bourke & Geldens, 2007; Easthope & White, 2006).

Although a healthy lifestyle is acknowledged as important to physical health, young people usually do not place emphasis on it when discussing wellbeing perhaps this is because most youth feel physically healthy.

According to youth research, young people are increasingly managing their wellbeing, but in doing so may paradoxically engage in behaviours that are harmful (Wyn, 2009). Binge drinking is a good example of such a behaviour. Research shows that some young people binge drink with their friends to increase their sense of belonging (Järvinen & Gundelach, 2007) - an important aspect of social wellness. This finding suggests the potential role of sense of wellbeing in moderating the relationship between affiliation and binge drinking intentions. Studies in the United States of America found that higher levels of perceived wellbeing were associated with lower levels of risk taking, such as impaired driving, illicit drug use and risky sexual activity (Ritchie et al., 2013; Schwartz et al., 2011). A longitudinal study found that positive wellbeing, including happiness and enjoyment in life, hopefulness about the future during adolescence predicted fewer risky behaviours, including binge drinking, during young adulthood (Hoyt, Chase-Lansdale, McDade, & Adam, 2012). Some explain that the reasons young people with lower levels of wellbeing engage in risky behaviours are peer-pressure, self-medication, boredom or self-harm, and those with higher wellbeing may perceive themselves as having more to lose or be in a better place to resist peer pressure. The relationship between low levels of wellbeing and intensity sensation seeking, which is linked to risky behaviours has also been documented (Ravert et al., 2013). It can be explained that those with lower levels of wellbeing may seek stimulation through engagement in behaviours considered to be risky and pleasurable.

Implications for Theory

Therefore, because wellbeing can serve as a protective factor or a strength within young people themselves, this could be considered in conjunction with or as an alternative to risk when designing social marketing campaigns to tackle binge drinking. If engagement in risky behaviours is paradoxically driven by the motivation to increase wellbeing this needs to be addressed. Informing about risk as a strategy to influence individual behaviour on its own is unlikely to be very successful as young people place importance on pleasure and fun when discussing wellbeing, and 'risky' activities such as binge drinking are often portrayed as enhancing sense of wellness.

It is also important to note that preventive messages about the negative aspects of drinking are conveyed in the media environment saturated with the positives of drinking via alcohol advertising. Alcohol advertisements emphasise aspects that are important to young people's wellbeing, such as having fun with friends. Risk focused campaigns to some extent suggest the removal of behaviours which yield pleasure without offering positive alternatives that young people can relate to.

Implications for Practice

The concept discussed in this paper could be used in broadening social marketing campaigns and programs to address the issue of excessive drinking among young adults. Social marketing campaigns could be improved by shifting the focus to positive messages or strengths within young people themselves, which can prevent their engagement in risky behaviours. One of the social marketing principles in promoting voluntary behaviour change is to offer the benefits people want.

Therefore, in addition to informing young people about the risks of binge drinking, promoting positive healthy alternatives by representing them as fun and enjoyable could potentially increase the effectiveness of social marketing campaigns aimed at bringing about behaviour change in young adults.

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Understanding carers' intentions for their child to walk to school: Further application of the theory of reasoned action[1]

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Introduction

One quarter of Australian children are overweight or obese (ABS, 2010), putting them at increased risk of physical and psychological health problems (Reilly *et al.*, 2003). Overweight and obesity in childhood tends to persist into adulthood and is associated with premature death and morbidity (Reilly & Kelly, 2011). Increases in Australian children's weight have coincided with declines in active transportation, such as walking, to school (Salmon *et al.*, 2005). Investigating the factors which influence walking to school is therefore important, particularly since walking to school is a low cost and effective means of reducing excess weight (Rosenberg *et al.*, 2006) that can be easily integrated into daily routine (Brophy *et al.*, 2011). While research in this area has expanded (e.g., Brophy *et al.*, 2011; Giles-Corti *et al.*, 2010), it is largely atheoretical (exceptions Napier *et al.*, 2011). This is an important gap from a social marketing perspective given the use of theory lies at the foundation of the framework (NSMC, 2006) and a continued lack of theory use is observed (Luca & Suggs, 2013). The aim of this paper is to empirically examine a widely adopted theory, the deconstructed Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) (Fishbein & Azjen, 1975), to understand the relative importance of attitude and subjective norms in determining intentions to increase walk to school behaviour.

Hypotheses

The TRA successfully predicts behaviour across a number of contexts (Sheppard *et al.*, 1988) and can be used in social marketing interventions to prevent childhood obesity (Waters *et al.*, 2010). The TRA assumes behaviours such as modes of transport to school are volitional and are under the control of individuals who are influenced by significant others. The TRA is a cognitive model which involves a linear progression from attitudes to action via behavioural intentions (Fishbein & Azjen, 1975). Attitude comprises both cognitive (i.e., belief-based) and affective (i.e., emotion-based) components (Verplanken *et al.*, 1998), both of which explain behavioural intentions (e.g., Lawton *et al.*, 2009). The literature (e.g. Cialdini *et al.*, 1990) also supports accounting for descriptive norms (whether significant others are perceived to perform the behaviour) in addition to the injunctive norms (whether important others approve of the behaviour (e.g., Rivis & Sheeran, 2003). Following the structure of the TRA, it is hypothesised:

H_1: Cognitive and affective attitude will have a positive effect on intention to increase walk to school behaviour.

H_2: Descriptive and injunctive norms will have a positive effect on intention to increase walk to school behaviour.

Method

An online survey was used to collect data from 512 Victorian carers (e.g., parents), who are responsible for getting their child to school, given parental control over children's transportation to school (Carver *et al.*, 2010). The link to the online survey was disseminated through multiple channels, including VicHealth's *Walk to School* website, Facebook and Twitter. The survey comprised previously validated scales (Appendix 1) and was pre-tested via an informal expert review with seven social marketing researchers. After data cleaning, including listwise deletion of cases with missing values and the removal of six multivariate outliers, a final sample size of 432 was achieved. Given the data was missing completely at random (Little's MCAR test >.05) listwise deletion of missing data was used since it does not introduce any bias into the parameter estimates (Allison, 2003). The sample comprised mostly employed (61.8%) mothers (86.3%) aged between 35 to 44 years old (55.4%).

Fifty percent of the sample reported their child walked to/from school at least once a week, with approximately 20% walking to or from school five days a week. Structural equations modelling (SEM) was conducted to analyse the data using the two-stage approach by Anderson and Gerbing (1991). ML Bootstrap estimation, with 500 samples and 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals, was applied given multivariate non-normality of the data in accordance with the recommendation of Byrne (2001).

Results

Path estimates ($\Lambda < .70$, $p > .05$), standardised residuals (+/- 1.96) and squared multiple correlations ($R^2 < .50$) were used to identify areas of measurement model strain and three items were removed from the initial model (Appendix 1). The revised measurement model demonstrated good fit to the data: χ^2 (80, n = 432) = 153.596, Bollen-Stine $p < .05$; χ^2/df = 1.920; CFI = .991; TLI = .988; RMSEA = .046; and SRMR = .0363. The measures in this revised model exhibited internal consistency reliability ($\acute{\alpha} > .70$), as well as convergent (CR > .70 and AVEs >.50) and discriminant validity (R^2 between constructs < AVEs) (Appendix 2). With regards to the structural model, while the χ^2 was significant [χ^2 (80, n = 432) = 153.596, Bollen-Stine $p < .05$], it fits the data closely [χ^2/df = 1.920; CFI = .991; TLI = .988; RMSEA = .046; and SRMR = .0363]. The R^2 for Intention is .167. The standardised regression weights are provided in Table 1.

Table 1. Standardised Regression Weights of the Structural Model

Predictors	γ	SE	Bias-Corrected 90% CI
Cognitive Attitude	-.158*	.073	[-.272, -.042], $p = .031$
Emotional Attitude	.133*	.071	[.015, .248], $p = .049$
Descriptive Norms	.027	.053	[-.058, .117], $p = .596$
Injunctive Norms	.395*	.051	[.311, .4721], $p = .004$

* $p < .05$, two-tailed.

Discussion and Conclusion

In this setting, injunctive norms were the most powerful predictor of carers' intentions to increase the number of times their child walks to/from school. While meta-analyses suggest that subjective norms often exert limited influence on intentions (White *et al.*, 2009) and that descriptive norms are more powerful predictors than injunctive norms (Rivis & Sheeran, 2003), the relative impact of attitude and subjective norms is known to vary across contexts (Fishbein and Azjen, 1975). Both cognitive and affective attitude influenced walk to school intentions, consistent with the health literature (Lawton *et al.*, 2009). Interestingly, however, cognitive attitude exhibited a negative association with intentions. This result suggests that the more positive carers' beliefs are about walking to school, the less likely they are to intend to increase the number of times their child walks to school. This presents an opportunity for further research to investigate this counterintuitive association.

The current study suggests the need to leverage injunctive norms, the strongest predictor of walking intentions in this study to stimulate volitional behaviour. In targeting parents, social marketers need to draw attention to the fact that important others, such as friends and family, approve of children walking to school. It could also be beneficial to emphasise the positive emotions, such as enjoyment, that can be derived from walking to school.

More generally, this paper contributes to the social marketing theory and practice by highlighting the need for caution in employing theoretical frameworks in the development of social marketing interventions without first establishing or empirically examining their applicability, and the manner in which they operate, within the behavioural domain of interest.

It should be noted, however, that this research did not assess the beliefs underpinning attitude and subjective norms, nor did it examine the influence of perceived behavioural control on walking intentions. Future research is recommended employing alternate methods to improve our understanding of walking behaviours and to extend the downstream focus of this paper.

Appendices

Appendix 1. Survey Items and their Sources

Construct	Items
Intention (adapted from Rundle-Thiele *et al.*, 2012)	1. I intend to increase the number of times the child walks to/from school during the next week. 2. I will increase the number of times the child walks to/from school during the next week. 3. I plan to increase the number of times the child walks to/from school during the next week. *[-3 to 3 anchored at Extremely unlikely and Extremely likely]*
Injunctive Norms (adapted from Perugini & Conner, 2000)	1. People who are important to me think the child should/should not walk to/from school. *[-3 to 3 anchored at Should not and Should]* 2. People who are important to me would disapprove/approve of the child walking to/from school. *[-3 to 3 anchored at Disapprove and Approve]* 3. People who are important to me want the child to walk to/from school. *[-3 to 3 anchored at Strongly disagree and Strongly agree]*
Descriptive Norms (adapted from Rhodes & Courneya, 2003)	Please choose the most appropriate response for each statement: *[-3 to 3 anchored at Strongly disagree and Strongly agree]* ☐ Many of my friends' children walk to/from school ☐ Many of my family members' children walk to/from school* ☐ Many of the children in the neighbourhood walk to/from school ☐ Many children at the child's school walk to/from school
Cognitive Attitude (adapted from Norman & Conner, 2006; Scott *et al.*, 2007)	Walking to/from school is *[-3 to 3 anchored at]*: Unhealthy | Healthy* Unimportant | Important* Harmful | Beneficial Bad | Good Worthless | Valuable
Affective Attitude (adapted from Norman & Conner, 2006)	Walking to/from school is *[-3 to 3 anchored at]*: Boring | Exciting Unpleasant | Pleasant Unenjoyable | Enjoyable

Note. *Not included in revised measurement model.

Appendix 2. Assessment of Reliability and Validity of the Revised Measurement Model

Latent Factors	α	CR	AVE	DesNorm	Att_{Cog}	Att_{Emo}	InjNorm
DesNorm	.787	0.791	0.558				
Att_{Cog}	.968	0.969	0.912	0.008			
Att_{Emo}	.939	0.942	0.844	0.005	0.613		
InjNorm	.883	0.887	0.725	0.116	0.059	0.051	
Intent	.995	0.996	0.987	0.024	0.002	0.010	0.157

Note. α = Cronbach's Alpha coefficient; CR = composite reliability coefficient; AVE = average variance extracted.
DesNorm = Descriptive Norms; InjNorm = Injunctive Norms; Att_{Emo} = Emotional Attitude; Att_{Cog} = Cognitive Attitude; Intent = Intention.

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The effectiveness of social marketing in tobacco cessation programs in three targeted streams: A systematic review

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Overview

In 2013 consensus was emerging on a definition of social marketing. Despite recent consensus, past literature is somewhat unclear about whether a particular intervention is (or is not) qualified as a social marketing intervention (Stead, Gordon, Angus, & McDermott, 2007). Andreasen (2002) defines six benchmark criteria that distinguish a social marketing intervention from other behaviour change approaches: consumer research, specific behaviour change goal, segmentation and targeting, marketing mix, exchange, and competition.

According to Hoek and Jones (2011) promoting behaviour change in social marketing can be achieved through targeting three main streams: upstream, midstream and downstream. Downstream approaches seek to provide offerings that are considered by the individual who is being targeted to offer greater value than continuation of the risky behaviour (Donovan & Henley, 2010). The midstream measures behaviour change on a collective level such as measuring the influence of communities and religious organizations, families, friends and clubs (Lee & Kotler, 2008). Finally, upstream social marketing focuses on creating change via policy or regulations to make environments more conducive to the desired behaviour. Evidence suggests that over time, social marketing interventions across the three steams of social marketing have assisted to decrease tobacco consumption (Stead et al., 2007).

Previous literature reviews have studied different campaigns and intervention programs aiming to reduce tobacco consumption from different contexts such as public health and particular target groups, e.g. school students or disadvantaged groups. A comprehensive literature review was conducted by Stead et al. (2007) who extended their search and review into a wider intervention programs to include alcohol, tobacco and drugs. The current study extends earlier review work providing an update on social marketing intervention effectiveness extending our understanding beyond 2007. In contrast to Stead et al. (2007), the current study focuses on one substance, namely tobacco and requires the study to self-identify as social marketing following the approach taken in Carins and Rundle-Thiele (2013). Extending on earlier studies this review classifies the included articles based on the intervention streams they used, which has not been undertaken previously.

Methodology

An online search of bibliographic databases involving 16 databases was conducted in January, 2014. The search was restricted to empirical papers evaluating a social marketing intervention published in English language in peer reviewed journals from 2000 onward. Studies needed to self-identify as social marketing in order to be included in this review. Search results were transferred into Endnotes and articles that did not meet the inclusion criteria were excluded. Accepted papers were classified according to the intervention stream and further all interventions were tested against Andreasen (2002) six social marketing benchmark criteria. A total of 811 articles were initially obtained from the search. Duplicates were first removed and articles which did not meet the inclusion criteria were then excluded to reveal a total of 22 papers. Forwards and backwards search was next undertaken revealing four additional articles. A total of 26 papers were categorised by their social marketing stream approach revealing 10 studies that targeted upstream.

Results

Four studies (Hassan, Shiu, Thrasher, Fong, & Hastings, 2008; Kees, Burton, Andrews, & Kozup, 2006; Moodie, MacKintosh, & Hammond, 2010; Veer & Rank, 2012) measured the effectiveness of display warnings and graphic depictions of body organs finding that such warnings had a significant effect on smoking behaviour. Furthermore, four studies suggested that preventing the tobacco industry from performing any marketing activities would have a significant effect on smoking behaviour, awareness and attitudes (Donovan, Jalleh, & Carter, 2006; Farrelly et al., 2002; Moodie, MacKintosh, Brown, & Hastings, 2008; Thrasher, Niederdeppe, Jackson, & Farrelly, 2006). Two studies (Brown & Moodie, 2009; Thrasher & Jackson, 2006) examined the impact of targeting anti-tobacco industry messages demonstrating reduced intentions to smoke and smoking involvement as study outcomes. Three midstream studies sought to examine the social influences surrounding an individual. Specifically, Gordon, Biglan and Smolkowski (2008) tested the influence of family, Martino-McAllister and Wessel (2005) examined the impact of peer support and Perusco et al. (2010) tested cultural and linguistically diverse communities. A total of 13 down-stream interventions influenced smoking behaviour targeting different audiences (De Gruchy & Coppel, 2008; Evans et al., 2007; Grigg, Waa, & Bradbrook, 2008; Kennedy et al., 2013; Lee, Mowery, Depue, Luxenberg, & Schillo, 2013; Lowry, Hardy, Jordan, & Wayman, 2004; MacAskill et al., 2008; Manyiwa & Brennan, 2012; McCausland et al., 2009; Murukutla et al., 2012; Schmidt, Kiss, & Lokanc-Diluzio, 2009; Sherman, Estrada, Lanto, Farmer, & Aldana, 2007; Vallone, Duke, Cullen, McCausland, & Allen, 2011). Interventions were effective in influencing behaviour, awareness, attitude and intentions to quit.

Examination against Andreason's (2002) benchmarking criteria

The results show that all studies (n=26) reported behaviour, awareness or intention change in regards to tobacco. A total of 16 studies conducted formative research and five studies reported evidence of segmentation. The use of exchange was very weak with only seven studies offering tangible exchanges such as nicotine supplements, and non-tangible exchange (benefits) such as non-smoking healthy life styles, community support, financial savings and increased energy to spend time with family. All studies produced interventions that utilized at least one marketing mix component and six studies reported competition elements such as fun/excitement obtained from tobacco, social acceptance, anxieties, weight gain, stress, embarrassment to call a Quit-line and cigarette brands. Studies varied in the degree to which they met Andreasen's benchmark criteria. On average, social marketing interventions seeking to influence smoking behaviour used 3.4 of Andreasen's (2002) social marketing benchmark criteria. These results are lower than levels reported in the Carins and Rundle-Thiele (2013) review where an average of 4.1 criteria were reported.

Conclusion, limitations and future research

The results of this study revealed that not all studies have a behaviour change goal. Studies reported goals such as preventing or mitigating smoking intake, increased awareness against tobacco, increase intention to quit or actions such as calling the quit-line for help. Andreasen's (2002) social marketing benchmark criteria, which sought to distinguish social marketing from other behaviour change approaches such as public health, were used in this study to understand the extent that benchmark criteria are applied. This review identified there is considerable room for improvement.

Given that increase use of the 6 social marketing benchmark criteria is associated with a higher likelihood of achieving change (Carins and Rundle-Thiele, 2013) social marketers should seek to apply more of the 6 benchmark criteria identified by Andreasen (2002). The current study only considered studies self-identifying as social marketing. Some excluded studies may be social marketing, which may be considered a limitation of the current study. Ignoring the papers published before 2000 might reflect another drawback of the current study. Future research is recommended to compare the effectiveness of social marketing and public health tobacco cessation programs. Additionally, it is suggested to target midstream to extend our understanding of this social marketing approach.

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Identifying the roles of those involved in addressing corruption via social media: The listening recipient

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Introduction

Social media is essentially a form of "black box recorder" that captures human behavior via an individual's online activities. It has provided rich and valuable insights on many communities through virtual ethnographic studies (Kozinets, 2010). Although social media is often perceived as a communications tool, and invariably associated with research in the consumer and marketing contexts (Kozinets, 1998), it perhaps also holds the key to unlocking a piece of the "corruption puzzle". Corruption is commonly understood as an abuse of power for personal gain (Brooks, 1909). No country is immune to this elite predatory behavior, regardless of whether it is rich or poor (Dong & Torgler, 2012; Mungiu-Pippidi 2013). Still, there is no universal agreement to actions are considered "corrupt"; as corrupt behavior perpetually mutates on a case by case, person by person, and country by country basis (Mashali, 2012; Rose-Ackerman, 2008; Walton, 2012). For instance, the practice of gift-giving can be seen as normal in China, but the *same* practice may be regarded as a bribe elsewhere (Fan, 2002). This particularly explains why efforts to prevent, control or measure corruption remain difficult for individuals, businesses and policymakers to implement. Besides the predators and victims of corruption, there are also other "extras" in every corrupt "act", a cohort that has not yet been given the spotlight of scholarly attention, especially within research investigating corruption. Social media enables this distinct group of people to be easily identified, observed and analyzed for the first time. Those involved in social media and who become entangled or intrigued by corruption behaviours we have termed *Listening Recipients*. These people have the potential to play a significant part in countering corruption, as they can influence, ignite and propel social change when they compound in numbers (Mungiu-Pippidi, 2013). This has been evident in recent times as we have seen huge responses protesting corrupt actions from the Arab Spring uprisings (Lim, 2012), to riots in Turkey sparked by the Gezi park protests (Catterall, 2013).

This paper examines a currently active online campaign called Stalker Zero, which is led by Ikumi Yoshimatsu (the first Japanese person to be crowned with the title Miss International), and backed by Akie Abe (the wife of current Japanese Prime Minister Shinzo Abe). This case illustrates how social media can be employed to resist the power of corruption exercised by *keiretsu* (conglomerates) of Japanese *jimusho* (talent agencies). According to Marx (2010, 2012), top *jimusho* groups (which are often private and small to avoid public attention) have substantial control over the access to place talent on TV shows, in commercials, magazines, and in other high-profile work in Japan. Hence, when a particular artist is being "blacklisted" by a powerful *jimusho*, it is not atypical for him/her to face retaliation from the entertainment industry as a result of this opaque *keiretsu* system. This behaviour can be considered "corrupt" because those in power are using their position for personal gain, and often to the detriment of others. Burning Productions is one "giant" *jimusho* sitting atop of such *keiretsu* structure that is also allegedly linked to organized-crime activities (Adelstein, 2011, 2014; Marx, 2010). After Ikumi refused to be engaged with talent agencies Pearl Dash and K-Dash, both affiliates of the powerful Burning Productions *keiretsu*, the companies' president and executive Genichi Taniguchi began a relentless campaign of stalking her (Adelstein, 2014). Despite a different story promulgated by Taniguchi's lawyer, Ikumi has experienced attempted abduction, verbal threats and was tailed by privately hired investigators (Yoshimatsu, 2013). Ikumi's career has also suffered, as many of her sponsors were driven away and work contracts were cancelled as a result of Taniguchi's intimidation (FCCJ, 2013; Yoshimatsu, 2013).

Having received little protection from the police and Japan's outdated stalking laws; Ikumi turned to social media and began blogging about her ordeal. Piercing through the silence of Japanese mainstream media, an outpour of support for Ikumi flooded on social media platforms in Japan, and then globally. Their collective voice ultimately reached the Prime Minister's wife via Facebook.

Mrs. Abe and Ikumi subsequently launched a campaign on Change.org, calling for tougher punishment against stalkers in Japan. In just 25 days, their online petition had collected more than 114,000 signatures. Beyond the sheer development of Information Communication Technology (ICT), it is fundamentally the drivers behind social media that make it a powerful vehicle in the first place (Yang, 2009, 2012; Yang & Calhoun, 2008). However, besides *whistle-blowers* (Brown, 2009; Latimer & Brown, 2008), studies of other *listening recipient* roles, such as those who joined Ikumi's fight, remain unidentified, underexplored and not understood. Thus, this paper aims to take the first step in filling this gap by demystifying various *listening recipient* roles.

Listening Recipient Roles in Social Media

The interpretation of the *listening recipient* roles are empirically developed and drawn from two disciplines. From the business school of thought, Kotler, Bowen and Makens' (1999) buyer roles that are used to explain behaviours around a purchasing decision-making processes (namely *initiator*, *influencer*, *decider*, *buyer* and *user*) are borrowed to illustrate decisions made by *listening recipients*. Similar to being consumers, their array of options are heavily influenced by their perceived power, which can be explained by Denegri-Knott, Zwick and Schroeder's (2006) consumer choices from an advertising perspective. The nature of advertising is typically persuasive; given that organizations traditionally had maximum control over the way information flows. However, consumers can *control* or *resist* intended messages with the ability to create or co-create information (Denegri-Knott *et al.*, 2006); thus they are empowered to use negative or positive publicity, or to buy or boycott (Kerr, Mortimer, Dickinson & Waller, 2009). In contrast, consumers who are incapable of becoming creators or co-creators of information are likely to *accept* or *adapt* (Denegri-Knott *et al.*, 2006). No traces of Ikumi's incident were reported in either English or Japanese anywhere on the Japan Broadcasting Corporation (NHK) websites, as well as major newspaper outlets including the Yomiuri, Mainichi and Asahi, as of 3 February, 2014. Their inactions were led by the fear of not being able to secure access to talent in the future, which would be the outcome if they were to upset top *jimushos* like the Burning Productions (Adelstein, 2014). Therefore, the lack of Japanese media reporting in Ikumi's case can be seen as an *acceptance* to the dictatorship by powerful *jimushos* and an *adaptation* to Japan's "culture of silence" (Change.org, 2014), not only become *Passive Observers*, they also chose to look away.

However, these theories alone are inadequate to explain how a particular *listening recipient* may choose to adopt a particular role. The psychology theory of empathy is useful to help shed light on their different roles. In psychotherapy, the therapist can either adopt an observer role to watch and analyze the experience of the victim (whom they refer to as "client"), or they can put themselves in the victim's shoes and empathize from a therapist perspective (Greenberg, Watson, Elliot & Bohart, 2001). In synthesizing and applying these theories to the corruption context, *listening recipients* too, can choose to participate passively or proactively. In Ikumi's case, it would appear that Mrs. Abe has taken a therapist-type and pro-victim role, and became a *Fighter*.

However, not everyone wishes to fight "for" the victims, as seen in the *Defender* role adopted by Taniguchi's lawyer, who has taken on a more pro-predator role, defending his client's innocence. In a similar vein, the private investigators hired by Taniguchi too, became submissive *Followers* to the man-behind-the-curtain.

Implications

Social media is equivalent to a "black box recorder" worn by *listening recipients* when witnessing corrupt behavior. Understanding the different roles of *listening recipients*, will help inform us as to why people step forward or back to resist corruption. This will also help us to understand how social media can be used as a voice for victims in their fights against corruption.

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Click, like, and share: Raising awareness of child abuse in Vietnam through social network sites

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Introduction

Vietnam is a country on the Indochina Peninsula in Southeast Asia. The population of Vietnam is approximately 90.3 million as of 2012, ranking 15th in the world (CIA, 2013). Rapid economic development and urbanisation have come with larger discrepancy between the rich and the poor, and heavier flow of people migrating from rural regions to urban areas to look for employment opportunities (Hossain, 2006). This leads to a rise in marital problems, crime frequencies and the loss of traditional values which has, in turn, resulted in higher number of abandoned, neglected, abused and exploited children (Hove, Ngwerume, & Muchemwa, 2013).

Child abuse in Vietnam

Children are often the most vulnerable parts of a society with vast changes. The United Nations Children's Fund or UNICEF (2014) reported that in 2010 more than 1,805 children were abused. A research indicates that violence against Vietnamese children tripled from 2005 to 2007 (Irin, 2013). Violence against children caused by teachers increased more than 10 times (Irin, 2013). Recently a dramatic rise in the number of cases where children in kindergartens were brutally ill-treated, and suffered severely physical and mental damage has been exposed (Vietnamnet, 2013). A study by Nguyen, Dunne, and Le (2009) reported that among children from 12 -18 years old, 41.6% of boys and 54% of girls were with lifetime prevalence of physical abuse. A 2010 study by UNICEF and the Ministry of Invalids and Social Affairs also found that approximately 15% of all female sex workers were under 18 years of age (UNICEF, 2014). This situation urges a need to raise public awareness and evoke calls for action to avoid the reappearance of such incidents.

Attitudes to Child Abuse

Culture was claimed to have an influence on levels of awareness towards child abuse (Ahn & Gilbert, 1992). For example, whereas parents need to learn to respect their children's rights and privacy in United States (Ahn & Gilbert, 1992), in the Malaysian context, discipline is usually taught to children in the forms of physical punishment, embarrassing or scolding (Tajima, 2000). This is also related to Indian practices which believe that children must be instructed to follow orders (Iravani, 2011). Sharing similar values and beliefs with other Asian cultures, Vietnamese grown-ups usually think that treating children with violence is something normal (Zhai, & Gao 2009). A survey conducted by Vietnam's Commission for Population, Family and Children in 2006 reported that 58.3% of children were shamed, hit or slapped as a way of ensuring discipline or punishing their mistakes (GMFC, 2010). It is often overlooked even when an adult physically smacked a child (UNICEF 2014). The legal and social attention is only drawn when a child is seriously hurt and the adult is usually accused of social disorder, not child abuse. There is no widely accepted definition of "child abuse" in Vietnam (Map, 2011). The country also lacks social workers and specific laws against child maltreatment (ECPAT, 2010).

Social network sites (SNSs) and their role in raising awareness

Being more advantageous than the traditional media, SNSs have the power of engaging the public, quickly reaching the audience, and creating group influence (Thaichon, Quach & Lobo, 2013). Vietnam has 17 million social network users and this number is still growing significantly (Insights, 2014). In this specific paper, SNSs are considered as serving both primary level intervention (i.e. building public perception and attend to the social factors contributing to child maltreatment), and secondary level intervention (i.e. identifying child abuse issues) (ACG, 2009; Tomison & Poole, 2000). An AIDA model (i.e. Attention, Interest, Desire, and Action) is adapted to the form of CLS model (i.e. Click, Like and Share) in the context of social network sites as an attempt to engage public with the idea of child abuse prevention (Figure 1).

It is important to determine the objectives of the communication strategies which can be classified depending on the model of the communication or process that is regarded as appropriate. Depending on the objective of the marketers, SNSs can be used to generate some knowledge on child maltreatment or evoke public awareness towards a specific case of child abuse so that essential action can be performed. The first step described by the AIDA model, is to draw the attention of the readers. On social networking sites, these messages appear as new feeds. The audiences only click on the link to see a full story and comments when they feel attracted. Secondly, in the AIDA model, the interest for the promoted message has to be provoked, and afterwards it is important to inspire the formation of a desire in the reader. In SNSs this is represented by liking which is considered as an emotional variable implying the audience's sympathy and agreement (Zhong, Hardin, & Sun, 2011). The ultimate goal of AIDA is to inspire the readers to take action. Sharing is the desired action in making the words to go viral with a view to creating public perception on maltreating children.
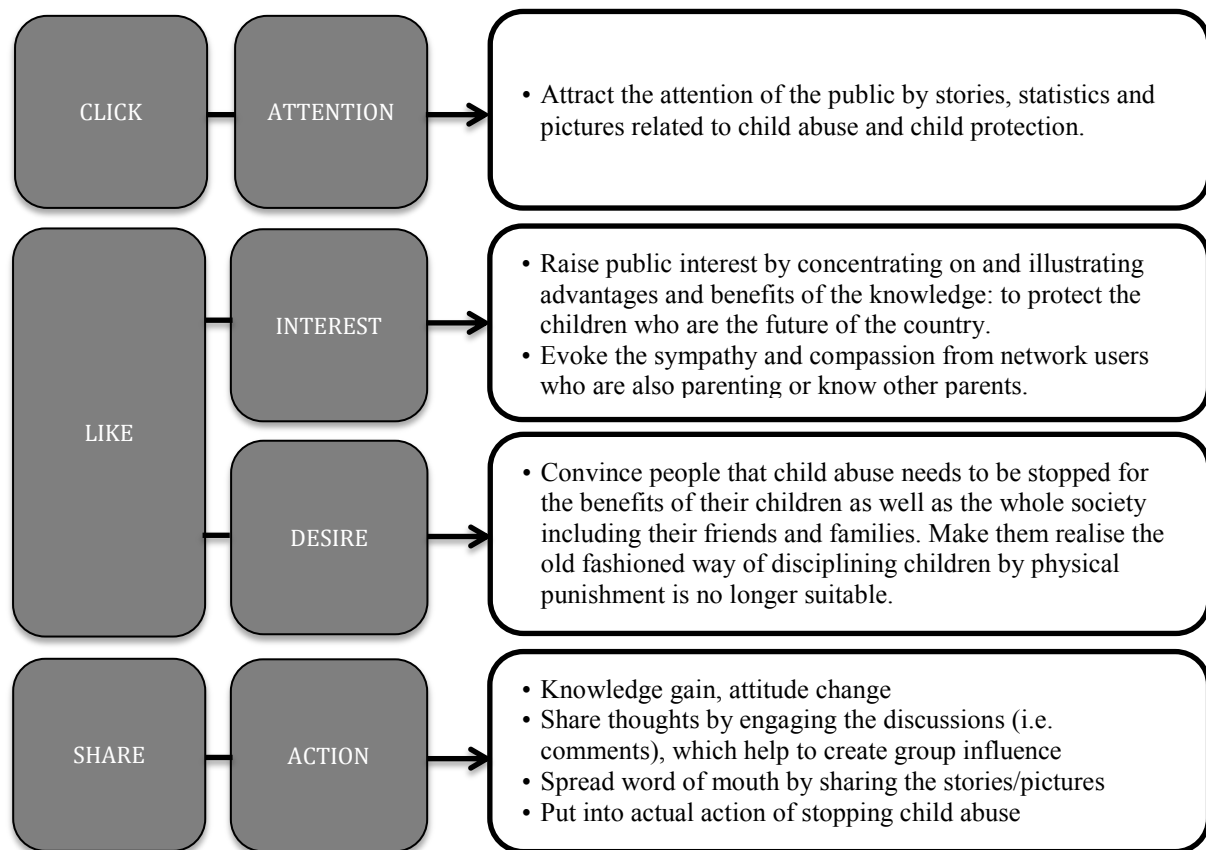
Figure 1: Click, Like and Share model

Conclusion

Although child abuse has become a serious problem, Vietnam has traditionally overlooked this matter, which requires more action taken in order to deal with this issue. Social networks are effective tools to create public awareness towards child maltreatment. CLS model as an adapted version of AIDA in SNSs, targets more on motivating online word-of-mouth which has become a significant complement to social and consumption behaviour (Brown, Broderick, & Lee, 2007). CLS-AIDA model is important in designing communication strategies as it enables social marketers to identify whether the objective is to draw to attention, cultivate interest, stimulate desire or provoke action. The use of SNSs can result in greater awareness, more knowledge and changed attitudes of the target audience.

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What is the best bang for your buck when marketing quit smoking messages?

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Project Overview

Evidence pertaining to the ability of more affordable media to reach and influence key target groups is needed to maximise the cost-effectiveness of future tobacco control campaigns. The aim of this project was to assess the relative cost-effectiveness of non-television media, in encouraging 25-39 year old male smokers in Perth Western Australia, to respond to a call to action relating to smoking cessation. Of interest was whether one medium was more effective than others, and whether a combination of media provided synergistic effects over and above the use of individual media.

The 'Everyone has a reason' testimonial campaign was developed purposely for this project, consisting of two testimonial advertisements featuring members of the target group. Material was adapted to run across radio, online and press media in Western Australia, as well as a website specific to the campaign. A media strategy was designed to run from 9 July to 26 August 2012, utilising both an integrated mix of the media and each media individually. In the first week the advertisements were run in all three media. In subsequent weeks, one medium at a time was used (randomly allocated), with a week break in between each.

Background and Policy Context

Smoking is a leading cause of preventable death and disease in Australia, contributing to more drug-related hospitalisations and deaths than alcohol and illicit drugs combined (Australian Institute of Heath and Welfare [AIHW], 2008; Collins & Lapsley, 2008). Since the 1970s, a sustained program of public education in Australia, including mass media campaigns, has seen a reduction in the number of regular smokers from 36% in 1977 to 16% in 2010 (AIHW, 2011; Germain, Durkin, Scollo & Wakefield, 2012; Scollo & Winstanley, 2012). Despite this, tobacco use remains high among specific population subgroups. For example, 27% of males aged 25-29 years and 24% of males aged 30-39 years are regular smokers (AIHW, 2011; Germain, Durkin, Scollo & Wakefield, 2012; Scollo & Winstanley, 2012).

As a consideration for the planning of future tobacco control campaigns, online advertising is forecast to experience enormous growth over the next few years, encroaching on social marketing budgets typically allocated for traditional media such a TV, radio and press. To date, few published studies have examined the cost-effectiveness of online advertising compared to traditional non-TV mass media options. Some evidence also suggests that online advertisements may be more effective than traditional media in encouraging smokers to participate in cessation programs, especially in the case of young male adults. (Graham, Milner, Saul & Pfaff, 2008). This is consistent with analyses of Internet use behaviours that have found that males in particular value the ability to quickly navigate to information of interest. (Richard, Chebatb, Yang & Putrevud, 2010).

Social Marketing Benchmark Criteria (French & Blair-Stevens 2006).

Behavioural Goals
All 'Everyone has a reason' advertisements promoted two calls to action: (1) visit a website to register with QuitCoach, and (2) call the Quitline to register for the call-back counselling service.

Continuous monitoring of activity on the website and telephone calls to the Quitline was conducted during the week prior to the campaign period and the following seven weeks that comprised alternating weeks of media activity and no activity. The timing of the different campaigns allowed them to be evaluated based on hits to the website, calls to Quitline, and registrations to QuitCoach and the call-back counselling service. The total costs were aggregated and cost effectiveness scores (World Health Organization, 2003) were calculated. The lower the score, the more cost-effective the medium.

Customer Orientation, Insight, Exchange and Competition
Current smoking statistics (AIHW, 2011; Germain, Durkin, Scollo & Wakefield, 2012; Scollo & Winstanley, 2012) were used to identify groups with the highest rates of smoking in Western Australia. This data, along with past tobacco control campaign evaluations, identified males aged 25-39 years as the target group for this project, showing that they may require intervention that addresses the disparity in usage rates compared to other subgroups.

Testimonial advertisements have been shown to have strong impact in tobacco control mass media campaigns, and both testimonial advertisements used for this project featured members of the target group, speaking on relevant motivations for quitting. This personalised approached aimed to make the motivation to quit relevant to the target group, allowing them to personally identify with the featured testimonials. This offers the target group the opportunity to further understand that the desired behaviour of quitting is achievable and in fact has benefits including saving money, improved health and family life.

Theory
The Health Belief Model guided the development of this testimonial campaign (Hochbaum, 1958). Working on the model's theory that a person's beliefs influence their behaviour, a smoker's motivation to quit is based on their perceived susceptibility and the serious consequences of smoking, as well as the benefits of quitting and their own self-efficacy in being able to quit. By having former smokers sharing their own reasons for quitting, this allows the target audience to see themselves in this action and develop confidence in being able to quit smoking themselves.

Segmentation and Marketing Mix
Throughout the project, the "Everyone has a reason" testimonial campaign operated within the wider context of the Make Smoking History Campaign. Established in 2000, Make Smoking History aims to reduce the prevalence of smoking among adults 18 years and older in Western Australia, while also contributing to broader tobacco control efforts, including advocacy and policy.

By further refining the target group to the more at-risk males 25-39, this project allowed communication to be targeted most appropriately for this group, based on the available media consumption data (Roy Morgan, 2013). The project was designed beyond a simple awareness message to generate specific behaviour in response to a call to action. Offering two unique calls to action and including a campaign website, enabled the target group to seek further information and assistance in the way most appropriate for them.

A total of 2589 West Australians visited the website, of which 176 registered with QuitCoach. A total of 686 called the Quitline and 29 registered for the call-back counselling service. The cost effectiveness (WHO, 2003) scores were 3.58 for online, 11.4 for integrative, 15.95 for press and 17.68 for radio. *Table 1* reports the website visits, Quitline calls, QuitCoach registrations, call-back service registrations, total responses, weighted totals, and cost-effectiveness scores for each phase of the campaign, including the initial baseline week.

Table 1: Cost Effectiveness by Media

Camp-aign Phase	Media and product-ion costs*	Total visits to website	Quit Coach Regist-rations	Quit Line calls	Call-back Regist-rations	Total Visits / calls / Regist-rations	Weight-ed Total**	Cost Effectiv-eness Score
	$AUS	n	n	n	n	n	n	
Baseline		187	14	70	0	271	2,989	
Integr-ated*	131,296	827	42	100	11	891	11,489	11.43
Radio	*43,132*							
Online	*37,240*							
Press	*50,924***							
Break-		79	13	77	1	170	2261	
Radio	57,458	75	11	81	13	180	3249	17.68
Break		59	15	79	1	154	2329	
Online	47557	1,217	41	113	2	1,373	13,271	3.58
Break		68	16	78	0	96	2,388	
Press	54,751	83	24	88	1	202	3,433	15.95
Total	291,062	2,595	120	516	29	3,337	41,409	

*50% of production costs for the online, press and radio were distributed to the interactive component to generate a relative cost for using only this strategy in the campaign.
**Composite measure of website visits, calls to Quitline, and registrations to QuitCoach and Quitline. ***The greater amount spent on press media in the integrated phase relative to the other two media reflects the high minimum cost associated with purchasing advertising space in the newspapers that would provide adequate geographical coverage.

Lessons Learned

Online advertising is more cost-effective in generating cessation responses relative to other non-TV media, including an integrated approach. This research provides evidence to warrant more investment in and evaluation of online advertising when marketing smoking cessation messages. The present study assessed the relative cost-effectiveness of various non-television media in producing a response to smoking cessation advertisements to provide information to assist those seeking to optimise media allocation with limited advertising budgets. Future research could consider a television phase to provide further insight into the relative cost-effectiveness of online media relative to traditional media.

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Emotional triggers to asthma: Designing a marketing strategy for the Asthma Foundation of Victoria

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Introduction

Understanding how to design marketing materials that resonate with audiences is complex. A growing body of graphic design literature, both scholarly and industry-focused, questions how graphic designers determine the form of marketing materials, challenging the appropriateness of the intuitive, designer-driven message (Forlizzi and Lebbon, 2002; Frascara, 2004 and Nini, 2005). As a thought leader in graphic design, Frascara urges graphic designers to become aware of and then consider the needs and preferences of end-users (Frascara, 2002). Writers indicate that further research into end-user engagement in graphic design is required, but the idea of end-users participating in the design process has not gained traction (Drucker and McVarish, 2009; Forlizzi and Lebbon, 2002). The few documented cases suggest there is potential for end-user collaboration to enhance the design of marketing materials, but there is a significant lack of published knowledge on the nature and implementation of end-user participation in the design of marketing materials. This paper discusses how co-designing with end-users can be used to facilitate the delivery of appropriate social marketing campaigns.

Method

This paper reports on the case study of Asthma Foundation of Victoria marketing strategy design in which Foundation staff and designers worked together to audit the Foundation's asthma information and create a future communication marketing strategy. Co-design was used as a method. The participants comprised of twelve staff of the Asthma Foundation and four Masters graphic design students, all with industry experience. A persona and scenario co-design activity was trialed. The techniques of note taking and photography were used to record the workshop proceedings. The data sources used were; existing marketing materials such as brochures, posters and reports, photographs of the workshops and site visits, notetaker's notes. The principles of case study method were used to analysis the results. The analysis combined all the data sources. The relationships between issues were analyzed to understand how co-design influenced the design of marketing material.

Results

The results in this case study show that by using co-design methods designers are challenged right to the end to stay focused on relevant marketing ideas for the project at hand as underlying project assumptions are challenged At first, the co-design activity sought to develop appropriate personas for the Foundation with the assumption to categorise the information by age and gender. At the beginning of the persona activity, the group was asked to brainstorm all the Foundation's end-users and ways to segment asthma information. The following categories were identified: carers for people with asthma; schools; health professionals; children services; the community; sporting industry; zoos (or other places that have a large community participation); and children with and without asthma. There was also a discussion about the importance of asthma triggers to information categorisation, for example, pollen, exercise or smoking. The information raised during the brainstorming activity was predictable, typical of ideas gained in pilot research or focus group research.

The designers developed a persona activity. The participants recorded in a cut and paste 'dear designer' diary activity ideas in relation to several personas. This was to serve as a future letter to designers to remember persona details. The idea was to discuss personas while working on a craft activity to loosen the flow of ideas through a third person persona discussion.

This third person persona strategy proved valuable as the idea of categorising asthma information around emotional triggers was discovered through an analysis of this activity. This activity showed that the emotional state of people with asthma was more important than their age or gender when deciding how to categorise asthma sufferers.

The participants repeatedly spoke about the helpless child, the embarrassed teenager, the panicky student, the distressed mother and the frightened senior. One Foundation staff described the helpless child persona as 'Dhillon, aged 3 who plays in his sandbox far from the house – a farm is good, but can be dangerous for this little tyke who has asthma. 'How I wish little Dhillon would carry a bum bag with his reliever and action plan'. The teenager persona was described as 'David', aged 16, who is too embarrassed to carry a puffer. David has not told his friends he has asthma. He has an asthma attack at a skate park. His friends think he is joking around. He does not have his reliever medication on him. Wouldn't it be great if all teenagers were educated about Asthma First Aid. Wouldn't it be great if puffers were so small, but still effective so that teenagers would not be embarrassed to carry them … so that it becomes more of a cool device rather than medical device'. One Foundation staff was concerned about an elderly man persona he called 'Fred'. The staff spoke of the fear in Fred's mind and recorded him as, 'Fred Age: 83. Short of breath, used to smoke, does not understand what is happening to him, scared of not being able to get his breath, lives alone and wakes at night coughing. How do I find out what's wrong with me?' The identification of the emotional response of fear to asthma, especially in elderly people gave the designers an insight into an appropriate direction for marketing materials in the future.

Discussion and conclusion

Theories of co-design suggest that success in design depends on the quality of information gained from people about their needs and preferences. Hanington claims design requires innovative design tools and methods that allow end-users to contribute their knowledge and creative ideas directly to the design process in ways that are integral to design (Hanington, 2003). Jordan argues the key to success in design is an in-depth and holistic understanding of people—their needs, their hopes, their fears, their aspirations and their dreams (Jordan, 2007). For Jordan in today's Dream Economy, marketing success is not only about meeting people's practical needs, but also their aspirations and need for a positive emotional experience. Evidence is mounting about the importance of emotional states in accessing and understanding designed marketing materials in areas such as health communication. One study demonstrates that there are psychological factors beyond the control of the designer that determine how the public perceives the usefulness of public health marketing campaigns (Lee, Hwang, Hawkins and Pingree, 2009). They argue that previous research has focused on the effect of health campaigns on an individual's attitude and behaviour where campaigns target people as passive receivers of information and health messages.

The key lesson learned was that co-designing personas created an environment for fresh ideas to surface. The segmentation of asthma sufferers, according to feelings of anxiety, distress, embarrassment, fear or shock was a new approach for the Asthma Foundation of Victoria, which previously used divisions, according to age, gender and asthma triggers as a basis for the development of information brochures. In particular, the state of the embarrassed teenager, the frightened elderly man and the distressed mother became evident, which had not been identified using conventional marketing processes. This outcome is noteworthy as it challenges the designer's role as intuitive problem solver, highlighting the value of co-design to make visible appropriate marketing strategies rather than working in a vacuum, guessing end-user preferences and client needs.

The implication from this case for social marketers is that a useful strategy to get to the heart of an issue is to combine designers and end-users on persona development before designing marketing campaigns.

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Drinking cultures in urban Vietnam and what it means for social marketing

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Introduction and Background

This paper presents the early results of a study into social drinking behaviours in Vietnam with a view to gain an understanding how consumption norms are established and transferred within the cultural setting. Vietnam has an established culture of drinking for celebration, social networking and business relationship enhancement (Parker, 2010, Luu, Nguyen & Nguyen 2012). Consumption levels of alcoholic beverages such as beer and wine have been documented by organisations such as the local Health Strategy and Policy Institute (HSPI) and the World Health Organization (WHO). However, consumption of homemade alcohol beverages such as rice wine, snake wine and home-brewed beer, which are popular among the working class in Vietnam, has remained largely undocumented (HSPI 2006). This is principally because it is often difficult to record and analyse something that is produced and consumed outside formal governance processes. Data on alcohol consumption in Vietnam can be problematic. For example, the Vietnamese government official statistics indicate that alcohol consumption contributes to around seven per cent of road crashes (HSPI 2006). Luu, Nguyen and Nguyen (2012) questioned the reliability of these figures given that these data are collected by the police, who do not always have the proper equipment to confirm whether alcohol was involved in a crash. The most recent data from Forensic Medicine (2001, cited in World Health Organization 2009) listed alcohol as contributory to 34 per cent of road deaths.

Alcohol as a public health concern has increased in Vietnam in recent years. Advertising has been banned for products in the 'wine' category that have an alcohol concentration that exceeds 30 per cent under the advertising law revision in 2012. Beer advertising is, however, permitted by law and as many wines are under the 30 per cent threshold, there is still widespread advertising of alcohol products. Vietnam also has drink-driving laws (World Health Organization, 2009), which allow a maximum blood alcohol concentration level of 0.05g/dl for drivers (including motorbike riders). There has also been an increasing number of public communication campaigns against drink-driving, initiated by the public and the private sectors, such as the RS10 campaign (carried out by WHO, funded by the Bloomberg Family Foundation), "Responsible Drinking" program (by the Vietnam Brewery Association), and numerous government billboard campaigns. Government officials were banned from drinking prior to and during working hours in 2013 as a way to set an example for the general public, and government office canteens are not allowed to sell alcohol (Thai Thinh 2013).

Alcohol consumption patterns in Vietnam still remain relatively under-researched (Parker, 2010). Research elsewhere shows that drinking is a socialised behaviour that falls within the social norms of a cultural group (Rundle-Thiele 2009a, 2009b, Brennan, Previte & Scott 2014). Thus, understanding the dynamics of group drinking behaviour will potentially inform social marketing initiatives targeting to promote responsible drinking and consequently reduce the rate of alcohol-related problems. The research question is: What are alcohol consumption behaviours of urban Vietnamese drinkers?

Approach

Data were collected by means of structured and unstructured observation of participants in a naturalistic setting. The subjects of this study were adults consuming alcohol in public space, whose drinking behaviours were observed and analysed for identification of possible patterns of behaviour. Public drinking venues were purposively selected and categorised according to venue type: 1) Informal drinking venues (*quán nhậu*) – conventional bars where drinking, and some eating, takes place, which are casual in nature 2) Bars/pubs, 3) Drinking restaurants (*nhà hàng nhậu*), (4) Night clubs and (5) Live music cafes.

Artefacts included both descriptive notes and reflective notes by the researchers. At the end of each session, an introspective debrief with the non-observing team member was held. As with any other social consumption activities, alcohol consumption fluctuates throughout a fiscal year and correlates with public holidays and celebration of special social events (Single & Wortley 1994, Davey, Obst & Sheehan 2001, Mohr et al 2001). The study is ongoing and will be conducted at multiple time and days in similar identified venues in order to grasp a better picture of the alcohol consumption landscape. Identified critical milestones for observation include: leading up to and during public holidays and lunar new year (Tết) holidays, and other weekends. This paper presents preliminary results from the first round of observations. The covert observation observables list was partly inspired by the observation record sheet developed by Rundle-Thiele (2009a) and localised for Vietnamese conditions. Observation worksheets were piloted and refined after the first round of observations so that data could be recorded efficiently and to ensure that data could be recorded without drawing attention to the observers. Various means of recording observations were trialled including paper and pen, electronic tablets, mobile phones (keyed in data entry and audio recording of observations) and use of small cards to take notes. Multiple means of recording observations will be used for the remainder of the study. For instance, mobile phones may be used in venues where patrons generally stand up and the lighting is low, and paper/card notes may be used in drinking restaurants where patrons are seated.

Preliminary Results and Implications for Practice

Two pilot visits were paid to two different drinking restaurants in the most urbanised districts of Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam's largest city, in week preceding the 2014 lunar new year holiday. Some preliminary data gathered from these visits, although cannot be used to make any generalisable or conclusive claims, provided interesting insights into group drinking behaviours and dynamics. These insights will later be built upon as the study goes on to investigate drinking norms in other venue types and covers a greater range of locations.

A total number of 13 drinking groups were observed by a team of three researchers as part of the initial pilot of the research instrument and process. Each visit lasted exactly one hour, and drinking groups were chosen on the basis of relative proximity to the observers' in the venue. Factors such as group composition, relative stage of each drinking session and drinking style varied for that reason. Collective ordering and payment was common, with one person taking responsibility for the group; 'invitation' and 'acceptance of invitations', as opposed to group ordering or sharing of the bill, were the norm. 'Rounds' and 'shouting' were less common. Drinking alone, or putting one's drink to one's mouth without the rest of the group, was uncommon for groups comprised of only men. However drinking at one's own pace, in some cases individually in one's group, was more common in those groups with a mix of genders. Drinks were generally ordered when it when group consensus was reached, but it was not uncommon for female wait staff, usually sponsored by beer brands, to refill drinkers' glasses without explicit consent. The investigators were not aware of any instances of over-drinking, however the venues visited could be classed as drinking restaurants with tables largely comprised of mixed gender groups, which appear to be less prone to excessive drinking. It is expected that we will encounter excessive drinkers in venues largely frequented by males only, given that drinking in Vietnam is very much a masculine pursuit.

This pilot is the first step in a more comprehensive study of drinking culture within Vietnam. The results, so far have been used to revise the observation instruments and refine data collection processes. The study will continue over the coming months and be expanded to Ha Noi, the capital and second largest city, throughout 2014. Once completed, the study will provide a comprehensive insight into actual drinking behaviour in urban Vietnam.

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Social marketing in diversity: Developing a behavioural ecological toolkit

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Introduction and Background

Using a series of case studies, this paper illustrates that most social marketing interventions in Southeast Asia have employed a downstream approach towards changing individual behaviour. The paper contends that it is timely for social marketing in the region to incorporate upstream initiatives to address social marketing problems that are embedded within a larger social context. Using Hovell, Wahlgren and Gehrman (2002)'s Behavioural Ecological Model (BEM) as a framework, the paper suggests that most social marketing programs in Southeast Asia have been targeted mostly at the two middle layers of the pyramid - the local (schools/neighbourhoods/worksites) and community (governance and policy/legal infrastructure/media) levels. There is space for upstream social marketing targeting the socio-cultural level, creating sustainable change in social mores, culture, traditions, social artefacts such as signs and symbols, which can be passed on from generation to generation. Aiming for change on a societal level in this region requires a deep understanding of multiple factors, the least of which are the mentality and deeply-rooted norms in each of these countries geographically bound together. This paper provides an overview of social marketing practice in the region, namely Cambodia, Indonesia, The Philippines, and Vietnam, to provide a relatively representative picture of social marketing in Southeast Asia. These four countries were selected because of their diversity. For example, in terms of religion, Cambodia's official religion is Buddhism; Islam is the dominant religion in Indonesia, in the Philippines Christianity is dominant and the vast majority of Vietnamese identify as non-religious (CIA 2014). In terms of politics, the diversity is further illustrated with Cambodia being a multi-party democracy under a constitutional monarchy, to Vietnam being a single-party communist state. Given this diversity, copying social marketing strategy from one country to the next is not necessarily feasible. This paper aims to provide an overview of tools and techniques in social marketing that can be applied at the various levels.

Approach

Social marketing cases that represented each of BEM's levels were reviewed for each of the countries. 17 case examples were obtained from non-governmental organisations, international non-governmental organisations, nonprofit organisations, government organisations and others participating in social marketing and social change strategies in the region. These were reviewed by the investigative team for how they fitted with the extant theories in social marketing and social change. The cases were assessed against their relative level of operation (socio-cultural/community/local/individual), issue prominence, nature of organising institution and behaviour change objective. While the BEM was a useful framework for post hoc categorisation of the cases, cases were not included or excluded based on their fit with the model; fit with the model was an outcome of the research process, not an input. The investigators independently assessed the merits of each case and the tools and techniques used. The final categorisation was discussed with the whole team and others with knowledge. The list of tools generated from the case material is indicative, not exhaustive.

Results

Socio-cultural level campaigns were characterised by the need for social and cultural change in order to bring about some positive social outcome. In some cases the outcomes were enhanced population health, for example, for wider societal level social, economic or environmental wellbeing. These strategies were necessary when the type of issue or potential solutions required a national or regional effort in order to approach a resolution. Community level strategies were those where the issue or the solution resided at the community level and where there was a requirement for multiple stakeholders to be engaged in the resolution process. In these cases, the stakeholders were those that controlled public policy frameworks such as legislators and government as well as community level organisations that had an impact on the issue. The media become critical partners in this social change process. Local level strategies were those where the issue and the solution were tackled at a more local level. That is one where the partnerships and stakeholders were more intimately connected to the interpersonal relationships with the affected individual(s). These are relationships such as schools, workplaces and neighbourhoods. At this level, understanding how people engage and interact in these local communities was critical to the success of social marketing strategy. Individual level strategies were those where individuals were both responsible for and able to act in relation to the problem at an individual level. Individual behaviour change is often necessary for social marketing. However, unless the individual is motivated and able to act and has the opportunity to do so (Binney, Hall and Oppenheim, 2006), then social marketing is unlikely to be successful. These campaigns tended to focus on creating the motivation to act and creating the infrastructure around opportunity, but ability usually needed to be dealt with at the other levels.

Implications for theory and practice at each level

Social/Cultural level: Understanding the ecological system of the behaviour starts at this level (Cherrier and Gurrieri, 2014). Statistical data, critical for gaining insight into social and cultural practices, in this region was often found to be unreliable, incomplete or out-of-date: development of well, veracity checking and verification by an independent source; combined with a list of 'known-unknowns' so that when research is conducted it can be done in a cost effective and collaborative manner is required. Newer technologies such as Geographic Information Systems (GIS) should be used, a much more technical and evidence-based system can be developed enabling community and local partnerships the knowledge base they need to work together on addressing social issues.

Community level: The ability for people to work collaboratively on creating positive social change requires a deep understanding of the social-behavioural ecology in which the social marketing issues arise. There is also a need to research the potential for public and private partnerships: how to find and establish them, how to manage them, and how to disseminate knowledge within the ecological system for the benefit of all (Madill, O'Reilly and Nadeau, 2014). There is a need to understand governance systems and legal infrastructure for social marketing in the region: how to get things done in each country; primarily to allow outsiders an ability to navigate the system if need be, or to assist insiders on achieving their goals. In order to understand the 'competition' there needs to be a publicly and centrally available list of programs and projects underway.

Local level: Greater exploration of what are the best methods of addressing social marketing issues within local and community systems is required. The role of community and social support systems in social marketing in this region, particularly in how to best to use community participation in fostering sustainable social change is also needed in order to develop appropriate 'Marketing mix' strategies to address audiences at this level (not individuals but groups and organisations).

Individual level: Understanding how people make decisions, not only for themselves but also within their social system is important, especially in Confucian heritage and collectivist traditions. Theories of social change developed in the West cannot be 'cut-and-paste' into this region. Communication and media infrastructure and how messages can be feasibly transmitted differ greatly from the west and vary also between those in the region. Social marketers must be responsive to these differences and adapt accordingly. The level of concern about specific social marketing issues - the premise being that if there is no concern, awareness building may be required before behaviour change can happen.

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How social is social marketing: An invitation to reflexive theory?

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Introduction/Background

The increasing status of organizations such as ISMA, ESMA and the AASM, the establishment of research departments, of specialized journals and the publication of textbooks such as those from Donovan & Henley (2010), French et al (2009) and Hastings & Domegan (2014) all point to Social Marketing (SM) becoming more established; ready to "fly solo" (Peattie & Peattie, 2003); growing up (Andreasen, 2003).

In Lindenberger and Bryant's (2014) retrospective of SM on the 20th Anniversary of the *Social Marketing Quarterly* they noted a shift in the approach adopted by practitioners from an educational model to a consumer or marketing model in which "consumer behavior is the bottom line" (Andreason cited in Hastings, MacFadyen, & Anderson, 2000).

This conceptual paper questions whether this shift is entirely positive; since, in over-emphasizing individual consumer behavior we may run the risk of losing touch with the dynamic social context of the issues we try to tackle. Lindenberger and Bryant's view the shift towards marketing as moderated somewhat by an increased emphasis on 'upstream' social marketing (USM) but "…relatively few social marketers have shared case examples or frameworks to guide us in using marketing to intervene 'upstream.'" (Lindenberger & Bryant, 2014, p. 10).

Truong's (2014) timely analysis of 15 years of SM research goes some way to quantifying the lack of USM emphasis. Out of 521 articles analyzed, 14.5% dealt with USM whilst just 9.3% addressed both individual behavior change (downstream) and USM.

Rather than examine only papers 'labeled' as SM, Truong's sample also includes those which echo one or more of benchmark criteria proposed by Andreason (2002) and subsequently refined by the UK's National Social Marketing Centre (2014). However the contention here is that this perpetuates an emphasis on the (individual) consumer focus in social marketing

An even wider sample from SM literature, augmented by research from such fields as development economics and the study of social movements inter alia, is in order since solutions to social issues are not the preserve of SM.

Hastings et al (2000) do, in fact, present examples of USM. But they offer only an ad hoc framework for understanding how the social and consumer domains interact naming as factors, the "immediate environment" and "society as a whole".

Conceptual Model/Proposal

Various accounts of SM, therefore, 'take into account' the social dimensions of behavior but in fact treat them instead as pre-conditions rather than immanent or dynamic (Meyer & Jepperson, 2000). To echo Granovetter (1985); such accounts appear to be 'undersocialized'; regarding the objects of an SM intervention as individuals making more or less rational, self-interested choices. Conversely they may be 'oversocialized' when socio-cultural influences can be accounted for 'once and for all', such as a target audience being classified as, for example, 'from an area of multiple deprivation'.

Truong (2014) for example, notes that the three most popular models in SM research are; social cognitive theory, theory of reasoned action/planned behavior and the health belief model. All, to varying degrees, account for the social dimension of any SM issue by locating it in one box of an otherwise individualistic behavioral model.

Though Truong regards USM as concerned with addressing behavior change in organizations (2014, p. 18), how individuals and their behavior within such organizations are distinguished from the organization per se is a moot point.

An alternative conceptual model emphasizes social process rather than structure, invokes a broader 'metatheory' of purposive social change, utilizing concepts from Bourdieu (Bourdieu, 1980, 1983, 1984; Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992; 2003) and accounting for the interplay between individual agency and institutionalized structure or culture. Crucially, this places the social marketer in a more fully realized societal system along with the issues and people she purports to address.

Implications for theory

There are signs that SM, as a discipline, has begun to consider this approach for example Glenane-Antoniadis et al (2003) have attempted to articulate the potential of incorporating social capital into SM whilst Spotswood (2011), more thoroughly, has applied Bourdieu's concept of habitus in a class-based study of leisure activity. From outside of SM, social marketers can learn from some attempts to analyze SM interventions from this perspective (Holden & Wilde, 2004) and especially from Crossley's (2002, 2003) more fully realized application of Bourdieu's theory to social movements and the 'radical habitus'
It is beyond the scope of this paper to offer a full account of Bourdieu's approach however, in this conception of SM, social marketers are, themselves, reflexive social actors in social fields who manipulate forms of capital (expertise in SM being one form of cultural capital along with, say, expertise in community development).

Implications for practice

Where such an approach may have practical impact is in approaching so-called 'wicked' problems. By consensus these intractable, complex problems are best approached through collaboration (Briggs, 2007) but, at the same time, provoke conflict (Roberts, 2000).

As a practical first step to reflexivity in practice, it is proposed that an explicit process of 'scoring' any 'wicked' SM issue is added to the convention of scoping specified by the NSMC's toolkit (2013) by operationalizing the 3 stage scale from Roberts (2000).

By way of example, Roberts' typology suggests that 'type 3' issues engender most conflict. Disagreement over the nature of the problem and competing solutions (of which a conventional SM solution would be but one) could be 'mapped' against other social indicators to highlight the extent to which strategic self-interest or embedded cultural values were implicated. Each of these would imply different approaches; a self-interest argument may be susceptible to conventional SM exchange, whilst more embedded values might require a community-owned solution.

Another implication of this approach is to broaden the political and ethical question that is implied by Lefebvre's call for engaging the beneficiaries of social marketing "to be co-creators and eventual owners of relevant solutions" (Lefebvre, 2009).

In a truly social conception of social marketing, discussing and defining the problem may become as important as packaging and selling the solution.

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To seek help or not? Young consumers' willingness to undertake formal help-seeking behaviours

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Introduction

Contributing to approximately half of the burden of disease in young adults, and more than for any other age cohort, mental illness is estimated to impact 26% of young Australians on annual basis (Slade et al., 2007). Prior research suggests that the initial onset of mental illness is likely to arise in 75% of individuals prior to the age of 25 (Kessler et al., 2007), with the outcomes of youth mental illness often leading to significant vocational and health issues (Raphael, 2000). These include lower economic living standards, reduced workforce participation (Gibb et al., 2010), and higher rates of substance abuse and self-harm (Department of Health and Ageing, 2010). In 2011, self-harm was the leading cause of death in young Australian adults (ABS, 2013).

Whilst young adults have the greatest need for formal mental health interventions, they are currently the age cohort least likely to seek help (Rickwood et al., 2005) in spite of the 1434 specialised services available (AIHW, 2012). Recent figures show initial service use (or adoption) amongst young adults at only 23% (ABS, 2010), with only 31.2% of females and 13.2% of males seeking formal help (Slade et al., 2007). Despite extensive research regarding initial service use in the mental health service literature, young adults' engagement in formal help-seeking is still poorly understood (Barrett et al., 2008). Therefore, the purpose of this research is to identify the antecedents influencing young consumers to undertake initial mental health service use (i.e. formal help-seeking behaviours) to manage and/or improve their well-being. Consequently, this research aligns with social marketing's disciplinary boundaries, whereby the target behaviour under investigation exemplifies a voluntary and modifiable behaviour (e.g. making an appointment) in the domain of public health (Gordon, 2011), and in a health context that is of a national and worldwide concern (AIWH 2012; CDC 2011).

Methods

To investigate the antecedents influencing young consumers to undertake initial formal mental health, help-seeking behaviours (e.g. make an appointment or call a clinician), we conducted 13 in-depth interviews (lasting 50 to 90 minutes) with potential users of the service, aged 18-to-35 years. These 10 female and three male participants self-reported with mild feelings of anxiety or depression, yet had not previously sought help with professional mental health services (PMHS, e.g. general practitioner and psychologist) about their situation. The female bias is consistent with prior research investigating mental health issues, which has identified males as being the most unwilling group to seek PMHS (Oliver et al., 2005; Rickwood et al., 2007). The semi-structured interviews began with a gender-specific written and pictorial scenario describing an individual suffering from a mild case of depression and undergoing the process of initial formal help-seeking. The scenario used encouraged participants to share their perspective, feelings and behaviours towards sensitive topics to overcome potential fear and embarrassment (Griffith et al., 2011; Soley & Smith, 2008). Interviews were audio-recorded, transcribed verbatim and analysed using a hybrid thematic-analysis approach involving the initial use of inductive enquiry and a deductive a priori template (c.f. Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Schuster, Drennan & Lings, 2013). This comprised a data-driven coding process to identify additional initial, formal help-seeking behaviour antecedents and provisional coding using a priori codes based on the theory of planned behaviour.

Findings

Three dominant themes emerged from the data that were instrumental to participants' initial use of PMHS: expected service-based attributes (e.g. access and courtesy), prior experience with general health professionals and readiness to seek help (refer to Appendix 1). Further, no gender differences were evident across the three themes. Participants generally reported high expectations for the ability of PMHS providers to assist them, and this appeared to facilitate their initial use of these services. For example: "*I'd expect them to be more empathetic… more understanding and care about what issues I'm going through… kind of show an interest, I guess, as well*" (F, 22). However, drawing from their **prior experiences with general health professionals**, six participants felt a low likelihood of receiving the service they would expect. This was due to the previously experienced attitudes and behaviours of front-line staff (e.g. receptionists) and professionals (e.g. general practitioner) with respect to broader health concerns (e.g. contraception, cold and flu symptoms). For example: "*I have gone as far as attempting to make the appointment before…but because of the receptionist, I just didn't bother and hung up*" (M, 31). Consequently, **expected service characteristics** and **prior experiences with general health professionals** appear to function as key antecedents of consumers' initial use of PMHS, which is consistent with the literature.

Readiness to seek help was critical to most (eight) participants' willingness to initially engage in formal helping-seeking behaviours, as they assessed the perceived severity of their illness prior to engaging in help-seeking. The greater the perceived severity (acuteness) of the illness, the more motivated they became to engage in behaviours that would alter their state of ill-health (Freyer et al., 2005; Smith & Stasson, 2000). As one participant noted: "*It's still almost waiting for it to get to a point where you go, yeah, I think it's time to get help*" (F, 28). Consistent with the mental-health literature (Rickwood et al., 2005; Rickwood et al., 2007), the need to wait until the severity of the illness was acute was attributed to both a sense of guilt and their preference for self-reliance. These participants' engaging in initial formal help-seeking behaviours required assessing the illness severity to ensure that it was indeed affecting their lives, so that they were not wasting the time of the professional or occupying a space useable for another more worthy individual. This was illustrated by the following statement: "*I feel like if I can walk in there and still be smiling, I shouldn't be there. Like, coz, I'm, like, I do have issues, but I'm doing ok… I don't feel like I have the right to go*" (F, 28).

Discussion & Implications

This study provides preliminary insights into the antecedents influencing initial mental health service use (formal help-seeking) to improve and/or manage consumer well-being. Specifically, it highlights that expected service characteristics, prior experience with general health professionals and readiness to seek help as drivers of initial use (e.g. adoption) of PMHS, which is consistent with the mental health literature (e.g. Griffths et al., 2011; Wahlin & Deane, 2012). This research suggests engaging with and encouraging youth to use these services through both the promotion and provision of supportive and reliable service personnel (Lourey et al., 2013) and greater knowledge of the treatment process is required. Further, social marketers must identify the stages of readiness of young consumers, in order to develop specific intervention programs and targeted messages that aid in moving these consumers from one stage to another (Rochlen & Hoyer, 2005). Thus, these approaches work towards aiding the enactment of initial and continued formal help-seeking behaviours amongst this target audience.

Whilst these dominant themes are not exhaustive and other themes maybe relevant to the study, they provide a starting point for further research in this area. Further qualitative work could also seek to validate these findings, as well as assessing for consumer heterogeneity (e.g. differing cultural and socio-economic contexts).

Appendix 1: Key Themes of Initial Formal Help-Seeking in Mental Health

Key Theme	Explanation
Expected Service Characteristics	All of the participants identified service-provider characteristics related to access, courtesy and credibility as influential to their adoption of PMHS. For example: "*With a GP sometimes you have to make an appointment a month ahead of time and sometimes you kind of wake up and go I really need to talk to somebody and you don't have that option*" (F, 28). However, only five of the participants highlighted the competence of professional health service employees (e.g. clinician) as critical to their use of mental-health services delivered via telephone and online channels (e.g. Lifeline and eHeadspace). Consequently, as these characteristics function as surrogate service-quality indicators for prospective consumers, PMHS must work towards improving and maintaining positive customer expectations within the target market of young consumers.
Prior Experiences with General Health Professionals	Responses provided by participants on their prior experiences within the health service eco-system, in reference to broader and unrelated health contexts (e.g. contraception) were mixed. Both positive and negative experiences were identified in relation to the interactions shared with front-line staff and health practitioners, as well as the information provided to the participants. Specifically, this theme provides initial evidence for the role of individual health providers within the health-service eco-system in shaping consumers' attitudes and expectations of differing health offerings and providers. In the context of this study, prior experience with medical centres and general practitioners has functioned to shape prospective consumers' attitudes and intentions to seek help with mental-healthcare professionals. This appears in the following statement: "*You constantly feel that the GP is just giving you their personal opinion rather than medical* [one]*; that's not their job. Like, I was refused the pill because the doctor didn't believe in it due to their religious background...why would I go back?*" (F, 26).
Readiness to Seek Help	This theme is reflective of the Stages of Change model (SOC), whereby individuals progress through a series of stages on their way to enacting specific behaviours (Norcass, Krebs & Proschaska, 2011). Progression through these specific stages is often influenced by predisposing characteristics (e.g. gender), illness factors (e.g. overall health beliefs) and inhibiting factors (e.g. social relationships). In the context of this study, the inhibiting factor of **guilt** emerged as being critical to participants' readiness to seek help and treatment. The fear of guilt centred on issues related to not wanting to burden others (e.g. family, friends and health professionals) and also the inability to self-rely and manage the illness on their own. This was reflected in the following statement: "*unless you have a physical illness I feel like you're not supposed to be at the GP... if I'm not you know cutting myself or thinking about suicide, then I don't have the right to* go" (F, 30). This demonstrates that participants perceive that the severity of the mental illness must be acute and visible in order for formal help-seeking to be warranted. When queried further, they referred to their negatives experiences within the health-service eco-system and stigma as mechanisms that increased their sense of guilt, and thus willingness to seek help.

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Does removing blood donation barriers, drive blood donation intentions among African migrants in Australia

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Introduction

There are 6 million Australians and 27% of an estimated 23 million total population are born overseas (ABS, 2013), with African migrants one of the fastest growing migrant communities since 2000 (Hugo, 2009). Increased demographic and cultural diversity arising from migration brings significant challenges for the Australian health system, including blood donation activities as some unique blood factors cannot be sourced from Caucasian blood donors (Grassineau *et al.*, 2007).

It is important to understand facilitators and barriers to African migrants' blood donation, if this group is to be included within the Australian blood donation pool. Limited research has sought to explore whether the removal of barriers, motivates behaviour, or whether the remove of barriers are hygiene factor (Ewen, Smith, & Hulin, 1966). That is, whether the removal of barriers is required, but not sufficient to motivate donation behaviour on its own. This research addresses this issue by examining the extent to which factors serve as barriers to blood donation intentions of African Migrants and whether the removal of these 'barriers', facilitates increased blood donation intentions.

Methodology

A survey was developed examining 14 items related to blood donation barriers and 14 items related to the 'elimination' of these barriers. The items were drawn from those examined in the literature and sought to include: cultural/social factors as barriers, as these have been identified in the past as being issues within African communities (Umeora, Onuh & Umeora, 2005); items related to understating the blood donation process in Australia which is different to that used in Africa (Farrugia, Penrod & Bult, 2010); and items on fear of the donation process.

The usable sample was 425 Australian based African migrants and refugees in Victoria and South Australia and was administered in face to face mode by trained bi-lingual workers from within the community. Exploratory factor analysis was undertaken on the 14 barrier and 14 drivers, with items having low loadings or loaded on multiple factors being excluded from the analysis. The factor analysis resulted in three components of barriers – Cultural Social issues (six items; $\alpha = 0.85$), Fear (three items; $\alpha = 0.75$), Lack of Understanding (three items; $\alpha = 0.53$) – and three components of drivers – Engagement (four items; $\alpha = 0.88$), Cultural and Societal Issues (three items; $\alpha = 0.83$) Overcoming Fear (three items; $\alpha = 0.77$). The dependent variable was a three item measure of intention to donate blood drawing on the measure proposed by Masser *et al.* (2009), which in the present study was found to have acceptable reliability ($\alpha = 0.95$). A multiple regression was undertaken where the six composite components of barriers and drivers were used as the independent variables and blood donation intention as the dependent variable.

Results

Our data suggest that these six factors explained 31% in the variance of the blood donation intention, with Cultural Society Issue barriers negatively associated with blood donation intention whereas engagement and overcoming fear drivers were positively associated with blood donation intention.

Equally important was the fact that the two other barriers identified in the literature (Cultural Issues and Lack of Understanding) were not seen to impede blood donation. Additionally removal of Cultural barriers did not drive blood donation. The regression results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Relationship between intention to give blood and barrier and facilitator of blood donation (N=425)

Variables		Mean (SD)	Regression coefficients (SE)
Barrier	Cultural society issues	1.99 (0.74)	-0.24 (0.08)**
	Fear	2.32 (0.97)	-0.03 (0.06)
	Lack of Proper Understanding	2.51 (0.89)	-0.02 (0.06)
Facilitator	Engagement	3.30 (1.18)	0.30 (0.05)***
	Cultural & Societal issues	3.11 (1.16)	0.06 (0.04)
	Overcoming fear	3.50 (1.01)	0.22 (0.06)***

Discussion and Conclusions

The results of the factor analysis seem to suggest that the removal of barriers and barriers themselves are not necessarily opposite constructs, as the two sets of factor analysis, identified slightly different factors, i.e., barriers and their elimination grouped together differently. This may support the view that some barriers (and their removal) may act as hygiene factors and are insufficient on their own to motivate people to donate. The Cultural Societal factors were the only significant barrier to blood donation, as distinct to qualitative research suggesting cultural factors do not impede blood donation (Polonsky *et al.*, 2011), although the items comprising this construct might be more about social norms which have been identified as significant factors in inhibiting/driving blood donation generally (Bednall *et al.*, 2013). Surprisingly fear was not seen to be a barrier, nor was a lack of understanding of the blood donation process, which is inconsistent with past research (Bednall *et al.*, 2013).

In regards to focusing on the removal of barriers acting as drivers, the results suggest that engagement of the process has a positive impact on blood donation, although this factor is not the direct removal of a barrier. The components of this dimension seem to be more about marketing communication facilitating donation opportunities and making this a community event, i.e. social connectedness serving as a critical driver. Removal of Cultural barriers was not seen to drive blood donation and thus cultural forces may be a hygiene factor, i.e. potential migrant donors need to not feel that donating is inconsistent with their home country values. While Fear was not a donation barrier, a Lack of Fear was seen to increase blood donation intentions. However, this may relate to the slightly different composition of the two fear measures.

In a practical sense social interventions are designed to leverage motivators, however, policy makers often use interventions to overcome barriers as a way of facilitating blood donation. This research suggests that removing barriers is indeed important, but because it is needed to allow people to begin to consider blood donation (i.e. it is a hygiene factor), rather than to motivate them donate. If this is the case, it suggests that campaigns need to be multifaceted, removing barriers and leveraging drivers, simultaneously. Additional research should be undertaken to examine the impact of barriers and their removal within multiple cultural groups, as there may be different barriers that need to be considered. Finally more research needs to understand the impact of barriers and their removal as hygiene factors, that is do some factors preclude individuals even considering blood donation. Should such factors exist, addressing these would be essential, and would need to be addressed before seeking to increase behaviour.

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What are the factors affecting the recycled shopper?

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Introduction

Many people engage in pro-environment behaviours like recycling, but are still hesitant to purchase products made from recycled materials. Consumers have not become 'recycled shoppers' (Barr & Gilg, 2006) and there has been limited research on understanding the purchase of recycled products (Bratt, 2010) or consumers' attitudes towards products made with recycled materials (Herbst, Leary, & McColskey-Leary, 2012; Leviston, Leitch, Greenhill, Leonard, & Walker, 2011). However, for the recycling industry it is critical to understand consumers' current knowledge of recycled products and their attitude towards purchasing these products. In particular, are they willing to purchase products of this type? And if so, what is their willingness to pay (WTP) and are they willing to pay more (WTPM)? In European studies, recycling was the most likely pro-environmental behaviour on average, but purchasing environmentally friendly products was the least likely behaviour for citizens (Pirani & Secondi, 2010), this finding illustrates the disconnect between recycling and the purchase of recycled goods. In Australian, climate change attitudes are also changing with fewer people believing that it is being caused by human actions (Leviston, et al., 2011). Arguably this trend suggests that previous motives for pro-environmental behaviour may be in decline and this may lead to a reduction in consumers' responsiveness to pro-environmental messages (Sibley & Kurz, 2013). There are a series of factors that have been found to affect consumers' attitudes towards purchasing recycled products including; price (Bei & Simpson, 1995; Herbst, et al., 2012; Ong, Goh, Goh, Too, & Goh, 2012; Oskamp, 2000), clear labelling (Bei & Simpson, 1995; Essoussi & Linton, 2010; Ong, et al., 2012; Oskamp, 2000), clear labelling (Herbst, et al., 2012), environmental responsibility (Chen & Chai, 2010a), environmental responsibility (Chen & Chai, 2010b) and environmental identity of consumer (Akehurst, Afonso, & Gonçalves, 2012; McDonald & Oates, 2006). This research will examine the effect of these variables on consumers' purchasing intentions and willingness to pay more (WTPM) for recycled products.

Method

The data was collected at three locations (two in Bathurst, Australia, and one in Wales, United Kingdom) using a mall intercept survey (N=355). The sample included 52.7% females, 77.6% of the sample were between the age of 18 and 24 years. A self-administered questionnaire was employed, which used scales drawn from the literature to measure each of the seven independent variables and two dependent variables. Table 1 in the appendix contains the details of the scales used in this study. Ordinal logit regression was used to examine likelihood of purchase while a binary logit regression was used to examine WTPM.

Results

Five independent variables were measured using five point likert scales (strongly disagree/strongly agree), with multiple items these variables were: attitudes and knowledge to my recycling ($M = 3.77$ α= 0.66), attitudes towards recycling ($M = 4.04$ α= 0.72), importance of recycled products ($M = 3.48$ α= 0.72), expense perceptions of recycled products ($M = 3.00$ α= 0.78). In addition, single item measures were used to capture perceptions of the general quality goods made from recycled materials ($M = 2.56$) which is reversed scored, knowledge about recycled products ($M = 3.06$) and the importance of the label/packaging clearly indicating the fact the good is made from recycled components ($M = 3.67$).

The dependent variables were likelihood to purchase a product made from recycled components in the coming period ($M = 3.02$) and likelihood to purchase the same product at a more expensive price (WTPM) (no = 31% / yes = 61%).

The two regressions estimated had significant Chi-square results. Four of the independent variables (Recycle knowledge, Quality, Importance and Recycle-me) were significantly related to likelihood of purchase with a fifth (Expense) marginally significant, as illustrated in Table 2 in the Appendix. Similarly, four independent variables (Label, Expense, Importance and Recycle-them) were significantly related to WTPM, with a fifth variable (Quality) marginally significant, as shown in Table 3 in the Appendix. In both cases the importance of the product had the most impact on the independent variables. This was followed by recycle-me for likelihood of purchase, and recycle-them for WTPM. In effect, there is a shift in the perception of responsibility when the focus changes from the likelihood of a purchase, to paying more. When discussing the likelihood of purchase, personal responsibility is significant (recycle-me) however when it comes to WTPM recycling becomes someone else's responsibility (recycle-them). So while the importance of the product remains central to both purchase and paying more, expense somewhat naturally only plays a role when focusing on paying more. Further, the importance of the label arises only when paying more is the dependent variable. However, perhaps of most interest, is that recycling attitudes behave in a dissimilar manner, with the recycle-me significant for likelihood of purchase, but the more social focused recycle-them is only significant for paying more.

Discussion and Conclusion

There has been limited research into consumers' attitudes and knowledge towards products made with recycled materials. Supporting research by Esoussi and Linton (2012), the current study found that WTPM was affected by consumers' acceptance of responsibility and that clear labelling was a significant variable affecting respondents' WTPM. Similarly to Akehurst et al., (2012), this study suggests that consumers' knowledge of recycling is good, but this does not necessarily affect their purchasing intentions. Moreover, while respondents may believe that caring for the environment is their responsibility and are likely to buy, they are not willing to pay more. Similarly to Chen and Chai (2010a) in the current study many respondents believe it is someone else's responsibility to care for the environment and this has a significant influence on their likelihood of purchase. Vazifehdoust et al. (2013) and Suki (2013) found that labelling had a significant relationship with consumer attitude and leads to positive purchasing intentions. In this study, the findings suggest that labelling is only significant when consumers are asked to consider paying more for environmentally friendly products. It is not a significant predictor of likelihood of purchase. At an industry level, the affect of clear labelling has a significant impact on WTPM for consumers who do not feel environmental responsibility. Thus, organisations should invest in clear environmental labelling especially if they are charging a higher price for products made from recycled materials. Ultimately, by understanding the factors affecting 'recycled shopping', companies can develop effective marketing strategies to encourage consumers to 'close the recycling loop' and create a more sustainable environment.

Appendix

Table 1: *Scales used in the research*

Scale Authors	Construct being measured	Number of Items
Adapted from Tanner & Wölfing (2003)	Expense Perceptions of Recycled products	11
Adapted from Davis, Foxall, and Pallister (2002)	Attitude towards recycling for me and for others	6
Adapted from Flynn & Goldsmith (1999)	Attitude and knowledge of personal recycling	8
Adapted from Mohr, Eroglue & Ellen (1998)	Importance of recycled products	5

Table 2: *Ordinal Logit Regression Predicting Likelihood of Purchase*

			Number of Obs	=		320
			LR χ^2 (7)	=		109.4
			Prob > χ^2	=		0.000
Log likelihood -422.720			Pseudo R^2	=		0.1146
Likely Purchase	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P>z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Recycle Subjective Knowledge	1.559	0.179	3.860	**0.000**	1.244	1.954
Performance Perceptions	0.743	0.086	-2.550	**0.011**	0.592	0.933
Label Importance	1.031	0.096	0.320	0.746	0.859	1.237
Product importance	2.733	0.686	4.010	**0.000**	1.671	4.470
Recycle Me	1.790	0.354	2.950	**0.003**	1.215	2.638
Recycle Them	1.174	0.190	0.990	0.323	0.854	1.613
Expense	0.732	0.125	-1.840	0.066	0.524	1.021
/cut1*	3.169	1.039			1.133	5.205
/cut2	4.691	1.045			2.642	6.739
/cut3	6.733	1.079			4.619	8.848
/cut4	8.212	1.108			6.041	10.383

*The cut differentiates between the ordered categories. They are the thresholds, (cut-off points) for the dependent variable.

Table 3: *Binary Logit Regression Predicting Willingness to Pay More*

	Number of Obs	=	319
	LR χ^2 (7)	=	83.74
	Prob > χ^2	=	0.000
Log Likelihood = 0.198	Pseudo R^2	=	0.198

	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	z	P>z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Recycle Subjective Knowledge	1.001	0.142	0.010	0.993	0.758	1.322
Performance Perceptions	1.329	0.203	1.860	0.063	0.985	1.793
Label Importance	1.465	0.189	2.950	**0.003**	1.137	1.887
Product importance	2.645	0.866	2.970	**0.003**	1.392	5.023
Recycle Me	1.477	0.357	1.610	0.106	0.920	2.370
Recycle Them	1.484	0.300	1.950	0.051	0.998	2.206
Expense	0.353	0.084	-4.360	**0.000**	0.221	0.564

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The effectiveness of environmental information in Latin America:
Evidence from Chile

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Introduction

Environmental labeling (eco-labeling) refer to information a product provides about the environmental impacts associated with the production or use of a product (Rotherham, 1999). Research indicates that consumers often have difficulty understanding what the labels intend to communicate (Thøgersen, 2000). Terms such as "recyclable", "eco-friendly", "environmentally safe" are vague and may create skepticism among consumers. Additionally, packages with an earth and flower on it do not provide consumers with specific information to make an informed decision regarding the environmental impact of the product. Environmental information intends to make it easy to take environmental concerns into account when shopping. However, studies have determined that green communication is a major area of weakness. Pickett-Baker and Ozaki (2008) found that, except for cleaning products, most consumers cannot identify greener products.

If the consumer grants credibility to the environmental information, the individual will behave more respectfully toward the environment. On the other side, an individual's belief that environmental information lacks honesty can have a negative effect on purchase intention. This skepticism is due to various factors such as the absence of scientific knowledge necessary to interpret environmental information, and, in particular, the falsehoods and exaggeration of some advertising techniques.

Additionally, studies have found that consumers believe that green products are priced higher and of poorer quality than the non-green alternative (D'Souza et al., 2007). Consumers continue to have guarded impressions of the quality of environmental products, often believing that in order for a product to be green there must be a trade-off on quality Additionally, the price premium of these products may negatively affect consumer value judgment (Esty and Winston, 2006; D'Souza et al., 2007).

Past research has found that consumers react more favorably to positive attribute messages, relative to negative attribute messages (Beach et al., 1996; Buda and Zhang, 2000; Johnson, 1987; Levin and Gaeth, 1988). Positive messages evoke favorable memories, while negative messages evoke less desirable associations. Another explanation is the concept of priming in which the message primes the subject either positively or negatively and this evaluation is transferred to the object (Levin et al., 1998). Positive (negative) environmental information could be more (less) effective across cultures, given the underlying assumption that environmental information distinctively affects consumers' cognitive and/or affective activities. Hence:

H1. In Chile, positive environmental information will have a positive impact on consumer metrics relative to those products with negative environmental information.

H2. In Chile, products with positive environmental messages will have a positive impact on key consumer metrics relative to products with no (neutral) environmental information.

H3. In Chile, products with negative environmental messages will have a negative impact on key consumer metrics relative to products with no (neutral) environmental information.

Decision makers prefer more information to less. However, there is a limit to the amount of information consumers can absorb during a specific time period. Drichoutis et al. (2006) suggest that consumers might be unwilling to evaluate more complicated information. Hence:

H4. In Chile, there will be no significant differences on key consumer metrics between environmental messages that provide more or less detail on the impacts of the ingredients.

Grankvist and Biel (2006) found that of the three environmental factors (pesticides, greenhouse gases, and energy usage) pesticides had the greatest influence on product purchase. They conjecture that this response may be due to the perception that ingredients such as pesticides have a negative impact on both the environment and on the consumer's health. This finding may lend support to the hypothesis that product categories that have a personal health impact (e.g., apples, bar soap) may have stronger effects of environmental information than products that do not (e.g., printer paper, headphones). Hence:

H5. In Chile, the effects of environmental disclosure on consumer metrics will be greater for products that contain environmentally harmful ingredients and that may have a more direct health risk for the consumer.

Method

Data were collected via controlled experimentation. The design of the study was 5 (level of environmental information) × 4 (product category). The level of environmental information was a between subject factor with five levels: very positive, positive, neutral, negative, and very negative. The product category was a between subject factor with four product categories: apples, bar soap, headphones, and printer paper. 402 undergraduate students at a Chilean university participated in the study. Participants' ages ranged from 18 to 29, with an average of 21.

Results

The results show that consumer perception of product quality, value, and purchase intentions differ significantly between products with positive environmental messages and those without any message. It is also found that the impact of environmental information is greater for consumable products. The results support the idea that positive environmental information might be effective for many marketing campaigns in Latin America. The results suggest that if clear explanations of environmental impact, both positive and negative, are required, consumer evaluations of green products will improve and, ultimately, a larger percentage of consumers will purchase green products. The findings suggest that policy makers should require manufacturers to disclose key product ingredients and their environmental impact.

Discussion

Clearly presented information can make a significant difference in consumer evaluation of products. In most Latin American countries, advertising is self-regulated by private organizations: the CONARP in Argentina and Uruguay, CONAR in Brazil, Bolivia, Argentina, Chile, and Paraguay, etc.

These private organisms perform two primary functions: they receive complaints about advertisements (corrective function) and publicize the advertising codes of ethics and jurisprudence (orienting function) (Manzur et al., 2012). As a consequence, this research is an important contribution for this type of organizations, as well as for instructors and professionals of the area.

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OPAL- An empirical investigation of market orientation

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Introduction

Obesity is a significant public health issue in Australia (OECD, 2009). Nearly 60% of South Australian adults and 25% of children are overweight or obese. Obesity Prevention and Lifestyle (OPAL), is South Australia's most significant childhood obesity prevention initiative to date. OPAL, which commenced in 2009, was based on aspects of three theories: social ecological theory, community development and social marketing, is directed both at individuals and the environment in which they work, live and play. OPAL aims to provide tangible benefit to the consumer; meet a need the consumer has identified as being important and involves them in identification and development of the program. OPAL operates at two levels: 1) social marketing themes are developed at the State level annually and 2) implementation occurs at the local level where interventions (which may or may not draw upon centrally developed materials) are designed and delivered based on local needs. OPAL is based within local councils across twenty communities in metropolitan and regional South Australia and one additional site in the Northern Territory, reaching an estimated 400,000 people.

Given OPAL uses a partnership approach across governments (federal, state and local councils) to deliver interventions with local community partners, high-quality marketing practices such as market orientation are important to achieve their objectives are used. Drawing on commercial marketing literature, market oriented firms achieve superior performance when compared to their lesser market oriented competitors (Van Raaij & Stoelhorst, 2008). Market orientation refers to the generation of market intelligence pertaining to current and future needs of customers, dissemination of intelligence and responsiveness to the market (Kohli, Jaworski & Kumar, 1993). Key features of market orientation in the context of social marketing are an expanded focus on market, rather than customer intelligence, an emphasis on coordination with respect to market intelligence and a focus on activities related to intelligence processing (Kohli, Jaworski & Kumar, 1993). There has been limited investigation of a market orientation approach in social marketing with one study on the internal market orientation of a government breastscreening service (Previte & Russell-Bennett, 2013a & b). Therefore, the research questions guiding this study are to examine the application of a commercial market orientation scale in a social marketing context and the extent of market orientation within the OPAL program.

Method

This was a two-stage study. First, an expert review determined the items for inclusion in stage 2. Jaworski and Kohli's (1990) market orientation scale, was assessed by 10 Australian social marketing experts following procedures outlined by Hardesty & Bearden (2004), resulting in a total of 27, 5-point scale items retained with 5 item deletions. Second, a survey of OPAL local council teams was undertaken to understand the extent the market orientation scale was appropriate for an organization such as OPAL. Invitations to participate in the online survey were sent to 43 OPAL employees in October 2012 with a reminder one week later. Cronbach's alpha scores were used to assess the reliability of the items. Using SPSS 21, descriptive analyses were undertaken before conducting an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) to determine the validity and reliability of each market orientation construct. The sample was 23 participants, consisting of 14 local council managers and nine OPAL project support officers from 20 councils participating in the OPAL program, representing a 53% response rate.

Results

Thirteen items across three constructs of Intelligence generation, Intelligence dissemination and Responsiveness were reliable in a social marketing context (see Table 1) suggesting further conceptualization of commercial market orientation scales for social marketing is warranted.

Table 1 Descriptives, reliability and validity of market orientation constructs

Construct		M(SD)	FL	α
Intelligence generation	OPAL local council teams often talk with parents about OPAL.	4.87(.34)	0.87	0.73
	OPAL local council teams often talk with community groups about OPAL.	4.43(.79)	0.60	
	OPAL local council teams often talk with schools about OPAL.	4.74(.45)	0.62	
	Data on OPAL programs at a local level are shared with other OPAL local council teams.	3.78(1.13)	0.62	
Intelligence dissemination	OPAL local council teams have meetings with other OPAL local council teams.	4.48(.67)	0.87	0.85
	OPAL local council teams spend time discussing community' future needs with other OPAL local council teams.	4.30(.70)	0.83	
	OPAL state coordination unit periodically circulates documents (e.g. reports, newsletters) that provide information on OPAL results.	4.04(.88)	0.62	
	When something important happens at the OPAL state coordination unit, all OPAL local council teams know about it in a short period.	4.26(1.01)	0.72	
	Several OPAL local council teams get together periodically to plan a response to changes taking place in the environment.	3.57(.66)	0.76	
Responsiveness	New programs developed by the OPAL local council team are clearly targeted at one group (e.g. children under 5 or teenagers).	3.61(.94)	0.69	0.71
	If a food manufacturer were to launch an intensive campaign targeting an OPAL community, OPAL local council teams would implement a response immediately.	2.96(1.11)	0.72	
	OPAL local council teams are quick to decrease the attractiveness of the competition (e.g. food manufacturers and the built environment).	2.57(.66)	0.67	
	*When one OPAL council team finds out something important about competitors, it is slow to alert other OPAL local council teams (e.g. McDonalds setting up a new store).	1.74(.75)	0.70	

*Indicates reverse scored item

Conclusions

The degree of market orientation in a community-based intervention has not been studied previously. Using the proposed marketing orientation scale for a social marketing context, the results indicate OPAL is strong in both Intelligence Generation (M=4.68, SD=0.43) and Intelligence Dissemination (M,=4.03, SD=0.80), with lower levels of Responsiveness (M= 2.58, SD=0.37) to changes in the marketplace. The low levels of Responsiveness may indicate that further development of these measures is required to take into account the complex partnering structures that frequently occur in social marketing contexts. Measuring these three components of market orientation allow social marketers to understand what they are doing well and areas they need to improve in with regards to future needs of consumers, including how they respond to these needs and disseminate intelligence within their organisation. A market orientation measure could initially be used to establish a baseline level of market orientation within a social marketing program. Tracking the market orientation of organisations involved in a complex multi-faceted social marketing program such as OPAL, will assist to establish benchmarks to guide future social marketing practice.

Market orientation assesses the degree to which market intelligence is generated and disseminated through both formal and informal channels and the extent that marketing programs are developed and implemented on the basis of the intelligence generated.

Key attributes of the measure include a focus on the customers and market along with the forces that drive their needs and preferences.

The small sample size is a limitation of this study however, the measure represents a significant step forward. Further work on scale validation with larger samples is required to assess the soundness of the measure in a variety of social marketing contexts.

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Wicked problems in animal welfare: Conceptualising the cat overpopulation harm chain[1]

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Defining the animal welfare problem

Animal welfare issues are known to generate passionate debate within communities (Ginsberg, 2011). The issue of cat overpopulation – which is the euthanasia of healthy but unwanted cats in pounds and shelters – is an example of a welfare issue that polarises the community (Whitcomb, 2010). A key challenge in addressing issues in animal welfare, including cat overpopulation, is the complex nature of the problems. In this paper, we position cat overpopulation as a wicked problem, which are defined as problems that involve a high level of conflict among stakeholders, with no real consensus on the exact nature or definition of the problem, or its solution (Roberts, 2000). This lack of consensus makes wicked problems particularly difficult to address.

Within the cat overpopulation problem, stakeholders include animal shelters, animal welfare groups, government, community members, veterinarians, pet shops, cat breeders and environmentalists. Each group has a different definition of the cat overpopulation problem, and each proposes different solutions (Webb, 1995). For example, environmentalists can argue that any cat capable of catching prey is a problem, and they can advocate strategies such as cat bans and trap-and-euthanise programs (McCarthy, 2005). Animal welfare advocates, on the other hand, focus on the health of the cats, and the cats' freedom to express natural behaviours and access adequate nutrition and shelter (Webb, 1995). What makes cat overpopulation particularly wicked is that, even within stakeholder groups, there is debate as to the exact definition of the problem and the best solution.

A clear framework is needed to enable identification of stakeholders that exist within the cat overpopulation issue. To address the complexity of the problem we apply Polonsky, Clarkson & Fry's (2003) harm chain model to explore how these stakeholders interact with one another in a network of exchanges, and the harm that can arise through this network of exchanges.

Conceptualising the cat overpopulation problem

There is a paucity of published literature on the application of social marketing to issues in animal welfare. Intervention approaches for animal welfare issues have often focused on emotive advertising alone, without considering the broader social context (Ginsberg, 2011). Within the social marketing arena, traditionally interventions have focused on the consumer as the cause of the social problem through their conduct of undesirable behaviours (Andreasen, 2006). Overwhelmingly, social marketing literature focuses on individual models of behaviour change, applied in a public health setting (Binney, Hall, & Oppenheim, 2006). Whilst applying these models to investigate the problem of cat overpopulation has value, we suggest that the singular focus on a particular target audience could place unfair blame and responsibility on the individual. Rather, we argue that the wicked nature of cat overpopulation, and the complex nature of the stakeholder networks, requires a social marketing approach that facilitates the adoption of a broader view beyond just the target audience when conceptualising the cat overpopulation problem, and its solution.

In the following discussion we explore the application of a network view of social marketing, which explicitly adopts a stakeholder perspective to manage complex stakeholder networks (Polonsky, et al., 2003) to address the complex issues in animal welfare. Based on these social marketing assertions, we question: How can the harm chain be used to conceptualise the cat overpopulation problem, and the harm that is created within the stakeholder exchange network? Who is causing harm, and who is responsible for preventing or minimising harm in the cat overpopulation issue in Australia?

The cat overpopulation harm chain

Polonsky et al.'s (2003) harm chain serves as a framework that facilitates the identification of stakeholders and their network of interrelationships within a social issue – as well as facilitating the exploration of the impacts created in the stakeholder exchange network (Polonsky, et al., 2003). At its core, the harm chain ensures the identification of all exchange partners involved in causing harm – both directly and indirectly – and the identification of all those that are harmed through the network of stakeholder exchanges (Polonsky, et al., 2003). The harm chain offers a tool by which stakeholder relationships can be identified and managed, and negative impacts within the stakeholder exchange network can be prevented or minimised (Polonsky, et al., 2003). The harm chain model is a particularly valuable tool for conceptualising and addressing animal welfare issues, such as cat overpopulation, that are characterised by a complex network of stakeholders and a high degree of stakeholder conflict.

The harm chain demonstrates that, despite the criticisms regarding a target audience focus, social marketing actually offers tools that can build real-world interventions that incorporate a focus on upstream and midstream targets, as well as those downstream targets that have been traditionally addressed (Andreasen, 2006). The diagram in Appendix 1 describes the harm chain for cat overpopulation, providing a cross-section of examples for upstream, midstream and downstream categories. This diagram demonstrates how the harm chain can be used to conceptualise the cat overpopulation issue, and the harm that is created in the stakeholder exchange network. The harm chain allows for not only the identification of those being harmed, but also those stakeholders doing harm. The application of this approach also indicates the stakeholders responsible for ensuring that potential harm is minimised or prevented.

Implications for theory

The wicked nature of the cat overpopulation problem and the complexity of stakeholder networks involved call for a broader conceptualisation of the issue, beyond just a target audience focus. The application of the harm chain to cat overpopulation responds to criticisms that social marketing places too much emphasis on downstream targets and lacks the application of theory in the design of interventions. That is, its application adds weight to the premise that social marketing as a discipline possesses theoretical frameworks that offer practical processes for understanding and managing complex social issues within a broad social context.

Implications for practice

How we conceptualise issues in animal welfare, including cat overpopulation, defines how we approach a solution. Effective solutions to cat overpopulation lie in acknowledging the wicked nature of the problem, the complex stakeholder networks that exist, and the need for a broad view of social change beyond a downstream approach. The harm chain offers a tool to conceptualise the cat overpopulation problem in this manner – and an approach to manage the complex network of stakeholders that are involved in the problem. Given the complex stakeholder network – and the different disciplinary backgrounds involved – the harm chain also provides a practical framework to facilitate the understanding and communication of the various stakeholder perspectives among the stakeholder groups. Evidence suggests that collaborative approaches are the most effective in dealing with wicked problems that have many stakeholders amongst whom power is dispersed (Roberts, 2000). Conceptualising complex animal welfare issues using the harm chain provides a key foundational step in the design of collaborative intervention strategies.

Appendix 1. The Cat Overpopulation Harm Chain

	← Downstream →	← Midstream →	← Upstream →
Definitions	'Downstream' refers to the primary target audience. Current evidence (Alberthsen et al., 2013; Marston, Bennett, & Toukhsati, 2006) suggests that a significant number of kittens entering shelters are from female cats that are semi-owned, which are those that are fed by members of the public who do not believe they own the cat, and who do not generally sterilise the cat (Toukhsati, Bennett, & Coleman, 2007). Strategies to facilitate the sterilisation of semi-owned cats are needed to address the problem of cat overpopulation.	'Midstream' refers to influential others who are closer to the target audience. In promoting sterilisation to cat semi-owners, key midstream stakeholders are veterinarians due to their role as communicators and service providers for cat health and welfare to the public. Any cat overpopulation intervention must engage vets to deliver consistent messages and services.	'Upstream' means those structure and processes within the broader social context that perpetuate the social problem. Upstream influences on the cat overpopulation problem include current land protection legislation, which prohibits the trap, sterilisation and release of cats due to their pest status (Queensland Paliamentary Counsel, 2002). This prohibits cat semi-owners from sterilising their semi-owned cats and returning them to the neighbourhood. An intervention addressing cat overpopulation will need to advocate for structural change to allow semi-owners to sterilise and return the cats to their original neighbourhood environment without fear of prosecution.
Those causing harm	-Cat semi-owners who do not sterilise the cats	-Vets who will not sterilise semi-owned cats (e.g. due to concerns with ownership status, will not take part in discount programs)	-Land protection policy and legislation -Local councils and shelters not providing information, traps or discounted sterilisation
Those being harmed	-Wildlife through cat predation -Neighbours suffer nuisance through cats soiling and noise pollution (i.e. calling/fighting at night) -Friends and family concerned by the time and money spent on the cats -Semi-owned cats may not maintain a good level of health (i.e. concerns about general welfare, health, injury) -Semi-owners receive injury from cats; can't find services to assist managing cats	-Veterinarians in local private practice who have to euthanise unwanted cats -Semi-owners trying to desex cats, but cannot obtain service -Veterinarians injured handling fractious cats	-Shelter and pound veterinarians who euthanise unwanted cats
Those regulating harm	-Queensland Land Protection (Pest and Stock Route) Act 2002 prohibits the sterilisation and release of semi-owned cats	-Veterinary practice policy, staffing, equipment -Australian Veterinary Association cat overpopulation policy	-Animal welfare groups performing an advocacy role in favour of sterilisation and release of cats -Environmental groups performing an advocacy role against sterilisation and release of cats

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Branding in Public Health Promotion: Extra Impact or Extra Cost?

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Her research continues to focus on corporate identity and includes an interest in sustainability in organizations and, more recently, on issues in public health branding.

Introduction/Background

Individuals who engage in socially undesirable behaviour by consuming socially undesirable products are of social concern since their behaviour ultimately results in social and financial costs that are borne by other members of society (Rothschild, 1999), particularly in the area of public health. The goal of using marketing in public health promotion is to introduce the marketing concept of exchange into the equation: the individual is motivated to exchange the negative behaviour for the positive consequences or rewards asserted in the marketing communication. However, unlike traditional marketing applications, the pleasure of enacting a socially undesirable behaviour is immediate and the rewards of giving up the behaviour are usually remote.

As a solution to this problem, Keller (1998, p. 299) proposes that branding can add a significant impact in the social marketing context because it can function as a way in that allows individuals to '…communicate and signal that they are engaging in desirable behaviors' - a reward. In other words, branding a public health program is purported to heighten awareness of the positive aspects of behaving in a way that is contrary to perceived self-interest by signalling the benefits with a branded product. However, the extent to which social marketing branding adds an extra impact and positive returns in terms of changing undesirable behaviour is debatable: many social marketing 'brands' are merely slogans, jingles and logos which form part of a *campaign* rather than a developed brand that is managed and sustained.

Defining a brand

The concept of a product brand can be applied to services, ideas and individuals. According to the American Marketing Association, a brand is "a name, term, sign, symbol, or design or combination of them, designed to identify the goods and services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of the competition." However, this definition is insufficient as stakeholders move towards expecting the brand to represent the values of an organization as well being a way to identify the product or service (Keller 2013). For this reason, corporate brands, that is, brands that represent the complexity of an organization in terms of its values, and the brand covenant or promise implied by the brand (Balmer 2012) are preferred.

Consider how much effort and research goes into the promotion of a brand of a socially undesirable product. This was explored by Iglesias-Rios and Parascandola (2013) in relation to marketing tobacco to Hispanics in the United States. They found that the company had developed strategies that were based on '…psychographics, cultural values, attitudes, and beliefs' that were then translated into Hispanic marketing campaigns (Iglesias-Rios and Parascandola, 2013, p.e6) for brands of cigarettes. The Camel brand featured Joe Camel as a Hispanic character in a 'smooth moves' advertisement which placed Joe Camel in the cultural setting that Hispanics call their own, particularly their enjoyment of live music. The brand 'promised' to support the Hispanic culture by making the cigarette front and centre of typical Hispanic social activities. In other words, the context provided behavioural cues.

Generally, public health 'brands' cannot marshal the financial resources needed to undertake the extensive research required to understand how to inspire groups of the population to engage in healthy behaviours. Therefore, Public Health brands need to be carefully contemplated.

The Typical Public Health Social Marketing Brand

A current brand is Shape Up Australia launched in 2013 (Shape Up Australia) by the Australian Government. There is a website and a Shape Up iPhone application to download. The problem with such a brand is that although the brand name suggests a behavioural objective, a characteristic of overweight people is that they seem unable to sustain long-term behavioural change (Bui, Kemp and Howlett, 2011). The researchers found that satisfaction with current weight had a positive influence on goal progress towards ideal weight, and therefore smaller goals in terms of progress towards ideal weight were more effective. The authors conclude that encouraging persistence (by smaller goals) was an important aspect of the success of health promotion related to exercise and weight loss. However, the implication of the Shape Up brand name is a one-step behavioural change.

Although finding a brand name and slogan that gives overweight individuals an effective behaviour to perform routinely is obviously difficult, this brand does not go very far to addressing the underlying values of the overweight Australian. Unlike to Hispanic tobacco marketing strategy, the brand does not place itself in the social and cultural milieu of the overweight consumer. The brand name suggests a paternalistic/disciplinary approach to these consumers – you'd better shape up! – which has the danger of producing dispositional reactance to the message. Dispositional reactance is defined as '… people's general tendency to react negatively to any kind of threats to their behavioral freedom' (Wiium et al, 2009, 1722).

A Better Public Health Brand

A good example of effective social marketing is 'Slip! Slop! Slap!' Launched in 1981 by the Cancer Council Victoria, it gave Australians an immediately actionable behaviour for them to perform before going out in the sun and behavioural cues provided by Sid Seagull at the beach. This branded public health marketing did result in a reduction in skin cancers (http://www.cancer.org.au/preventing-cancer/sun-protection/campaigns-and-events/slip-slop-slap-seek-slide.html).

Implications for theory and practice

Obviously branded public health campaigns are often short-term, dependent as they are on government funding, and not financially as well resourced a typical brand for a socially undesirable product. In developing a public health marketing brand, it is important to understand that a brand must be more than a slogan, jingle and logo. Stakeholders ask: "How does this brand reflect my values, motivation and needs?" "What does this brand promise me if I support it?" As Basu and Wang (2009) deduced, brand resonance produces the 'stickiness' which is essential for persistence in relation to desirable changes in behaviour.

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Healthier. Happier. Using an online assessment tool to stimulate health behaviour change

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Project overview

In October 2013 the Queensland Department of Health launched a three-year campaign, underpinned by a social marketing strategy, to address the rising rates of overweight and obesity across the state. The *Healthier. Happier.* campaign, targeting the three primary target audiences is supported by policy, programs and preventative health activities. The social marketing campaign consists of a range of evidence-based support programs, digital and mass media.

The first phase of the campaign includes the development of an online self-assessment tool focused on personalising the issue of obesity for all Queenslanders, regardless of their current weight. The main objective is for people to perform a quick, personal and honest assessment of their weight, nutrition and physical activity habits. The main call-to-action encourages people to fill in the online assessment to find out their 'Health & Fitness Age'. Future phases will build on the awareness of unhealthy behaviours raised in phase one, to provide the 'how'—tips and strategies for adopting healthier behaviours.

Background and policy context

Rates of obesity in Queensland have been on the rise for many years with a doubling of the rate of obesity between 2001 and 2012. In 2007, obesity overtook tobacco as the leading preventable cause of illness and premature death. On average, life expectancy for obese people is reduced by two to four years—and for the severely obese, eight to 10 years.

Obesity cost the Queensland healthcare system $391 million in 2008. With impacts outside the healthcare system added, it cost Queensland society $11.6 billion. The rates of overweight and obesity are growing and the issue has become more topical. While people are aware that it is one of the biggest health issues we are facing, they do not necessarily identify that it is an issue for them personally. To begin reversing this trend, it is important that the issue of overweight and obesity is recognised on a personal level and attitudes towards good nutrition, physical activity and healthy weight need to be improved.

Case-study benchmark criteria

Behavioural goals

The overall goal of the program was to stabilise and reduce the prevalence of overweight people and obesity in Queensland.

Campaign objectives (phase one)

- Achieve over 100,000 people completing the Health & Fitness Age calculator.
- Achieve over 150,000 unique visitors to the Healthier. Happier. website with an average of 4 pages viewed per session.
- More than 30% of Queenslanders reporting behaviour change as a result of seeing the campaign and completing the Health & Fitness Age calculator.

Customer orientation

Research agency TNS was commissioned by the Australian National Preventive Health Agency (ANPHA) to inform the development of the third stage of the federal anti-obesity campaign Measure Up. The research was conducted nationally over three stages (2012-2013) comprising a comprehensive literature review, qualitative research and subsequent quantitative research. The qualitative research consisted of 36 ethnographic interviews, 34 affinity group discussions, 4 online messages boards and 19 affinity paired depth interviews. The quantitative research consisted of 3,242 online surveys.

A boost of the Queensland sample (n=953) in the quantitative stage was commissioned by the Queensland Department of Health to provide a greater insight to the issue of obesity in the state.

The department then commissioned two rounds of testing to inform the creative development of the campaign, and to refine the creative concepts to ensure effectiveness before the advertising was produced.

The overarching social marketing strategy and subsequent *Healthier. Happier.* campaign was informed by this research.

Insight
The formative research identified a range of barriers and motivators to weight loss. The most significant barrier, *poor knowledge of what is a healthy weight*, has provided the starting point for educating Queenslanders about the risks associated with obesity.
Perceptions of body shapes have shifted, with overweight body shapes now considered normal. Obesity is considered a problem for 'them but not for me' as my weight and shape is 'normal'. Friends, family and society are being used as a reference point rather than a quantifiable measure such as Body Mass Index (BMI). This is due to the considerable cynicism and confusion over BMI and waist measurement as an indication of healthy weight range. There are also strong beliefs that weight gain is inevitable as people get older, and genetics and metabolism play a substantial role.

These are valuable insights because if people generally perceive themselves as being relatively healthy, they are switching off to the messages around nutrition and physical activity because they do not think it applies to them.
Other key insights:
- Target groups have a perception that eating nutritious food takes more time than unhealthy food choices.
- Target groups have a perception that it is more expensive to eat healthy food.
  Older demographics believe avoiding discomfort is a benefit for losing weight.
- Younger audiences, particularly females, see the impact on looks / attractiveness as a benefit of weight loss
- Exercise involved considerable effort, both in terms of engaging in activity and the required planning, preparation and transport.
- More than three quarters of all segments believe it is too expensive to join a gym or partake in organised sport, particularly those in low income brackets.
- 39 percent of Queenslanders feel embarrassed about exercising in public.
- 78 percent of Queenslanders believe having a good routine helps them to be more physically active.
- There is also a level of concern that smart phone applications and tools have limited functionality in free versions and that paid in-app purchases are a significant barrier to participation.
- Overweight and obese Queenslanders who have positive attitudes to weight loss fairly frequently seek information online.

Segmentation
The Queensland population was segmented using the Sheth and-Frazier model (1982) which splits the audience into different mutually exclusive segments based on their attitudes and behaviours.

In this case, behaviours have been defined by BMI (underweight, healthy weight, overweight and obese) and attitudes have been defined by lifestyle (how healthy they rated their lifestyle over the past 12 months, and how likely they are to try and lose weight in the next 12 months).

Three segments were identified as potential target audiences for the campaign as they were the most likely to change:
• Healthy weight, but at risk—this audience is currently in a healthy weight range. This group has unhealthy behaviours and is at risk of becoming overweight/obese in the future.
• Overweight but with positive intentions to change—generally middle-aged or older (45–64 years old) and believe they have a healthy lifestyle, but aware they need to do more.
• Obese but with positive intentions to change—also middle-aged or older, but more females. They are aware they have an unhealthy lifestyle and are trying to do something about it.

Exchange
The perceived costs of leading healthier lifestyle varies dramatically and includes:
• tangible - the time, money and effort it takes to eat healthy and be physically active
• social – missing out on enjoyment and fun (not drinking alcohol or eating fatty foods) in social situations
• psychological – fear of failing and embarrassment when attempting weight loss, and the comfort 'treat' food provides.
The *Healthier. Happier.* campaign balances these costs by providing people simple, fun and cost effective healthy options which can be incorporated into their existing lives.
It also promotes a range of appealing benefits rather than weight loss such as:
• mental – feeling more positive, increased self confidence
• physical – sleeping better, clearer skin, feeling fitter and more energetic.

Competition
A mix of formative research, Mosaic geo-demographic profiling, the Alere Wellness Index and Roy Morgan media consumption data was used to understand what competes for the target audiences time and attention. This has informed the development of the campaign and media strategy, ensuring the strategic delivery of messages the critical times.

Theory
The overarching social marketing strategy is based on the Transtheoretical model of behaviour change (Prochaska & DiClemente, 1983), and takes a stage-matched approach, targeting interventions to particular stages of change.
The priority audiences for the campaign are pre-contemplators and contemplators, and over three years it aims to move consumers through the stages of behaviour change to increase healthy lifestyles and reduce the prevalence of overweight and obesity across the state.
However, the campaign also engages consumers in the action and maintenance stage through providing ongoing encouragement, reminders and motivators to ensure they do no regress to earlier stages of change.

Marketing mix
Product
The product is a healthier and happier you.
We have specifically avoided terminology around weight loss, obesity and body fat to postion the end result as postive and achievable to everyone. This contrasts the approach used by commercial weight-loss products. This has been communicated through a new and engaging measure – The Health & Fitness Age.

Price
Costs identified in the market research related to financial, social and psychological cost. These were addressed through:
- Providing simple recipes and advice for quick cost effective meals with limited healthy ingredients to overcome perceptions that being healthy is too expensive and time consuming.
- Providing advice on the cost benefits of purchasing in-season fruit and vegetables, canned and frozen to overcome perceptions around the cost of healthy produce.
- Highlighting the benefits of nutrition and physical activity on how you feel and look to support perceptions around the benefits of weight loss for both older and younger demographics.
- Avoiding the need for complex planned physical activity, gyms and public exercise by providing mobile programs and assessment tools that can be done at home or at work.
- Providing simple free physical activity options for people to add to their daily routines addressing perceptions that physical activity is expensive and can only be done in a gym.
- All services and support is provided by credible and trusted source and is completely free of charge.

Place
The *Healthier. Happier.* campaign delivers convenient access to advice and support through a variety of tools and services. These include:
- The online Health & Fitness Age calculator which is mobile and tablet compatible.
- The *Healthier. Happier.* website which includes information and advice about nutrition, physical activity and practical tools and support through reciepie and exercise videos.
- A free telephone support and coaching service, Get Healthy, that is available 8 am – 8 pm Monday – Friday.

Promotion.
A key channel of the promotion of the product is establishing that *Healthier. Happier.* is a product for every Queenslander. This separates it from commercial weight-loss products and positions the product for Queenslanders who currently have a healthy weight, but poor nutrition and physical activity behaviours. The self assessment tool (the Health & Fitness Age calculator) communicates the issues associated with nutrition and physical activity in a way that avoids the untrusted BMI calculation and other measurement tools that only assess current weight. The tool creates a new measure that assesses your current lifestyle choices and the impacts on your future through a latent negative potiential outcome.

The first phase of the advertising communicates the following messages:
- Everyone has a Health & Fitness Age.
- Everything you do (or don't do) has an impact on your Health & Fitness Age.
- Small postive changes can make a big impact on how you look and feel.
- There are a range of free tools and support available.

The campaign is being delivered through various media, such as TV, radio, digital and out-of-home. The call-to-action is to visit the website for a self-assessment and further information on where/how to get help. After visiting the website, customers can access information on a range of programs and interventions, including a free phone coaching service, available in their local area to suit their needs.

Partnerships

The Department of Health Queensland works with a range of national and state Non-government organisations in obesity prevention. The Cancer Council of Australia, Diabetes Australia, the National Heart Foundation of Australia, the National Stroke Foundation and Kidney Health Australia are members of the Australian Chronic Disease Prevention Alliance4, which has overweight and obesity as a key focus.

Evaluation and results

The *Healthier. Happier.* campaign has been very successful to date. As at 7 March 2014, there has been over 214,000 unique visitors to the website with 38 % prompted recall of the Health & Fitness Age TVC.

Not only has the campaign succeeded in encouraging Queenslanders to perform and honest assessment of their lifestyle, a large portion of people who has completed the calculator have started making healthier changes as a result.
- 48% of people reported that they had started doing more exercise and eating more fruit and vegetable.
- 39% reported that they started to drink less alcohol.
- 35% reported that they started to drink less sugary drinks.

Lessons learned

The campaign has exceeded expectations in driving people to complete the Health & Fitness Age calculator, which was a result of engaging campaign creative and strategic media buy outs of key transport hubs. This did create an initial issue with server capacity at peak times. To avoid this in the future, an assessment of web readiness, including performance and stress testing will be prepared pre-launch allowing for immediate action if required post launch.

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[4] http://www.cancer.org.au/about-us/external-relationships/affiliations-and-partnerships/australian-chronic-disease-prevention-alliance.html

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Australian consumers mobile telephony pricing confusion

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Introduction

Mobile phones are increasingly integrated into consumers' lives (Turnbull, Leek and Ying 2000), serving as a critical connection between themselves and their social networks. Mobile phones have changed over time from a telephonic device to a platform for mobile communications, allowing multiple forms of engagement- telephony, social media, SMS messaging and mobile apps. Deciding to purchase or renew a phone contract is a complex decision (Kasper, Bloemer and Driessen 2010). Twenty-four month contracts which include a phone and the various call and data services are common. Even consumers who already own a phone and want a new contract face complex decisions - whether it is long term, monthly or pre-paid contract. Then there is the question of what 'level' of plan, as plans have different features related to the cost of phone calls, data usage, SMS and other messaging options, there is thus ample opportunity for consumer confusion in choosing a phone and/or phone contract (Mitchell and Papavassiliou 1999). For mobile phone contracts this is exacerbated by the fact that information is frequently presented in alternative formats by competing providers in the same market and sometimes even the same provider presents the information in different formats or with different offers in different channels (Hatton 2005; Turnbull, Leek and Ying 2000). In fact, some industry executives have been reported their companies have deliberately made their offers overly complex to confuse consumers (Nowak 2006). It is no surprise that regulators have wanted to make it easier for consumers to evaluate mobile phone contracts, consistent with industry based research (Harrison et al 2011).

Mobile Telephone Pricing

In Australia, the industry regulator, the Australian Communications and Media Authority (ACMA) approved a revised, self-regulatory industry code of practice (Communications Alliance, 2012), that is aimed at addressing confusion over mobile phone pricing. To do this the TCP stipulates that "advertisements that mention 'included value' for mobile plans will include standard charges for a two-minute national call, a standard SMS and using 1MB of data" (ACMA, 2013) and well as ensure consumers are given a 'Critical Information Summary' setting out key terms and conditions, including standard charge information. This is similar to requiring unit pricing for phone and data usage. In other contexts unit pricing has been found to save consumers money (Manning, Sprott and Miyazaki, Sprott and Manning 2003), although some commentators suggest unit pricing would not be effective in dealing with confusion over mobile phones contracts (Turner 2011).

The object of this research is to discuss how consumers assess price and value in regards to phone contracts and the degree to which they understand the pricing structures communicated to them under the revised TCP industry code. The project was funded by the Australian Communications Consumer Action Network (ACCAN), which is "Australia's peak body for consumer representation and advocacy in communications" (ACCAN 2014).

Method

The research takes a qualitative approach of 24 respondents who had signed up to a phone contract within the past three months. The sample included 13 males and 11 females from a range of educational levels with five not having completed high school (-Yr12) and 19 completing high school (+Yr12). We also sought to cover alternative age groupings with nine respondents 20-24, seven 30-47 and eight 53+. A professional recruitment agency was contacted to source participants and the interviews were audio recorded and professionally transcribed.

Respondents were asked about aspects of their existing contract and the purchase decision. This included; why they signed up to a new contract, how much their contract costs, what it included.

We then showed them samples of alternative mobile phone plan brochures and asked them about how well they felt these communicated pricing information and how easy it was top compare alternative plans. The data was thematically analysed (Goulding 1999) to identify factors related to knowledge, behaviour and attitudes, which has also been used in other studies of mobile phones (Dey, Binsardi, Prendergast, and Saren 2013).

Results

In all cases respondents' most recent purchase of a contract was motivated by the completion of their previous contract, although some respondents were also motivated by their hand set breaking or calls from their provider promoting new phones or plans. There limited levels of searching alternatives between customers and few only two did any detailed systematic comparisons between providers. The searching involved simple heuristics such as "unlimited calls" and/or "unlimited SMS." Respondents could generally use the unit pricing information on calls and data usage, but, for many it was just too complicated. A number had purchased plans with 'unlimited' phone calls and thus when asked about the costs of phone calls, for example felt this information was irrelevant. In making assessments of whether a plan covered their usage needs, respondents tended to mentally compare alternatives to their existing plans. Thus, the appropriateness of pricing of plans related to whether people had used the allocated limits in the past. Thus, if they had not gone over their limits in the past they were generally happy, even if they were potentially over purchasing. Respondents identified that suppliers could do a number of things to help them manage their usage. For example, several mentioned getting SMS messages when they were approaching their limits. Some also mentioned the use of online apps to assist with tracking usage, but many were unaware of how to do this. Several companies also undertook more innovative strategies of 'bumping up' or allowing consumers to top up contracts when people exceeded their limits, which allowed consumers to minimize costs.

Conclusions

The results suggest that consumers are paying more than they need to for their mobile plans. From the consumer perspective, this is largely driven by fears of "going over", so they self-insure by purchasing more capacity than they will need. But it was also the case that many consumers did not take sufficient care in choosing their plan. They could have got better deals if they had made better use of the information, including the unit pricing, available to them. This suggests a continuing need for community education, as well as better methods of allowing consumers to track their usage (i.e. such as mandatory apps and SMS's regarding usage). Unit pricing possible will decrease in importance as providers offer more 'unlimited' plans, although these will not be attractive to all consumers, especially those who have limited usage. Thus for these consumers unit pricing may still be important, but alternatives such as 'temporality bumping up' to the next plan would possibly be cheaper than paying for per unit usage. It would also be important to have estimation methods that allow consumers to assess their usage requirements to ensure that they are not purchasing more expensive plans (i.e. those with larger limits) that significantly exceed consumer's usage.

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Consumer ambivalence towards contraception: Implications for female healthcare

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Introduction

Inconsistent contraceptive usage is an important cause of contraceptive failure and unwanted pregnancies that cause physical and psychological discomfort for female consumers (Fisher et al., 2005; Layte, McGee, Rundle, & Leigh, 2007) and it may be caused by factors such as dissatisfaction with current method, low education, ambivalence towards pregnancy and contraceptive risk-taking (Snell & Wooldridge, 2001). However, prior research mostly ignores ambivalence towards contraception itself, despite growing evidence that female consumers have mixed attitudes and feelings towards various contraceptive methods (Erramilli, Sharma, Chung, & Sivakumaran, 2005). We address this research gap by exploring the impact of consumer ambivalence towards contraception, attitudes toward contraception, satisfaction with the most familiar contraceptive method and intercourse frequency on female consumers' contraceptive usage with specific hypotheses and testing these with data from a large-scale field study.

By exploring the reasons for non-compliance in contraceptive usage by female consumers our research would help them improve their well-being by preventing unwanted pregnancies and helping control sexually transmitted diseases. We also provide useful information for their sexual partners, family members, healthcare providers, social welfare workers and even society in general.

Method

A team of well-trained female market surveyors approached females in the 15-44 years age-group using a clinic-intercept approach, in two major hospitals (National University Hospital and Singapore General Hospital) and six randomly selected clinics (three General Physicians and Gynecologists each) located all over Singapore. The final sample consists of 588 sexually active females and shows a good response rate (about 29%). The participants were requested to participate in an anonymous academic survey about female healthcare after they finished their consultation with the doctor. No personal information (e.g., name or address) was collected from the participants and no incentive was given to them.

Attitude toward contraception (ATT) was measured using an eight-item scale (Brückner, Martin, & Bearman, 2004) and satisfaction with most familiar contraceptive method (SAT) using a three-item scale (Layte et al., 2007), both seven-point Semantic Differential scales. Behavioral intentions (BI) were measured with a three-item five-point Likert scale. Consumer ambivalence towards contraception was operationalized by first measuring positive (POS) and negative (NEG) perceptions about contraception separately and then using Griffin's formula to calculate the ambivalence score (Thompson, Zanna, & Griffin, 1995). Intercourse frequency (ICF) and current contraceptive usage (USE) were recorded with demographic (age, education, ethnicity, income, marital status, no. of children and occupation) and socio-normative variables (perceived influence of male partner, family, and doctors).

Data Analysis & Results

We used moderated multiple regression analysis to test all the hypotheses, using interaction terms created by multiplying the mean-centered scores for ATT, SAT and ICF (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Attitude toward contraception has a positive effect (H1) on contraceptive usage (β = .24, p < .001) and behavioral intentions (β = .29, p < .001). Satisfaction with most familiar contraceptive method has a positive effect (H2) on both usage (β = .16, p < .01), and intentions (β = .26, p < .001). Intercourse frequency has no significant effect (H3) on usage (β = .04, p > .50) but it has a positive effect on intentions (β = .09, p < .05). Moreover, the interaction between attitude and intercourse frequency (H4) for usage (β = .13, p < .01) and intentions (β = .10, p < .05) as well as between satisfaction and intercourse frequency (H5) for usage (β = .15, p < .01) and intentions (β = .12, p < .01) are all significant.

Ambivalence toward contraception has a negative effect (H6) on usage (β = -.10, p < .05) and intentions (β = -.08, p < .05). The interaction between attitude and ambivalence (H7) is significant for intention (β = -.13, p < .01) but not for usage (β = -.06, p > .20). In contrast, the interaction between satisfaction and ambivalence (H8) is significant for usage (β = -.11, p < .01) but not for intentions (β = -.07, p > .10). Finally, interaction between intercourse frequency and ambivalence (H9) is significant for both usage (β = -.13, p < .01) and intentions (β = -.09, p < .05). Overall, six out of nine hypotheses are fully supported and three are partly supported.

Discussion & Implications

Our results confirm that female consumers have ambivalent attitudes towards contraception, consisting of both positive (convenient, affordable, reliable and easily available) and negative (short-term side effects, long-term bad effects, embarrassment and against religion) elements. Younger, single and non-Chinese female consumers show greater ambivalence toward contraception compared to others. Attitudes toward contraception, satisfaction with the most familiar contraceptive method and intercourse frequency have a positive effect on contraceptive usage and intentions.

Finally, consumer ambivalence toward contraception has a negative effect on usage and intentions, and it also negatively moderates the effect of attitude, satisfaction and intercourse frequency on either usage or intentions.

We extend prior research on contraceptive usage by introducing the concept of consumer ambivalence about contraception and we also extend the research on consumer ambivalence (Otnes, Lowrey, & Shrum, 1997; Zemborain & Johar, 2007) by testing its impact in a socially relevant context related to female health and well-being. Our research also has important practical and managerial implications. First, our findings will make female consumers, their male partners and other family members aware of the reasons for low or inconsistent contraception usage, which may help them overcome these influences and improve their contraceptive usage. Our findings will also help those involved in managing the reproductive health and well-being of women around the world (e.g., healthcare professionals, social workers, welfare organizations) to develop more focused consumer education programs and communication campaigns to target the most appropriate consumer segments with the right message, in order to reduce their ambivalence and improve their contraception usage rates.

We show that a combination of attitudinal (attitude toward contraception and ambivalence), experiential (satisfaction with contraception) and behavioral (intercourse frequency) variables that influence contraceptive usage and intentions. We also show that consumer ambivalence about contraception as well as intercourse frequency play indirect roles in this process. Hence, future consumer education efforts should work on multiple fronts – educate female consumers about the choices and benefits of contraceptive methods available to them (to improve their attitudes toward contraception); improve the quality of contraceptive methods and ensure their correct usage through consumer education (to improve compliance and satisfaction); and to use suitable case studies and examples (to make the consumers aware about their ambivalent attitudes and help them reduce their ambivalence).

According to the Elaboration-Likelihood Model, there are two routes to persuasion, the peripheral route and central route (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Less educated and/or younger consumers with lower levels of sexual activities may use the peripheral route to process information regarding contraceptive methods due to their lower involvement with contraception (Zaichkowsky, 1985); hence celebrity endorsements can be used to promote the positive aspects of contraceptive usage and make attitudes towards contraception positive by reducing ambivalence. Alternatively, fear appeal may be used to increase their involvement level. In contrast, for older and/or more educated consumers with higher frequency of sexual activity, a relatively more central route may be more likely to work, by sharing more detailed information with education material such as brochures, displays and video clips etc.

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Co-creating career aspirations in LSES youth LSES:
Lower Socio-Economic Status (India)

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Introduction

For a majority of Lower Social Economic Status (LSES) youth in the Indian subcontinent, lack of positive role models and absence of career aspirations can be traced to the issue of "cultural capital" defined by Bourdieu (1977, 1986) who wrote "Cultural capital may be defined as forms of knowledge, skills, education, and advantages that a person has, which give them a higher status in society. Parents provide their children with cultural capital by transmitting the attitudes and knowledge needed to succeed in the current educational system". Family background is crucial to the patterning of student's achievement (Alexander & Entwise, 1987) and ample evidence exists to show that Socio-Economic Status (SES) affects family stability, including parenting practices and resulting developmental outcomes for children (Trickett, et al., 1991). As per the theory of Positive Youth Development (PYD) a hopeful future marked by positive contributions to self, family, community, and civil society is more likely if young people have mutually beneficial relations with people and institutions of their social world (Lerner, et al, 2005).

With the objective of identifying reasons for absence of / low career aspirations among LSES youth two preliminary exploratory focus groups were conducted in Bangalore (India) in 2012.

Methods

Participants of the two focus groups were selected from the Lower Socio-Economic Status (LSES); lacking "cultural capital" and yet whose basic needs of shelter, food, clothing, and basic education have been met. Selection criteria was household income, parent's background & education levels, socio-economic status and meeting two of Maslow's lower level needs (Physiological & safety) . The first group consisted of 12 youth from age 15 to 25; the second group consisted of 13 people from age 15 to 26. Nodes were established after listening to audio tapes and it was apparent that poor self-image resulted in varying degrees of (lack of) self-confidence and levels of aggressiveness.

Results

An "alienation continuum" was developed to measure the distance from an assumed "belongingness & esteem" rating. Based on individual confidence levels & aggressiveness towards social norms, four distinct groups became evident (Confident & Aggressive: four, not confident & aggressive: nine, Confident and not aggressive: three, and not confident and not aggressive: nine). Awareness of the need for self-development and taking interest /responsibility for own career varied across participants.

Majority of alienation feelings stem from lack of recognition of achievements which may be responsible for their self-image. (Esteem needs?). Activities that challenged authority and bordered on anti-social behaviour like breaking windows, petty stealing, burning clothes & books, either their own or belonging to others, gave some participants a sense of peer recognition (brand tribe behaviour). This is in tune with Kaplan's (1975) findings that adolescents with low self-esteem seek various forms of antisocial behaviour as a way of enhancing their self-worth.

Four participants fortunate enough to have "influential others" (friendly motherly neighbour, aunt etc.) to whom they could confide in, were the "Confident and Non Aggressive" ones better tuned to the ways of society.

Eighteen participants reported lack of established friendships with youth from better SES (Socio Economic Status) and lacked positive role models while having a surfeit of negative ones.

Conclusions

More in-depth research is required to identify reasons for absence of / low career aspirations and identify interventions likely to raise the self-esteem and feeling of belongingness .Low adolescent self-esteem is one of many potentially modifiable risk factors for a range of adult adjustment problems (Poulton R., et al, 2006).

The objective of the second part of this "work in progress" research is to understand the concept of "aspirational value" for LSES youth & explore the feasibility of interventions using established "co-creation" models to enhance their self-image and social belongingness & ultimately to co-create career aspirations. Grönroos, (2012) defines 'Value Co-creation' as "joint activity by parties involved in direct interactions aimed at contributing to the value that emerges for one or both parties" and "under certain circumstances the service provider gets opportunities to co-create value together with its customers". LSES youth are active audiences and 'owning' their development path could help them take responsibility for career aspirations as per the stakeholder–relationship based principle of co-creation (Lefebvre, 2011).

Methodology for the second phase consists of questionnaires, focus groups & in-depth interviews to identify "value perceptions" for LSES youth. As the North Karelia Project in Finland proved, successful community involvement needs participation from different sectors of society. Using well-known local brand icons as successful role models the hypothesis is that the career paths of these brand icons reflect success stories "valued" & idolised by LSES youth. Creating a system of consistent & increasing interaction with such brand icons and mentors will provide a safe comfort zone; convey a sense of achievement and belongingness thus putting a little bit of "cultural capital" back into the lives of the LSES youth. Such surrogate "cultural capital" is likely to result in a major improvement in their self-image, give them hope & motivating them to aspire for a rewarding career. This would help 'reposition' their individual brands.

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Unpacking primary school children's lunchboxes: Literature insights and a research agenda

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Introduction

Rising international obesity prevalence rates and evidence that the diets of many children are sub-optimal nutritionally have been seen by many as symptomatic of parents, particularly mothers, failing to exercise control over children's diets (WHO, 2000). Among the possible causes for parental failure to achieve control over children's diets are an insufficient knowledge of nutrition, a lack of motivation to ensure children eat well, and an inability to control children's food consumption (Pettigrew & Roberts, 2007).

One in four Australian children are overweight or obese (ABS, 2013). In addition, data from several sources - for example the 2007 Australian National Children's Nutrition and Physical Activity Survey (ANCNPAS), academic research and research associated with institutional interventions - indicates that the diet of a large proportion of Australian children falls well short of that recommended in the Dietary Guidelines for Children and Adolescents in Australia (National Health and Medical Research Council).

It is estimated that during the school year children obtain more than one-third of their daily caloric intake from foods consumed during school hours (Bell & Swinburn, 2004; Briefel, Wilson, & Gleason, 2009). In Australia, food consumed at school is predominantly from home, with 80 to 85 % of children aged 5 to 15 years bringing food 'packed' in a 'lunchbox' for consumption during the school day (Sanigorski, Bell, Kremer, & Swinburn, 2005). Therefore, the quantity and nutritional value of food brought from home to eat at school is of great relevance for initiatives targeting the healthy development of Australian children, particularly those aiming to improve nutritional standards and reduce overweight and obesity. Given the centrality of the school lunchbox for the overall quality and quantity of food consumed by Australian children, an understanding of school lunchboxes and the rationale for content selection by those responsible for packing them (e.g. parents and other carers) is required for the development of social marketing initiatives. This paper reports the results of a literature review which aimed to identify existing research on these topics and set an agenda for future research opportunities.

Method

An online search of thirteen bibliographic databases was conducted in September 2013 using a combination of key terms in multiple search fields. Search terms were selected based on the specific aim of this review and followed procedures used in a recent systematic literature review undertaken in the healthy eating domain (Carins & Rundle-Thiele, 2013). Following the application of exclusion criteria; and backward and forward searching to uncover further papers linked to those uncovered in the search; references were organised and individually analysed to determine their relevance to the aims of the present study.

Results

Research specifically addressing the contents of Australian school children's lunchboxes is not extensive. With some variation reported across studies, a typical school lunchbox includes one sandwich, two biscuits, a piece of fruit, a snack of either a muesli/fruit bar or some other packaged snack, and a drink of fruit juice/cordial or water (Sanigorski et al., 2005) and there was little variation in the contents during the school week (Brennan, Miles, Mitchell, & Matthews, 2010).

Of particular concern is evidence of an over-consumption in school hours of 'extras' or 'junk foods" - foods that are low in nutritional value and/or high in added fat, salt or sugar (such as biscuits, cakes, muesli/fruit bars, packaged snacks, and chocolates/lollies) - and an under-consumption of vegetables (Brennan et al., 2010; Sanigorski et al., 2005).
A high consumption of extras during school hours was also reported in a study by Kelly et al. (2010) on the contents of pre-schoolers' lunchboxes. In their sample, 60% of lunchboxes included one or more serves of extra food or drink.

The review of the literature indicates that parents have a pervasive influence on the eating habits of their children, especially younger children, through several food related roles and behaviours, including as food providers, food consumption models, and controllers of the eating environment. Food socialisation practices and food-related parenting styles are also factors known to impact child eating (ADA, 2008; Marshall, Golley, & Hendrie, 2011; Pettigrew & Roberts, 2007; Wyse, Campbell, Nathan, & Wolfenden, 2011). In selecting contents for school lunchboxes, Australian parents perform their roles as food providers and controllers. However, research about the underlying processes and contingencies impacting upon the provision and control specifically of school food appears rare.

Available research indicates that Australian parents are generally well informed and aware of the importance of providing children with healthy nutrition (Bathgate & Begley, 2011; Hesketh, Waters, Green, Salmon, & Williams, 2005; McLeod, Campbell, & Hesketh, 2011). Nevertheless, parents report challenges and barriers in the course of everyday life that impact the application of their knowledge, such as distinguishing between more or less healthy packaged snacks among the ever-growing options on offer (Hesketh et al., 2005). Similarly, parents' food purchasing behaviours are being driven by both expediency and 'good parenting' (Noble, Stead, Jones, McDermott, & McVie, 2007). Overall, parents' motivation to ensure their children eat well is challenged by lifestyle pressures, including time constraints, which increase reliance on convenience foods, and 'pester power' or child pressure regarding preferences for less healthy foods (Hesketh et al., 2005; Pettigrew & Roberts, 2007).

One qualitative study by Bathgate and Begley (2011), explored the process of selecting lunchbox contents by Perth parents, and identified three themes: being a good parent, making compromises, and the impact of the school environment on eating behavior. Anecdotal evidence suggests that packing children's lunchboxes is a daily challenge for many parents and an activity fraught with frustrations. School food needs to be healthy, remain fresh, be easily consumable in the school grounds, and liked enough by the child to be consumed.

Research Agenda

This review suggests that the provision and control of food for consumption in the home and at school is a complex issue, with several challenges and barriers affecting Australian parents' intentions and perceived control in this area. Prior to the design of social marketing initiatives to improve the nutritional quality of school lunchboxes, a greater understanding of the factors involved in the performance of this everyday behaviour is required. Furthermore, these factors need to be understood as they relate to contextual variables including grocery shopping patterns and weekly dollar spend on school lunches. The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen & Madden, 1986) offers one framework for analyzing the processes and contingencies underlying parents' selection of contents of school lunchboxes. TPB conceptualizes behaviour as a relationship between attitudes, subjective norms, intentions, and actual and perceived behavioural control. Within the TPB framework, it is planned to explore parents' attitudes towards healthy eating, their current and intended practices, their motivations guiding the provision of food to their children, and the factors that facilitate or inhibit the provision of healthy food lunchboxes. It is suggested that successful social marketing initiatives in this area will be those that address in a practical manner the cognitive processes that underlie lunch-packing behaviour.

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Social marketers playing to win? Experiential value creation in social marketing mobile games

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Introduction/Background

The rapid change of technological trends in the marketplace has increased the difficulty for social marketers to reach consumers using traditional marketing channels (Della et al., 2008). Traditionally, social marketing interventions have typically used more conventional supporting products and services such as water counters for water conservation or condoms for sex safety. However, recently social marketers are witnessing the diminishing effectiveness of more traditional social products and services in encouraging the uptake and maintenance of behaviour. In light of the technological trends in the marketplace and diminishing effect of previous social products and services (Lefebvre, 2009), social marketers have been encouraged to look to alternate means of delivering valuable offerings.

Mobile games (m-games) are one particular technological tool which is now gaining popularity in social marketing. Concurrently, the gaming sector (including m-gaming) is experiencing tremendous development, with PWC predicting the sector to grow to $14.4 billion by 2017 (PWC, 2013). This has further attracted social marketers as they look for a tool which provides accessibility and value to not just the social or health cause, but the consumer as well. However, presently there is a lack of scholarly work to validate the use of m-gaming in social marketing, and in particular, a lack of evidence of what experiential value social marketing m-games create for consumers. This is important given that experiential value in social marketing has shown to be a useful concept in evaluating the effectiveness of social marketing products and services (Zainuddin et al., 2011).

Experiential Value

Experiential value is defined as the "interactive, relativistic, preference experience" (Holbrook, 2006, p. 715). The concept of experiential value can be used to explain consumers' interactions and experiences with social marketing m-games. In the literature, there are three frameworks of experiential value which are relevant to investigating consumer interactions and experiences with social marketing m-games. The three relevant frameworks are proposed by Sweeney and Soutar (2001) and Mathwick, Malhorta and Rigdon (2001), both originating from Holbrook's (1994) active/reactive and intrinsic/extrinsic conceptualisation of value, and Vargo and Lusch's S-D logic.

In 2001, Sweeney and Soutar developed a conceptual framework which suggests that consumers seek products and services with functional, emotional, social and price value. The findings of Sweeney and Soutar (2001) have been replicated in a number of contexts including social marketing, with Zainnudin et al. (2011) discovering that emotional, social, economic and altruistic value dimensions exist within breast screening services for older women. Whilst Sweeney and Soutar (2001) and Zannudin et al. (2011) findings are not technologically based, they still hint at potentially important experiential value dimensions for social marketing m-games, in particular social and emotional value.

Existing research suggests that games have the potential to positively contribute to people's social and emotional wellbeing. Socially, games have been shown to: encourage group interaction and involvement, resulting in significant friendships and personal development whilst supporting both short-term and long-term social behaviours (Gentile et al., 2009). Whereas emotionally, games have been shown to: contribute to positive emotions by increasing players levels of relaxation and reduce stress (Snodgrass et al., 2011). On the basis of this discussion, it is proposed that social and emotional dimensions of experiential value exist in social marketing m-games (see Appendix 1).

Although Sweeney and Soutar (2001) may identify important value dimensions such as social and emotional value, if applied to social marketing m-games they would not adequately explain the value sought or experienced by playing a game. This can be contributed to one main factor, Sweeney and Soutar (2001) framework of experiential value does not focus on the complexity of value that is delivered by technological mediums. Therefore, given Sweeney and Soutar's (2001) framework of experiential value cannot adequately explain value derived from technological mediums such as social marketing m-games, a framework which compliments these inadequacies is required, such as that proposed by Mathwick, et al. (2001).

Mathwick et al. (2001) proposed a framework of experiential value that has been effectively applied to electronic marketing tools including websites, blogs (Keng et al., 2009) and m-games (Okazaki, 2008). They propose four dimensions of experiential value: playfulness, aesthetics, customer return on investment, and service excellence. Past studies have demonstrated the appropriateness of Mathwick et al,'s (2001) framework of experiential value for social marketing m-games. For example, a commercial study by Okazaki (2008) examined the pleasure sought by players adopting m-games. He found that experiential value dimensions proposed by Mathwick et al. (2001), particularly playfulness, customer return on investment (CROI) and aesthetics, were applicable and useful in an m-gaming context. Okazaki's (2008) findings suggest Mathwick et al. (2001) framework provides useful insights to explaining the value package consumers experience and enjoy in an online entertainment venue such as m-games. In further support, Mulcahy, Russell-Bennett and Rundle-Thiele (2013) found evidence of the existence of all four dimensions of experiential value proposed by Mathwick et al. (2001) in social marketing online games. Based upon the previous discussion the following dimensions of experiential value are proposed: playfulness, aesthetics, customer return on investment and service excellence

Although Mathwick et al. (2001) framework of experiential value fills some gaps when investigating social marketing m-games, interactivity still remains a component which is not sufficiently explored. Academic discussion from the related theoretical concept of S-D logic (Vargo et al., 2008) hints that these studies have potentially overlooked some important dimensions of experiential value, including interactivity.

Interaction or interactivity is a key component of the definition of experiential value (Holbrook, 2006) and a key foundational premise of the related concept of S-D logic (Vargo & Lusch, 2008). Certainly interaction is a potentially important dimension of experiential value, especially in social marketing m-games. For example, from a S-D logic viewpoint, Vargo and Lusch (2008) put forward that value comes from the interaction between producer and consumer, which creates a mutually beneficial and valuable relationship. This argument is supported in gaming where Hsu and Lu (2004) found that interaction encouraged further play and facilitated flow. On the basis of the discussion of the previous sections the following dimension of experiential value are proposed for social marketing m-games: interactivity.

Conclusion

While experiential value is not something that many social marketers would normally focus upon in the evaluation of their program, it is an area that requires investigation. Empirical research into experiential value in mobile games in social marketing will be insightful given that past commercial research has shown that higher levels and different combinations of value lead to greater behavioural intentions and loyalty (Okazaki, 2008; Mulcahy et al., 2013). The use of qualitative techniques will allow for the identification of experiential value dimensions that exist within social marketing m-games and provide a foundation for further studies. Further studies may include quantitative methods using experimental designs to see if different experiential value dimensions exist within different social marketing m-games.

Appendix 1. Proposed experiential value framework for social marketing m-games

Social
(Sweeney & Soutar,
2001)

Emotional
(Sweeney & Soutar,
2001)

Playfulness
(Mathwick, et al.
2001)

Aesthetics
(Mathwick, et al.
2001)

CROI
(Mathwick, et al.
2001)

Service Excellence
(Mathwick, et al.
2001)

Interactivity
(Vargo & Lusch,
2008)

Experiential Value
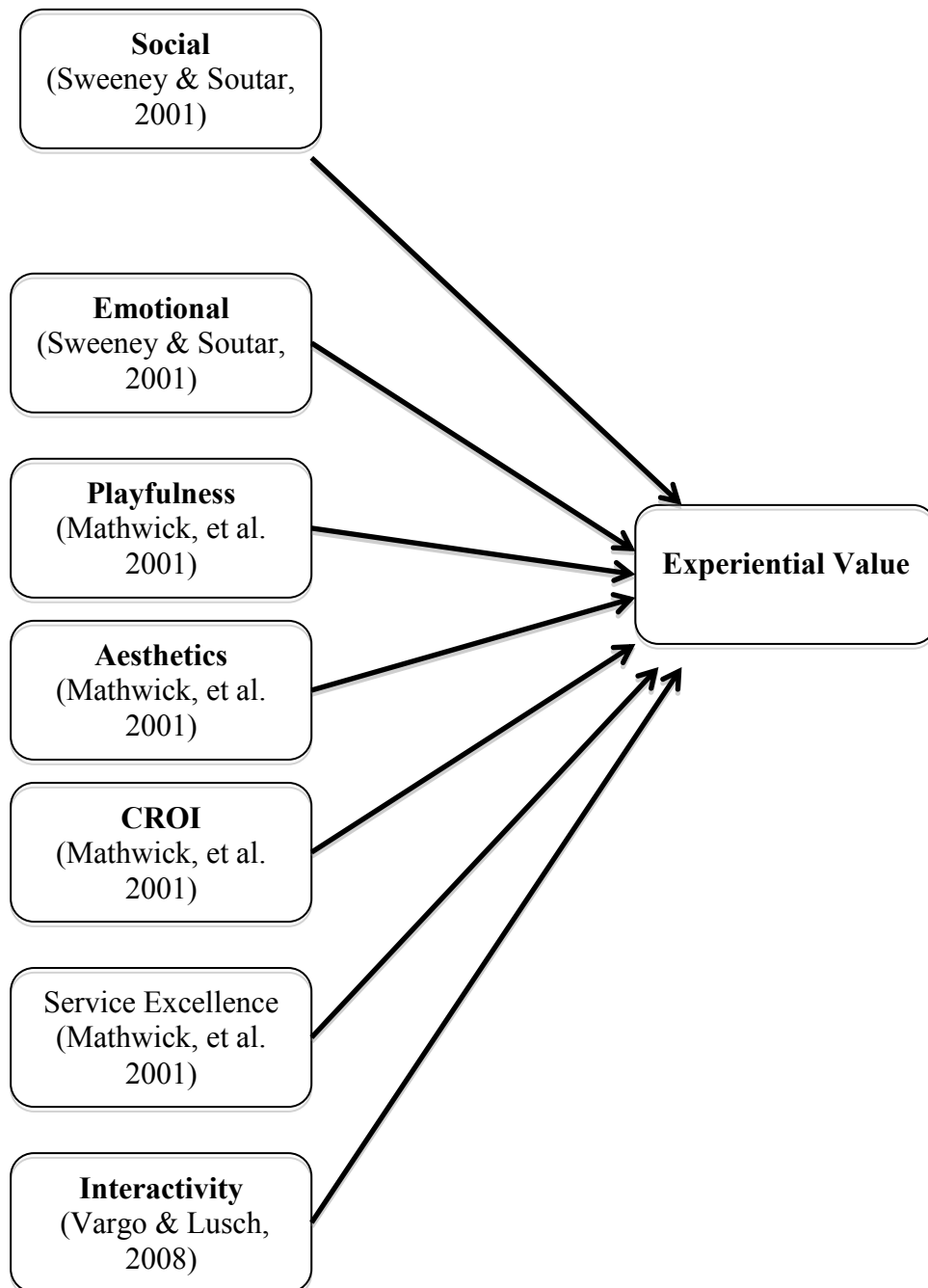
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Consumer education: Helping disadvantaged consumers to help themselves

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Introduction

Many socially minded marketing scholars have pointed to the need for marketing to recommit to its fundamental purpose of improving the living standards and quality of life of all consumers – regardless of their customer status (Webster and Lusch, 2013). For Webster and Lusch (2013), part of this recommitment is a responsibility to educate consumers–instead of simply informing them–so that they can make better, more informed, marketplace decisions. Social marketers have long viewed consumer education (and awareness raising) as important tools to influence behaviour for the collective good of society (Lee and Kotler, 2011), particularly amongst vulnerable, at-risk, and disadvantaged consumer groups (Pechmann et al., 2011). Equally, the Dakar World Education Forum Framework for Action (UNESCO, 2013) has identified broad-based consumer-related education as a key tool to improving individual and collective wellbeing.

In recognition of the importance of consumer education, in April 2011 the South African government introduced - for the first time - a comprehensive set of consumer protection laws that explicitly acknowledged that all consumers, regardless of their economic and social status, have a right to relevant consumer education. In particular, the law recognised that many consumers who were historically disadvantaged under the apartheid regime still lacked entry to a 'fair, accessible and sustainable marketplace'; and that the marketing community have a responsibility to provide relevant consumer education, so that everyone can 'make informed choices according to their individual wishes and needs' (Consumer Protection Act, 2008:4). Hence, the onus has been placed on the broader (social) marketing community to provide relevant consumer education to disadvantaged consumers.

Guided by a participatory action research (PAR) perspective (Ozanne and Saatcioglu, 2008), the author together with a group of student volunteers developed a consumer-education programme aimed at disadvantaged consumers in South Africa. Consistent with PAR, the aim of the programme was to provide participants with the opportunity to share their knowledge, experiences, ideas, and localised solutions to consumer-related issues and problems, and to build community-based consumer advocacy. In addition, the programme aimed to provide student volunteers with a community service-learning experience (Melcalf, 2010) through participating (and facilitating) in the consumer-education programme.

Method

Implementing the community service-learning experience involved three distinct phases. The first phase involved student recruitment, preparation, and training. The second phase involved a number of consumer education workshops that were facilitated by the students. The basic outline and structure of the workshops were adapted from Viswanathan et al. (2009) and the Marketplace Literacy Project (http://www.marketplaceliteracy.org/). Some of the workshop activities included picture sorting, consumer role-playing, and simulated mystery shopping experiences. To ensure content validity the procedures and activities were pre-tested on students, educators, the university's community service officer and local community representatives. The third phase involved qualitative and quantitative evaluation of the programme, and active reflection. To facilitate reflection students were invited to participate in a half-day reflective workshop. At the workshop students were requested to construct a collage (or *papier colle*) using the workshop materials and photographs, and were then given the opportunity to present and interpret their collage.

Results

The preliminary results from the consumer-education programme indicated that integrating a volunteer student-learning experience into a consumer education programme is feasible, and provides both students and participants with a valuable participatory learning experience. Both students and participants indicated that they were able to apply theoretical and localised knowledge, develop communication skills, and effectively build inclusive participation. In addition, both students and participants demonstrated a deeper understanding of consumer-related issues facing the community, and were able to offer localised solutions to these issues. Students and participants also indicated that they enjoyed the experience, and requested that more workshops be held in the future.

Conclusion

Through our experience of facilitating the consumer education programme we found that it relied on a number of critical success factors:

1. Student participation: Students are more diverse than faculty educators in terms of life skills, community knowledge, languages, and cultural understanding.
2. Formal recruitment and screening: Establishing minimum criteria for selection and participation ensured that the students had adequate marketing and consumer behaviour knowledge, and had the necessary communication skills to effectively engage with the community.
3. Extra-curricular voluntary activity: Implementing the programme as an extra-curricular voluntary activity ensured that students who display the right qualities, and who appeared to be genuinely interested in volunteering were selected to participate.
4. Customised workshop activities and tasks: Students and participants played a critical role in collecting and sharing materials and information that was used during the workshop sessions. Through this sharing process the coordinator was able to design customised workshop activities and tasks that were directly relevant to the participants' consumer experiences.

Offering community service-learning experiences as a voluntary extra-curricular activity that is not directly linked to formal courses or for-credit assessment can be an incredibly rewarding and enriching experience for marketing educators, students, and the broader community. Nevertheless, it does require a level of willingness, commitment and effort from both staff and students, which may not be rewarded through the formal performance management structures. For faculty members and students that recognise that a rewarding university education experience is so much more than formal courses, this paper may provide a useful first step in developing an extra-curricular student volunteer community service-learning experience that could aim to not only provide students with a valuable learning experience, but also provides the broader community with an enriching education experience.

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Water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) Marketing: Where to from here?

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Introduction

International development agencies, governments and charities have been working together to provide 'improved access' to water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) facilities (e.g., toilets and wastewater systems) in poor developing-country communities (WHO/UNICEF JMP, 2013). In addition, these WASH providers have been working together to implement a range of social marketing interventions (referred to as 'sanitation marketing' in the WASH sector) that aim to ensure effective community use of the WASH facilities that have been installed (Devine and Kullmann, 2011, Jenkins and Scott, 2010). However, despite some 'success' in providing 'improved access' and achieving 'effective use' (i.e., behavioral compliance) of WASH facilities (WHO/UNICEF JMP, 2013), there is a growing concern amongst WASH practitioners and scholars that sanitation marketing may not be as effective as first thought, and that it may not always lead to sustainable community wellbeing (Bartram et al., 2012, Engel and Susilo, 2014). This concern is shared amongst social marketing scholars who have questioned if achieving behavioral compliance through social marketing interventions is the most effective path to 'fostering social good'. Hence, there is a call for social marketers to explore new avenues for social marketing 'beyond behavioral change' (Brennan and Parker, 2014).

Consistent with this call, our research investigates the inter-relationship between WASH marketing (e.g., sanitation marketing, community-led total sanitation), WASH marketplaces, community norms and individual behaviors, and its impact on sustainable community wellbeing. Our research involves a three-year field study in four Pacific island countries (Fiji, Solomon Islands, Vanuatu and PNG) that has been funded by the Australian Government Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade.

Method

The research involves three stages. In the initial stage of the study we seek to understand WASH marketplaces in the Pacific island countries from a community perspective. A transformative consumer research (TCR) perspective will guide this stage of the research (Mick et. al., 2011). TCR is a particular useful perspective as it explicitly recognizes and acknowledges the active role that communities play in shaping their own marketplaces and lives. Once a better understanding of WASH marketplaces and the active role that communities play in shaping their own marketplaces and lives is gained, the next stage of the study will be to examine WASH markets from a macromarketing perspective (Layton, 2007). Macromarketing is a useful theoretical perspective to examine WASH marketplaces as it can provide insights into the effectiveness and efficiencies of different WASH systems. Once we have examined the different WASH systems in the Pacific islands, we will then be in a position to learn and act on the community's abilities and capabilities within these different WASH systems. A capability approach to human development will guide this stage of the research as it emphasizes the importance of market agency (i.e., the ability to act and bring about change) (Sen, 1993)

Data will be collected through participatory community action methods (Ozanne and Saatcioglu, 2008). These include participant observation (e.g., transect walks), visual documentation, workshop led interviews, and in-depth interviews. Throughout the data collection process the emphasis is placed on the 'right' of the community to collaborate, reflect and act (Ozanne and Saatcioglu, 2008) in a manner that is meaningful and of value to them. In other words, the community has a right to play a central role in the research planning, data collection, data analysis, action plans, and presentation of the research findings.

Results

During our presentation we will describe some of our initial fieldwork tools and procedures that are guided by the three theoretical perspectives and the participatory community action methods, before presenting some of the initial insights that we have gained from our first fieldtrips (which are now taking place in the Fiji and Solomon Islands). We will also discuss how these insights will guide the next stages of our research agenda.

Discussion and Conclusion

From the standpoint of our three guiding perspectives, this research will advance both scholarly and practical knowledge on WASH marketplaces so that both the WASH sector and communities themselves are able to develop the capacity and capability to improve WASH solutions for the collective benefit and wellbeing of those involved. We would like to conclude with a resonant quote: "the problem is not usually the capacity of the community people, but our capacity to work with them in supportive ways" (Narayan, 1993). Perhaps social marketers have much to learn and gain from communities themselves on how best to act in supportive ways, and so foster social good.

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Comparing communication strategies to promote natural resource management programs to landholders

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Introduction

The promotion of local environmental or conservation programs and sustainable production to landholders is an important role of various rural authorities, such as Catchment Management Authorities (CMAs), Catchment Councils, Natural Resource Management (NRM) Boards, and in general Local Environmental Authorities (LEAs). These campaigns can be useful to obtain local participation and partnerships in their environmental/conservation programs (Aslin *et al.*, 2004; Howard, 2006; Millar, 2001; Pannell *et al.*, 2006). There is a growing body of research demonstrating the effectiveness of alternative communication channels for engaging landholders in NRM. This includes identifying which information sources landholders were aware of or have used (Tucker and Napier, 2002; Salmon et al., 2006; Ryan, 2009; Ferranto et al., 2012), the usefulness or importance of individual sources (Wright and Shindler 2001; Rosenberg and Margerum, 2008; Ryan, 2009; Ferranto et al., 2012), the preferences of landholders for communication via specific channels (Tucker and Napier, 2002; Salmon et al., 2006), and the perception of trustworthiness or reliability of sources (Kromm and White, 1991; Wright and Shindler, 2001; Rosenberg and Margerum, 2008). However, few studies have explored the effectiveness of alternative verbal and visual messages, and message-channel combinations to landholders (Carpenter et al. 1986). The purpose of this study is to systematically investigate the effectiveness of different message and channels on potential landholder engagement in NRM. The effectiveness of eight different messages delivered was investigated using three different channels (television, radio and print) in engaging difficult to reach landholders. Based on the different message types identified, we examine the effectiveness of rational versus cognitive, inform versus persuade, and individual versus community-based appeals in promoting conservation programs, and how effectiveness is influenced by the communication channel used.

Designing a communications campaign

There are many ways that advertisers appeal to their target audience with a communication message. An appeal is the approach used to attract the attention or interest of consumers and influence their feelings towards the product/service/idea (Belch and Belch, 2012). Two approaches for advertising appeals are rational and emotional appeals. Rational appeals focus on practical, factual and logical persuasion, while emotional appeals focus more on feelings and social/psychological needs for persuasion. People are more likely to be involved and actively reflect on the content of the message when they have personal involvement with the issue, or when their knowledge and/or the complexity of the message allows them to engage with the issue (Petty et al., 1983; Bright and Manfredo, 1997). As such the values of the target audience influence which messages are likely to have the most resonance. Various rational and emotional appeals were then identified that could relate directly to our target audiences and individual campaign executions were then developed around these. A total of eight 30 second television commercials were scripted and produced. From these eight television concepts, complete media campaigns for TV, radio and print were developed, thus covering a substantial proportion of the information channels typically used by NRM groups.

Methodology

Focus groups were used to test the effectiveness of the various campaigns. Five focus groups were held representing the three difficult to reach landholder groups: (1) 'absentee' landholders who lived in Sydney; (2) 'traditional' landholders from the Oberon district; (3) and (4) small-scale 'lifestylers' landholders or hobby farmers from the Southern Highlands; and (5) 'absentee' from the Southern Highlands. The participants were randomly selected from a list of landholders in the area and recruited by telephone. During the focus groups, the advertising campaigns were presented to participants featuring a radio, television and print ad. After the presentation of each advertisement (each channel was evaluated separately), participants were asked a series of questions about the advertisement and their responses to it. Thematic analysis was then used to analyse the data (Ryan and Bernard, 2000).

Results

Overall the results indicate that both rational and emotional treatments differ in their effectiveness, and differed across the media channels (Appendix 1). The results for the radio treatments indicated that there was variability in the effectiveness of both rational and emotional messages. Both message types could be effective, and their effectiveness depended on whether the message was consistent and relevant with the values of a given segment. This is an interesting finding as the literature suggests that rational appeals are likely to be more appropriate with higher involvement goods, such as involvement in NRM programs (Holmes and Crocker, 1987). The results for the print and television treatments demonstrate how difficult it is to develop visual treatments that are consistent with respondents' own mental images. Generally respondents' preferences were consistent with those derived from the radio treatments, apart from where there was inconsistency between respondents' mental imagery associated with the messages in the radio treatments and what actually shown in the television and print treatments. For example, some indicated that the person in the TV ad was different to how they imagined them to be after the radio ad, or they did not think that they looked like a landholder. This may reflect the respondents' ability to create their own imagery ('theatre of the mind') based on the audio messages that resonated with their situation. The print treatments faced other issues, including questions about the appropriateness and wording of headlines. They also tended to be more sensitive to wording that they did not like, that they perceived to be too pro-environmental, particularly ominous messages relating to 'climate change', which could be seen as being critical of farmers. Thus, the relative message effectiveness can be substantively influenced by channel type. However, this is a function of the design of the ads and whether they are designed in such a way that are consistent with respondents' own mental imagery, such as their image of a landholder. Regarding individual versus community treatments, community treatments were only found to be effective for one treatment and for certain segments. The treatments that were most effective were those that were individually based. Traditionals were not interested in community-based messages, and were more likely to respond to a message that was related to how they could benefit, such as increasing farm productivity. Lifestylers were most likely to respond to community-based messages focusing on environmental need, however, the issue of climate change was divisive. Further, there are risks in using humour as an emotional appeal as it certainly had the desired effect of being attention grabbing, and appeared to encourage some participants to respond to the message. However, for many the use of humour was found to trivialise the issue, and they thought the message was critical of landholders which was off-putting.

Conclusion

An important implication for social marketers is that authorities may need to target specific hard to reach groups rather than using generic messages, hoping to appeal to everyone. Also either rational or emotional appeals can be effective but they must be relevant to the target audience and consistent across the media channels. Care should also be taken with the use of humour, as it may trivialise the issue. Further research is recommended to better understand how social marketing messages can be sent to different target audiences across different media channels to achieve the same social objective, such as in this case, to encourage engagement in NRM programs and better outcomes for the environment.

Appendix 1: Summary of responses across treatment and channel type

	Radio	Television	Print
Rational Individual Inform			
• *One off grants*	**	**	**
• *Best move we've every made*	***	*	*
Rational Individual Persuade			
• *On farm investment*	*	*	*
Emotional Individual Inform			
• *That's the secret*	***	**	**
Emotional Individual Persuade			
• *My farm my family*	***	***	***
• *Grass is greener*	**	*	*
Emotional Community Persuade			
• *Time to act*	**	*	*
• *GER Initiative*	*	*	*

Key: *** Very positive response, ** Moderate or mixed response, * Poor response

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Refocussing social marketing: Understanding the food environment surrounding individuals using a military population

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Introduction

The success of national security, operational and peacekeeping tasks is dependent on the ability of military personnel to perform physically and cognitively. The evidence is clear that nutrition enhances performance (ACSM/ADA/DC Joint Position Statement 2009) and contributes to health (WHO 2003). Despite the requirement for high standards of fitness and health, many Australian Defence Force (ADF) personnel regularly consume a diet that is high in fat and unbalanced with respect to recommended core food groups (Booth and Coad 2001; Forbes-Ewan *et al.* 2008; Skiller *et al.* 2005). Consequently, rates of overweight and obesity in the ADF are similar to the national average (AIHW 2010). With a recognised deficit in knowledge of how to treat obesity in military populations (Sanderson *et al.* 2011), and little known of the influences on their eating behaviour (Jallinoja *et al.* 2011) a need exists for initiatives that improve the eating behaviour of military personnel.

Social marketing principles include a strong focus on the consumer (NSMC 2010), and until recently, social marketing theory and practice has been largely directed toward individual behaviour change. Whilst an understanding of the consumer (or citizen) is a strength of social marketing (French 2011); many are urging the field to consider others means of enacting behaviour change. This includes taking an ecological perspective of behaviour, which assumes that behaviour has multiple levels of influence—personal, social, environmental—all of which have direct, indirect and interactive effects (Sallis *et al.* 2008).

The food environment appears to be a major influence on eating behaviour, contributing to unhealthy diets and stimulating energy overconsumption (Vandevijvere and Tseng 2013). Yet, to measure the food environment in a meaningful way, and provide direction for the intervention planning process, is challenging. As part of the formative research for a larger social marketing project, this study addressed the research question: *If an individual wanted to make a healthful choice in this environment—would they be able to do so?* This was achieved by drawing on one ecological model—the community nutrition environment model (Glanz *et al.* 2005)—to measure the food environment surrounding a military population.

Method

A list was compiled of food outlets on a military base, and within a one kilometre radius of the base (a reasonable distance to travel from the base for a meal). No supermarkets were found in this region, but as their use was noted in concurrent research from the larger project, supermarkets between one and two kilometres from the base were included in the study.

Two instruments were used to assess each outlet. The first was the NEMS (Nutrition Environment Measures Study) for both stores (Glanz, 2007) and restaurants (Saelens, 2007). The validated NEMS has been used successfully in the US suburban context, but not within an institutionalised eating context (e.g. a military base). Therefore, a second instrument—the mNEAT (Military Nutrition Environment Assessment Tool) (Navy and Marine Corps Public Health Center 2013) was used. Both instruments required small modifications for use in Australia which were pilot tested prior to the study. Trained raters independently assessed each outlet, measuring availability of key indicator foods, pricing, signage/promotion, facilitators/supports for healthful eating and barriers to healthful eating (Saelens *et al.* 2007).

Scores were calculated using NEMS protocols (www.med.upenn.edu/nems/) and the mNEAT tool (http://www.med.navy.mil/sites/nmcphc/health-promotion/healthy-eating/) to determine *support for healthy eating* by outlet. Low NEMS/mNEAT scores indicated little support for healthy eating, and high scores indicated high levels of support.

Differences in total possible scores for different outlet types required raw scores to be converted to percentage scores (raw score/total possible score*100) to allow comparison between the outlet types, and measures. From the NEMS, scores for four aspects of support for healthy eating were calculated—availability, price (or pricing support), information, and facilitators/barriers. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to determine differences between mean scores for outlet types. Correlations were used to examine the association between variables.

Results

Twenty-five outlets were assessed in this study. Scores from both measures (NEMS and mNEAT) were strongly correlated ($n=25$, $r=0.97$, $p<0.001$), and indicated that the food environment surrounding this military population provided little support for healthy eating. The average level of support for healthy eating was 45% (NEMS) or 27% (mNEAT) of possible support—less than one quarter of outlets scored above the half-way point on either measure. Differences were found between outlet scores, for both NEMS ($F(4,20)=16.00$, $p<0.001$) and mNEAT ($F(4,20)=16.78$, $p<0.001$), with grocery stores scoring significantly better than all other outlet types on both measures.

Differences were found between outlet types for two aspects of support for healthy eating—availability ($F(4,20)=21.77$, $p<0.001$) and pricing support ($F(4,20)=53.00$, $p<0.001$). Grocery stores had a significantly higher availability scores than all other outlets, and military dining facilities had significantly higher availability scores than sit-down restaurants, fast-food restaurants and convenience stores. For pricing support, military dining facilities and sit-down restaurants scored significantly higher than grocery stores, but not significantly higher than fast-food restaurants and convenience stores. Although healthy alternatives were available in grocery stores they were often priced at a premium when compared to less healthy options, producing low scores.

Discussion and conclusion

This study aimed to measure the food environment to determine support for healthy eating. Drawing on an ecological model, this formative research contributes unique insights into the wider influences on the eating behaviour of military personnel stationed at this base. Concurrent research in the larger project demonstrated military personnel have a relatively good knowledge of healthy eating and are motivated to do so but consider opportunities for healthy eating to be restricted (Carins and Rundle-Thiele 2013). This research shows that their intentions to eat well may be frustrated by an environment that does not support healthy eating. Together, these findings demonstrate the benefit of utilising theoretical models that measure beyond the individual in social marketing to understand the environmental factors that are limiting the best of intentions. Practically, this suggests that social marketing effectiveness is likely to be reduced (at best), or *'negated if the context … is ignored'* (Wymer 2011), and more broadly suggests the need for social marketing to widen its boundaries to incorporate tools to prompt environmental change.

As far as we know, this is the only study conducted in Australia using these instruments, offering a useful method for measuring the food environment for other social marketing practitioners working in the healthy eating domain. Replication studies in other Australian settings would assist to further validate the NEMS and mNEAT measures that were adapted for the Australian context and are reported in this study.

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Play among virtual consumer tribes and the implications for social marketing

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Introduction/Background

Social marketers have suggested that one way to address alcohol related community problems is to shift our research focus from problem drinkers, to those of drinking cultures (Hastings, Angus et al. 2011, Szmigin, Bengry-Howell et al. 2011). This comes in light of the lack of success of social marketing campaigns focusing on individual responsibility, which are ineffective in the current marketing environment and fail to absorb the sociality of drinking (Szmigin, Bengry-Howell et al. 2011) wherein the notion of sociality emphasises interpersonal relationships (Cova and Dalli 2009).

The emerging importance of interpersonal relationships in reaching audiences, particularly in an online environment (Kiecker and Cowles 2002), merits consideration of consumption collectives which enhance and embrace social behaviours (Canniford 2011a). One type of consumption collective which may be gathering around alcohol brands are virtual consumer tribes (VCT's) surrounding social media applications for example. Essentially VCT's gather online on the notion that the linking value among tribal members is more important than the product or service that tribe members are associated with (Cova 1997). In essence, these transient, fast moving and mobile consumers are thought to gather as a hybrid network with sociality as a driver among tribal members (Hamilton and Hewer 2010).

One behaviour thought to sustain the attention of VCT membership is play (Cova and Cova 2002, Kozinets 2002). Play is defined as "..a free activity standing quite consciously outside of 'ordinary' life as being 'not serious' but at the same time absorbing the player intensely and utterly.." (Huizinga 1949).

The National Institute for Play (NIFP 2014) have classified 5 different types of play: a) Object play, including toys and props (Wilson 2010), b) Social play, such as rough and tumble play (Bekoff 1978), c) Imaginative and pretend play (Sutton-Smith 2009), d) Storytelling/Narrative play (Byers 1998), and e) Transformative-Integrative and Creative play (Mauss, Levenson et al. 2005). Play among VCT members can occur as a kind of 'active play' with market resources (Cova and Cova 2002), including those of the alcohol industry. Cova and Cova, 2002, also introduce the concept of consumer tribes who participate in 'active play' with market resources, such as aesthetics, emotions, discourses, brands and places (Canniford 2011b), allowing 'active play' to overlap delineations of play within the NIFP typology. Owing to play's occurrence as a natural behaviour among social beings (particularly youth) (Sutton-Smith, 2009) and the pervasiveness of play among VCT literature (Cova and Cova 2002, Kozinets, 2002) the instillation of play within alcohol brand virtual communications requires consideration.

Concomitantly, a societal shift toward increasing online play has developed among consumers and marketers of products and services, including products that pose threats to health, such as alcohol, tobacco and gambling games. Alcohol and tobacco products are increasing their online presence through social media sites and modes which encourage playful behaviour (Hong and Cody 2002, Winpenny, Marteau et al. 2012, Hastings and Sheron 2013), while online gambling games with pretend money acquire players who 'likely' transfer real money (Monaghan, Derevensky et al. 2008).

Little research has been conducted on; a) the types of play and occurrence surrounding these products, and b) the subsequent implications for behaviour.

This research seeks to answer two key questions:

How do adults play in this virtual space?
What are the implications (if any) of this virtual behaviour for actual behaviour?
To study this phenomenon in more detail, this research seeks to explore a context where there appears to be large amounts of play online. Among risky products, one category where there appears to encourage considerable amounts of play includes online communications initiated by the alcohol industry.

Conceptual Model/Proposal

To explore play among VCT's who interact with the alcohol industry online, the framework used in this research will incorporate exploration of patterns of play online, and the link between play online and behaviour (referred to as 'linking value' in appendix 1).
Consumption collectives which act as VCT's surrounding alcohol products will provide the cooperative within which patterns of play will be qualitatively analysed to contribute to our understanding of actual behaviour, as illustrated in appendix 1.

The conceptual model explores classifications of play as classified by NIFP (2013) to see which hold true in this environment. These play types will provide the basis for exploring types of play occurring within virtual alcohol communications and the link with actual behavioural outcomes and implications.

Implications for theory

The primary contribution toward social marketing theory is enabling better understanding of the modes of play online. This is important as this research is likely to illustrate that play doesn't necessarily lead to positive outcomes, and conversely, may lead to negative behavioural outcomes when instilled in online communication among risky products.
Future research could investigate a) using alcohol product/s as play objects b) incorporating social elements with alcohol communications and VCT's, such as photos of rough and tumble play surrounding alcohol products c) imaginative or pretend play encouraged by artistic or visionary themes used by alcohol industry initiated online communications d) storytelling-narrative play instilling pleasure, timelessness or an altered state of vicarious learning and e) creative play, where VCT's include fantasy and reshaping of ideas on alcohol initiated communication ideas when interacting online with one another.

Implications for practice

If this research finds that play is occurring among VCT's surrounding alcohol products, this will have significant implications for social marketing. This research will produce an evidence base on how play can be infused in the design and implementation of engaging social marketing initiatives.

This includes social marketing online (such as creating engaging content among initiatives encouraging abstaining or reducing alcohol intake) and how concepts of play can be infused into brands which encourage modifying relationships with alcohol.

This arises in light of the opportunity that new media offers for the development of online campaigns surrounding alcohol (Atkinson, Sumnall et al. 2011) and the suggestion that interactive media and websites (such as eGames and You Tube) could assist with social marketing behaviour change initiatives now and in the future (Hastings, Angus et. Al 2011).

Appendix 1. Conceptual Framework

*Consumption
Collective*

*Linking
Value*

*Outcomes and
Implications*

Virtual
Consumer
Tribes

Patterns of Play

- Object Play
- Social Play
- Imaginative &
  pretend
- Storytelling/Narrative
- Transformative-
  Integrative &
  Creative

Actual
Behaviour
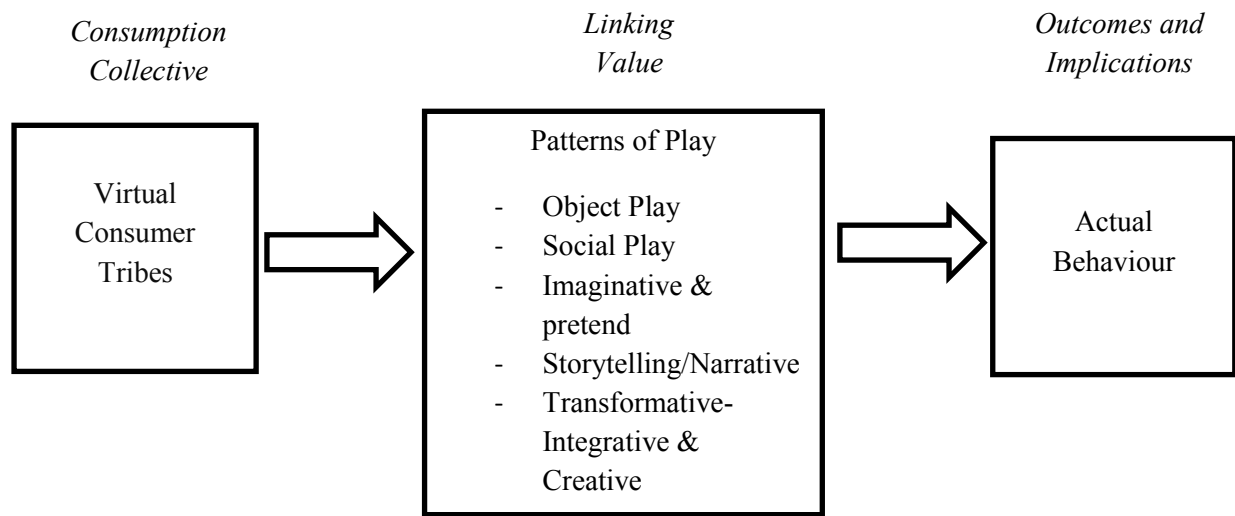
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Examining young Australian men's help-seeking towards mental well-being in a problematic online gaming context

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Introduction

Problematic online gaming is an uprising threat on mental health that is concerning societies worldwide (Kuss & Griffiths, 2012). Excessive time spent on online games are producing symptoms of problematic behavioural and negative mental health outcomes such as depression, anxiety and suicide ideation (Rehbein, Psych, Kleimann, Mediasci, & Mossle, 2010). In particular, young men are the most vulnerable to developing problematic online gaming behaviour owing to their tendency to engage in online games excessively as compared to female gamers (Gentile, 2009). Moreover with a forecasted annual growth of 9.5% per annum for the Australian games industry (Brand, 2012), it is anticipated that problematic online gaming will increase among young Australian male online gamers (Kuss & Griffiths, 2012).

To tackle this serious societal issue, both social marketing and psychology literature (Schuster & Drennan, 2011) emphasises the need for research and interventions to encourage early help-seeking towards achieving mental well-being. However the lack of unified help-seeking theory has contributed to a disarray of conceptual clarity, defined scope and validated consistent measurements (Kuss & Griffiths, 2012; Rickwood & Thomas, 2012). In particular, there is a need to investigate the help-seeking process in terms of the problem recognition stage. This paper therefore proposes the following research question and an appropriate qualitative methodology:

RQC1: What are the incidents that trigger problem recognition in young Australian male problematic online gamers aged 18-25 years old?

Conceptual Model/Proposal

Help-seeking is a complex decision-making process that represents the intentional action to solve a problem that challenges one's personal abilities. It begins with problem recognition and definition whereby the individual identifies the problem for which help is sought (Cornally & McCarthy, 2011). According to the Stages of Change (SOC) model regularly used in social marketing, people contemplate changing their behaviour primarily when the magnitude of their problem becomes intolerable and forces them out of problem denial and into recognising their problematic behaviour and the need to handle it (Prochaska & DiClemente, 1983). However, some authors argue that the SOC downplays the importance of external factors such as social reinforcement and that people can change for positive reasons as well (Barber, 2002). There is supporting evidence that social influences do impact on an individual's decision to seek help and the source of help (Moloczji, McPherson, Smith, & Kayes, 2008). However, most of these studies have merely examined how pressures from family members and friends influences in guiding and encouraging help-seeking in problem gamblers (Rothi & Leavey, 2006). They have not examined how social influences encourage problem recognition, particularly in a novel phenomenon like problematic online gaming. This is crucial as people do not engage in help-seeking without first recognizing they have a problem. Poor mental health literacy among young people could also be another key barrier to problem recognition, given that failure to recognize the need for help and difficulty in identifying symptoms of mental illness has been a predominant barrier across most help-seeking studies (Gulliver, Griffiths, & Christensen, 2010).

The inability to recognize their poor mental health symptoms and the severity of it are preventing young people from recognizing their problematic behaviours. Figure 1. in the Appendix section depicts the conceptual model to be examined in this exploratory study.

To answer the proposed research question, this study proposes the use of a qualitative methodology, given the dearth of exploratory research investigating the types of incidences that triggers problem recognition in young Australian male problematic online gamers.

Critical incident technique (CIT) is a suitable qualitative method that asks participants to recall stories or narratives regarding the specific issue (e.g. problem recognition) that can be identified as incidents. The CIT is capable of yielding rich and contextualised data that reflect critical incidents which allows the researcher to identify similarities, differences and patterns to seek meaningful insights into the behaviour (Flanagan, 1954). In this study, semi-structured interviews will be conducted where participants will be asked to recall: (1) examples of incidents that triggered them to realise they may have problematic online gaming behaviour and (2) incidents that confirmed this realization. It is important that it is in sufficient detail for research analysis (Bianchi & Drennan, 2012). Using the CIT, this will facilitate the identification of key incidents that triggers problem recognition in problematic online gamers and to understand the type and severity of incidences required for young Australian men to realize their problematic online gaming behaviour. The sampling frame for this study will only include those screened through the SOC to be in their Preparation, Action or Maintenance stages, as the research is interested in those who have already recognised their problematic online gaming behaviour. Only by using this type of sample can we understand the critical incidents that led to problem recognition.

Implications for Theory

This research seeks to make valuable contributions to the help-seeking, problematic online gaming behaviour and social marketing literature. In social marketing, predominant focus has been on those who are in the contemplation stage and onwards. Few have examined what triggers problem recognition among those with problematic behaviours (Prochaska & DiClemente, 1983). Hence this research will make a significant contribution to the help-seeking and social marketing literature through its examination of the type of incidences that triggers problem recognition in problematic online gamers and makes novel contributions into investigating the potential of social influences in encouraging problem recognition. Finally, the research will also make an important methodological contribution to the qualitative literature through the utilisation of CIT. There have been demands in the CIT literature, to analyse critical incidences and actual behaviours so as to develop predictive concepts to predict actual behaviour (Edvardsson & Roos, 2001).

Implications for Practice

In addition to theoretical contributions, this research also makes several practical contributions to social marketers. The knowledge of the types of incidences that triggers problem recognition in young Australian men will enable social marketers to innovate early interventions focused on prevention and early diagnosis for problematic online gaming. Further, this research will make a novel practical contribution to social marketing through the use and introduction of a potential new data collection technique (Gremler, 2004), critical incidence technique (CIT).

Figure 1. Conceptual Model
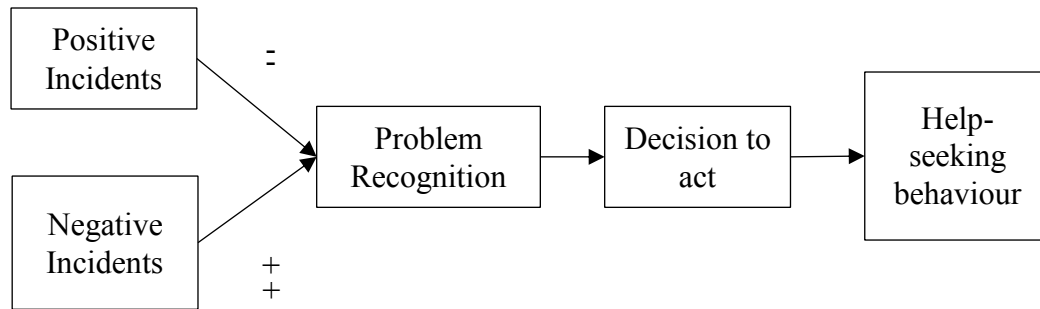
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Fostering healthy food and beverage choices among young children[1]

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Introduction

This paper introduces findings from five studies on the topic of child-directed food marketing. Much of the existing literature on child-directed marketing was conducted in the late 1970s and early 1980s and was fuelled by the United States' Federal Trade Commission's proposal to ban television advertising aimed at young children (Beales, 2004). Traditionally, research in this area has focused on commercial television as the medium of choice for young children (Blosser & Roberts, 1985; Christenson, 1982; Levin, Petros, & Petrella, 1982; Macklin, 1985).

Research on child-directed marketing remained focused on children's recall of TV ads until the 2005 Fall issue of the *Journal of Public Policy and Marketing* created a stir. This special issue on marketing to children set the scene for renewed rigor in the field when Friestad and Wright (2005) criticised the marketing literature for not keeping with the times. These authors proposed that modern studies of child-directed marketing should focus more so on the underlying psychological mechanisms that govern children's information processing. Likewise, Moses and Baldwin (2005) asserted the need for modern research on child-directed marketing to examine individual differences in child development as explanatory variables that could predict children's responses to marketing messages. Moses and Baldwin introduced "theory of mind" (a particular form of social development) and executive functioning (a particular form of cognitive development), and suggested these forms of development as important variables to be assessed when examining children's responses to marketing messages. Hence, the studies presented here will show how measures of individual differences in social, cognitive, and language development influence preschool children's responses to food and beverage marketing.

Research in the area of child-directed food and beverage marketing is timely and has real-world application to debates around current policy issues such as "fat taxes" and restrictions on Happy Meal toys. Moreover, examination of children's responses to food and beverage marketing is highly relevant in a climate where concerns about childhood obesity abound.

Method

Five studies will be presented. Due to space limitations, only three studies are described here and specific hypotheses for each of the studies are not presented. In general, though, it is anticipated that individual differences in various forms of child development will show significant relationships with children's consumer socialisation outcomes.

The first study is a two-part study that examines (a) children's memory for food and beverage brands and (b) the ways in which children judge others based on brand affiliations. Study one used a sample of 42 preschool children. Children's ability to form mental representations of brands such as Coke, Pepsi, McDonald's, and Hungry Jacks was assessed using a collage task (McAlister & Cornwell, 2010). To assess the ways in which children use brands as social symbols (and thereby form value judgments about their peers), children were asked to respond to seven questions about users of each brand (e.g., "If another child has [brand], how many friends will s/he have… lots or just a few or somewhere in between?"). Picture response options were employed to ensure children could respond to these questions without high language demands. The seven-item scale measuring a child's "brand symbolism understanding" (i.e., their knowledge that brands can serve as social symbols) had high internal consistency ($\alpha = .94$).

In Study One, individual differences in theory of mind (i.e., social development) were assessed using a battery of five theory of mind tasks (see McAlister & Peterson, 2006). Executive functioning (a specific area of cognitive functioning) was assessed using tasks from Cole and Mitchell (2000), Hughes (1998) and Frye, Zelazo and Palfai (1995).

Language ability was assessed using the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (Dunn & Dunn, 2007) and general cognitive ability was assessed using the Stanford Binet Intelligence Scales (Roid, 2005).

Using a sample of 49 preschool children, Study Two examined when and how children become aware that food ads are produced to motivate sales. Similar to Donohue, Henke, and Donohue's (1980) procedure, children saw a print ad and were then instructed to "Show me what the [brand] man wants you to do". This question avoided use of the word "advertiser" or "company" but was designed to assess whether the child understood the intentions of the advertiser. The question was accompanied by a picture response card with three different options (one of which clearly indicated consumption of the product and two that were clearly incorrect answers but did include the product). Children were also tested for individual differences in language ability, theory of mind, and executive functioning, using tasks similar to those employed in Study One.

Finally, Study Three investigated how collectible toys are used to motivate fast food sales. An experiment was conducted with 85 preschool children. Each child received some (but not all) toys from a collectible set. Children were later shown multiple food ads and were asked to rate each food on a scale using frowning and smiling faces (i.e., a child-friendly five-point Likert scale). These ads included six meal deals and 12 other foods (e.g., cupcakes). The six meal deal ads involved a two (meal type: fast food meal vs. healthy meal) x three (toy type: collectible toy, non-collectible toy, no toy) manipulation. Responses to the 12 "other" foods were not analysed as part of the study. Study Three also involved a follow-up test with a separate sample of 56 preschool children, wherein children were asked to choose between pairs of meal deals instead of simply rating each offering. Language ability and executive functioning were also assessed.

Results and Discussion

Study One results were analysed using hierarchical multiple regression. They indicated that children whose theory of mind and executive functions are more developed are better equipped to form mental representations of brands. These kids remember more about the food and beverage brands they see advertised. Brand symbolism understanding was related to theory of mind, but not executive functioning. This suggests that children with advanced social skills understand how brands are used as social symbols. They make judgements of other children, based on their peers' food and beverage choices.

Study Two results show that a child's ability to recognise the persuasive intent of food ads is significantly related to social skills development. Children who are more socially adept are better able to recognise that the advertiser wants them to consume the advertised food. However, this does not necessarily imply any advanced level of scepticism about advertising.

Study Three results showed that the collectible toy premium influenced children's food ratings. Meals paired with a collectible toy received the highest ratings. This was true for healthy meals as well as fast food meals. Both meals were viewed more positively when the toy premium was a collectible toy rather than a non-collectible toy. The follow-up test showed that the only condition in which children would choose a healthy meal over fast food was when the healthier meal came with a collectible toy and the fast food meal had no toy. When both meals came with the same collectible toy, children were not inclined to choose the healthier meal.

Children with more advanced executive functions were more heavily influenced by collectible toy premiums.

Taken together, this stream of research highlights young children's vulnerabilities as "information sponges" whose food preferences are significantly influenced by marketing messages.

Though prior studies have examined the role of marketing in food choice, their participants are primarily adults and older children. These studies were focused on very young children to gain unique insights into the earliest stages of developing food preferences. Public policy implications will be discussed, along with suggestions for parents, schools and retailers who wish to promote healthy food choices among children.

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Effectiveness of the theories used in walking behaviour change interventions

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Introduction

Chronic diseases are the leading cause of death among adults in the world (World Health Organization, 2011b), mostly in middle- and high-income countries (World Health Organization, 2011a) and much of this disease burden is entirely preventable. The burden of chronic disease is rapidly rising in low- and middle-income countries (Alwan et al., 2010). Interventions focusing on changing peoples' health behaviour such as walking 30 minutes per day, 5 days per week (Pate et al., 1995) or walking 10,000 steps/day (Tudor-Locke et al., 2011) have been found to be successful in reducing the burden of chronic diseases (Brisson & Tudor-Locke, 2004; Galper, Trivedi, Barlow, Dunn, & Kampert, 2006) and health care costs (Lee & Buchner, 2008). However, evidence suggests that many people do not walk regularly up to the recommended level (Brock et al., 2009; VicHealth, 2012). Moreover, walking rates decrease over time (Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, 2012). It is, therefore, important to change people's walking behaviour to reduce the burden of chronic diseases.

Behavioural interventions can effectively change individual's unhealthy behaviours into healthy behaviours. Among behavioural interventions, Marteau, Dieppe, Foy, Kinmonth, and Schneiderman (2006) identified that theory based behavioural interventions are more effective than non-theory based interventions. Despite this knowledge, literature reviews of behavioural interventions continue to demonstrate a lack of theory use (Luca and Suggs, 2013) and it's reporting (Truong, 2014) suggesting there is an ongoing need to review the features of different behaviour change theories used in walking interventions to better understand their effectiveness in increasing walking.

Methods

Walking behaviour change interventions were searched with the key words "walking promotion" and "pedometer" through PubMed on 23 March 2012. The search was limited to peer-reviewed academic journal articles published in the last five years. Articles based on qualitative research methods, non-intervention, physical activity other than walking, children as participants and articles not in English were excluded from the review. All search results were downloaded to EndNote. Duplicate search results were identified and removed. Titles and abstracts of the remaining articles were reviewed to locate articles that met the study aim, namely they evaluated the efficacy of interventions. Forward searching was conducted using both the author and intervention name within Google Scholar and the University library database to look for the subsequent reports of the intervention. Full text of relevant articles was downloaded to review and extract information. Data related to authors, year of publication, theory used in intervention, and walking as the outcomes of all the interventions were extracted by reading the full article. Extracted data were analysed to examine the effectiveness of the behaviour change theories used in the interventions. Effectiveness of the interventions was measured in terms of the changes in walking behaviour. Not effective, partially effective and fully effective were categorized if walking behaviour did not change due to the intervention, if there was within-group change but no between-group significant change, and if there were both within- and between-group significant changes respectively. Chi-square analysis was used to examine group differences.

Results and Discussion

Initially, 87 articles were identified during the search strategy. After reviewing the titles and abstracts, 25 studies were identified as related and relevant to the evaluation of walking behaviour change interventions.

Effectiveness of the Interventions

The majority (68%, n=17) of the interventions were able to successfully change walking behaviour by increasing the number of steps and time spent walking per day or week. For example, a large increase in the number of minutes spent walking was observed by Darker et al. (2010) with the intervention group increasing their steps/day by 2744. While positive walking outcomes were observed for some groups of the population (De Greef et al., 2011) there were groups where interventions were ineffective. For example, inactive and insufficiently active participants increased their walking while active participants did not (Estabrooks, Bradshaw, Dzewaltowski, & Smith-Ray, 2008; Puig-Ribera, McKenna, Gilson, & Brown, 2008). Finally, some interventions were unsuccessful. For example, no significant difference between intervention and control groups was observed in the Merom et al. (2007) and Puig-Ribera et al. (2008) studies. These mixed results suggest ongoing research attention is warranted.

Fifty-six percent (n=14) of the 25 interventions used behaviour change theories. Of the studies using theory, 71% (n=10) were effective and the remaining 29% (n=4) were partially effective changing walking behaviour in the targeted population or population segments, respectively. On the other hand, 44% (n=11) interventions did not use theories of which 64% (n=7) were fully effective, 18% (n=2) were partially effective and 18% (n=2) were not effective in changing walking behaviour.

Behaviour Change Theories and Models

Seven behaviour change theories were found to be used in walking interventions though all were not equally effective. Social Cognitive Theory (44%, n=8), Transtheoretical Model (28%, n=5), Ecological Model (6%, n=1), Diffusion Theory (6%, n=1), Theory of Planned Behaviour (6%, n=1), Implementation Intentions (6%, n=1) and Self-regulatory Theory (6%, n=1) underpinned the design of walking interventions. Fifty-percent of the interventions (n=4) based on the Social Cognitive Theory were fully effective and 50% (n=4) were partially effective. In contrast, 80% (n=4) of interventions based on the Transtheoretical Model were found to be fully effective (Faghri et al., 2008; Hemmingsson, Hellenius, Ekelund, Bergstrom, & Rossner, 2008; Kolt et al., 2012; Perry, Rosenfeld, Bennett, & Potempa, 2007). It is important to note that linear progress through stages of change is not well-supported (Aunger & Curtis, 2007). Only one intervention that used the Transtheoretical Model was partially effective (Strath et al., 2011). Twenty-nine percent (n=4) of interventions used a combination of theories suggesting that interventions drawing on multiple theories may be less (fully) effective 50% (n=2) in changing walking behaviour when compared to interventions using a single theory (60%, n=6). Results of chi-square testing were insignificant and larger sample sizes are needed to draw full conclusions.

Conclusion

Results of the review suggest that theory-based interventions may be more effective compared to non theory-based interventions. The review also indicates that using single theory in one intervention may be better than using multiple theories in a single intervention however more research is needed. Social marketers seeking to increase walking behaviour should base their intervention design on one behaviour change theory.

Annexes

Table 1: Cross-tab & chi-square

		Effectiveness			P-value
		Not effective n (%)	Partial effective n (%)	Fully effective n (%)	
Theory used	No	2 (100)	2 (33.3)	7 (41.2)	.237[a]
	Yes	0 (0.0)	4 (66.7)	10 (58.8)	
Multiple theory	No		2 (50.0)	8 (80.0)	.520[b]
	Yes		2 (50.0)	2 (20.0)	
Name of theories	Implementation Intention	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (5.9)	.838[c]
	Social Cognitive Theory	0 (0.0)	2 (33.3)	2 (11.8)	
	Social Cognitive Theory & Diffusion Theory	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (5.9)	
	Social Cognitive Theory & Social Ecological Model	0 (0.0)	1 (16.7)	0 (0.0)	
	Social Cognitive Theory & Transtheoretical Model	0 (0.0)	1 (16.7)	1 (5.9)	
	Self-regulation Theory	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (5.9)	
	Theory of Planned Behaviour	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (5.9)	
	Transtheoretical Model	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (17.6)	

[a] 4 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5.
[b] 3 cells (75.0%) have expected count less than 5. Computed only for a 2x2 table
[c] 26 cells (96.3%) have expected count less than 5.

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Finding business justifications for increasing the affordability and assortment of fruit and vegetables in retail outlets[1]

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[1] Best Student Paper

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Introduction

A diet high in fruit and vegetables is associated with numerous health benefits, including reduced incidences of cancer (Key, 2011; Reiss et al., 2012) and cardiovascular disease (Crowe et al., 2011; Scarborough et al., 2012). Unfortunately, in most Western countries, insufficient quantities of fruit and vegetables are consumed to realise these health benefits. Australians, for example, are advised to eat two serves of fruit and five serves of vegetables each day (National Health and Medical Research Council, 2013), yet only 52% and 10%, respectively, achieve these recommendations (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2009).

Although individual-level factors are usually examined as causes for low fruit and vegetable consumption (Weyers et al., 2010), retail-level variables, such as the price and assortment (i.e., variety and quality) of stocked fruit and vegetables also exert an influence. Osorio et al. (2013), for example, suggested that the affordability and quality of food offerings available to individuals may play a key role in their ability to be food secure (i.e., have consistent and dependable access to enough food for an active, healthy lifestyle).

While increasing the assortment and lowering the price of fruit and vegetables available in supermarkets may enhance consumption, there are a range of barriers that are likely to dissuade store managers from taking such actions. For example, expanding the stock of fruit and vegetables is associated with additional capital expenditures (e.g., refrigerated product displays) and increased energy, labour, and transportation costs relative to other product lines (Weitz, 2013). Moreover, the limited shelf-life of fruit and vegetables means that they are more likely than other products to be disposed of before they can be sold. In one UK supermarket chain, for instance, fruit and vegetables made up 21% of all food wastage, second only to baked goods (Tesco, 2013). Finally, many supermarkets are experiencing difficult trading conditions as a result of declining revenue growth and increasing competition (Burgio-Ficca, 2014). Thus, store managers may find it difficult to justify the expense of reducing the price and/or increasing the assortment of the fruit and vegetables that they stock.

A business justification for supporting additional investment in the stocking of fruit and vegetables must therefore be found if the retail-based barriers to the adequate consumption of fruit and vegetables are to be addressed. The basis for one such justification may lie in the fact that most stocked products vary little from one retail outlet to another and, as a consequence, are unlikely to influence store satisfaction. Fruit and vegetables are different, however, because of their variable quality and seasonal fluctuations in price. Put another way, fruit and vegetables provide a way for consumers to gauge whether a store is committed to providing high quality or affordably-priced products. Stores that offer a large assortment of fruit and vegetables at an affordable price may therefore engender greater store satisfaction than those that do not. There is some evidence to support this contention. In one study, for example, perceptions of produce quality and value for money were found to be important considerations when selecting one's preferred supermarket (Hutcheson & Moutinho, 1998). Similarly, Brown (2004) found that having a wide variety of products induced greater levels of supermarket loyalty among supermarket shoppers. The purpose of the current study was therefore to identify whether consumer evaluations regarding the price and assortment of stocked fruit and vegetables are associated with general store satisfaction. Such associations, if found, could provide a powerful motivation for store managers to voluntarily enhance the quality and affordability of stocked fruit and vegetables.

Method: Study 1

One hundred and fifty one adults residing in a suburb of Melbourne, Australia completed a computer-based street intercept survey. Six participants did not complete all study materials. The age of the remaining 145 participants (79.3% female) ranged from 19 to 89 years ($M = 41.10$, $SD = 16.17$). In the survey, participants were asked to separately evaluate the four stores in their local neighbourhood that sold fruit and vegetables. Participants evaluated the price and assortment (i.e., variety and quality) of the fruit and vegetables available at each store. Participants also evaluated their general satisfaction with each store.

Results and discussion

Multiple regression analyses were utilised to determine whether the perceived price and assortment quality of fruit and vegetables were associated with general store satisfaction. Results suggested that assortment quality was a significant predictor of general store satisfaction for each of the four stores located in the sampled community (see Appendix, Table 1). Price was also identified as a significant predictor of general store satisfaction for all but one of the stores. Most importantly, price and assortment explained between 61% and 79% of the variance in general store satisfaction. These findings therefore highlight the strong association that exists between general store satisfaction and the presence of a large assortment of well-priced fruit and vegetables.

Method: Study 2

A limitation of Study 2 was that it failed to account for variations in store patronage. As a result, price and assortment evaluations may have been made on the basis of hearsay or general community perceptions rather than from direct experience with each of the stores. A second study was therefore conducted to resolve this potential limitation.

One hundred and fifty six residents of a second Melbourne suburb completed a computer-based street intercept survey. Participants ranged in age from 18-83 years ($M = 43.96$, $SD = 14.52$), and a majority were female (69.9%). Participants completed the same items as those assessed in Study 1 for each of the three retail outlets stocking fruit and vegetables in that suburb. Participants were also asked to specify how often they shopped at each of the stores.

Results and discussion

In each of the multiple regression analyses, assortment was consistently identified as a significant predictor of general store satisfaction (see Appendix, Table 2). Price was also found to significantly predict general store satisfaction for one of the three stores. Patronage did not have a direct, main effect on store satisfaction, although significant price × patronage and assortment × patronage interaction effects were found for one of the stores. Post hoc assessment of the price × patronage interaction revealed that the relationship between price and general store satisfaction was greater among those who regularly shopped at the store. Conversely, for the assortment × patronage interaction, the association between assortment and general store satisfaction was higher among those who did not regularly shop at the store.

General discussion

On the basis of the current findings, store managers could improve general store satisfaction by increasing the assortment of the fruit and vegetables that they stock and, in some cases, the affordability of stocked fruit and vegetables. Increasing general store satisfaction could result in a range of beneficial business outcomes, including enhanced customer loyalty and retention (Bowen & Chen, 2001; Flint, Blocker, & Boutin, 2011), a greater incidence of repurchase behaviours (Oliver, 2010), and improved financial performance (Gomez, McLaughlin, & Wittinik, 2004; Williams & Naumann, 2011). Highlighting the benefits to businesses of investing in the assortment of stocked fruit and vegetables may therefore go some way towards reducing the retail-based barriers to fruit and vegetable consumption.

Appendix
Table 1. Influence of fruit and vegetable price and assortment on store satisfaction (Study 1).

Attribute	B	$SE\ B$	β	Adj. R^2
Store 1				.61
Price	.23	.05	.40***	
Assortment	.25	.06	.42***	
Store 2				.69
Price	.16	.03	.34***	
Assortment	.27	.03	.57***	
Store 3				.79
Price	.08	.05	.15	
Assortment	.40	.05	.75***	
Store 4				.66
Price	.21	.03	.44***	
Assortment	.25	.03	.46***	

*** $p < .001$

Table 2. Influence of fruit and vegetable price and assortment, moderated by patronage, on store satisfaction (Study 2).

Attribute	B	$SE\ B$	β	Adj. R^2
Store 1				.67
Price	.22	.04	.49***	
Assortment	.32	.06	.49***	
Patronage	-.12	.14	-.04	
Price × assortment	-.02	.02	-.08	
Price × patronage	.02	.05	.04	
Assortment × patronage	-.16	.08	-.16	
Price × assortment × patronage	.00	.02	.00	
Store 2				.40
Price	.04	.05	.11	
Assortment	.33	.06	.58***	
Patronage	.09	.17	.04	
Price × assortment	.01	.03	.06	
Price × patronage	-.02	.06	-.04	
Assortment × patronage	.04	.08	.05	
Price × assortment × patronage	-.01	.03	-.03	
Store 3				.70
Price	.10	.05	.15	
Assortment	.42	.05	.73***	
Patronage	.07	.21	.02	
Price × assortment	.00	.01	.01	
Price × patronage	.44	.14	.27**	
Assortment × patronage	-.35	.13	-.27**	
Price × assortment × patronage	-.02	.03	-.05	

** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

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Improving awareness, attitudes and uptake of the Australian physical activity guidelines among primary school students, their teachers and parents

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Project Overview

The National Physical Activity (PA) Guidelines recommend children aged 5 – 12 years be physically active for at least 60 minutes every day. However there is poor public awareness and achievement of the recommendation. To address this, a pilot social marketing intervention, 'Active Play, 60 Minutes Every Day' was conducted (2012-2013). The project was successful in increasing adherence with, knowledge of, and positive attitudes towards with the guidelines. The intervention provided a fun, social experience of active play which was inexpensive, convenient and sustainable in the home and school environment. Nine active play events were held in three local primary schools, with up to 230 children engaged at each event. Children took home a variety of active toys with tailored active homework as well as printed information for their parents. Promotional messages and resources were also disseminated via paid radio ads and a website (www.activeeveryday.org.au). Impact evaluation demonstrated a significant increase in parent awareness and knowledge of the guidelines, decrease in negative perceptions that the guidelines were difficult to achieve, increased parental support for their child to try a 'new physical skill' and increased mean number of days children were active for at least 60 mins.

Background and Policy Context

Insufficient PA during childhood is associated with elevated risk factor levels for type 2 diabetes, cardiovascular disease and obesity, and poorer musculoskeletal and psychosocial health (Janssen & Leblanc, 2010). Health guidelines can serve as the foundation for public health messages and direct social marketing efforts to change public behaviours such as increasing PA levels (Tremblay & Haskell, 2012). The National PA guidelines for children are not well known (Hardy et. al, 2010) and only 20% of school-aged children achieve them (ABS, 2012). A social marketing approach was taken to improve awareness, attitudes and uptake of the guidelines, to ultimately improve child health.

The Social Marketing Criteria

Behavioural Goals
Awareness, belief and behavioural objectives were developed for the target markets of children and their parents. For parents these included: Improving awareness of the guidelines by 25%; Improving knowledge of guideline content by 20%; Decreasing negative perceptions that 'being active for 60 minutes every day is difficult to achieve'; Improving support of their child to try a new PA or skill by 10%; Promoting use of the APED website and resources.
For children objectives included: Learning a new skill or way to be active (30% of students); participation in school events (25% of students); use of active homework and toys at home (30% of students); and increasing the mean number of days parents reported their child participated in at least 60 minutes of PA (over the past seven days).

Customer Orientation
The NSW Schools PA and Nutrition Survey found that as few as 20% of parents and 14% of Year 6 students can correctly state the recommendations of the PA guidelines (Hardy et. al, 2010). Further, the Australian Health Survey found that only 20% of school-aged children in Australia are sufficiently active and meet the guidelines (ABS, 2012). To gain further understanding of the target audience in relation to their knowledge and attitudes towards the guidelines and PA, four focus groups were conducted; two with children aged 5 – 12 years, and two with parents of children in this age group.

Another important component of formative research was stakeholder analysis. Interviews were conducted with teachers and school principals, and other project stakeholders (key local health organisations and providers of PA). Findings of the formative research were instrumental in developing detailed project objectives, the intervention, and the evaluation research.

Insight
Focus groups with parents found the key benefits of PA for their children were health, cognitive and social benefits while common barriers were time constraints/competing priorities, inconvenience and cost of structured activities. Some parents believed that that children needed down days and didn't need to be active every day if they had a healthy diet/had limits to their screen-based behaviours. For children key benefits of PA were the fun and social aspects, while common barriers were self-perceptions about abilities or being "non-sporty" and competing priorities. Competition to PA was preference for sedentary pastimes, primarily screen-based activities. Based on these insights, it was important to provide a fun and social experience of PA for children, emphasising active play rather than sport. For parents, it was important to promote positive benefits and provide opportunities for their children that were convenient and inexpensive. Consultation was also undertaken with teachers and principals at three local pilot schools. This provided insights that teachers would benefit from easy-to-use resources which could be incorporated into their current routine to overcome barriers of limited time, skills and resources to facilitate PA within a crowded curriculum.

Segmentation
The target audience included children aged 5 – 12 years in the pilot region, as well as their parents and teachers who enable and support their PA. Attitudinal segments within the parent and child target audiences were targeted. Parental attitudinal segments included parents that believed the PA guidelines were difficult to achieve/not necessary for their children.
Child attitudinal segments included children that perceived the PA guidelines as undesirable/did not like participating in PA (seen as sport) due to a lack of enjoyment, skill and perceiving themselves as "non-sporty". To reach these segments, it was important to shift the focus from sport to portray PA as fun, convenient, accessible and easy to achieve.

Exchange
Focus group research with children found that the barriers to PA included that it is sometimes "not fun" and that they lacked skills. Benefits included the fun and social aspects of PA. As a result, the intervention provided a fun and social experience of active play and each week featured themed music, games and fancy dress (Beach Safari, Circus Clowns and Space Pirates). The games required minimal skills, and children took home free, branded active toys and homework with instructions for continued use. Focus group research with parents found that the barriers to PA included lack of time, competing priorities and financial cost. Benefits included the health, cognitive and social benefits. By providing free, supervised activities before school, and providing free active toys and active homework, we reduced the time, cost and convenience barriers. Communication materials emphasised health, social and cognitive benefits and the website suggested inexpensive/free and convenient activities and other tools.

Competition
For children, the key competition was preference to engage in screen-based entertainment. Competition to PA and the guideline recommendations was the belief that children need down days and didn't need to be active every day if they had a healthy diet/had limits to their screen-based behaviours.

The provision of active toys and homework helped to address this competition. Active games at events encouraged children to engage in fantasy play that built on screen-based characters and concepts. Further, the website and printed materials targeting parents encouraged them to set limits to children's screen-based entertainment. For parents, the key competition was the belief that 60 minutes of PA was not necessary for children every day, particularly if they had a healthy diet or limits to screen time. All communication materials and activities featured the intervention brand "Active Play, 60 Minutes Every Day". Communication material including the website attempted to dispel myths associated with needing "down days" and explained the need for the daily activity as well as healthy diet and limits to screen time.

Theory
Socio-ecological Theory (McLeroy et al, 1988) was utilized to inform and guide the development of the campaign. This theory has been utilised extensively to understand the multi-factorial influencers of PA behaviours of children including: individual factors (e.g. knowledge, attitudes, skills), interpersonal (e.g. social networks), the school environment (e.g. physical environment, ethos), community level factors (e.g. cultural values, norms and public policy) (Sallis & Owen, 2002). Use of this underpinning theory and its application in previous studies prompted the inclusion of strategies at each level to support knowledge and attitudinal change, promote opportunities for participation in both the school and home environments, engage parents and teachers as key influencers of behaviour, as well as stakeholders who influence broader community environments (e.g. Wollongong Council and providers of PA).

Marketing mix and partnerships
Product: For the APED project the 'Core Product' or benefit the target audience gained by adopting the behaviour was health, social and cognitive benefits.
The 'Augmented Products' included: active toys (tools that help children to be active); an experience of how to use the toys and how to be active in a convenient and fun way; tools that help teachers and parents to help children or allow children to help themselves (active homework, planning tools, website of local activities and ideas to keep active). Over 2000 active toys and homework were distributed along with printed material for parents including over 600 each of brochures, postcards, fridge magnets and stickers promoting the guidelines. Over 300 each of postcards, brochures and posters were distributed to community organisations. *Price*: Children's perceived barriers to PA included that it is sometimes considered "not fun" and that they lacked skills. The intervention provided a fun and social experience of active play and games required minimal skills. Children took home free, branded active toys and homework with instructions for continued use. Parent's perceived barriers to PA for their children included lack of time, competing priorities and financial cost. Providing free activities before school, and free toys and homework helped reduce the time and cost barriers. *Place*: To decrease the barriers to, and increase the convenience of performing the desired behaviour, activities were organised before school and involved children as well as parents and teachers. Activities offered an introduction to a variety of fun, convenient, inexpensive games which could be performed at home or in the backyard.

The provision of free active toys and active homework allowed the project brand to be taken "into the home" providing both reminders and something to do as an alternative to screen based or other sedentary behaviours. A website provided PA options for children in the local and surrounding neighbourhood as well as ideas of how to be active at home. *Promotion*: Key messages were developed for each of the target audiences to address knowledge, attitude and behavioural objectives.

Promotional activities included radio advertisements broadcast on two local stations, news stories on two local television stations, a website - www.activeeveryday.org.au which provided information and support for parents and teachers as well as posters, brochures, and postcards that were handed out or displayed at schools, and advertisements published in school newsletters. Printed materials were distributed in the local community. *Partnerships*: The project steering committee included PA and social marketing experts working in partnership with Children's Services at the local council and the Health Promotion Service of the Local Health District. Partnerships enabled access to schools (via existing relationships and programs) and teacher networks, and partner organisation staff volunteered with intervention implementation and promotional activities.

Evaluation, results and lessons learned

The school intervention was evaluated with a pre/post survey of parents at participating schools. Of 159 parents who completed survey questionnaires in the intervention, 79 completed both pre and post-questionnaire and were included for statistical analyses.
The intervention was successful in achieving or exceeding the objectives for parents including:

- Improved ($p<0.5$) in parent awareness of the guidelines (from 24% to 59%, $p<0.5$),
- Improved parental knowledge of the guideline content from 45% to 76% ($p<0.0001$)
- Decreased negative perceptions that being active for 60 minutes every day is difficult to achieve (Mean score: Pre 2.49 to Post 2.21; $p<0.5$).
- Encouraged their child to try a new PA or skill (Mean score; Pre 3.63 to Post 3.85, $p<0.05$)
- Used the APED website (538 visits to the website in a five month period, including 386 unique visitors and 1461 page views).

The program was also successful in achieving objectives set for children including:

- Learned a new skill or way to be active (47/79, 58%)
- Participated in school events (n = 140-230 per school at each of the 9 events)
- Used active homework and toys at home (n=49/79, 62%)
- Increased mean number of days parents reported their child participated in at least 60 minutes of PA (over the past seven days) from 4.29 to 4.79, $p<0.05$.

It is hoped that the success of this pilot project, using a comprehensive social marketing approach, will inform future dissemination of the national PA guidelines for children.

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Stick With It! Preliminary results of a pilot study using nudging to empower weight loss maintenance

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Overweight and obesity have reached epidemic proportions, with two-thirds of Australian adults considered as overweight or obese (Access Economics, 2008). There are now an abundance of successful weight loss interventions (Franz et al., 2007) yet maintaining weight loss poses another challenge, as four out of five people who lose weight, put it back on (Butryn, Phelan, Hill, & Wing, 2007) which results in serious health and economic consequences. Therefore, assisting with weight loss maintenance is a critical part of addressing the obesity epidemic. This paper presents the *Stick with it!* study, a novel weight maintenance intervention using the behavioural economics nudging techniques, which are items that can be placed/used in the health behaviour choice situation and influence behaviours in a predictable way without forbidding options (Thaler & Sunstein, 2008)

Background

For those who regain weight, on average, half of the lost weight is regained within one year (Wang et al., 2008). Difficulty to maintaining healthy behaviours can be explained using the dual processing model. When rational decision-making becomes compromised by cognitive demands (such as stress, emotions, and divided attention) (Kahneman, 2011), the intuitive system starts controlling decision-making. Therefore, in cognitively demanding environments, health behaviours become driven by habits, occurring subconsciously and in response to environmental influences (Kahneman, 2011). Behavioural economics suggests way in which options are presented in the environment can influence decisions (Martin, 2008; Riet, Sijtsema, Dagevos, & De Brujin, 2011). Novel, personally relevant nudges can be used to increase salience of healthier options without removing freewill (Blumenthal-Barby & Burroughs, 2012; Thaler & Sunstein, 2008)

Nudging has been applied to **specific** health behaviours, in particular physical activity and dietary choices. Messages encouraging active transport to work (Mutrie et al., 2002) and taking the stairs instead of the elevator (Andersen, Franckowiak, Snyder, Bartlett, & Fontaine, 1998; Foster & Hillsdon, 2004) have been successful at increasing physical activity. Nudges have improved acute dietary behaviours by increasing the visibility and accessibility of healthier options (Cohen & Babey, 2012; Privitera & Creary, 2012), and decreasing portion sizes and visibility of less healthy options (Painter, Wansink, & Hieggelke, 2002; Scheibehenne, Todd, & Wansink, 2010; Wansink, 2004; Wansink & Kim, 2005). The present study aims to extend these findings, using nudges to empower consumers to continue leading an overall healthy lifestyle, targeting four key weight maintenance behaviours (Butryn et al., 2007), (1) regular weighing (2) consuming a healthy diet (3) eating breakfast daily and (4) regular moderate physical activity. This pilot study aims to assess the feasibility and efficacy of a low cost nudging toolkit to assist with maintenance of weight loss.

Method

Stick With It! is a randomised controlled trial intervention offered to consumers who lost weight in a weight-loss study (EDDi) conducted at the University of South Australia. 20 participants were recruited for *Stick With It!* Both groups were provided with a copy of the Australian Dietary Guidelines and Physical Activity Guidelines at commencement of the study (as a follow up from EDDi). This is a standard treatment for weight loss studies. The intervention group also received

the **nudging toolkit**, which consists of multiple low-cost items (**pictured and appendix 2**) which are related to the key weight maintenance behaviours and are (1) practical (2) easily placed where health behaviour decisions are made (3) designed to prompt physical activity and healthy dietary behaviours. A range of nudges are being used to cater for the complexity of health behaviours and variability of individuals.

The items have been branded with a logo (Appendix 1) and the *Stick With It!* slogan to assist in the creation and refreshing of memory structures to increase salience of the message.

To ensure differences between the groups was not due to the influence of regular contact, all participants received a monthly letter congratulating them on how far they were into the study. The intervention group also received three-four nudging items each month.

To monitor weight maintenance or change, body weight, waist circumference and body composition (using DEXA scan) are measured at baseline and then three and six months. To monitor changes in physical activity and dietary behaviours, a food frequency questionnaire and physical activity log are completed at the same time frames. To determine the feasibility of the individual items, questionnaires are administered to the intervention group asking their opinion about the usage and usefulness of each item. This information will help with improvement of the toolkit for future studies. So far, ten participants have completed their three-month assessments (three control and seven intervention). The mean age of completed participants was 57 years and five were females.

Results

In the spirit of the nudging theory (Thaler & Sunstein, 2008) the items were designed to be cheap (an average cost of 9.79 per item) and easy to implement (all participants reported that items were easy to use in their homes), without forbidding options. ***Overall usefulness:*** the nudging toolkit was rated eight out of 10 for usefulness (max was 10, min was seven). The qualitative feedback included statements such as: *"It has been good to reinforce the proper way to eat and exercise particularly when I feel like eating unhealthy"* (Female, 61), *"Very helpful for maintaining weight loss"* (Male, 58). ***Item usage:*** The most commonly used items were: the shopping bag, mug, key-ring, apron and pedometer. Every item was useful for at least two participants, no single item was rated as useful by every participant, each participant varied in which items were useful for each specific key behaviours, and there were no evident gender differences in perceived usefulness of the items. These early feasibility results suggest that no single nudge is most useful or used by most participants; instead the intervention should comprise of a range of nudges to appeal to varied needs of different participants.

Interestingly, six of the intervention group participants have also pursued other strategies or supports to help with weight loss, whereas control participants did not. This may suggest that those who are nudged by the *Stick With It!* are motivated to maintain their weight loss.

Summary

Overall, the early pilot results demonstrate the feasibility of the project. That is researchers were able to complete all stages of the project from participant recruitment and retention over three months, to designing and sourcing nudging tool kit items which were received very positively by the participants. The researchers are now collecting and analysing the body weight, waist circumference and body composition measures from the pilot, which will be ready for the conference.

Appendices

Appendix1 : Stick with it logo

Appendix 2: List of nudging items

Item	Behaviour it is designed to nudge
Mug	Daily breakfast & healthy diet
BMI tape measure	Regular weighing
Hand towel	Regular weighing
Pedometer	Regular physical activity
Key ring	Regular physical activity
Shopping List	Healthy diet
Apron	Healthy diet
Drink holder	Healthy diet
Shopping bag	Healthy diet
Chop sticks	Healthy diet
Water Bottle	Healthy diet
Salad bowl	Healthy diet
Phone case	All
Stickers	All

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Loyalty rewards: Benign business practice, or a potentially harmful inducement? The case of electronic gaming machines

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Introduction

Gambling is big business in every country where it is legally sanctioned. A large proportion of Australians are heavily involved with gambling, with $1,081.48 per capita spent in 2009-10 (Queensland Treasury and Trade 2012). Total gambling turnover for Australia during 2009-2010 was $160.5 billion (Queensland Treasury and Trade 2013). Electronic gaming machines (EGMs) account for the highest proportion of gambling turnover at more than $133.5 billion (Queensland Treasury and Trade 2013). New South Wales (NSW) turned over almost $58.5 billion during 2009-2010 — more than double that of Victoria. NSW has 1,693 pubs with 23,364 EGMS and 1,222 registered clubs with 70,725 EGMs (C. Treloar, personal communication, January 24 & 25, 2013). NSW has only one casino, with 1,500 EGMs, making a total of 95,589 EGMs in NSW. Las Vegas has for many years held the title of being the 'gambling capital of the world', although for the first time since gaming was legalised in Las Vegas, gross gaming revenues in Macau in 2004 surpassed the Las Vegas Strip (Eadington, 2005). Win amounts from Nevada slot machines (EGMS) for 2012 was $6,783,035 (http://gaming.nv.gov/modules/showdocument.aspx?documentid=7618). It is also noteworthy that "gaming machines have been operated long-term (i.e. 50 years or more) in two jurisdictions in Western countries — being New South Wales in Australia and Nevada in the United States" (http://www.gamingta.com/fact_sheet.html).

Problem Gambling

Increased gambling participation has led to heightened concerns by many in society for the potential problems associated with 'excessive' EGM play. The 'Pathways Model' developed by Blaszczynski and Nower (2002) identifies three types of problem gambling profiles — (a) behaviourally conditioned problem gamblers, (b) emotionally vulnerable problem gamblers and (c) antisocial, impulsivist problem gamblers (Blaszczynski and Nower 2002, p. 491). While the Pathways Model is strongly oriented to behavioural and psychological factors and influences, the classical and operant conditioning components suggest those influences which can be manipulated by gambling providers and which correspond with the Productivity Commission (2010) finding, namely that positive conditioning effects such as random and intermittent payouts can encourage sustained gambling. Clearly while most indicators are 'intrinsic' to the individual gambler, others are 'extrinsic' and able to be influenced by gaming providers. Accordingly, the research question for this paper is: Do gaming operators in Nevada and NSW utilise player loyalty rewards as an inducement for increased gambling expenditure?

Method

38 semi-structured interviews were conducted during May-July 2005 in Nevada and intermittently during 2005, 2006 and 2013 in NSW. A series of one to two hour in-depth interviews was undertaken with EGM consultants, manufacturers and operators in NSW and Nevada and legislators in NSW. A snowballing approach was used to gain access to respondents. Table 1 provides details on respondents (refer to Appendix). Author observations in an in-situ field study in 2005 were captured through the use of NVivo memos.

Results

McGowan and Brown (2009) refer to the use of 'comps' (complimentary services) offered by U.S. casinos, such as the provision of free drinks and, with increasing expenditure by patrons, free meals. Highly valued customers are offered free show tickets and free rooms. Sydney's only casino, The Star, has a loyalty scheme which is available to all customers — 'Absolute Rewards'. Whilst there is no joining fee, rewards are contingent upon the accumulation of points, which in turn are related to the amount of money spent in the casino (NSW 22).

Although many registered NSW clubs and some pubs offer loyalty rewards, legislation does not allow them to offer gaming promotion prizes in monetary form or through credits for EGMs (S. Youseff, personal communication, 19 & 20 June, 2013; NSW 2, Pubs; NSW 6, Clubs; NSW 7, Regulator; NSW 12, Regulator). The Star also provides a bus service to and from the casino. This has been criticised by some as encouraging increased EGM participation/entrapment, for example:

> *Star City has its own bus company — 20-30 mini buses. They run regular routes to Asian neighbourhoods — Epping, Chatswood and Eastwood — the bread and butter players. This is a 24 hour bus service* (NSW 34 and NSW 38, Consultants)

As with other industries utilising loyalty reward systems, the gaming industry seeks to increase relationships with their consumers (gamblers) in order to foster brand loyalty, leading to customer retention (Palmer and Mahoney 2005). However, the study by Palmer and Mahoney (2005) found negligible correlation "between perceived quality of the players' club programmes and behavioural loyalty" (p. 285). Whilst the gambling industry utilises rewards programs, so do a host of other industries to encourage increased expenditure and long-term retention with the company. Several studies indicate that this then leads to increased levels of gambling (Sarich and Charker 2008, Williams, West and Simpson 2012). Other studies however see loyalty rewards as a viable part of marketing strategy options available to casino operators (Koo, Lee and Ahn, 2012). Whilst loyalty reward programmes may be exploitative, authors such as Schellinck and Schrans (2011) consider that player tracking data (such as through customer loyalty programmes) can be used in a positive sense "to identify and subsequently help at-risk and/or problem gamblers" (p. 51). It is questionable if operators utilise tracking data in this positive sense however:

Loyalty programs allow tracking of the kind of services that our customer finds preferable (Nevada 10, Casino); *We conduct a lot of in-depth analysis to see which slots are most profitable and which ones are the most appealing to customers, across all jurisdictions* (Nevada 1, Casino)

As Griffiths and Parke (2002) warn, whilst loyalty schemes rewards may increase customer satisfaction, "more unscrupulous operators will be able to entice known problem gamblers back onto their premises with tailored freebies" (p. 315). On balance it is pertinent to consider that, given the percentage of problem gamblers using reward or loyalty cards in NSW Clubs is approximately 14% which is consistent with the percentage of problem gamblers across the Australian general population of regular gamblers (15%), "it is not possible to conclude that use of cards contributes to or ameliorates the incidence of problem gambling" (Nisbet 2005, p. 57). The literature suggests that it is the structural features of EGMs that have been clearly linked to problem gambling (see for example Griffiths 1993 and 1999), rather than player loyalty schemes.

Conclusions and Implications

Loyalty programmes are widely adopted in Nevada casinos to encourage increased gambling participation. Whilst strict regulatory constraints exist in NSW resulting in pub operators generally not using them, many NSW registered clubs operators, particularly the larger ones, do tend to utilise player loyalty programs. In addition to loyalty reward schemes, another approach by gaming operators concerns the layout of the gaming floor, which can act as a form of inducement, or entrapment. Gaming marketing managers therefore need to ensure that players are not entrapped in any way. Large casinos have vast numbers of strategically placed EGMs, which can make it difficult for customers to find their way out. In terms of being socially responsible, while it is perfectly acceptable for marketing managers to offer a pleasant environment on their gaming floor, it is important not to encourage an impulsive or compulsive response or to be seen in any way to be entrapping the player, either through the 'servicescape', or through the use of loyalty reward inducements.

Appendix

RESPONDENT	LOCATION	INDUSTRY ROLE	DEMOGRAPHICS (Specific Roles and Responsibilities; and Duration of Experience/Employment
1	Nevada	Casinos	VP, Research and Analysis. 15 years.
2	NSW	Pubs	Owner of 10 very large gambling pubs in Sydney. 2-3 are in the Top 20 gaming pubs in. 30 years.
3	NSW	Suppliers	NSW General Manager Sales and Marketingfor the largest EGM manufacturer in the world. 20 + years.
4	Nevada	Suppliers	U.S. President of Australia's largest EGM manufacturer. Currently CEO of a large US EGM and casino games manufacturer. 14 years.
5	NSW	Suppliers	NSW Sales Manager of largest EGM manufacturer in the world. Now exporter of pre-owned EGMs. 30+ years.
6	Nevada	Suppliers	Senior Marketing Manager.10 years.
7	Nevada	Consultants	Chief Relationship Officer of Raving Consulting Company. He is the company owner and is responsible for all aspects of the company's business. Raving is 15 years old, and he has been in the gaming industry for 38 years. They have 6 employees, plus 15 "Raving Partners," who are independent consultants, with whom they have a formal relationship and utilise as projects dictate and their expertise is needed.
8	NSW	Consultants	Hotel Advisor and Gaming Link Operator Agent and owner for Max Gaming. Former owner of pubs, one of which was in the Top 10 pubs in NSW for gaming. 20+ years.
9	NSW	Supplier	Regional Marketing Manager of Australia's largest EGM manufacturer. 15+ years.
10	NSW	Clubs	Assistant General Manager of one of the largest NSW Leagues Clubs. 20+ years.
11	NSW	Clubs	President of the NSW Club Management Association. 36 years.

12	NSW	Consultants	Former Federal Minister for Tourism, Sport and Recreation. 25+ years.
13	NSW	Regulators	Previously Director General of LAB/DGR and now a Member of the IL&GA. 20 years.
14	Nevada	Casinos	VP of Operations. 12 years.
15	NSW	Consultants	Former illegal draw poker machine operator. 30+ years.
16	NSW	Clubs	Executive Officer, Clubs Management Association. 30+ years.
17	Nevada	Casinos	President. 25 years.
18	NSW	Clubs	Gaming Manager, Registered Clubs Association of NSW. 20+ years.
19	Nevada	Suppliers	Responsible Gaming VP. 18 years.
20	Nevada	Casinos	VP. 30 years.
21	Nevada	Casinos	VP. 14 years.
22	NSW	Casinos	Responsible Gaming Manager. 18 years.
23	NSW	Regulators	Principal Research Officer - industry support group. 10+ years.
24	NSW	Consultants	Share Broker. 20+ years.
25	Nevada	Casinos	VP Marketing of a luxury Strip casino. 9 years.
26	NSW	Clubs	Former President/CEO of one of the largest NSW Clubs. 40 years.
27	NSW	Pubs	Former Owner of 15 gaming-related pubs. 40-50 years.
28	Nevada	Suppliers	VP Operations. 12 years.
29	Nevada	Consultants	Gambling academic. 20 years.

30	Nevada	Consultant	He and his wife have delivered Compulsive, Problem and Underage Gambling consultation, for over 45 years to more than 40,000 gaming employees (personnel and executives) and have written Responsible Gaming Programs for major gaming companies. In addition, they have worked with Gaming Boards and Regulators, presented educational workshops nationally and internationally and have provided expert witness testimony.
31	Nevada	Suppliers	Gaming Regulations Officer for a large EGM manufacturer. 10 years.
32	NSW	Regulators	Senior Gaming Research Manager. 12 years
33	Nevada	Consultants	Executive Director of Nevada Council of Problem Gambling since 1996. Overall experience on the Council: 20 years.
34	NSW	Consultants	Former legal counsel for DGR (Department of Gaming and Racing). Consultant for AHA (Australian Hotels Association). 20+ years.
35	NSW	Casinos	Director of several Australian casinos. Owner of all EGMs in one Australian State. 30+ years.
36	Nevada	Casinos	VP Marketing of a luxury Strip casino. 10+ years.
37	NSW	Pubs	Currently owner of 4 hotels. Previously owner of another 5 hotels. 3 of his current hotels are in the Top 30 gaming pubs in NSW. 40 years.
38	NSW	Consultant	Gaming Consultant to AHA. 15+ years.

NB: Suppliers = EGM Manufacturers. VP = Vice President.

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Symbols of community, the community level of self and victim response to disaster: A framework for future research

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Introduction

Disasters devastate the lives of thousands, yet growing interest in Transformative Consumer Research and Social Marketing suggest that a consumer and marketing perspective may help alleviate individuals' suffering in a disaster (Baker, 2009; Guion, Scammon, & Borders, 2007; Mick, Pettigrew, Pechmann, & Ozanne, 2012). Such a perspective could contribute to more effective social marketing interventions and messages related to disaster preparation and response, and would inform public policy by highlighting needs of victim communities. To achieve these benefits, a better understanding of individual response to disasters is required. While investigation of the loss of individual possessions in disasters has shed light on this area, further attention to loss at a community level will be revealing. The focus on community is signaled both by Belk's (1988) discussion of the extended self, as well as the emphasis on community resilience in disaster literature (Norris, Stevens, Pfefferbaum, Wyche, & Pfefferbaum, 2008). We therefore seek a better understanding of disaster response in terms of the community level of the extended self. With this in mind we draw upon relevant literature from disaster response and recovery, sense of community, place attachment, the self-concept, and extended self in order to suggest a framework for future research.

Community, Place and the Extended Self

In response to and recovery from a disaster, the community and social networks one has are crucial (Aldrich, 2011, 2012, 2013; Norris et al., 2008). A disaster, after all, is not the natural event, but the human response and human impact (World Health Organization, 2014). Community resilience, defined as "the ability to anticipate risk, limit impact, and bounce back rapidly through survival, adaptability, evolution, and growth in the face of turbulent change" has received growing interest (Community and Regional Resilience Institute, 2014). A more resilient community will be able to bounce back more rapidly from a disaster. The community facilitates stronger alliances which assist in the recovery. Part of this resilience is that the individuals in the community have a strong *sense of community* (Norris et al., 2008). Sense of community is characterised by membership, boundaries, reinforcement and shared connections within a group of individuals (McMillan & Chavis, 1986; Perkins, Hughey, & Speer, 2002). Following a disaster, individuals may *gain* a heightened sense of community (Norris et al., 2008; Olson, Sarmiento Prieto, & Hoberman, 2011; Toya & Skidmore, 2012), via their involvement in a shared experience. This subsequent sense of community would result in individuals banding more closely together, and therefore able to recover more rapidly. Another related concept is that of *place attachment* which reflects the bonds that an individual has to places such as neighborhoods and cities, with people developing attachment due to social factors or physical aspects of that place (Lewicka, 2011). While place attachment may mean individuals are committed to recovering their 'place' following a disaster, it could also lead to individuals feeling less inclined to relocate, thereby being a potential detriment if relocation is necessary due to safety reasons.

Related marketing research examines the loss of self when individual possessions are lost in a disaster. In and following a disaster, individuals attempt to preserve their possessions, grieve the loss, and finally rebuild property and the self (DeLorme et al., 2004). Loss of possessions may also lead to a loss of control, increased stress and impulsive and compulsive buying to retrieve a sense of self (Kennett-Hensel, Sneath, & Lacey, 2012; Sneath, Lacey, & Kennett-Hensel, 2009). These studies confirm the symbolic nature of possessions, and the resulting sense of loss following involuntary disposition such as in a disaster.

However, little investigation exists at the community level of self, considering the loss of community-level symbols.

Consideration of the community level of self, sense of community, place attachment and disaster response suggests a propositions for future research in this area. To begin, Belk (1988) proposes consideration be given to possessions symbolic to our self, at individual, family, community, and group levels, and that 'possessions be considered more broadly to include body, internal processes, ideas and experiences, and those persons, places and things to which one feels attached" (p.141). Therefore, similar to the symbolic nature of individual possessions (Solomon 1983), there will exist symbols of the community (places, buildings and landscapes). As individuals interact with these symbols, they are consuming symbols of the community level of self, and physical representations of place attachment. Thus, *Individuals within a community are likely to have some shared physical symbols of the community, symbolic of their sense of community and/or place attachment, and thus, symbolic of their community level of the extended self (Proposition 1).* As noted, individuals feel a loss of control and of self when personal possessions are lost in a disaster. Considering the community level of the extended self, it is likely that an individual with a strong sense of community, and strong place attachment, would similarly feel loss if a physical symbol of that community were lost in a disaster. Therefore, *loss of physical symbols of the community is likely to lead to a loss of the community level of self (Proposition 2).* In addition to physical symbols, Belk (1988) notes that people make up a part of the community level of the extended self; this is consistent with the sense of community characterised as having membership, with boundaries, shared values and experiences (McMillan & Chavis, 1986). In a disaster, individuals may well lose touch with this group, and experience a subsequent sense of loss. *Loss of membership and/or boundaries and/or other members which form a community is likely to lead to a loss of the community level of self (Proposition 3).* Also as noted, the loss of possessions and self in a disaster causes consumers to increase consumption, to retrieve a sense of self (Kennett-Hensel et al., 2012; Sneath et al., 2009). At the community level then, *a loss of community symbols (persons, places and/or things), is likely to lead to individuals attempting to retrieve a sense of community by seeking to recover or replace these symbols (Proposition 4).* This loss however may also lead to vulnerability – a concept which goes beyond demographic and socioeconomic indicators (Baker, 2009; Jordan & Javernick-Will, 2012). Considering community-level symbols, and individuals' varying levels of sense of community and place attachment, the loss of these symbols is likely to impact vulnerability. *When more symbols of community and place are lost, greater vulnerability will be experienced for those individuals with a greater sense of community, and greater place attachment (Proposition 5).* Given the above initial propositions for future research, Figure 1 provides an initial conceptual model of these relationships.

Implications for theory and practice

The above discussion provides an initial framework for future research, highlighting research opportunity to better understand the relationships between disasters, symbols of the community, loss of extended self, and victim response. Initial research should take an exploratory perspective, capturing the narrative of victim response and their community self, prior to taking a more quantitative approach. Such research could provide understanding and direction for disaster response agencies, public policy and social marketers as they seek to better understand individuals' response and vulnerability, and the importance of community and community symbols. This research stream would inform social marketing interventions and messages to encourage a sense of community both as disaster preparation, and in the immediate aftermath of a disaster. Overall this research contributes to the growing emphasis on building strong communities to help alleviate potential suffering and contribute to resilience in the event of a disaster.

Figure 1: Loss of the community level of extended self
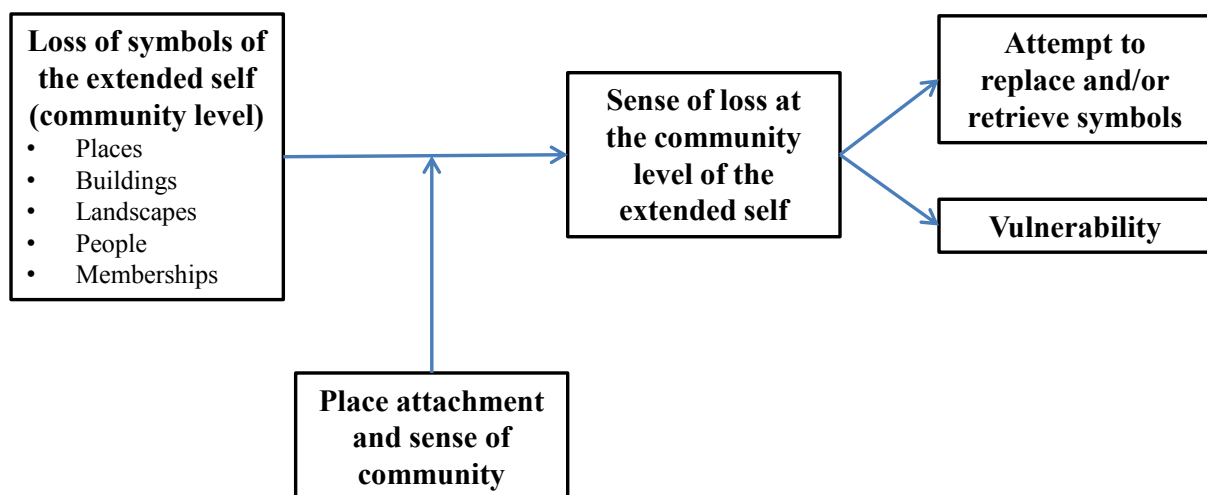
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Age-related lifestyle correlates of alcohol consumption: Social marketing implications

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Background

Drinking alcohol is enjoyable, is fun, and is a culturally bound element of Australia's socialising. Much attention has been given in the media to alcohol consumption and the dramatic increase in episodic drinking, with the focus often on young people and their binge drinking behaviour (Engels, Wiers, Lemmers, & Overbeek, 2005; Kuntsche, Knibbe, Gmel, & Engels, 2006; Schulenberg, O'Malley, Bachman, Wadsworth, & Johnston, 1996; Taylor, 2013). Less focus however has been on middle age and older age groups lifestyle factors (Bjørk, Thygesen, Vinther-Larsen, & Grønbæk, 2008; Hajema, Knibbe, & Drop, 1997). Hauge suggests (Hauge & IRGENS-JENSEN, 1987) that drinking by older population groups will become an increasingly important public health issue as this segment of the population grows over the coming decades. A recent Australian study clearly suggests that heavy episodic drinking varies across gender and age groups (Matthews, Dietze, Room, Chikritzhs, & Jolley, 2012) and that there is a need to better understand the drinking practices of the broader Australian population, particularly with regard to the drinking influences and patterns between the younger and older population. In the US, Mooney, Fromme et al. (1987) found that the consumption motives for middle aged men were expectations of social and physical pleasure, sexual enhancement, and global positive changes suggest that males drink more often in anticipation of positive emotional states. However, female drinking frequency appears to be motivated by the expectation of relaxation, which suggests that females drink to reduce negative states. Yet other research into older drinkers suggested that depression, anxiety, loneliness, lack of social support, and boredom were frequently reported as motives for consumption in old age (Johnson, 2000; Kirchner et al., 2007). In summary this study utilises a theoretically derived consumption related lifestyle framework to investigate correlates of older and younger drinkers to determine if there are significant differences in their values, motives and consumption related lifestyles that are associated with risky drinking behaviour. The implications of any differences and similarities between ages can be felt in social marketing and public health campaigns designed to moderate potentially harmful behaviour.

Method and Measurement

The data for this study were obtained through a quantitative online survey. The target respondents were screened and qualified as active drinkers but not necessarily problem or excessive drinkers. Quotas around age were employed to ensure the overall sample was representative of the age distribution of the Victorian drinking age population. Measures were based on an alcohol-related life styles model (VicHealth, 2013) and include items on personal values (Schwartz,1992), drinking motives(Modified DMQ-R, Grant et al. 2007), and lifestyle factors associated with alcohol shopping and acquisition on (Brunsø, Scholderer & Grunert, 2004; Bruwer, Li, & Reid, 2002). The main dependant variable reported here was based on Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test (AUDIT) (Babor, Higgins-Biddle, Saunders, & Monteiro, 2001). Analysis is based on stepwise regression designed to identify the most prominent associations with problem alcohol consumption. Overall there were 1406 (56%) females and 1094 (44%) Males included in the sample. The age distribution for analysis was 18-34 (28%), 34-54 (39%), 55+ (33%).

Results

Regression models explained 38% of alcohol disorder for the 18-34 age group, 30% for the 35-54 age group and 19% for the 55+ age group. For the 18-34 age group problems associated with alcohol were related mostly to coping with depression and enhancement (motives), with mavenism (consumption factor), and with both hedonism and stimulation (personal values).

For the 35-54 age group problems associated with alcohol were related mostly to coping with depression and enhancement (motives), with mavenism, brand loyalty and easy access to alcohol (consumption factor), and negatively associated with tradition (personal values). For the 55+ age group problems associated with alcohol were related to mostly to coping with depression and enhancement (motives), and negatively associated with conformity (personal values). No consumption associations were found for the older age cohort.

Discussion

As populations continue to age understanding what is associated with problem drinking in middle aged and older populations becomes increasing important. This study is more comprehensive than most in the development of the framework and the inclusion of a range of different variables. The theoretical contribution of the research relates to understanding the relationship between values, motives and consumption factors in a complex alcohol disorder context and stars to address the call better research for comprehensive and theoretically robust frameworks (Kuntsche, et al., 2006; Matthews, et al., 2012; Taylor, 2013) .Whilst the analysis found differences between the groups in terms of personal values, motives and drinking-lifestyle factors, there were some significant commonalities.   In general drinking alcohol is seen as a very positive and important part of Australian culture and campaigns need to start to consider reframing the message of reduced alcohol consumption in more positive terms – finger wagging doesn't work.

Social marketing and policy implications from our research would suggest that messages that are designed to leverage the personal values of drinkers need to operate at two levels. First, they must focus on the innate desire to do right by society (conformity values); second, messages should appeal to the desire for pleasure and fun (hedonistic values). These two underlying drivers are often in conflict but must be reconciled. The culturally bound association between alcohol and enjoyment lies at the heart of any message strategy aimed at changing behaviour. Messages and communications strategies need to be developed that remove the associations between enhancement motives and alcohol consumption, and undermine associations between alcohol and coping with depression and anxiety. Enhancement motives in relation to drinking alcohol are rooted in the desire to have fun, get a 'buzz', be more alert, and the feeling that being drunk or tipsy makes you 'feel good'. There is an opportunity to frame messages more positively and link reduced consumption or the non-consumption of alcohol with increased levels of fun, alertness and excitement about life, even in situations where drinking is the norm. While psychological issues such as depression are not going to be solved by drinking reduction messages alone, such messages are important to promote and legitimise alternative solutions to using alcohol, or to highlight that alcohol is not an answer. Messages that draw on the motivation to drink for coping reasons could show people: becoming more self-confident in social situations – without alcohol; relaxing and being less anxious in social situations – without using alcohol; overcoming a bad or dark mood – without resorting to alcohol.

In summary many government and health organisation seem to share the same overarching message: drink less and that drinking is a negative thing to do. A popular style of communication focuses on the negative outcomes of drinking. However, focusing on consequences has little impact on the drinkers who are most at risk as they either see such messages as irrelevant and/or have become desensitised to them.

Appendix 1

AUDIT

	Younger Drinkers			Middle Aged Drinkers			Older Drinkers		
	Std Beta	**T-Value**	**Sig**	**Std Beta**	**T-Value**	**Sig**	**Std Beta**	**T-Value**	**Sig**
female	-0.076	-2.323	0.020	-0.089	-3.198	0.001	-0.104	-3.221	0.001
Hedonism	0.084	2.091	0.037						
Stimulation	0.132	3.340	0.001						
Conformity							-0.128	-3.509	0.000
Universalism							0.077	2.069	0.039
Tradition				-0.065	-2.362	0.018			
Benevolence	-0.257	-7.230	0.000						
Depression	0.252	6.240	0.000	0.368	10.413	0.000	0.247	6.053	0.000
Enhancement	0.171	4.252	0.000	0.106	2.850	0.004	0.200	4.891	0.000
JoyShopping	-0.090	-2.581	0.010						
Mavenism	0.161	4.209	0.000	0.141	4.194	0.000			
Variety Seek				-0.081	-2.549	0.011			
Brand Loyal				0.062	2.203	0.028			
Easy Access				0.065	2.337	0.020			

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The impact of cooking confidence on the healthiness of family diets: Social marketing policy implications

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Introduction

Over half of all Australians are classified as overweight or obese and this is increasing (Pal, Egger and Wright, 2003). These results are similar in the US were around 70% of the population is overweight or obese (CDC, 2013). Genetic influences alone cannot explain this upward trend (Wardle et al., 2008) and evidence points to the impact of environmental factors (Kamphuis et al. 2006; Giskes et al., 2007). One under-researched area significantly affecting obesity is the home environment (Crawford et al., 2006; Campbell et al., 2007) and the role of nutritional gatekeepers – the main food shopper and preparer. The domestic foodscape has changed significantly in recent years with increased availability of take-away, processed and pre-packaged foods changing the concept of meal preparation and reduced the need to know how to cook (Short, 2006; Stead et al., 2004). This change has prompted concern about the impoverished state of domestic cooking, the influence this is having on diet quality and the lack of social marketing and public policy efforts to change this situation (Meah and Watson, 2011; Short 2006). Jaffe and Gertler (2006) argue that consumers have undergone a process of deskilling in terms of food selection and preparation, resulting in diminished consumer sovereignty in relation to food choice. That is, consumers have lost the ability to transform basic unprocessed ingredients into high quality healthy meals, at a reduced cost compared to packaged foods, and the knowledge to appreciate the impact of their decisions on diet and health. The influence of cooking confidence, skills and abilities on diet and health is often understated but evidence suggests that the ability to transform food is associated with a improved food choices and healthier diets, especially in young adults (Larson et al., 2009; Engler-Stringer, 2010). The frequency and complexity of home food preparation is positively related to appropriate energy and nutrient intake (McLaughlin et al., 2003), whilst the consumption of time-saving but often high energy convenience foods has been linked to undesirable health effects such as weight gain (Dixon, Hinde and Banwell, 2006).

Drawing on the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 2002), we examine how the cooking confidence of a particular set of consumers in Australia and the US; the nutritional gatekeeper, and their past satisfaction with the healthiness of the family's diet, influences the main components of the TPB (attitude to family diet, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control) in relation to healthy eating. In addition, we examine the effect of the TPB components on the nutritional gatekeeper's intention to provide healthy meals and the relationship between this intention and fruit and vegetable consumption (as a proxy for a healthy diet). We subsequently consider marketing and public policy implications.

Method and Measurement

The data for this study were obtained through an online quantitative survey conducted over a one week period. An internationally recognized research field house was engaged to host the survey and to provide access to U.S. and Australian consumer panels. To qualify for participation as the household nutritional gatekeeper, potential respondents were asked to complete a screening question to determine if they were the main household food shopper and meal preparer. In total, data were collected from 323 Australian and 326 American nutritional gatekeepers. The final set of respondents consisted mostly of couples with children at home (73%), and females (70%). Interestingly around 30% of gatekeepers in both countries were male.

Overall there are only minor differences between the U.S. and Australian respondents with the Australian sample being slightly younger than the U.S. respondents with the mean age at 38 years for Australian respondents and 41years for American respondents.

The health status, as measured by self-reported height and weight (BMI), for each country shows that at two thirds of respondents could be considered overweight or indeed obese. Items for the TPB-related variables were based on Armitage and Conner (1999). Measures for cooking confidence were derived from the Food Related Lifestyle study of (Grunert et al. 1993). A measure of diet quality based on consumption of fruits and vegetables in meals provided was derived from a modified Food Variety Index (Hodgson et al. 1994; Wahlqvist et al. 1089). This index has been shown to have good psychometric properties and has been found to appropriately capture diet variety (Wang et al. 2008). Items for past diet satisfaction were also constructed specifically for this study. Scales were constructed through confirmatory factor analyses, scale internal reliabilities were calculated and the relationships between the variables were examined through structural equation modelling.

Results

One main finding from the data is the influence of cooking confidence on PBC and subsequently the influence of PBC on intention to provide more healthy meals – especially for the U.S. respondents. For the U.S. model, the data explained 41% of variance for fruit and vegetable consumption (F&V) and 61% of variance for Intention to provide healthy meals. The model explained 26% of variance in past diet satisfaction and 41% for PBC, but only 3% for both Attitude and SN. For the Australian model the data explained 21% of variance for F&V and 68% of variance for Intention. For the direct effect of cooking confidence the model explained 16% of the variance for past diet satisfaction and 38% for PBC, but only 5% for Attitude and 2% for SN. The relationships between variables also show consistency across both countries. Cooking confidence significantly influences PBC (US: t=4.91; AU: t=5.47) but has less effect on Attitude (US: t=1.92 AU: t=2.59) and SN. (US: t=3.49; AU: t=3.25). For TPB variables we found that PBC significantly influences the intention to provide healthy meals (US: t=7.73; AU: t=8.57). Strong effects were also found for SN (US: t=6.11; AU: t=7.02) and moderate or no effects were found for Attitude (US: t=1.73; AU: t=3.33). Cooking confidence also has strong indirect influences on F&V (US: t=5.45; AU: t=2.88) and Intention (US: t=7.72; AU: t=6.81). Key findings are summarized in Appendix 1.

Discussion and conclusion

The main contribution of this study is the demonstration of the influence of the nutritional gatekeepers' cooking confidence, a form of actual behavioral control, and its impact on both the perceived control gatekeepers have over the provision of a healthy diet and, through intention, on the provision of such a diet though consumption of fresh fruits and vegetables. The confidence on consumers in cooking meals has had limited empirical research but has obvious implications for personal and family health, for appropriate food product choice, and for cost effectively provisioning and meal provision for households (Curtis et al, 2011). From a social marketing and public policy perspective these findings reframes an important debate around the need for home economics training programs in schools and education on food preparation by the producers of fresh foods. Achieving a healthy diet remains a challenge for many nutritional gatekeepers, especially those living in lower SES deprived communities.

Genuine concerns exist regarding the devaluing of cooking, and a concomitant loss of cooking skills, and its relationship to rising obesity. This is reinforced by the subsequent inability of an increasing number of parents to impart knowledge and skills regarding the transformation of food to children.

In part this loss of skill is related to the demise of home economics training and the rise of convenience foods (Begley and Gallegos 2010). Further, the evolving state of domestic outsourcing of food planning, preparation and cooking, and the rise in convenience foods, have created an environment where being able to cook is no longer a necessity (Dixon et al. 2006). Our findings suggest opportunities for interventions from fresh food producers, and public policy makers to support cooking and home economics programs to educate and assist consumers with transforming their food experience into healthier choices. In summary, the data suggests a need for further investigation of gatekeeper cooking capabilities as a mechanism to reduce the consumption of energy dense diets and combat the rise of overweight, obesity and associated diseases.

Appendix 1

Variables		USA		Australia	
From	**To**	**Std Est**	**t-value**	**Std Est**	**t-value**
H1a: Cooking skills	Attitude	.17	1.92*	.21	2.59*
H1b: Cooking skills	Subjective Norm	.21	3.49***	.20	3.25**
H1c: Cooking skills	Perceived Behavioural Control	.33	4.91***	.36	5.47***
H1d: Cooking Skills	Satisfaction	.49	8.11***	.40	6.50***
H2: Satisfaction	PBC	.42	6.46***	.37	5.90***
H3a: Attitude	Intention	.15	1.73ns	.30	3.33***
H3b: Subjective Norm	Intention	.35	6.11***	.40	7.02***
H3c: Perceived Behavioural Control	Intention	.54	7.73***	.53	8.51***
H4a: Attitude	F&V	-.39	-2.16*	-.18	0.350ns
H4b: SN	F&V	.20	2.24*	.26	2.16*
H4c: PBC	F&V	.70	4.78***	.55	3.18**
H5: Intent	F&V	.12	0.326ns	-.05	0.704ns

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Fun and games? Game characteristics and social marketing

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Introduction

In Australia, alcohol has been associated with net annual costs of $1.61 billion in crime, $1.98 billion in health care, $3.58 billion in lost workplace productivity, $1.57 billion in lost productivity in the home, and $2.2 billion in road accidents (Collins & Lapsley, 2008). Video games are credited with being worth $67 billion globally in revenue and their use has spread from the entertainment world to applications for defence (simulations), education and organisational settings (training and strategy scenarios) (Marchand & Hennig-Thurau, 2013). In recent years, the public and non-profit sector have identified games as a mechanism for achieving behavior change for social issues such as obesity, alcohol consumption, smoking and environmental protection. Social marketers identified games as a novel way of interacting with young consumers about social issues. Consequently, how games can be used effectively is generating a great deal of interest amongst scholars and practitioners in social marketing. The increasing use of online and virtual services such as social media, video games and apps by the younger generation has been noted with calls for marketers to better understand how 'firms and public policy makers [can] use elements of games or play to engage, build relationships with and ultimately influence the behavior of Gen Y?' (Bolton et al., 2013 p14). For these reasons, this paper investigates the impact of different perceived characteristics of a game on the development of attitudes, abilities or knowledge and behavioral intentions in the context of responsible alcohol consumption. In doing so, it fulfils a call by Baranowski et al. (1997) for more studies to demonstrate substantial effect change from mediating variables. Indeed, changing human behaviors is complex because of multiple influences, and necessitates a better understanding of potential key mediators that shape behaviors (Thompson et al., 2010).

Proposed Model

This paper proposes three characteristics of games (perceived game enjoyment, perceived game knowledge, and perceived game challenge) as key determinants to three mediators (alcohol-related self-efficacy, attitude towards moderate drinking, and alcohol-related physical consequences) on behavioral intentions to drink moderately (See Figure 1). The perceived game characteristics draw on the three underlying theories. Self-determination theory guided the selection of specific game characteristics that provided choice and control to allow players to achieve mastery and opportunities. Social cognitive theory drove the decision to offer the game in a peer environment where students could observe the success of others and compare experiences verbally. Lastly, this research uses the hierarchy of effects model (HOE) (Ray, 1973) to understand individuals' responses to marketing stimuli. According to the HOE model, three human responses of affect (feel), cognition (learn), and behavior (do), can be ordered in varying sequences to elicit attitudes and behaviors to a marketing stimulus.

Method

Participants of this study were 223 adolescents attending two schools who completed an online survey following delivery of Game On: Know Alcohol (see Rundle-Thiele et al., (2013) for program detail) and the overall sample consisted of 96 female (all-girls school) and 127 male students (all-boys school), which represents a 96% response rate. The online game was administered to Year 10 adolescents who were aged between 14 to 16 years old. The adolescents were instructed to play the online game RiskyRide on their laptops and they were advised to make different choices on different occasions.

The game required adolescents to make choices when driving a car on the road with different simulated blood alcohol limits (BAC) to avoid obstacles. Scores reduced when obstacles were hit, encouraging gamers to stay in control through low BAC.

An online survey was administered after the students completed playing the online game. Items for seven constructs were adapted from existing literature. Most responses were indicated on a seven-point Likert-type scale with anchors of "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". Some items were semantic differential scales ranging from "harmful-beneficial," or "bad-good" etc. Examples of tiems and sources are reported in the Appendix.

Results

Items were reliable with Cronbach alphas ranging from .79 to .92. The initial model fit was a satisfactory fit to the data (chi-square=407.1.0, df=198, p<.01; CFI=.92; RMSEA=.07; GFI= 86). As the chi-square statistic is sensitive to large sample sizes, the other fit indices provide indication of the sufficient fit of the model. Exogenous variable of perceived game enjoyment accounted for 13.1% to 26.9% of variance in perceived game knowledge and perceived game challenge; 10.4%, 17.6%, and 15.4% in alcohol-related self-efficacy, attitudes towards moderate drinking, and alcohol-related physical consequences. In turn, these variables accounted for 24.4% of the variance in the endogenous variable of behavioral intentions to moderate drink. In terms of direct effects on the endogenous variables, perceived game enjoyment games positively influenced perceived game knowledge (β= 0.36, t-value= 4.931, p<.01) and perceived game challenge (β= 0.52, t-value= 6.889, p<.01). In turn, perceived game knowledge positively influenced attitudes towards moderate drinking (β= 0.39, t-value= 5.196, p<.01), alcohol-related physical consequences (β= 0.30, t-value=3.640, p<.05), and alcohol-related self-efficacy (β= 0.16, t-value= 2.530, p<.01). Perceived game challenge positively influenced alcohol-related self-efficacy (β= 0.25, t-value= 3.237, p<.01) and alcohol-related physical consequences (β= 0.20, t-value= 2.530, p<.05). Finally, only attitudes towards moderate drinking (β= 0.15, t-value= 2.136, p<.05) and alcohol-related self-efficacy (β= 0.45, t-value= 5.462, p<.01) were significantly positively related to behavioral intentions to drink moderately.

Discussion

Results of this study demonstrate the association between gaming characteristics with attitudes towards moderate drinking, alcohol-related self-efficacy, and knowledge on alcohol-related physical consequences, which in turn leads to behavioral intent. These associations present opportunities to use games to induce desired behavioral change on different social issues. For example, games as an educational tool may be more appropriate to change attitudes on travel behaviors through the provision of knowledge and content. In contrast, social marketers aiming to promote consumers' perceived control over their personal financial behaviors may optimise levels of game challenges for this purpose. In sum, game characteristics represent potential tools for marketers to achieve specific social marketing goals

Figure 1 Proposed Model and Paths
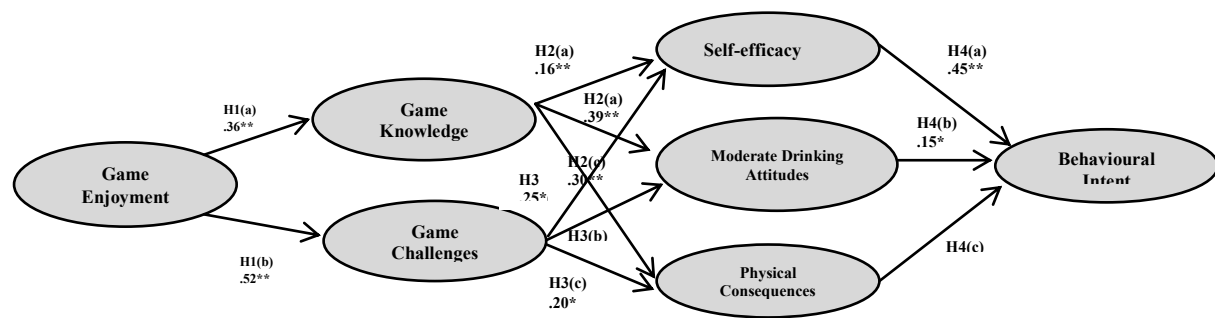
Appendix

Construct	Source	Cronbach alpha
Perceived Game Enjoyment e.g., The process of participating in the online game is enjoyable	Lee (2009)	.92
Perceived game knowledge e.g., The game increases my knowledge	Fua, Sua, & Yu (2009)	.86
Perceived game challenge e.g., My skill gradually improves through the course of overcoming the challenge	Fua, Sua, & Yu (2009)	.86
Alcohol-related self-efficacy (3 items) e.g., I can control myself to not to drink any alcohol at all	Schwarzer & Renner (2000)	.84
Attitudes towards moderate drinking e.g., Drinking is. Pleasant -Unpleasant	Ajzen & Fishbein (1980)	.88
Alcohol-related physical consequences e.g., I think less clearly when drinking	Shim & Maggs (2005)	.79
Intention to drink moderately e.g., I intend to drink moderately on social nights out	Ajzen & Fishbein (1980)	.83

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Embedding social marketing into an obesity prevention planning framework

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Project Overview

OPAL (Obesity Prevention and Lifestyle), is South Australia's most significant childhood obesity prevention initiative to date and is based on the French EPODE methodology which has demonstrated a reduction in population obesity rates of children (Romon et al, 2009). OPAL is based in 20 communities in SA and one in Northern Territory, and is supported by Federal, State and Local Government funding. OPAL commenced in 2009 and under current funding will run through until 2018.

In an unprecedented move, 46 OPAL staff from across South Australia are applying a systematic, Social Marketing driven approach to their daily work.

Background and policy context

Obesity is a significant public health issue with Australia ranking fifth in the world for its rates of adult obesity (OECD, 2009). Nearly 60% of South Australian adults and 25% of children are overweight or obese. While the rate of overweight and obesity in children aged 5–17 years appears to have stabilised at 25%, this is still too high and reflects greater levels of disadvantage. This has immediate impacts on quality of life and creates long term pressures on health systems due to the contribution obesity makes to a range of chronic diseases.

Case-study Benchmark Criteria

There are 46 OPAL staff across 20 OPAL sites and all staff work to the same OPAL framework — consistent aims, goals, strategies, and annual themes. An operating framework (logic model) was developed that enabled all staff to plan, implement, evaluate and review in a consistent manner. This framework has been translated into an online project management tool – the OPAL Single Platform.

Social marketing is a cornerstone of the EPODE approach (Borys JM, et al) and this led OPAL to investigate how social marketing could offer a process which added rigour and value to OPAL's work. French (2013) advocates building a set of required standardized processes as one of the best ways to ensure continued application of social marketing principles. This has been achieved by integrating the Benchmark Criteria (French & Blair-Stevens, 2006) into the OPAL Program Logic and subsequently the Single Platform. The OPAL Single Platform takes LCT staff through a range of questions that address those principles prior to identifying an approach to addressing an issue at the community level.

Behavioural Goals
For each OPAL Theme a behavioural goal is identified as a result of scoping the proposed behaviour within the literature. The behavioural goal is established centrally and provides the focus for work at the local level. The desired behaviour is identified for the individual and conversely the problem behaviour to be reduced or minimized is also identified.
For example, we want to increase the amount of fresh fruit and vegetables used for snacks but we also need to reduce the intake of energy dense nutrient poor foods for snacks.

Customer orientation
When developing an OPAL theme, customer orientation is addressed centrally by including reviews of academic and grey literature reviews, extensive consultation with state and local stakeholders, focus group testing and consultation with local community groups.

At this stage any local variations between communities are identified, specific issues for particular population groups are identified and local needs can be taken into account.

Insight
Formative research is conducted at a state level and insights are used to inform the creative development for the theme and to underpin the development of specific interventions.

Segmentation
Broadly, OPAL targets 0-18 year olds through families and communities. The research phase for each theme then identifies specific population groups that require specific targeting. Further segmentation then occurs at the local level where specific target groups are identified and a social marketing approach used to address them. These target groups are specified within the Single Platform.

Exchange
The Single Platform continues to build the local intervention by next addressing exchange and competition, through structured questions for the practitioner to answer. The Single Platform asks the practitioner to identify the benefits and the costs the child will experience from participating in the 'healthy' behaviour. The practitioner then repeats this for the unhealthy behaviour. This enables an exchange analysis to be done which feeds into the identification of the method mix to ensure the benefits are maximized and costs reduced for the healthy behaviour and the benefits reduced and costs increased for the unhealthy behaviour. This process is then repeated also for intermediaries that might be acting on the child (eg. Parent, school or council)

Competition
The Single Platform then guides the practitioner through a process to identify the barriers and enablers which influence the healthy behaviour and the unhealthy behaviour as a measure of competition. The factors can be divided into six individual factors and six environmental factors. This analysis feeds into the methods mix by identifying whether the focus needs to be on the environment or on the individual or both.

Theory
OPAL is based on aspects of three complementary theories: social ecological, community development and social marketing and this is reflected in the OPAL program logic. Socio-ecological theory recognizes that the health of individuals is influenced by a range of personal attributes as well as the physical and social environment (Stockols, 1992). Therefore, to bring about change the individual and their environments must be the target of interventions (Economos & Irish-Hauser, 2007; Egger & Swinburne, 1997). Community development supports the notion that community participation, community capacity building and community mobilisation work towards achieving population-wide changes in social norms and structures, which directly benefit health (Nutbeam & Harris, 1998). Social Marketing theory recognizes that understanding the consumer and their behaviour must be at the centre of any approach to successfully bring about behaviour change.

It is the interplay of these three theories that enables OPAL to deliver a program that is directed at the individual and their environment; is targeted and provides tangible benefits to the consumer; meets a need the the consumer has identified as being important; and involves consumers in the identification and development of the program.

Marketing Mix
OPAL uses a seven strategy approach as its method mix. The method mix aims to ameliorate barriers, enhance the enablers whilst creating a mutually beneficial exchange. The strategies, which are the focus of the projects, include: programs and services; co-ordination and partnerships; policies and plans; supportive environments; awareness; education and training and research and evaluation. Not all projects are 'aimed' directly at the child and their behaviour. Some target precursors or influential entities across the socio-ecological levels (ie Interpersonal, Organisational, Community or Societal). Projects developed with these entities likewise receive an analysis of competition and exchange within the Single Platform and focus on the desired behaviour sought from the entity (eg a school instigating a healthy canteen policy).

Partnerships
OPAL works with a range of partners both at the state level and the local level. OPAL is delivered through councils but identifies a range of other partners in the community that can assist in achieving the goal of increasing healthy weight. These partners include sectors such as: education (including schools, preschools and childcare), retailers, non-profit, transport, health, sport and recreation, planning and environment. The engagement with these partners ensures the full seven strategy approach to the marketing mix can be enacted across the whole community.

Evaluation and Results

Centrally OPAL applies social marketing principles through the benchmark criteria in the development of annual themes. The Single Platform supports the extension of the benefits of social marketing through assisting on the ground practitioners at the point of identifying a community level response. This may occur in the planning of a project, or assessing the appropriateness of a community driven idea. Analysis of the field entered data (over 3500 projects) is underway and will shed light on the locally applied Social Marketing approach.

Lessons Learned

The OPAL Single Platform is a comprehensive way of increasing workforce capacity by incorporating both a strategic and operational social marketing approach (French, 2013). The replacement of the 4P's of marketing with the Seven Strategy approach encourages staff to look upstream for policy, partnership and infrastructure approaches to influencing change. OPAL has embedded social marketing, alongside community development and socio-ecological theories into a significant public health program, enabling a broad range of staff with little social marketing experience to apply the principles at the local level.

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Donor response to public and private donor appreciation offered by a blood donation organisation: Factors influencing the decision to engage

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Introduction

Despite substantiative research into understanding the motivations behind individual's adoption and continued participation in the socially desirable behaviour of blood donation (Bednall & Bove, 2011); donor attrition remains a major source of concern for blood donation organisations (BDOs) worldwide. Only 60 percent of Australian blood donors return within two years to donate again (ARCBS, 2012). Whilst literature supports altruism as the dominant reason for donating blood, a growing body of research asserts that donation is performed because it is personally rewarding (Benabou & Tirole, 2006). To encourage continued support, BDOs have developed various donor appreciation programs to leverage donor's desire to be recognised for their generosity. The social component of donor appreciation programs varies; resulting in acknowledgement and recognition (see Appendix 1). Empirical support exists for the use of both donor acknowledgement (private expression of gratitude; Chmielewski et al., 2012) and recognition (public appreciation; Lacetara & Macis, 2010) as a key strategy to increase favourable charitable intentions and behaviour.

When individuals choose to donate blood, this communicates something about the individual. Traits, consumption patterns and behaviour are central to self-definition around which personal identities are created (Oyserman et al., 2012). Identity theory posits continued engagement in a particular role or activity internalises the role as a component of one's identity (Charng et al., 1988). As individuals adopt a blood donor identity, the acquisition of related cues that disclose their identity becomes important (Ringwald et al., 2010). Public recognition by a BDO signals an individual's status as a blood donor. Operating through a signalling process, brand symbolism is the *"degree to which the brand is able to communicate something about the consumer"* (Harmon-Kizer et al., 2013, p.488). Donors wishing to communicate a blood donor identity would view public recognition more positively as it facilitates greater brand symbolism, fulfilling value-expressive and identity-constructive needs. However, research suggests blood donors may actually prefer one form of appreciation over another (Lei et al., 2011). Despite this, it remains unclear when each approach is most appropriate and under what circumstances. This paper seeks to explore *how blood donors respond to private and public donor appreciation offered by a BDO*.

Method

A qualitative approach was employed to identify factors contributing to donor preference for private or public donor appreciation. Semi-structured interviews (see Appendix 2 for example interview questions) were deemed the most appropriate data collection method given the existence of strong social norms that donations should be performed altruistically (White & Peloza, 2009). Data collection remains a working progress with preliminary results presented in this paper based on an initial sample of eight Australian blood donors. Upon presenting full results, a minimum convenience sample of 20 blood donors will be recruited through the Australian Red Cross Blood Service database, or until theoretical saturation occurs. Using purposeful sampling principles to identify 'information rich' participants (Marshall & Rossman, 2011), participants are screened to include only donors aged 18 to 35 who use social networking sites and have made a blood donation within the last 12 months. Inductive thematic coding (data-driven; Boyatzis, 1998) was performed to analyse the data.

Results and Discussion

Preliminary findings identified three paradoxical themes that influence blood donors' response to private and public donor appreciation by a BDO. Propositions for each theme are put forward as potential areas for future research based on the literature and interviews.

Help-Others versus Help-Self (perception of encouragement). Donors who responded positively to receiving recognition (via a token shared on social networking platforms; see Appendix 3) considered the social benefit of tokens both raising the profile of the Blood Service and encouraging others to donate blood (help-others). *"...if your recognition helps get others to do what you do it's a good thing"* (female, 18). Those who perceived recognition would not encourage others to donate blood viewed receiving recognition negatively as it was seen only as a self-enhancing act (help-self). Social psychology research on social influence has focused on the goals served by being influenced by others, not the goals served by having influence over others. Bourgeois et al. (2009) suggest that the perceived successful persuasion of others (e.g. a change in attitude or belief) will impact individuals' sense of accuracy (desire to be correct in one's belief) and meaningful existence (idealised state of fulfilment).

P1: If perception of helping/encouraging others is high (low) as a result of receiving public recognition, the more (less) likely donors will engage in public recognition from a BDO

Broadcast versus Narrowcast Communication (perception of media audience). The audience bearing witness to BDOs' donor recognition strategies varied in terms of size and extent of familiarity to the donor (see Appendix 4). Publishing a donor's name in the newspaper is seen by a large audience often unknown to the donor (i.e. broadcast communication), whilst tokens shared to personal social networking sites are generally viewed by friends (i.e. narrowcast communication). Broadcast recognition was deemed suitable only when communicating a social identity (i.e. 'we' are blood donors). Alternatively, interviewees preferred narrowcast recognition when communicating an individual identity (i.e. 'I' am a blood donor).

P2: If a personal (social) donor identity is recognised by a BDO, a narrowcast (broadcast) communication platform for recognition will be preferred by donors.

Regular versus Interval Donor Appreciation (perception of timing). Broadcast recognition (e.g. newspaper or BDO website) should be reserved for major milestones. Appropriate timing of recognition and acknowledgement via narrowcast communication channels varied. Given the three month time lapse between donations, some donors were willing to receive and share a token from the Blood Service every donation. Alternatively, some donors felt regular recognition minimised the importance of the gesture and preferred to receive recognition intermittently (after minor milestones), as it's viewed more relevant to the individual. Variance in perception of timing is suggested to be based on individuals' propensity for self-disclosure; the degree to which individuals share personal information. Self-disclosure is a necessary strategy for identity construction with the breadth and frequency of disclosure on social media shown to relate to the perceived value of the desired outcome (e.g. social validation, encouragement of others; Jiang, Bazarova, & Hancock, 2011).

P3: Donors who perceive higher (lower) outcome value from receiving narrowcast recognition by a BDO will be more (less) likely to engage in the activity regularly.

Conclusion

Despite support for the use of private and public donor appreciation strategies, the literature is replete with evidence that some donors prefer one form of donor appreciation over another. Given the limited understanding on the circumstantial effectiveness of private and public donor appreciation, this research provides theoretical insight into the conditions under which acknowledgement and recognition are most effective at encouraging continued blood donation. Findings will assist BDOs in the development of optimal donor appreciation schemes and inform the delivery of a service experience that nurtures donor relationships.

Appendix 1: Definitions of Private and Public Donor Appreciation

Private Acknowledgement	A private action directed by the NFP to the donor as an expression of gratitude (e.g. letter of thanks in the mail or email, newsletter, appreciation expressed through personal conversation)
Public Recognition	An expression of gratitude directed by the NFP to the donor that publicly reveals their donor status (e.g. naming buildings after donors, listing names in a newsletter, tokens/badges to share on social media)

Appendix 2: Example Interview Questions

- If this was your n^{th} donation (e.g. 10th) and you were going to receive some form of appreciation from the Blood Service, how would you prefer to be acknowledged/ recognised? Privately or publicly? Why?
- If private acknowledgement (public recognition) is preferred, why would you not want public recognition (private acknowledgement)?
- What does public recognition mean to you?
- If public recognition was seen by (everybody through the media/ by other donors/ by your personal network) would this change your opinion on being publicly recognised?

Appendix 3: Social Networking Platform Tokens

These are example tokens offered by the Australian Red Cross Blood Service that can be shared to a personal social networking site as a form of narrowcast public recognition.

Source: ARCBS. (2012c). Spread the word about blood donation. Retrieved 15 July, 2012, from http://www.donateblood.com.au/badges

Appendix 4: Narrowcast and Broadcast Communication Channels

Based on a synthesis of the literature, donor recognition strategies vary in terms of the audience size and extent of familiarity and relation to the donor depending on the communication channel used.
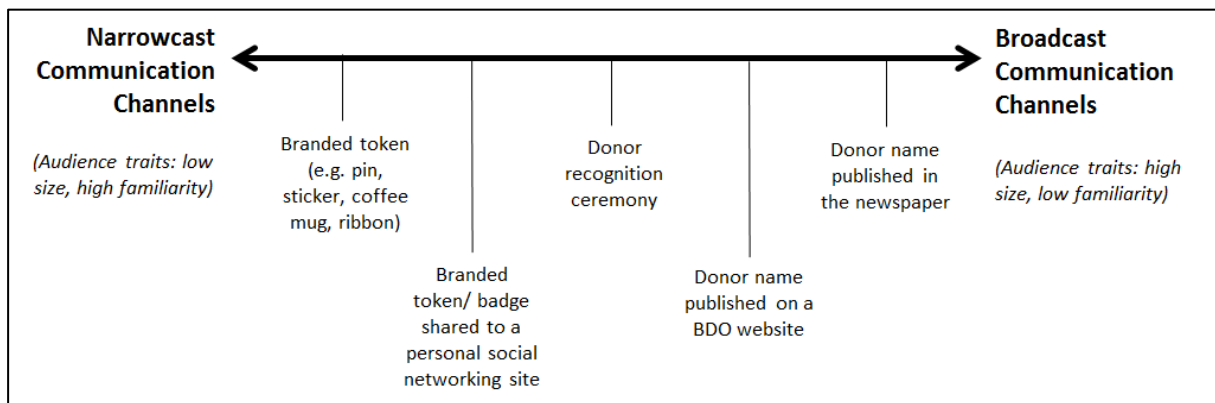
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Self-nudging - A social marketing tool for positive behaviour change:
A case of influencing nutrition choices

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Introduction

There is an increasing evidence of the successful use of nudging principles (Thaler & Sunstein, 2008) in social marketing interventions targeted at various behaviours – from nutrition (Just & Wansink, 2009; Payne & Niculescu, 2012) and physical exercises (Andersen, Franckowiak, Snyder, Bartlett, & Fontaine, 1998; Blamey, Mutrie, & Tom, 1995; Foster & Hillsdon, 2004; Mutrie et al., 2002), to donation (Johnson & Goldstein, 2003), medication adherence (Kimmel et al., 2012; Volpp et al., 2008) and so on.

Two major drawbacks associated with nudging are: (1) a degree of manipulation over the person's free will; and (2) the necessity to access the environment in which the behaviour occurs. Both points are important obstacles related to ethical (Blumenthal-Barby & Burroughs, 2012); Gold & Lichtenberg, 2012) and practical (French, 2011; Selinger & Whyte, 2011) considerations. The present paper presents a conceptual framework of **self-nudging** – the activity when consumers use the principles and techniques of nudging to direct their own behaviour to achieve their goals.

Theoretical Background

Nudging seeks to deliver a positive (or negative) consequence, **without** forbidding other options (Thaler & Sunstein, 2008), with the aim of influencing the target behaviour(s). The theory underpinning the concept of nudging is the dual processing model (Kahneman, 2011; Kahneman, 2003) within the behavioural economics field. The model suggests that there are two systems controlling cognitive processing, namely System 1 (more intuitive, fast acting, emotionally charged and automatic) and System 2 (more rational, slower acting, conscious and calculating) thinking.

Literature reviews (e.g. Luca & Suggs, 2013) of theory-driven social marketing works reveal an over-reliance on System 2 thinking. Psychological theories such as social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977) which aims to increase self-efficacy (Barlow, 2002), the Transtheoretical model (Deci & Ryan, 1985) which seeks to increase motivation, and Self-regulation theory (Carver & Scheier, 1981) focus on setting and pursing goals. Taken together, these theories suggest a set of behavioural skills and strategies to improve *will power* and *self-control* (Kayman, William & Judith, 1990; Mann, Fujita & de Ridder, 2012; Newman, Steed & Mulligan, 2004). While these interventions achieve behaviour change they are limited by (Barlow, Wright, Sheasby, Turner & Hainsworth, 2002; Newman et al., 2004; Norris, Engelgau & Narayan, 2002): (1) the need for a high level of rational processing to develop the new skills; (2) individualized and mid- to long-term support by professionals is required for long term success, which together mean (3) these interventions are expensive.

The spike in the current obesity rates, despite of the abundance of education and support in developing healthy lifestyles (Access Economics, 2008) suggests the dominant current approaches seeking to appeal to the rational side of cognition have limited success for behaviour change (Hornik, 2002; Snyder & Hamilton, 2002), particularly for altering frequently performed behaviours, such as food choices (Snyder et al., 2004; Webb & Sheeran, 2006).

The dual processing model suggests that habits result from consumers being rationally bounded (Kahneman, 2003; Thaler & Sunstein, 2008). Cognitively demanding environments shift the decision-making process from the rational to the intuitive system, and consumer

behaviour becomes subconscious, and, hence, vulnerable to environmental influences (Kahneman, 2011; Kahneman, 2003; Thaler & Sunstein, 2008).

As these subconscious behaviours are repeated over time, the behaviours become automated in response to environmental cues, and habits are formed. Habits account for up to 95 percent of human behaviours (Martin, 2008), and are significant barriers to behaviour change (Barry, 2009; Martin & Morich, 2011; Martin, 2008). Therefore, to achieve a change in habitual behaviours, such as food choices, which are strongly influenced by the environmental cues, **one needs to influence the choice environment** in which the behaviours occur.

Conceptual Model of Self-nudging

We define **self-nudging** as an activity when consumers use the principles and techniques of nudging to direct their own behaviour to achieve their goals. The overall aim of self-nudging interventions is to **empower consumers to self-direct** their behaviours in the environments where their own willpower is likely to fail, allowing expensive professional support services to be replaced. The self-nudging concept brings together the liberalistic view of taking personal responsibility for one's actions and the understanding and acceptance of one's own weaknesses over controlling habitual daily routines (as per behavioural economics). The result is a willingness on behalf of consumers to invest time and effort to organize their own environment in which the behaviour occurs in a way that promotes the desired behaviours, and makes it more difficult to perform the undesired behaviours.

Self-nudging can occur in the following ways. Firstly, reorganizing one's own environment to increase visibility and accessibility (salience) of desired choices and make undesired harder to perform. For example, moving candies in the office away from sight and reach results in lower intake (Painter, Wansink, & Hieggelke, 2002; Wansink, Painter, & Lee, 2006); using smaller cutlery and bowls results in less calories consumed (Wansink, Van Ittersum, & Painter, 2006; Wansink & Kim, 2005; Wansink, Painter, & North, 2005). Secondly, a timely reminder of health goals in a situation where the will power may be weakened may reinforce the desired behaviours – an example of a successful external nudge that can be applied at home as a self-nudge is displaying the calorie information for items on a menu results in healthier choices (Rabin, 2008). Thirdly, tapping into ego and the desire to 'save face' even in front of oneself – keeping track of one's weight (ie accountability) can have positive impact on weight maintenance (Blumenthal-Barby & Burroughs, 2012).

Self-nudging principles can be disseminated to general public via a range of targeted communication channels and include (a) an educative component; and (b) a low cost "tool kit" consisting of items that can be used to modify one's environment to make it easier to do the desired behaviours.

Conclusions and Limitations

Self-nudging, a concept and activity that taps into System 1 decisions, which dominate human behavior, is proposed here as a novel social marketing tool to further contribute to behaviour change. It is most effective when consumers (a) are aware of the behaviours they need to follow and the reasons why these are better than the alternatives; (b) have the willingness and commitment to achieve the goal and are aware of common barriers. These conditions naturally lead to the use of self-nudging during the later stages of behavior change (as per the Transtheoretical model) – the maintenance of behavior.

However, self-nudging could also accompany earlier stages, such as preparation and action, when earlier attempts might have failed, but the subject has already developed the necessary knowledge and attitudes.

By making the principles of self-nudging (a lower cost alternative to many social marketing or health interventions) available to a wider community, social marketers can achieve a greater impact. Nudging offer superior effectiveness to more traditional attitude-behaviour social marketing or heavily supported and very costly public health approaches. Self-nudging takes the same nudging principles and addresses some of their criticisms (ie taking away free will). It offers a set of low cost, practical and easy-to-implement at home (ie the environment beyond commercial and government control) strategies for self-directing behaviour change.

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Promotion of smoking through social media: Implications for social marketing

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Introduction

Social marketing has been widely used to affect health-related behaviours by either creating positive images of healthy behaviours e.g. 'eat right' (Evans, 2008) or by focusing on negative appeals, such as those used in road-safety campaigns (Hastings, Stead, & Webb, 2004). However, in the case of smoking, social marketing is assisted by bans on tobacco advertising in most developed countries. As at March 2014, 168 countries had ratified the WHO Framework Convention on Tobacco Control (FCTC) (World Health Organisation, 2013), which requires that signatories shall ' … undertake a comprehensive ban of all tobacco advertising, promotion and sponsorship' (World Health Organisation, 2011, p. 11).

The FCTC thus represents an extension of typical social and not-for-profit marketing by attempting to ban any promotion of tobacco, and has been said to be 'the first and most crucial step in controlling use of tobacco' (Shibuya et al., 2003, p. 154). In theory, bans on tobacco advertising and promotion lessen the requirement for social marketing campaigns to mitigate the effect of commercial marketing through what has been called 'counter marketing' (Peattie & Peattie, 2003). In addition, the example of the FCTC provides a potential template for other social marketing initiatives, such as limiting promotion of fast food to children. However fewer than half of all countries with a 'comprehensive' ban on tobacco marketing have achieved high compliance (Henriksen, 2012). In this article, we detail how one tobacco company, Imperial Tobacco, is promoting smoking in the UK, a signatory of the FCTC, and one where tobacco promotion is banned, and discuss implications for social marketing and health policy to limit smoking.

Smoke Spots – Analysis of a Pro-Smoking Social Media Campaign

In the face of the FCTC bans on promotion of tobacco, it is surprising and of concern that Imperial Tobacco, one of the two major global tobacco manufacturers, has launched a social media campaign around the 'Smoke Spots' website in the UK (www.smoke-spots.co.uk). The site's launch was announced on Imperial Tobacco's Twitter account in July 2013, following the launch of similar German language sites in Germany and Austria – like the UK, signatories to the FCTC. Smoke Spots has been described by Imperial Tobacco as a 'website for smokers' which enables consumers to 'find bars, restaurants and clubs with smoking facilities as well as locate outlets selling tobacco' (Imperial Tobacco, 18 July 2013).

Marketing Strategy

A review of the marketing strategy of Smoke Spots is consistent with Smoke Spots being an integrated communication campaign to promote smoking, rather than just providing information about smoke-friendly venues. The website uses typical features of a social media campaign – a website with an associated blog, a forum, links to a YouTube channel, a Facebook page and a Twitter account. Smoke Spots was also launched with event marketing – a form of marketing which creates interactive customer experiences with a brand with the aim of positively influencing customers' familiarity, image, attitude and emotional attachment to a brand (Whelan & Wohlfeil, 2006) - or here, to the activity of smoking. The launch video and photos of launch events on Smoke Spots' Facebook page (www.facebook.com/SmokeSpotsUK) also accessible via YouTube, show the Smoke Spots team surprising smokers in London, rolling out red carpet, with chairs, music, food and drink, all presumably encouraging smokers to sit down and enjoy their cigarettes, sometimes in front of a prominent banner: 'Smoke Spots – You choose where you drink, why not where you smoke?'.

It is difficult to interpret the creation of such an atmospheric and enjoyable 'event' in any other way than directly promoting smoking. The launch video continues to promote smoking through its presence on YouTube, with almost 600 views as of March 2014.

The Smoke Spots website manages a blog informing readers about smoking friendly places and other topics. For example a blog in February presented the history of Valentine's Day and information on smoker-friendly Valentine's Day dining venues. Another feature of the website is a forum. While the forum index shows a limited number of discussion topics, a recent restaurant recommendation request was viewed 144 times (as of March 2014). The website also appears to attempt to create consumer engagement by the use of consumer promotions, such as offering prizes to visitors who identify popular events with smoker-friendly venues. Another promotional campaign was based on a 'smoking area makeover' competition, where people were urged to vote for a pub, restaurant, bar, club or café which is in need of a makeover. The venue receiving the greatest amount of votes was to receive vouchers worth GBP 5000 to help improve outdoor facilities.

Marketing on Twitter and Facebook

As of March 2014, the Smoke Spots UK Twitter account has only 170 followers. However without legislative intervention, it seems likely the number of followers will grow: Smoke Spots' German Facebook page (active since 2010) has almost 15,000 'likes', more than three times the newer UK page's 'likes'. Initially, the German site's posts focused on identifying 'Spots of the Week', thus promoting restaurants, bars, and pubs. More recently, the German Facebook page appears to be attempting to provide an avenue for resistance to tobacco control policies. For example in early 2014 the site posted a link which highlighted the news of a local politician who was accused of 'unnecessary nannying' (translated) as he tried to make a carnival smoke-free, and who was subsequently banned from attending the carnival. That post resulted in a total of 79 likes, 5 responses and 5 shares. One of the comments posted was: *'Finally a Non-Smoker is thrown out as 'undesirable'….' (translated).*

The German Facebook page also posts items creating positive associations with smoking (e.g. 'Nicotine curbs the appetite') and frequently highlights celebrity smokers like Helmut Schmidt, a former German Chancellor who is often caught on camera lighting a cigarette. It also regularly highlights good news related to smoking e.g.: *"A new study by the University of Zurich shows that smokers are more productive at work than their non-smoking counterparts…"*

Another post focused on the purported benefits of smoking for weight loss:
> *"What has long been used as a convenient smoker's excuse has now been scientifically proven. The effect of nicotine as an appetite suppressant was discovered by researchers by chance. There are certain proteins in the brain that are activated by nicotine and thus indeed effectively inhibit appetite…"*

The newer UK Facebook page is less active than the German Facebook pages. However, it frequently posts tweets encouraging smokers to recommend smoking-friendly locations with the chance to win prizes e.g. *'It's #competition time! Add your favourite smoke spot now for a chance to win a 'tasty' prize….'*

Promotion of smoking and smoking locations might be less problematic if it was confined to smokers who visited Smoke Spots' website or who followed Smoke Spots on Twitter.

However Smoke Spots' tweets also frequently include references to popular locations, concepts, events and hashtags, e.g.

> *'Apples, beer and Cowes?! Which of these smoker friendly #London events will you go to this August?'*

By linking to positively associated topics (Apples, beer, Cowes) and other popular hashtags (e.g. #London) Smoke Spots appears to be attempting to create positive associations with smoking, consistent with the use of unrelated and popular hashtags by alcohol companies' Twitter accounts (Burton, Dadich, & Soboleva, 2013). Of even more concern is that the use of such hashtags will increase the likelihood that tweets promoting smoking will be seen by anyone (including those under 18) searching for those hashtag topics.

Discussion and Conclusion

Smoke Spots is not the first attempt by tobacco companies to promote smoking online. Earlier research has identified explicit promotion of tobacco on the Marlboro website, and identified a sharp increase in tobacco company expenditure on company websites (Ilakkuvan, Cantrell, & Vallone, 2013). Such promotion is problematic because electronic or Internet based promotions are poorly regulated and often not enforced (Freeman & Chapman, 2008). One of the difficulties in regulating promotion of tobacco online is that it is often hard to distinguish between pro-smoking posts created by individuals unrelated to tobacco companies and clandestine posts by agents of tobacco companies posing as consumers (Freeman, 2012). However, Smoke Spots was established by Imperial Tobacco, its posts and retweets promote smoking and, in one case at least, promote an Imperial Tobacco brand. It is thus irrelevant if the original senders of tweets are unrelated individuals or agents of Imperial Tobacco. The Smoke Spots website and its outdoor promotions have directly and indirectly promoted tobacco consumption in a number of ways – through the event-based launch, the website, Facebook page and Twitter stream, contrary to FCTC guidelines, but appear to continue with impunity.

The example of Smoke Spots thus offers implications for research and for practice. Investigating the factors which contribute to lack of enforcement of bans on smoking promotion, and identifying how such bans can better be enforced, is an important area for social marketing research. One successful example is the large-scale global collaboration between a multitude of public and private sector stakeholders to combat online sales of counterfeit and illegal medicines (Mackey & Liang, 2011), where cooperation and coordination between the World Health Organization, industry regulators, various ISPs and Heads of Medicines Agencies have successfully resulted in undertaking of enforcement actions. A similar model focusing on surveillance, enforcement and prevention of any tobacco-related promotional activity could assist in the online implementation of the FCTC ban of promotion of smoking.

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You Can Live Without It: Changing In-Car Mobile Phone Use in South Australia

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Project Overview

In late 2012, Colmar Brunton Research conducted research for the South Australian Motor Accident Commission to develop a campaign to target distracted driving. Qualitative and quantitative research was used to understand the relevant behaviours. Research revealed a key insight: that phone users could benefit from having a break from the phone while driving. The resultant campaign was launched in September 2012 and is still current in the market.

Background and policy context

In South Australia, distracted driving is an increasing issue in road safety. Distracted driving is implicated in around half of accidents and is a common cause of rear end collisions and contribute about 25% of the Compulsory Third Party Insurance costs. In April 2012 27% of young people admitted to having used a mobile phone illegally while driving.

Case-study Benchmark Criteria

Behavioural Goals
The behavioural goals for the project were to increase the incidence of young people choosing to:
Pull over to the side of the road to use the mobile if driving
Put the phone on silent, or turn it off while driving
Use a hands-free kit while driving

Customer orientation
The appraoch was derived from primary data collection from the key audience to understand the motivating factors for using a phone when driving.

Insight
The key insights from the investigative qualitative research conducted in 2012 included:
- Young people are likely to use their phone while driving for activities in addition to talking and texting.
- Once the phone has alerted the driver to a text or incoming call the temptation to check the phone to at least see who it is almost insurmountable.
- The constant alerts of the phone can be a stressful and "nagging" element in the car when a person is trying to concentrate on driving and yet feeling an obligation to respond to the phone.

Segmentation
The specific group targeted by this program were younger people, both males and females aged 18-39 years as this was the group with the highest prevalance of the unsafe behaviour.

Exchange
The insight from the investigative research that phones can be a "nagging" distraction when driving offered a key benefit in promoting the relief inherent in putting the phone on silent or turning it off. The campaign demonstrates this by combining the audible sigh of relief when the phone is deactivated, with the 'nagging' nature of the phone activity and subsequent relief from this when the phone is deactivated. The campaign also focused on the benefit of avoiding an accident or a pedestrian causality through the deactivation of the phone.

Competition
The key competition for the desired behaviour is the belief that calls and messages must be responded to.

Theory
Colmar Brunton uses a "stages of change" Behaviour Change Model adapted from Prochaska and DiClemente. This theory states that where people are in contemplation of a desired behaviour the benefits of the desired behaviour must be promoted (the relief from phone interruptions), the costs of the undesired behaviour must be increased (the risk of an accident), the influence of others must be enhanced (people accepting a lack of response due to someone driving) and self-efficacy must be increased (modelling a person putting the phone on silent).

Marketing Mix
In addition to the multi-media campaign aimed at raising awareness, offering alternatives, promoting the benefits and changing behaviour, the Motor Accident Commission also instigated a simulated driving experience to demonstrate to people how much impact using their mobile while driving might have on their ability to drive safely. This was a behavioural intervention to assist people in understanding how mobile phone use impacts their ability to drive safely.

Partnerships (if relevant)
The Motor Accident Commission partners with SAPOL to promote messages about driving safely, alternatives to using the phone while driving and to promote the enforcement and penalties associated with illegal mobile phone use.

<div align="center">

Evaluation and results

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At its most impactful, the campaign increased the incidence of the safe behavours among young people. While the overall incidence of having used a mobile phone illegally did not decrease there were positive shifts for some of the safe alterntiaves:
- Using a hands-free kit when available increased 21%;
- Turning the phone off or putting it on silent saw a 10% decrease of the proportion in contemplation and a 12% increase of those in the action stage;
- Pulling over to take a call showed no change.

Additional
As above

<div align="center">

Lessons Learned

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For MAC the key value emerging from this campaign is the successful raising of the profile of mobile phone use as a dangerous, illegal and undesirable behaviour while driving. Over time this should lead to reductions in illegal mobile phone use, and reductions in the rear-end crashes that currently contribute 25% of the Compulsory Third Party Insurance costs to MAC.
For both MAC and Colmar Brunton Research, this process has provided a clear demonstration of the value of seeking to understand the behaviour, attitudes and knowledge of the target audience prior to developing a campaign strategy.

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Transforming consumer's lives through marketing

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Josephine Previte has a PhD in social marketing, having investigated the use of the internet in online social marketing strategy. She is interested in a critical marketing analysis of consumption and marketplace behaviours and has other interests in the study of government and not-for-profit marketing strategy. Josephine has published in the areas of technology, gender and social marketing in books, articles and conference proceedings and has conducted a range of consultancy projects with non-profit organisations and government departments implementing social marketing campaigns, as well as being involved in evaluating the impact of digital technologies on regional and rural communities.

Nadia Zainuddin has a PhD in social marketing and investigates customer value in preventative heathcare, Her main research interests revolve around the areas of social marketing, services marketing, and consumer behaviour. Her current research work investigates customer value creation, specifically in the use of preventive health services as well as understanding customer value creation in self-service technologies. She has collaborated with Breastscreen Queensland and the Australian Red Cross Blood Services.

Mark Rosenbaum
Mark S. Rosenbaum is a Fulbright Scholar and the Kohl's Corporation Professor of Retail Marketing Northern Illinois University. His research focuses on services issues such as social support among customers in commercial and not-for-profit settings as well as the transformative potential of cancer resource centers in cancer care. Mark has published in international journals as well as numerous domestic and international conference proceedings and book chapters. Rosenbaum also consults on transformative issues in the Chicago area with Living Well Cancer Center, WeCare Pregnancy Clinic, and Turning Point Domestic Violence Agency.

Geoff Smith is Senior Research Fellow in Donor and Community Research, within the Research and Development Division of the Australian Red Cross Blood Service. Donor and Community Research at the Blood Service is a targeted research program examining donor retention, recruitment, motivation and community attitudes toward blood and plasma donation. Geoff directs a team who run an array of projects in partnership with a number of Australian and overseas University research teams.

The purpose of this special session is two-fold. First, the session aligns social marketing research with 'sister' research domains of Transformative Consumer Research and Transformative Service Research. Second, the discussion helps social marketing scholars and practioners understand the similarities and differences between these three approaches of marketing that encourage both rigour and relevance. There are four papers to be presented in this special session, each of these papers follows on from the previous one and reflects the conference theme. There are three academic presenters and one practitioner thus demonstrating theory into practice.

Presentation 1. Transforming consumers' lives through Transformative Consumer Research
Simone Pettigrew

TCR can be defined as "research that benefits quality of life for all beings engaged in or affected by consumption trends and practices across the world" (Mick et al. 2012). To achieve its goals, TCR involves partnering with a range of stakeholders, including individual consumers and the organisations that represent their interests. The aim of these partnerships is to ensure that 'real problems' are targeted for attention and that the outcomes produced are implemented in the 'real world' to yield meaningful benefits. Dissemination is therefore a critical element of TCR. This presentation will outline several research projects that have been undertaken in conjunction with NGOs to benefit consumers. The benefits are both direct and indirect. The direct benefits relate to enhanced interactions with consumers and the development and refinement of effective programs and services. The indirect benefits include making conceptual advancements that contribute to the academic literature relating to best-practice in health promotion. These projects thus meet the twin goals of real-world application and scientific rigour.

Presentation 2. Transforming consumer lives through Transformative Service Research
Nadia Zainuddin and Mark Rosenbaum

Transformative service research (TSR) focuses on improving consumer and societal welfare through service. It is inspired by the emerging field of transformative consumer research which seeks to "solve real problems" (Mick 2006, p. 1) of consumers by applying marketing techniques to enhance the lives of consumers. As a research paradigm, TSR is defined as service research that seeks uplifting changes and improvements in the well-being of individuals. TSR limits its research focus to exploring how service providers, service processes, and services in general can promote consumer well-being. TSR is used by both commercial organisation and government/non-profit organisations thus TSR is broader than social marketing. This presentation will show the emerging issues in TSR and demonstrate how consumer lives can be transformed through service using examples from the real world.

Presentation 3. Transforming consumer lives through Social Marketing Research
Rebekah Russell-Bennett and Josephine Previte

Social marketing (SM) involves the adaptation of commercial marketing strategies to programs designed to influence individual behaviour of a target audience in order to not only improve their personal welfare, but also that of the society of which they are a part (AASM 2013). Effective social marketing programs incorporate change targeted at all levels including upstream, which involves the altering of the structural environment through targeting decision makers and opinion formers (Gordon, 2013), and midstream, which involves not only peer and social groups, but also services that facilitate the intended behaviour (Russell-Bennett, Wood and Previte, 2013). Social marketing differs from TCR and TSR in that the research is typically focussed on achieving policy outcomes such as healthier communities and environmental sustainability through marketing. This presentation will outline how social marketing research aligns with TCR and TSR, the differences in the approaches and the impact of social marketing research on consumer lives.

Presentation 4. Transforming consumer lives through practice
Geoff Smith, Australian Red Cross Blood Service

Blood donation is a critical part of health services with a viable blood supply underpinning an effective health program in any country. Typically blood is provided by voluntary donations from citizens and is therefore reliant on the goodwill and altruistic commitment of donors. In Australia, like many other developed nations, there are many challenges in maintaining a sufficient and sustainable blood supply. To overcome these challenges and ensure a sustainable blood supply, the Blood Service used TSR and SM to understand and motivate donors to continue donating. This presentation will outline the marketing strategies adopted that have increased the number of blood donors and thus transformed the lives of the Australians who have received this blood. The challenges of using TSR and SM in real campaigns within a highly regulated medicalised environment will he highlighted.

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WHAT, HOW and WHY!
A holistic social marketing program evaluation methodology

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Tricia's qualifications include a Master of Business Administration and a Bachelor of Physiotherapy. She is a Fellow of the Australian Institute of Company Directors and a Fellow Certified Practicing Marketer of the Australian Institute of Marketing. Tricia's experience has been enriched by her Directorships and Chairperson roles with Family Planning Queensland, Sexual and Reproductive Health and Family Planning Australia and Womensport Qld.

Inspired by her late Mother, a well read, socially aware and an insightful woman, Tricia has a passion to apply her wealth of experience to facilitate positive social, community and financial outcomes.

Introduction/Background

Social marketing by its nature is outcome focused. Naturally enough we all seek the answer to the question 'did we achieve the desired behavior change?' Success or failure, unfairly at times, hinges on a definitive answer to that question. There is a natural tendency among practitioners and program owners to seek to evaluate the outcome at the expense of insights that can be gained from an understanding of the process.

It is however well understood both intuitively and academically that the answer to 'did we achieve our objectives?' - the *what* - is most valuable when accompanied by the answers to the questions *how* and *why?* This paper explores the value of avoiding purist outcome evaluations that tell us the *what*, by advocating for a more holistic evaluation methodology that includes process evaluation to inform the *how* and *why* or indeed the *why not*.

This paper offers a proposed holistic social marketing program evaluation methodology that uses the eight Social Marketing Benchmark Criteria (National Social Marketing Centre 2014) combined with the disciplined discovery approach espoused in strategic marketing planning methods (Heibing and Cooper, 2003) as a theoretical lighthouse to guide evaluation design. The evaluation methodology also draws on the established concepts of Program Logic and the value of both process and outcome indicators (Knowlton and Phillips 2013).

Practical examples will be used to illustrate the methodology. The examples will also demonstrate that it can be applied to any evaluation no matter the budget, complexity or availability of quantitative baseline and outcome data.

The methodology

Overview
While it is important to pursue an understanding of whether a social marketing program achieved its behavior change objectives, an evaluator can face several challenges. If the evaluator is engaged at program completion or near completion there is every chance that the behavior objectives were not clearly established, were flawed in their construct and/or there is insufficient baseline and end of program data to accurately assess outcomes. Multiple concurrent market influencers can also make it difficult to isolate how much the program, compared to the other market influencers contributed to behavior change.

The solution is a well-designed hybrid of process and outcome evaluation that seeks to gather all available and relevant qualitative and quantitate data to reveal process indicators, linkages and insights.

Yet even in situations where there is good baseline and end of program data and the objectives have been wisely designed, an isolated outcome evaluation is an opportunity lost. Outcome evaluations combined with process evaluation will always deliver richer insights. For example, if a program objective is for the community to use less water and this was found to not be achieved based on end use data, the program appears to have failed. Detailed analysis of process may find large scale community engagement, increasing willingness to consider behavior change and segmented responses not initially predicted – all indicating the program is on the right track.

The steps

1. Data Collection:
A holistic methodology brings together multiple data sources as indicated by the program design and includes both process and outcome indicators. These data sources can be qualitative and quantitative market, stakeholder, expert commentator and community research as well as outcome measures, internal organisational program data, detailed program process reviews, specific technical and statistical analysis, literature reviews and industry scans, social media narratives and data from other unstructured sources.

The eight Social Marketing Benchmark Criteria (National Social Marketing Centre 2014) can be used to guide the selection of data sources. The evaluation needs to understand the customer in light of the program influence, the impacts on behavior as a result of the program, the theoretical frameworks that apply to the findings, the benefits, costs and competition that emerged as opposed to what they were thought to be, the segments that engaged as opposed to those that were expected to engage and review of the method mix for effectiveness.

2. Data synthesis:
As internationally renowned evaluator Michael Quinn Patton said in an interview with IRDC (IRDC Interview with Michael Quinn Patton) *'making good, contextually grounded, politically savvy and do-able recommendations is a sophisticated skill'*. The collection of data does not automatically lead to insight. Insight comes from taking data from multiple sources, searching forensically for linkages - delivering insights not possible from a pure outcome focused one dimensional approach. This is as much a creative process as it is analytical and requires a maturity of thinking and willingness to work strategically with the program team to unearth actionable insights.

3. Business storytelling:
It is important to do more than announce whether it was a success or not. A good social marketing evaluator will create the business story that emerges from the insights and engage the audience with a powerful, emotional message that taps into the way decision makers think.

Examples

Two examples are outlined here that demonstrate how the Holistic Social Marketing Program Evaluation Methodology described in this paper can be successfully applied.

Hard to measure and early days – but did it work?

While the Shire of Cloncurry in far west Queensland, Australia, was accustomed to living with seasonal extremes, in mid-2008 the Cloncurry Shire was experiencing severe drought conditions not seen before. The Cloncurry Waterwise Service (the Service) was implemented on behalf of the Queensland Government. The Service included shower, tap and toilet retrofits, leak fixes and a personalised one on one education/audit service. In addition, businesses were offered rebates and subsidies to purchase water efficient equipment (i.e. washing machines and toilets) or to undertake water efficiency projects. The evaluation was challenged by limited water consumption and production data and an urgent Service delivery timeframe making it impossible to acquire comprehensive baseline data prior to the program's commencement.

As the majority of the community was in the pre-contemplation phase of their behavioural change journey the Service's objectives were to:

- re-set community and business norms/expectations on acceptable water use
- achieve early stage behaviour change around water use, and
- reduce water consumption primarily due to the change in hardware associated with retrofit.

Given the lack of consumption and production data and relative abundance of data available from both the retrofit and audit services undertaken as part of the Service, a 'bottom up' approach was used to estimate the water savings at an end use level. A judicious mix of post program satisfaction research, industry research, community consultation, Service take up rates, response to the method mix and self-reported attitudinal change were used as process indicators to assess if the Service achieved its behavior and attitudinal change objectives.

Cloncurry's regional profile and severe drought imperative required that a unique demand management program be developed. As such, the Cloncurry Waterwise Service was an opportunity to develop and test a new model of delivery for demand management programs in remote regional Queensland and Australian environments. Analysis of process data combined with limited outcome data showed not only that the Service achieved its behavior change and water consumption objectives. It also delivered insight into unexpected water use and attitude segments and the influence of geographic isolation on the method mix design. These key learnings that can be used to inform demand management program design in similar regional locations, yet would have lost if a pure outcome focus evaluation was undertaken.

Evaluation of 'the largest energy efficiency project in Australia and probably internationally'

With the imminent closure of the Queensland energy efficiency program, the ClimateSmart Home Service (CSHS), Local Government Infrastructure Services (LGIS) undertook a comprehensive evaluation. To put the size of the CSHS and its evaluation into perspective the Institute for Sustainable Futures, (Nguyen et al, 2012) stated: *"Never before in Australia has anyone been able to mine a data set of this size (344,371 participants) across the linked variables of actual consumption data, end use, socio demographics, household structure, behaviour and attitudes."* To leverage the richness of the data to its full extent a holistic process and outcome methodology was applied that included an evaluation of electricity savings and greenhouse gas emissions reduction, assessment of the impacts on behaviour change, performance against key performance indicators, analysis of internal program data, socio demographic analysis and qualitative and qualitative market research. External industry specialists were engaged to deliver the specialist energy and market research evaluation expertise required. The evaluation was a rare opportunity to harness the unprecedented end use, socio-demographic, behaviour change and consumption data across the 344,000 CSHS participants (20 per cent of eligible Queensland Households), to deliver an integrated view of the performance of the CSHS, as well as rich, never before available insight into Queensland energy consumers. The findings are currently being used to inform future energy efficiency and peak demand management approaches.

Discussion and conclusion

A holistic process and outcome program evaluation methodology has been described in this paper. This evaluation methodology has been built by combining the theoretical framework of the eight Social Marketing Benchmark Criteria (National Social Marketing Centre, 2014) and the disciplined discovery approach espoused in strategic marketing planning methods (Heibing and Cooper 2003). This evaluation methodology also draws on the established concepts of Program Logic (Knowlton and Phillips 2013) and the value of process indicators.

Using this approach, social marketing programs with less than ideal baseline and end of program data can use short term or process indicators sourced from a range of quality qualitative and quantitative data sources in combination with outcome data to inform integrated data synthesis to deliver an approximate, yet robust answer, to the question – '*Did this program work and why/why not*?'

Alternatively this holistic evaluation methodology can be applied to social marketing programs with rich data and robust design to harness insights that would be lost in a purely outcome focused evaluation.

Importantly the flexibility of this methodology means it can be adapted to apply across both low or high budget evaluations making it a tool equally applicable to government or not for profit agencies. The key to delivering a useful evaluation is not necessarily budget. Rather, the key is a well thought out methodology that includes multiple data sources and mature data synthesis to deliver fresh insights and communicates a business story that provides practical guidance to future program decisions.

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Underage drinking is a big problem, but not in my family:
Formative research for a community-based intervention

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Introduction/Background

In 2011, 51% of Australian children aged 12-17 reported consuming alcohol in the last year; and 17% in the last week (White & Bariola 2012). Of recent drinkers, 26% consumed the alcohol at home, and 33% received it from their parents (White & Bariola 2012). With 83% of Australian adults being drinkers, there is a perception that (excessive) drinking is normal, even for underage drinkers (Alcohol Working Group, 2008; AIHW 2011).

If we are to address the problem of underage drinking, we need go beyond targeting young people themselves and address the attitudes and values of parents and community members in order to change the social and cultural environment in which our young people are learning about the role of alcohol in their lives. In recognition of the important role of parents in discouraging (or facilitating) alcohol consumption, several recent interventions in the US (Perry et al 2007; Gerrard et al 2006) and Europe (Koning et al 2011) have included components targeting teenagers and their parents, individually and concurrently. However, the majority of these interventions: have been predicated on the assumption that parents are opposed to their teenagers" drinking (which is not universally the case in Australia).

The Theory of Planned Behaviour posits that the predictors of behavioural intention are attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen 1988; 1991). A study of 247 secondary school pupils (mean age 16.6 years) across a range of health-related behaviours (including drinking alcohol) which found that, on average, the TPB and past behaviour explained 62% of the variance in health-risk intentions, and 51% of the variance in health-protective intentions (Rivis et al 2006).

Prior to developing communication materials for an intervention targeting underage drinking and supply of alcohol we sought to explore these predictors among three key target groups in a regional town: adolescents, parents and community members.

Method

Ethics approval from the University's Human Research Ethics Committee was granted for extensive qualitative research within the targeted town. Participants for focus groups responded to advertisements in the local newspaper, community newsletters and social media posts. Key stakeholders were identified by the authors and directly approached by telephone and email. We conducted 16 focus groups with the three key target audiences: adolescents, four groups with 12-14 year olds and four with 15-17 year olds; parents of teenagers (four groups); and community members (four groups). We also conducted ten interviews with key stakeholders (a female high school teacher, male youth worker, two male police officers, a male GP and a female GP; and four mothers who preferred not to speak within a group).

The discussions focused on attitudes towards adolescent drinking, alcohol supply by parents and other adults, and responses to existing campaign materials. Focus groups were audio recorded and transcribed in full. Data analysis was undertaken by two independent coders, using a constant comparison method. On completion of independent analyses the two coders compared identified themes and sub-themes and the few minor differences were resolved through discussion and referral back to the transcript.

Results

In the terms of the Theory of Planned Behaviour, our participants had the desired 'attitudes' (underage 'drinking' and 'supply' of alcohol is wrong), the desired subjective norms (their friends believe underage 'drinking' and 'supply' of alcohol is wrong), and generally high perceived behavioural control (they could refuse to 'supply' alcohol to their teenagers and could ensure that others did not). However, their interpretation of the desired behaviour was fundamentally different to ours and to that of the medical and public health profession.

There was a general consensus from the stakeholder interviews and the community focus groups that many or most parents in the area provide alcohol to their children. The responses from teenagers and parents reflected a more nuanced perception of both 'drinking' and 'supply' of alcohol. The majority of parents were adamant that they would not supply alcohol to their underage teenagers, but many referred to giving their children 'tastes' of alcohol or 'teaching' them to drink responsibly.

> *...but I've let X try my wine probably since he was about 11 – a sip. Because I'd rather him know what a good wine tastes like and I say to him what can you taste and smell, think about it like proper wine tasting. Because I'd rather him have an appreciation for a good wine .... (parent group 2)*

The older teenagers (16-17yo) believed their parents would (or do) allow them to drink; again distinguishing between 'responsible' drinking and 'risky' drinking.

> *It depends....if it's at a party one of your mates is having, that all the people you know then it might be all right. But if it's...places, like Warilla and stuff....* (15-17yo group 2)

Conversely, there was a strong perception among parents that 'other parents' do provide alcohol to their teenage children, whether driven by misperceptions about harm minimisation or by poor parenting. The (younger) adolescents referred quite negatively to adolescents who 'drink' and parents who allow their children to 'drink'.

> *But to be frank I reckon the majority of parents really don't care ... (parent group 1)*

The perception of underage drinking as a problem for 'other' children in 'other' families was equally evident in responses to the sample underage drinking campaigns. While we provided a wide range of messages and approaches, many parents were attracted to the high-fear graphic advertising, which they described as being the most effective for the 'target audience', which was clearly not themselves or their families.

> *...one that scared the living daylights out of you and put blame on the mother* (parent group 2)

Discussion and conclusion

While there is debate in the literature as to the value of focus groups for testing messages, in this study the open and wide-ranging discussion identified an issue that may not have been discovered in one-one-one or quantitative message testing – that the target audience 'agreed with' the message and thought it would be effective for 'those people' it was targeting.
It is clearly important to ensure that the target audience perceives themselves to <u>be</u> the target audience, and is not in fact commenting on the effectiveness of the message for 'other' people. The frame of reference for, and interpretation of terms by, target audiences can be fundamentally different to that of message developers. High-fear graphic images may test well with adolescents and parents because they genuinely believe these are the most effective strategy for 'those' children and 'those' parents.

Following their recommendations is likely to result in campaigns that the intended target audience do not perceive as relevant to themselves. Thus, these messages will not impact on their attitudes or behaviours as they believe they are already doing the 'right' thing.

For social marketing interventions to be effective in practice, communication messages need to resonate with the intended target audience and may not be the ones they report as the 'most effective'. In this case, we used a quote from one of our research participants who, when she realised that she was in fact part of the target audience, articulated that "Bad things happen to good kids too". In this way, we have commenced the campaign with messages that ensure our target audience is aware that we are talking to them, and thus will see future communications as relevant to their families.

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Encouraging physical activity among women in the Pacific Island Kingdom of Tonga: Kau Mai Tonga strategic health communication campaigns.

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Project Overview

The 'Kau Mai Tonga' (C'mon Tonga) physical activity (PA) program is a joint initiative of the Governments of Australia and Tonga through the Australian Sports Outreach Program. The project utilises strategic health communication to plan, develop, implement and evaluate population level communication campaigns using sport as a driver for greater levels of PA. The research goal was to compare the results of two post-intervention outcome evaluations (W1 and W2). The first communication campaign, undertaken in 2012, utilised sporting role models to emphasise the benefits of PA. The second campaign, undertaken in 2013, utilised a health threat appeal called 'Surgeon' to highlight the risks associated with physical inactivity. The call to action in both campaigns was 'C'mon Tonga, let's play netball", and "30 minutes of PA, 3 times per week."

Background and Policy Context

Non-communicable diseases (NCDs) contribute to a significant proportion of the burden of disease in the Pacific (Hodge, Dowse, & Zimmett, 1996). NCDs are a primary concern for small pacific Island nations like Tonga, with four of the five most common causes for mortality being NCD related (Govt. Tonga, 2010). Healthy lifestyles are being eroded as a result of poor diet, rapidly declining levels of PA, and increasing use of tobacco, alcohol and other substances, contributing to the prevalence of NCDs, including diabetes (WHO, 2003). Tonga is among the top five countries in the world in terms of obesity (WHO, 2002), with 84% of Tongan males and 93% of females classified as overweight or obese (Duarte, Palu, Wang, & Wilcken, 2003). Given the global scale of the NCD problem, identifying efficiencies through population level communication approaches is important in the resource-constrained settings of developing and transitional nations, including the Pacific.

Case-Study Benchmark Criteria

Cognitive and Behavioural Goals: Baseline behaviours identified low levels of PA amongst Tongan women with less than 17% doing more than 45 mins of PA per week, while WHO recommendations are for at least 150 mins (30mins x 5 times) of PA per week. Other specific benchmark criteria included measures of campaign reach (at least 70% recall), and significant increases over the W1 levels of campaign related knowledge about the benefits of PA, as well as significant changes in attitudes, risk and self-efficacy perceptions towards PA, behavioural intentions and actual PA behaviours .

Customer orientation: Insights into the primary audiences and high-risk groups was obtained through elicitation research—a rapid assessment and response (RAR) approach (Turk et al., 2013). The needs assessment included semi-structured interviews with key informants and focus group discussions with program beneficiaries. Secondary data sources supported in-field findings with results used to develop a 3 year (2011-14) communication strategy.

Insight: Potential barriers to behavioural compliance included cultural factors that limit female engagement in sporting activities, gender role stereotypes and reduced income generating opportunities. An audit of PA infrastructure revealed limited supply which may impact on demand generation created by the communication campaigns.

Insights into the facilitators for PA included health benefits, the fun and social aspects of netball, playing at elite level, sporting equipment incentives, as well as the removal of religious and cultural sanctions by religious and other local leaders.

Segmentation: Given Tongan women's increased vulnerability to chronic diseases from physical inactivity, the campaign targeted all Tongan women aged 15-45 years. Segmentation by geographic location, socio-economic status, and risk profiles was not undertaken because a risk factor analysis identified that over 90% of women are either overweight or obese with resulting high levels of chronic diseases (Duarte et al., 2003).

Exchange: The two campaigns focused on encouraging Tongan women to see the value-adding benefits of engaging in regular PA. The *exchange* process in the first campaign leveraged social learning theory (Bandura, 1969), through the use of sporting role models. The second campaign involved leveraging elements of the Health Belief Model (Janz & Becker, 1984) and portrayed women's *perceived susceptibility* to NCDs resulting from physical inactivity. The *perceived seriousness* and severity of risk was communicated using a surgeon health threat appeal. The aim was for audiences to weigh the *perceived threat* of NCD's against the bio-psycho-social benefits of engaging in regular physical exercise.

Competition: Competition factors included a broad number of domestic, cultural, relational and in some cases, substance use (alcohol, marijuana) issues impacting on women's ability to attend netball games and engage in regular PA. The demands of domestic life and the cultural orientation to stay at home to care for the family were major competing factors to increased levels of PA, along with the need to undertake income generating activities.

Theory: The efficacy of both the W1 and W2 campaigns were evaluated using the Health Belief Model and the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991).

Marketing Mix: The communication strategy was designed to *inform* and *encourage* target audience members through the use of informational and transformational appeals as well as infrastructure to support demand generation for PA. Consideration of the 4Ps included *Product* assessment through the provision of netball kits and a range of netball and other infrastructure to increase access and convenience on all island settings. *Price* considerations encompassed the bio-psycho-social and cultural implications of engaging in PA and the social price of engagement. *Place* considerations included logistical issues around: (i) the planning of netball tournaments across the resource limited settings; and (ii) increased netball participation rates across the settings generated by the communication campaign activities. The campaigns were *Promoted* using: (i) training materials and resources for community mobilizers; (ii) the inclusion of promotional activities at 'point of activity'; and (iii) mass media, community media, and community interpersonal channels of communication. *Designing and adjusting* of the environment was undertaken through capacity building and included coaching clinics and workshop trainings.

Partnerships: The project is delivered as a joint initiative of the Governments of Australia and Tonga through the Australian Sports Outreach Program which is funded by the Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade and managed by the Australian Sports Commission. The campaign partners with Netball Australia and is delivered in country through the Tongan Ministries of Internal Affairs and Health and the Tonga Netball Association. Technical support for the communication strategy is provided by Communication Partners International and Monash University, School of Marketing.

Evaluation and results

A monitoring and evaluation framework was used to measure program impact. This included undertaking cross-sectional household surveys using a probability proportionate to size (PPS) sampling approach. In both W1 and W2 approximately 1,200 cases were recruited using face-to-face survey interviews. The interviews were conducted by trained indigenous enumerators across the four main island settings. To ensure that the findings were representative of the broader population structures, both data waves were weighted by district and age band.

Category cued (unprompted) recall was high (W1=86.7%; W2=81.1%) across W1 and W2. Moreover, chi-square analyses indicated that knowledge about the negative impact of low levels of PA increased significantly between W1 and W2: diabetes ($p<.001$); obesity ($p<.01$); heart disease ($p<.05$); cancer ($p<.001$); and stroke ($p<.001$). Attitudes towards PA improved significantly between W1 and W2. Specifically, W2 respondents were significantly more likely to perceive regular PA to be *pleasant* (Mean W1=5.89; Mean W2=6.60; $p< .001$); *enjoyable* (Mean W1=6.26; Mean W2=6.66; $p<.001$); *healthy* (Mean W1=6.64; Mean W2=6.76; $p<.01$); and *good* (Mean W1=6.64; Mean W2=6.76; $p<.01$). W2 respondents were also significantly more likely to think that significant others would approve of their participation in regular PA (Mean W1=6.14; Mean W2=6.29; $p<.05$). However, self-efficacy in relation to feeling capable of participating in regular PA decreased between W1 and W2 (Mean W1=6.19; Mean W2=5.58; $p<.001$). Similarly, the propensity for women to engage in interpersonal communication (IPC) about PA declined significantly between W1 and W2. Specifically, W2 respondents were less likely to *speak about the campaign with others* ($p<.001$) and to *persuade others to be more physically active* ($p<.001$). No differences were noted in intentions to engage in PA between W1 and W2 (Mean W1=6.61; Mean W2=6.69; $p>.05$). Actual physical activity levels was assessed by asking Tongan women whether they were doing less, the same amount, or more physical activity than they were 4 months previously. Responses were rated on a 3 point Likert-type scale (where 1=less, 2=same, and 3=more physical activity). The mean response on PA was higher in W2 than W1, suggesting that PA levels had increased over time (Mean W 1 = 1.85, Mean W2 = 2.01; $p<.001$).

Lessons Learned

Synergised promotional activities, delivered through a broad marketing mix, created high awareness and interest in both communication campaigns and associated PA activities. However, NCD risk related risk behaviour change will take time. A 3-5 year strategy is recommended, with nuanced messaging and approaches, informed by campaign outcome evaluations. Comparisons in the executional approaches—positive role model and health threat appeals, showed a number of positive as well as some negative outcomes. The already high baseline achieved by the first campaign made further gains in the second campaign more hard won. Expectation management is critical to success with 323 teams competing during Ph1 and 207 teams during the Ph2 campaign tournament period. Only 29 teams competed prior to the interventions.

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Enhancing and retaining donor relationships using internet-based communication

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Introduction

Blood collection agencies such as the Australian Blood Service need to ensure an adequate supply of blood to the national health systems and their success depends on their ability to attract and retain donors (Webb, Green & Brashear, 2000). This is becoming increasingly difficult as due to the ageing population and life expectancies, as well as the introduction of new surgical and oncologic procedures there is an increasing demand for blood products. At the same time the number of potential blood donors is shrinking (Alessandrini, 2002) due to increasingly stringent eligibility criteria (Chamla, Leyland & Walsh, 2006) as well as a global shortage of active donors (Masser et al., 2008). This situation poses a major challenge to blood collection agencies (Yu, Chung, Lin, Chan & Lee, 2007). As a result, blood donor motivation has attracted considerable interest from both researchers and blood collection agencies. Past research has called for new approaches for engaging, qualifying, and retaining donors (Davey, 2002). The proliferation of high-speed Internet technologies provides an opportunity for blood collection agencies to develop stronger donor relations (Shabbir et al., 2007) as Internet-based and social networking communication provides cost-effective ways of reaching a large audience of potential and established donors (Chou et al., 2004) as online services can facilitate business-to-consumer (B2C) information and data exchange and peer-to-peer interaction. through social networking sites (e.g., Facebook, Twitter), message forums, live chat rooms, weblogs or 'blogs' and wikis. According to the Lancet *(2010: 2122)* *'If every blood donor used their Facebook wall to recruit friends, and if blood were distributed throughout the year to where the need is greatest, the mismatch between demand and supply could be eliminated'.*

Thus the aim of this study was to investigate perceptions of current blood donors the potential benefits and disadvantages using online and social networking media such as twitter and Facebook for donor agencies and blood donor as well as donor-to-donor communication so as to enhance donation behaviour.

Method

Purposive sampling of current donors to the Australian Blood Services was used to select focus group participants. Eight focus groups composed of different types of donors (whole blood and apharesis donors, age cohorts (Baby boomers, Gen X and Y), and stages of their donation career (first timer, early career or veteran donors) emerged. This sampling procedure was guided by prior research that suggests donor behaviour changes as the donor becomes more experienced (Allen *et al.,* 1992). The focus group discussions lasted 11/2 to 2 hrs. The data was analysed using a grounded theory approach and verbatim transcribed and independently coded by two researchers using NVivo.

Results

Five major issues that emerged based on their most frequent as a response in the focus group discussion are discussed below.

Motivations for donating. Participants were requested to indicate what had motivated them to become a donor as this could be used to find ways to enhance donor loyalty. Several drivers of donating emerged from the interviews and were grouped into intrinsic and extrinsic motivators. Having a sick relative or friend emerged as the major motivator for becoming a blood donor.

The other top motivators were contributing to community and society, encouragement from employer, workmates, family or friends, the benefit of getting a health check, importance of donation for moral, emotional and sentimental reasons, something the donor enjoyed doing and the pleasantness of feeling *being good'* as a donor.

Sharing of donation experience with others. Discussion on sharing experience with other donors or donor-to-donor interaction indicated that most donors in the baby-boomer age cohort do not generally discuss blood donation as it is perceived to be a difficult topic to bring up. Those that discussed blood donation indicated that this was usually with their *'immediate circle'* that included family, close friends or workmates. Some donors in the baby-boomer age cohort they had in the past made effort to recruit friends, workmates and relatives to be donors. Gen X donors in contrast appeared to be more inclined to discuss donation with other people. According to one Gen X donor they discussed blood donation with co-workers when they were, '*... trying to get this group together, to get the buses out and go every three months.'* Some Gen X, donors also indicated they were keen to discuss donation in social and athletic clubs and associations. Most donors in both age cohorts and donor groups felt experienced donors could become more involved in finding ways to encourage other people to become donors and hoped the focus group would provide *'... a forum on how to get out there and market it'* and to become some sort of *'ambassadors'* for the Blood Service.

Donor relationship management and communication. Most donors preferred email as the mode of communication with reminders the day prior to donating, and some suggested SMS reminders and were unhappy about receiving reminder phone calls from the Blood Service. Whilst most participants from both age cohorts viewed e-mails as the most preferred way of communicating with the Blood Service most felt emails were too old-fashioned as, *'You use email when your grandmother sends you an email. Other than that, it's Facebook.'* Most baby boomers also indicated that they are happy to be linked or receive updates (on Facebook/twitter feeds) and being linked to the Blood Service website also emerged as a possible communication tool. This was well articulated by one early career donor, *'On Facebook, you can send a message to somebody who has given blood after one week to say thank you,…'*

Donor-to-donor communication. Some Gen X donors expressed interest in sharing their donation experience with others especially if a program was developed to facilitate donor-to-donor interaction. Such a program would enable some donors to 'be *a champion…'* and '*… to *try to encourage people…'.* Most Gen X donors suggested social media should be utilised to facilitate discussion of donation experience or achievements with their social network, to motivate donors and provide positive feedback to peers using networking social media such as Facebook, Twitter and Google Buzz to create *'ripple effects'.* Participants suggested the DonateBlood.com.au website should be linked to their Facebook pages so that they would be able to post things.

Blood Service donor communication. Facebook was also viewed as an effective communication tool for the Blood Service to pass important information to specific donor groups In most of the focus groups. According to one Gen X donor**, '***... at least Facebook I think would help. If you have a blog, an RSS thing, people can subscribe to that if there are important things'*. All focus groups indicated they considered social networking as crucial for reaching younger donors. The integration of the Blood Services website with Facebook was also suggested as it would facilitate *'posting of updates'*.

Twitter was identified by some participants to be a more relevant tool for updating donors on important issues, whilst YouTube was viewed as an effective tool for spreading positive content. Participants indicated that social media should be used to track donation and give online points or rewards such as stickers, certificates, or similar incentives.

'*Linking*' through social media was mentioned as a possible tool to mobilise corporate sponsorship and involve the community and to work through existing structures and organisations such as AFL clubs and Rotarians to promote donation and enhance donor retention and loyalty

Conclusions and Recommendations

The study investigated donor perceptions of online resources the Blood Service may use to enhance donor loyalty and retention. Views about donation and the role of online and social media differed among participants. Most participants believed social media is important in engaging and recruiting younger donors. Baby boomer donors especially saw potential for instrumental or pragmatic use of social and networking media in accessing donor history and passing targeted information to specific donors. Whilst social media did not specifically appeal to most baby-boomers some pointed to the potential use of social media in donor organisations in reaching younger generations and contributing to donor succession. In contrast, younger (Gen X) donors were more inclined endorse social media for their own use and suggest its use in sharing their donation experience.

Whilst the appeal of social media stems from the opportunity they provide to form communities and share information among users, surprisingly most donors were not interested in sharing their donation experience with other people. Those interested in sharing information were willing to link to the DonateBlood.com website, Facebook and Twitter as well as to communicate with current and potential donors as well as with their social network and workmates. Some donors were interested in being '*ambassadors*' for the Blood Service. Thus, managers of not-for-profit and donor organisations should use social networks to foster trust and long-term collaboration with donors. Such online social groups are sustainable because of the need for community and social connections (Lai & Turban, 2008). However, given that engagement in a social networking context is time-consuming and complex donor organisations should need to ensure that the donor organisations need to carefully segment donors on basis of different intrinsic and extrinsic vales so as to be able to craft targeted strategies for different donor groups. Thus, for online marketing strategies of donor organisation to enhance donor loyalty and retention there is need social factors identified in his study. To promote donor-to-donor interaction the donors should identify these enthusiastic donors and develop online communication strategies that facilitate donor organisation-to-donor and donor-to-donor interactions, thereby enhancing donor loyalty and retention.

Limitations and Future Research Options

The limitations of the study lie firstly in its limited scope as it only covered current blood donors that were willing to attend focus groups. Second, the study did not include the younger, Gen Y, age group as both phone and e-mail recruitment of this group from the donor database had been problematic. Future research should consider alternative means of recruiting such as social media. The third limitation was that focus group participants were all quite engaged with and involved in blood donation.

To solicit the views of the more 'typical donor', the recruitment process should also include lapsed or/and deferred donors' views as these donor groups would offer more insight into factors that affect donor loyalty.

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Consumers as value creators: Exploring value self-creation in social marketing

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Background

Value creation is an important part of social marketing, which attempts to create value for target audiences to induce behaviour change (Kotler & Lee, 2011). Social marketing is often concerned with voluntary behaviour change, and as such, requires a level of active consumer participation within the value creation process. The voluntary nature of many social marketing activities suggests that the experiential value of these behaviours is proactive. Holbrook (1994) distinguishes between passive and active value in commercial marketing, whereby passive value is experienced by consumers reactively in response to the consumption of an object or service, and active value is participative, which requires collaboration between the consumer and organisation. This reflects a value co-creation context as presented by Vargo and Lusch (2004) and Grönroos (2011).

However, a key difference between social marketing and commercial marketing is the emphasis on behaviours and ideas, rather than on goods and services (Kotler & Lee 2011). While social marketing goods and services do exist, they often act as facilitators or vehicles for socially desirable behaviour changes. In some social marketing causes, such as reducing domestic violence, and increasing exercise, an organisation may not have the opportunity to interact with the consumer through the provision of a good or service. Within these contexts, the focus is on the behaviour and well-being of individuals, rather than the use of a good or service. This represents a challenge for social marketing managers who struggle to understand how target audiences can be incentivised into desired actions, particularly in situations where there is limited use of goods and services to facilitate behaviour change.

While some studies have examined value creation within social marketing contexts (e.g., Domegan et al., 2012; 2013; Russell-Bennett et al., 2009; Zainuddin et al., 2011; Zainuddin et al., 2013), their focus has been on *services that facilitate behaviour*, rather than *actual behaviour*. What is lacking in the literature is a consideration of those social marketing instances in which no direct interaction between individuals and organisations occurs. This is important as there is an abundance of social marketing activities which involves the performing of behaviours without facilitation by goods or services. Focussing on value creation in these behaviour-only contexts provides important contributions to social marketing, as well as extends the current knowledge on value theory and value creation.

The current value creation literature focuses on interaction with an organisation (Grönroos & Voima, 2013) or integration of operant and operand resources (Vargo & Lusch, 2004), and as such, there are sources of value (Smith & Colgate, 2007; Zainuddin et al., 2013) external to the consumer. However, in the context of social marketing, behaviour change often occurs without this interaction, representing a gap in the literature in understanding value creation at a distance. To address this gap, this paper examines value creation within contexts in which consumers must self-create value and suggests that value self-creation can occur and proposes the concept of *value self-creation,* guided by the theoretical frameworks of value theory and value creation.

Conceptual Proposal

We define *value self-creation* as the value creation process undertaken solely by an individual where there is no direct interaction with an organisation. This includes social marketing services organisations, for example, and their employees. In other words, the value creation process occurs at a distance.

Without the overlap of the organisation and customer spheres, the role of the organisation is restricted to only as a facilitator, with no capacity to actively participate in the co-creation of value.

Consequently, the individual consumer is the **sole** creator of value. Value self-creation is distinguished from self-motivation in that self-motivation is a self-driven force that causes an individual to engage in a behaviour, while value self-creation is a process that an individual undergoes once they are already engaged in a behaviour.

We suggest that value self-creation sits within an overall continuum of value creation, which highlights that different behaviours require varying degrees of resource integration from the organisation and consumer (see Appendix). Value self-creation examines the value creation processes in behaviours that require high levels of resource integration from the consumer, but negligible levels from the organisation. Some examples of self-creation in social marketing include using bowel screening kit, exercising regularly, and using reusable shopping bags for conservation. Other value creation types within the suggested value creation continuum includes varying combinations of high or low levels of resource integration from the individual and the organisation. For example, value co-creation involves high levels of resource integration from both the individual and the organisation. Table 1 summarises the suggested continuum of value creation.

While value self-creation has not been explicitly identified in the value creation literature, the concept has been somewhat explored and implied. After recognising that actors perform resource integration, Grönroos (2006) argued that consumers could be the 'sole creator of value' (p.34) to create value for themselves. This view was also supported by Baron and Harris (2006), claiming that consumers can be resources integrators through consumption and co-consumption. This highlights circumstances in which the majority of the value creation process rests on the shoulders of the consumer, and therefore, the term 'self-creator' is deemed appropriate. McColl-Kennedy et al. (2012) identify value creation through self-activities including positive thinking, reframing and sense-making, emotional labour and "psyching oneself up" (p.371) and provided empirical evidence that inputs to an individual's value creation process can come from the individual's own activities. However, as the context of this study was in a health treatment service, in which patients and carers work together, the value is still co-created and in a commercial marketing service setting.

Implications for Theory and Practice

The major theoretical contribution of this paper is the theorisation of value self-creation, situated within an overall conceptualisation of value creation. This acknowledges the many social marketing instances which focus on individuals' behaviours and the resultant value that is derived from the performance of this behaviour, rather than from the use of goods or services. This allows for the examination of the efficacy of using value to achieve social marketing goals, particularly in social marketing causes that do not involve the use of goods or services. The concept of self-creation is valuable for social marketing practice as it encourages practitioners to regard individuals as value creators, empowered in their ability to determine and create value for themselves. Individuals should not be viewed as passive recipients of value, as this does not apply in all social marketing situations and contexts. It suggests that meaningful segmentation on the basis of activity levels and context should be considered and highlights the need to invest effort in consumer education and empowerment in their role in achieving social good.

As citizens are active participants in the change process, they should be consulted by social marketers to generate participant insight during the development of social change programmes.

As part of social marketing, social marketers should engage, interact, and work with participants of social change programmes, and in doing so, are able to facilitate participant empowerment through the provision of the necessary knowledge and tools to act.

Appendix: Value creation continuum

	Value		
	Delivered	**Co-created**	**Self-Created**
Primary Responsibility for Value Creation	Organisation	Joint	Individual
Role of Organisation	Value Creator	Value Co-creator	Value Facilitator
Role of Individual	Value Receiver	Value Co-creator	Value Creator
Interaction	Direct	Direct	Indirect
Theoretical Frameworks	Communication Value-Chain	Services Marketing Consumer Behaviour S-D logic Services Logic	Self-Service Technology Organisational Citizenship
Examples in Social Marketing	Policy Communication	Breast Screening Cervical Screening Smoking Cessation	Bowel Screening Exercise Diet
Source(s)	Porter (1985) Sweeney and Soutar (2001)	Vargo and Lusch (2004; 2008), Grönroos and Voima (2013), Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004)	This paper

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Facebook wall posts: What sort achieves the most interaction?

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Introduction/Background

While the potential of social media has empowered consumers, giving rise to ever greater abilities to interact and create conversations among very large audiences, the marketing adoption of social media is more difficult. For example, meaningful understanding of consumer motivations for information exchanges is lacking (e.g. Schmitt, Skiera, & van den Bulte, 2011; Van der Lans & Van Bruggen, 2011). From a practitioner perspective implementing a digital media viral marketing campaign 'can be tricky for advertisers to tap into' (Leskovec, Adamic and Huberman, 2007, p. 2). Failed viral campaigns remain the norm (Mills, 2012; Van der Lans & Van Bruggen, 2011) and 'success in this area remains elusive to most firms' (Ferguson, 2008, p. 68; Kalyanam, McIntyre, & Masonis, 2007). Social media is ubiquitous and fundamentally different from traditional or other online media because of its 'social network structure and egalitarian nature' (Peters, Chen, Kaplan, Ognibeni, & Pauwels, 2013, p. 281). However, the difficulty lies in both harnessing such power and in measuring the results because some returns 'will not always be measured in dollars, but … in customer behaviors' (Hoffman & Fodor, 2010, p. 42). Proving a link between social media campaigns, any other marketing activities and revenue can be challenging. While evidence of online social consumer interactions with brands, products or services can be shown in the number of active users and brand awareness can be shown in the number of fans (Hoffman & Fodor, 2010). Exploration of interaction across several levels is needed to enhance understanding of interactions in order to inform marketing strategy. Building on calls for further research into viral marketing (e.g. Gupta & Harris, 2010; Zhang, Craciun, & Shin, 2010), and in particular, what contributes the key success factors of viral campaigns (Dobele, Lindgreen, Beverland, Vanhamme, & van Wijk, 2007; Wallsten, 2010), we explore a month of activity in the Australian Red Cross Blood Service (Blood Service) Facebook page and ask what sort achieves the most interaction.

Method

The context of this study is the Red Cross Blood Service, a non-profit organization that seeks to change behavior of Australians to increase blood donations. They are turning to social media as a way to achieve this aim. Interactions from initial wall posts are measured across three criteria: a like, share or comment. Liking a wall post is a relatively simple interaction, a click of the mouse. Sharing and commenting can show evidence of higher level interactions as community members can include personalized messages. Commenting can be the simple showing of support, or a reply to a specific question, wall post status or another comment. Wall posts posted between November 6 and December 5, and subsequent interactions (likes, shares and comments) were manually measured from publicly available data. Analysis was done via basic descriptive statistics.

Results

The most successful wall post, ranked by shares, asked donors to watch a video and then share it with others, with the name "You're a giver, be a liker" and the tagline 'Donate Like Share'. This campaign ran from November 6 to December 2 and was designed to encourage every donor to become a fan of the Blood Service Facebook site. During this month other social media activities, forming part of an overall marketing strategy, were also run. The campaign comprised a video, donor centre elements, an email to all donors and Facebook advertising. The campaign was a call to action which communicates to people 'what to do, rather than what to think' (Smith, 2006, p. 38). The message concluded that donors were givers, so be likers too.

The original wall post generated 1,578 shares, the highest number of shares for any wall post for the month under investigation. This post also generated the highest number of comments, 115 (though the second most commented post was close at 113). The other measure considered in this analysis was likes, and the wall post with the most number of likes, 1,438, asked donors to provide the Blood Service with their best overheard stories. This campaign was co-creation based by inviting community members to 'co-create unique experiences' with the Blood Service community (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004, p. 7). A summary of all three measures for both posts is presented in Table 1.

Table 1 Summary of rankings for the most successful wall posts

Interaction Measure	*Measurement criteria*		
Wall Post	*Shared Rank*	*Liked Rank*	*Commented Rank*
Call to Action: Watch this video to see how your shared story makes your donation even more powerful.	1st: 1578	3rd: 1229 (574 male, 1981 female, 10 unknown, 17 page)	1st: 115 (37 male, 72 female, 0 unknown, 6 page)
Co-creation: Give us your best stories, donors!	10th: 86	1st: 1438 (346 male, 1070 female, 12 unknown, 10 page)	5th: 101 (39 male, 62 female)

Discussion and conclusion

This study makes an important contribution to theoretical discussions of social media interactions by considering the outward ripples generated from an original wall post, rather than simply totalling active users or membership. The study showcases a practical measure for analysing marketing communication effectiveness for marketing departments. Given the higher levels of interaction for the official marketing campaign it appears this marketing strategy was successful for the National Marketing group, however, it is noted that the impact on donor activity is unknown. Further research could consider the interactions in light of consumer culture theory (CCT) (Arnould & Thompson, 2005) by framing the consumer as an active co-creator of meaning, and over a longer time period. Such research could illuminate the interactions between brand and community members and help to understand why community members participate in different types of wall posts. Finally, future research could consider the top ten wall posts for each level of interaction to determine themes for these more successful wall posts and explore and compare the longevity of individual wall posts. In summary, we make that point that different campaign tactics influence the level of user interaction (like, share, comment), thus, organisations need to strategically identify the purpose of their social media campaigns and then develop the right appeal to achieve this outcome. Understanding the impact of different appeals can improve social media campaign effectiveness. For example, if the aim of the campaign is to achieve the ripple effect and create a community, then the video campaign was more effective than uploading an individual story. However, if the aim was to create positive reinforcement for donor behaviour, then the most effective campaign was the co-creation appeal with more likes.

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The psychological and economic factors that influence energy consumption habits of Low-income earners.

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Introduction

Social marketers and governments have often targeted hard to reach or vulnerable groups (Gordon et al., 2006) such as young adults and low income earners. Past research has shown that low-income earners are often at risk of poor health outcomes and diminished lifestyle (Hampson et al., 2009; Scott et al., 2012). Young adults (aged 18 to 35) are in a transition phase of their life where lifestyle preferences are still being formed and are thus a useful target for long-term sustainable change. An area of focus for all levels of government is the use of energy with an aim to reduce consumption. There is little research to date that combines both of these groups and in particular in the context of household energy usage. Research into financially disadvantaged consumers is challenging the notion that that low income consumer purchasing and usage of products and services is based upon economic status (Sharma et al., 2012). Prior research shows higher income earners view items such as televisions and computers as necessities rather than non-essential (Karlsson et al., 2004). Consistent with this is growing evidence that low income earners purchase non-essential, energy intensive electronic appliances such as multiple big screen TV sets and additional refrigerators. With this in mind, there is a need for knowledge about how psychological and economic factors influence the energy consumption habits (e.g. appliances on standby power, leaving appliances turned on, running multiple devices at one time) of low income earners. Thus, our study sought to address the research question of: *What are the factors that influence young adult low-income earners energy habits?*

Method

The sample consisted of young adults (18-35 years) with low-income (below $45,000 individually) who were currently renting. Renters were selected because they are face with the unique 'Split Incentive' barrier to improving energy behaviour where the owner of the household controls major household fixtures (age and quality) such as hot water systems, air conditioning units, whilst the tenant pays for the running costs of these fixtures through electricity bills. This is also a target group that has been identified by the Commonwealth Government and Brisbane City Council's sustainability agency, CitySmart as most at risk as energy costs increase. Thus the selection criteria was low income (<$45,000 – cut-off of bottom two quintiles in income) and renting in Brisbane. The research question were addressed by both a qualitative study of 4 focus groups (n=32) and a web-based survey (n=505). Purposive sampling was used for both the focus groups and the web-based survey (Coyne, 1997). The qualitative sample consisted of males and females aged 18-35 (split into two age groups based on decades 18-24 and 25-35) living in Brisbane with individual incomes <$45,000 and renting. In the quantitative sample 19.4% were male and 80.6% were female, with 41.4% within the age bracket of 18-24 years and 58.6% within the 25-35 year age bracket (gender was consequently used as a moderator and differences in mean scores was tested). The median for the most recent electricity bill was $301-$400. The comparative cost of the respondent's bill relative to income of the sample represents 3.5% of their gross income compared to the average for Queenslanders who use 1.7% of their gross income[2]. Measures for the survey were derived from existing scales using a 7-point likert scale (see Appendix A).

Results

The qualitative study demonstrated that young adult low income earners own appliances that are typically associated with higher incomes due to their aspiration to be 'middle class'. The focus groups indicated that the acquisition of digital devices such as mobiles or laptops for the internet, social media or entertainment were based on perceived social norms and were devices to which they felt entitled.

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[2] Income for low income earner based on $45,000 gross per year, average income for Queenslanders is $68,775 gross per year (ABS, 2012). Bills are multiplied by four to represent quarterly billing. Average

Further, respondents believed that their energy usage was no different to those in higher income groups. This was confirmed in the survey with high ownership of multiple energy consumption devices, particularly in the entertainment area; big screen televisions (median of 2), gaming consoles (2), laptop computers (2) and 64.8% of properties occupied had an air-conditioner (with half of these owning more than 1). These results are consistent with aspiration theory which states that people with lower income levels feel frustrated with their ability to satisfy their materialistic desired compared to similar people with higher levels of income (La Barbera et al., 1997). There were six key factors identified that influenced energy consumption behaviours; self-efficacy, control, knowledge, comfort, social norms and price concern. Energy consumption behaviours appeared to be low effort and routine and were thus classified as habits. Multiple regression analysis revealed that in combination with all factors, only self-efficacy, comfort and social norms have a significant relationship with energy consumption habits (see Table 1).

Table 1. Multiple Regression Results on Habits

Variable	Mean (/7), SD	95% CI	Standardized β	Sig.
Self-Efficacy	4.43, 1.04	**.174, .485**	**.26**	**.000***
Control	4.04, 1.10	-.087, .152	.03	.592
Knowledge	4.90, 0.90	-.200, .159	-.01	.822
Comfort	3.91, 1.05	**-.365, -.080**	**-.18**	**.002***
Social Norms	4.27, 1.34	**.050, .261**	**.16**	**.004***
Price Concern	4.99, 1.17	-.054, 1.95	-.06	.267

Note: * p <0.05

Due to the gender skew in the sample, t-tests were conducted to identify gender differences in the variables. It was found that men only had significantly higher scores for control (Male M=4.24, Female M=3.99) $t(503)=1.98$, $p<.05$. Gender was also tested as a moderator on the relationships between the factors and habits with no significant impact. Independent t-tests were conducted to identify differences based on age group (18-24 years and 25-34 years). There was only significant differences in social norms with 25-35 year olds (M=4.30) reporting high levels than 18-24 year olds (M=4.21), $t(503)=-0.60$, $p<.05$.

Discussion and Conclusion

This study investigated the factors that influence young adult low-income earners energy habits. The study found control, knowledge and price concerns did not determine energy habits. This finding is consistent with past research which has shown that knowledge of a sustainable behaviour does not necessarily lead to a reduction in consumption (Csutora, 2012). The significant relationship of self-efficacy, comfort and social norms have a significant impact on energy habits. These results are consistent with the qualitative study that showed price not to be a driving force for energy consumption habits. The results suggest that social marketers seeking to change energy consumption habits of young adult low-income earners must develop interventions that take into account comfort requirements, increasing self-efficacy and altering social norms about energy use. Additional findings related to the perception of low-income earners about the essential nature of what would normally be considered as luxury or non-essential products (big screen television, multiple computers, laptops, consoles and additional fridges). Consumers in Australian, even with lower levels of income, are capable of attaining materialistic goods, and may do so to maintain a self-image of middle class. They do this through social comparisons with higher income groups (Stutzer, 2004) and may make electronic good purchase decisions based upon this comparison. This is also consistent with other studies that found that households spend heavily to 'improve' their low-status position in society (Van Kempen, 2007). Thus social marketers should take into consideration that low-income earners do not always see themselves or behave in a way that is reflective of their income.

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Appendix A Descriptive, Reliability and Validity Results

Self-efficacy (Adapted from Bosscher et al. (1998))	Item-to-total Correlation	Factor Loading
It's too hard to be more energy efficient around the home	.48	.81
I don't have the time to think about how we can use electricity	.34	.65
I don't know the best way to reduce my electricity use	.48	.81
Cronbach Alpha	.62	
Mean, SD and median	4.43, 1.04, 4.33	
Control of energy appliances (Adapted from Seligman et al. (1978)		
Cooling my house (air conditioners, fans)	.47	.76
Hot Water Usage	.56	.63
Refrigeration (fridges and freezers)	.50	.89
Lighting (including inside and outdoor lighting)	.49	.86
Entertainment (For example: TVs, computers, game consoles, stereos)	.49	.63
Cronbach's Alpha	.80	
Mean, SD and median	4.04, 1.11, 4.00	
Knowledge of energy consumption behaviours (Adapted from Becker et al. (1981)		
I already know the ways in which I can save electricity around the house	.37	.60
Long term financial savings are worth the initial cost outlay for energy efficient appliances	.42	.65
The little things that I can do around the house can have a big impact on reducing electricity use	.48	.71
I look in detail at my electricity bill when I receive it	.45	.68
I think it is important to know how to read my electricity meter	.50	.71
Cronbach's Alpha	.69	
Mean, SD and median	4.43, 1.04, 4.80	
Comfort (Adapted from Becker et al. (1981)		
It's too hard to change the amount of electricity my household uses	.44	.63
If I had to choose between comfort and being energy efficient, I would choose comfort	.61	.79
Being cool in summer is more important than trying to save energy	.58	.79
I would not sacrifice my electronic entertainment to save electricity	.43	.63
Being energy efficient conflicts with everyday life and is difficult to do	.53	.71
Cronbach's Alpha	.75	
Mean, SD and median	3.91, 1.05, 4.00	
Social Norms (Adapted from Tonglet et al. (2004)		
My family / the people I live with would think I was silly if I went around turning lights off all the time	.63	.81
My family / the people I live with would think I was a bit annoying if I started telling them to try and be more energy efficient	.69	.86
My family / the people I live with would think I was crazy if I didn't use the air conditioner when needed	.476	.67
The others in the house are not interested in saving electricity	.615	.81
Cronbach's Alpha	.79	
Mean, SD and median	3.98, 1.18, 4.00	
Price Concerns (Items adapted from Seligman et al. (1979)		
I monitor my electricity bill when it comes in to see if my household's consumption has gone up or down	.38	.71
I am concerned about my ability to pay the electricity bill	.39	.72
I am really concerned about the increasing cost of electricity	.60	.87
Cronbach's Alpha	.64	
Mean, SD and median	4.99, 1.17, 5.00	
Habits Items adapted from Barr et al. (2005)		
I find I often turn the TV on without thinking, even when I am not going to be in the room	.53	.67
I often leave devices (such as laptops, phones, cameras) charging, even when they are fully charged	.60	.73
My TV is always on standby power	.50	.63
My stereo system is always on standby power	.52	.64
I rarely turn my kitchen appliances off at the wall	.58	.71
I often have lights on in the house even when no one is in the room	.55	.68
I just turn my air conditioner on to a temperature that is comfortable without thinking about what the recommended temperature should be	.44	.58
I like having the TV or stereo on in the background	.45	.58
Cronbach's Alpha	.81	
Mean, SD and median	3.63, 1.31, 3.75	

Headspace "We've got your back" campaign

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* Jenny is an experienced and passionate market and social research professional who has been working for Colmar Brunton since 1999 and is currently the Managing Director of the Melbourne office. Colmar Brunton is one of Australia's largest market research agencies and has been servicing commercial, public and not-for-profit organisations for over 25 years. Jenny has worked closely with headspace on the development and execution of the "We've Got Your Back" campaign evaluation research since 2012. Jenny's experience extends across both qualitative and quantitative research techniques in the areas of campaign development and optimisation, customer experience and satisfaction, market segmentation and tracking research. Jenny has a Bachelor of Business majoring in Marketing, and a Diploma in Market Research.

Project Overview

In April 2012 headspace launched a groundbreaking national advertising campaign, "We've Got Your Back". The campaign aimed to: increase awareness of headspace and the services provided to young people; increase the number of referrals to headspace centres; increase visitor traffic to headspace.org.au and eheadspace; and increase engagement and interaction with young people accessing social media. The campaign was launched with TVCs, cinema advertising and radio advertising, as well as campaign materials distributed to headspace centres. Extension of the campaign occurred with online advertising and specific university and TAFE ambient advertising. The campaign was further supported in early and late 2013, with additional activity occurring in early 2014 including sponsorship of The Big Day Out.

Background and policy context

One in five Australians are likely to experience some kind of mental health issue during their lifetime (ABS National Survey of Mental Health and Wellbeing, 2007). Mental health issues can affect anyone - young or old - although it is the single biggest health issue facing young Australians today.
- Approximately one in four (26.4%) young people aged 16-24 experience a mental health or substance use disorder in a given year (ABS Mental Health of Young People, 2007).
- 75% of mental health problems emerge before the age of 25 (Kessler et al., 2005).
- Mental health and substance use disorders account for about half the total burden of disease among 10-24 years olds (Gore et al., 2005).
- Currently only one in four (23%) young people experiencing mental health problems actually receives professional help (ABS Mental Health of Young People, 2007).
- Even among young people with the most severe mental health problems only 50% receive professional help (ABS Mental Health of Young People, 2007).

As Australia's National Youth Mental Health Foundation, headspace aims to address the issues which stand in the way of young people's access to mental health services. However in 2012, it was revealed that headspace had low brand awareness among young Australians. This low awareness was particularly concerning given that the primary objective of headspace was to cater specifically to the mental health needs of young people. To change this, headspace implemented a coordinated, well timed national campaign, "We've Got Your Back", with multiple streams at both a local headspace centre and national level. The aim was to improve awareness of the headspace brand and services to provide greater assistance and advice to young people suffering from mental illness.

Case-study Benchmark Criteria

Behavioural Goals
Specific behavioural goals for the "We've Got Your Back" campaign included:
1. Increase awareness of headspace from 2% in 2010 to 20% by 2014 and the services provided to young people;
2. Increase the number of referrals to headspace centres;
3. Increase visitor traffic to headspace.org.au and eheadspace;
4. Increase engagement and interaction with young people accessing social media;
5. Distribute 100,000 promotional materials relating to headspace.

The desired outcome for headspace was to generate greater awareness of the brand and the services provided to young people, which would in turn, increase the number of referrals to headspace centres and increase visitor traffic to the website.

Customer orientation

To evaluate the effectiveness of the campaign, a program of research was developed by Colmar Brunton including the development of a baseline understanding of the "customer": 15 to 25 year old Australians. The aim was to understand current awareness of mental health organisations including headspace, which target audiences had accessed mental health services, whether they identified as having a mental health issue, their brand knowledge and perceptions of headspace and how the target audience would access headspace services.

Colmar Brunton designed a questionnaire for use in the research and completed n=1,253 x 15 minute online surveys with 15 to 25 year old male and female Australians. As a key target audience for the campaign was 15 to 21 year old males, the sample was boosted to achieve a final sample of n=457 males in this age group.

Insight

The baseline study conducted by Colmar Brunton in 2012 identified that 16% of young people aged 15 to 25 years identified with having a mental health issue. In addition, one in five young people claimed to feel "nervous", "hopeless" or "worthless" most or all of the time. It was found that young Australians had low awareness and familiarity with headspace (7% unprompted brand awareness, 34% prompted brand awareness and 28% brand familiarity). headspace had stronger awareness amongst females and had the opportunity to improve awareness levels amongst the core target audience of 15 to 21 year old males. It was also found that those in metropolitan locations had lower awareness and knowledge of a nearby headspace centre compared to those in regional locations.

To guide campaign strategy, it was recommended that communications focus on positioning headspace as being a safe place where people can talk about their feelings, as well as being a service for young people and where people felt comfortable recommending friends to go there, as these were key drivers of brand suitability for the target audience. There was also a need to strengthen association with key services headspace provides including assistance with bullying, work or study stress support and assistance with alcohol and drugs, as these services had low awareness.

Segmentation

In an effort to reach as many young Australians as possible with the campaign, males and females aged 15 – 25 years nationally were broadly targeted. The core target market was 15 – 21 year old males and specific strategies were used to target the young male audience, as well as different media strategies in regional and metropolitan locations.

Exchange

Exchange Statement: "If I visit a headspace centre or get online support at eheadspace instead of doing nothing about it, I will find a range of professionals who can help with whatever issue I am experiencing – be it mental health, physical health, drug or alcohol issues or educational / vocational problems. I know this will happen because headspace supports young people going through tough times. Getting help early is the key to improving my chances of effectively dealing with the issues I face".

Competition

Young people are most likely to talk to friends or family members as the first step when seeking help for mental health issues. These key people are often unsure how to find the best possible support options. "Competing" organisations to headspace include Beyond Blue, Kids Help Line, Lifeline and Reach Out. However, headspace is the only Australian organisation providing online and face to face support to young people and is the only Federally-funded youth mental health service and is the largest mental health service funded by the Federal Government in terms of dollars.

Theory

headspace adopted Bandura's the Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura,1986) in the development of this campaign, specifically because of the intent to increase the confidence of individuals to seek help. This theory suggests that individuals are guided by a combination of behaviour, personal and environmental factors. Shaping the environment was an important consideration, as headspace needed to provide the opportunities for behavioural change, help with those changes and offer social support (Perry et al., 1990). It was believed that by driving young people to services these opportunities would be provided.

Specifically the headspace campaign focused on the behavioural capability aspect of the Social Cognitive Theory, which states that if a person is to perform a behaviour he/she must know what the behaviour is and have the skills to perform it. The campaign aimed at getting individuals to recognise feelings they may be having and understand what it is they need to do to address it. It was designed to build confidence within the individual and create an environment around them that modelled the desired behaviour (through the multi-pronged marketing mix).

Marketing Mix

The headspace "We've Got Your Back" campaign utilised a variety of 'promotional' methods to target young Australians including TVCs, cinema advertising, radio advertising, online advertising, ambient media, postcards in headspace centres, event sponsorship and public relations. The campaign was launched in 2012 with further support in 2013 and 2014.

The 'product' being advertised was headspace being a place of support for young people around specific issues (depression, anxiety, relationship break-ups, bullying and more). The 'place' included the headspace website (on a national level) and specific headspace centres (at a local level). Centres were provided with grants to run specific community awareness activities in their local regions. Health promotion educational resources were provided. These included information sheets and a series of six videos (for use online as well as in schools) on a range of different mental health and wellbeing topics. Promotional material was also provided to centres to distribute in their local regions at schools, universities, sporting clubs and community groups.

Evaluation and results

Since the launch of the "We've Got Your Back" campaign two years ago, there have been many positive results for headspace and for young Australians. Colmar Brunton has conducted a further two waves of online survey research with samples of n=1,348 (Wave 2) and n=1,334 (Wave 3) young Australians to evaluate the effectiveness of the campaign. The most recent wave of research conducted in December 2013 reveals that the headspace brand is continuing to gain traction with young Australians. There have been significant improvements in brand awareness and brand familiarity since the launch of the campaign.

In addition, there are increasing numbers of referrals to headspace centres and increasing visitor traffic to the headspace website.

Key outcomes of the "We've Got Your Back" campaign include:

- Increased awareness of headspace and their services: increase in unprompted brand awareness from 7% in 2012 to 17% in 2013; prompted brand awareness from 34% in 2012 to 51% in 2013; and brand familiarity from 28% in 2012 to 38% in 2013.
- Increased number of young people accessing headspace centres: from 30,620 in 2011 (30 centres operational) to 39,718 in 2012 (40 centres) and an estimated up to 50,000 in 2013 (55 centres). Due to an organisational change in the way data is collected, specific details for 2013 are not available.
- Increased visitor traffic to headspace.org.au and eheadspace: increase of 75 per cent from 640,460 in 2012 to 1,118,730 in 2013 for headspace.org.au and increase of 69 per cent from 82,264 in 2012 to 138,677 in 2013 for eheadspace.org.au.
- Increased engagement and interaction with young people accessing social media: combined social media likes and followers increased 90 per cent from 24,299 in 2012 to 46,051 in 2013.
- Distributed 100,000+ promotional materials relating to headspace, including 5,600 posters in 2012 and 5,600 in 2013; and 140,000 postcards distributed to headspace centres in 2012 and 275,000 postcards distributed to headspace centres in 2013.

Lessons Learned

The key lesson gained from the campaign has been to listen to the target audience to get messaging right. To utilise a variety of channels and to maximize campaign reach through tailored local initiatives has also been important. Ensuring multiple campaign concepts and topics worked well to specifically engage with different audiences – from bullying to substance use. It has also been critical to have a number of key campaign times around specific events, or periods such as exams, starting school, mental health week etc. Online advertising also enabled specific tailoring of the campaign to the target audience. In addition, timing the campaign to coincide with major events including The Big Day Out in 2014 has been crucial to ensure a relevant media hook for young Australians.

It is vital that for campaigns of this nature, the communications clearly state the website address and phone number so that young people know how to access headspace immediately. It is also important to take a localised metropolitan and regional focus to the media strategy to translate communications messages into referrals and traffic to headspace centres. This should be done through the use of case studies to personalise the messaging for young people, as well as broadening the reach of the campaign to families, partners and friends and other important referral points for a young person.

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Behaviour change case study: Workplace safety in Victoria

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Project Overview

Behavioural change program to reposition workplace safety across the Victorian community and reduce the incidence and cost (in both financial and human terms) of workplace injury and deaths; 2005/06 – 2012/13.

Background and policy context

WorkSafe Victoria is a statutory authority and the regulator of workplace safety across the state. The organization is also responsible for the administration of Victoria's 'No Fault' workplace injury insurance scheme which provides benefits and support for those injured and the families of those killed in workplace incidents. The Shannon Company has worked with WorkSafe to develop strategic and tactical communications campaigns to reduce workplace deaths and injuries, and encourage better rehabilitation outcomes. These campaigns are integral components of an overall WorkSafe strategy that also includes workplace regulation, enforcement, education and information. In 2004/05 Victoria recorded a workplace injury claim rate of 12.48 injuries per 1000 workers and a total of 22 'traumatic event' workplace fatalities. In 2004/05 the average workplace injury insurance premium rate for employers paid by Victorian employers was 1.998% of payroll.

Case-study Benchmark Criteria

Behavioural Goals

The campaigns are aimed at raising awareness of the need for workplace safety and in supporting/leveraging enforcement related activities, including workplace inspections, investigations and prosecutions. The campaigns in conjunction with these activities have been focused on striving to help Victoria attain the previously agreed (2001/02) national aspirational goal for all states and territories to achieve of a 40% reduction in the rate of workplace injury and a 20% reduction in fatalities over the decade to July 2012, with continued reductions on an ongoing basis.

In addition to the goals of contributing to improving outcomes across the 'lag' indicators of workplace injuries and deaths, the project has also targeted increases in the 'lead' indicators of workplace safety. These 'lead' indicators are measured in survey responses of employers and workers to questions such as : "WorkSafe is effective in catching and prosecuting employers who break workplace safety laws"; "WorkSafe works with the community to keep workplaces safe"; "WorkSafe is an organisation I trust"; and "A WorkSafe Inspector is likely to visit my workplace over the next 12 months."

Customer orientation

The campaigns target high risk/high frequency workplace behaviours of both employees and employers. The overall approach to addressing the identified workplace behaviours or practices is based on extensive qualitative and quantitative research with the specific target markets.

The campaigns are extensively tracked to ensure key message take out awareness across target markets and that the message takeout results in action to improve safety at the workplace.

Insight

Through extensive research and application of behavior change analysis we came to understand the beliefs of employers and workers, and how they contributed to behaviours in the workplace. Habits reinforced or reaffirmed risk taking and an attitude of "She'll be right mate". The perceived norms were that injuries were accidents, or unfortunate occupational hazards, with a feeling that not much could be done about them.

WorkSafe already knew that the predominant cause of workplace injuries was manual handling; that employers and workers typically knew the risks; and that there were simple, 'reasonably practical' interventions available to reduce or eliminate those risks; but that they were too often simply not being put in practice.

The key insight was that it's not just the worker who suffers in the event of a workplace injury or death – a workers' loved ones, colleagues and friends are also affected significantly. From that seemingly simple key insight, a concept was developed that allowed us to achieve the emotional connection required to influence habits, attitudes, perceived norms and controls and to ultimately change the behavior of the Victorian community and drive improvements in lead and lag indicators of workplace safety.

The concept was: "The most important reason for workplace safety is not at work at all." By taking the case for workplace safety out of the workplace and into the home, WorkSafe as a regulator, and occupational health & safety as an issue, were repositioned with the Victorian community to great effect.

Segmentation

The target of enforcement activities and associated public awareness campaigns varies according to the time of the year, injury trends and known hazards. A range of campaigns has been developed and implemented focusing on different categories of workers, different job roles and different injury types. The high level positioning of workplace safety as an issue has a broad community target audience of all Victorians; other initiatives focus on younger workers both male and female (16 to 24 years); others on supervisors and employers of young workers; and on manual handling as the most frequent factor resulting in workplace injuries; and working from heights (focusing on the construction sector).

Interventions are tailored for different target market segments and tracking research is designed to identify the impact of campaigns on specific cohorts.

Exchange

The benefits of the desired change in behavior is fewer workplace injuries and deaths, with the resulting savings in terms of both personal impact on individuals and their families, as well as financial savings for Victorian employers through reduced workplace injury insurance premiums.
WorkSafe collects premiums of approximately $1.8 billion per annum to cover the life time costs of workplace injuries incurred.

Competition

Barriers to change in the workplace are many and varied. They can include a lack of knowledge of workplace safety regulation requirements; lack of understanding as to what constitutes a safe way of getting a job done; a belief that a workplace injury or death "can't or won't happen to me"; a lack of willingness to invest financially in workplace safety; a belief

that "I won't get caught" if I break the safety rules or if corners are cut; time pressures on employers and employees to get jobs done; fear of speaking up about an unsafe workplace; and many more.

These barriers are in addition to the clutter of communication a workplace safety message competes with every day – workplace safety must compete for the attention of the same audience being targeted by consumer and service companies and products.

Theory

The Shannon Company has worked closely with BehaviourWorks Australia to adapt and adopt the Fishbein and Ajzen model of reasoned action (the Theory of Reasoned Action was developed by Martin Fishbein and Icek Ajzen [1975, 1980]). The components of the model are three general constructs: attitude; norms; and controllability influencing intentions.

In simple terms the concept adapted and adopted from the theory of reasoned action is that the voluntary behavior of a person is predicted by his/her attitude towards that behavior, and how he/she thinks other people will view them if they performed the behaviour. Then they must have the autonomy and capability to do the behavior.

The workplace safety campaigns are designed to create an emotional connection with the target market, which comes from developing an understanding of their beliefs which leads to empathy and through an emotional connection, ultimately in behavior change.

Marketing Mix

The campaign comprises a wide range of media and is an important element in an integrated WorkSafe approach that also includes enforcement (WorkSafe annually undertakes around 38,000 workplace inspections, and where appropriate it launches prosecutions); education (guidance material); information (a telephone and online advisory support); services (free 3 hour OHS consultancy services for small business); and new legislation/regulation (the OHS Act 2004).

An overarching public awareness campaign, with the theme of "Valuing Safety", was designed to reposition occupational health and safety across the broad community and provide the moral high ground to support more hard hitting tactical campaigns (eg focused on manual handling and young workers) and physical workplace regulation (inspections and where appropriate investigations and prosecutions).

The organization also utilizes the workplace injury insurance premium system to incentivise and penalise employers for their workplace safety outcomes, with premiums rising for poor performance and declining for good injury claims performance.

Partnerships

In essence the relationship with WorkSafe Victoria is one of a partnership, with The Shannon Company being engaged to build and maintain a deep understanding of the business and the range of marketing, enforcement, education, information and regulation mediums available to achieve enhanced workplace safety.

Evaluation, Results and Lessons Learned

WorkSafe Victoria has achieved record safety outcomes and the safest workplaces of any state or territory in Australia. Through improved workplace safety outcomes and business efficiencies, Victoria's workplace injury insurance average premium rate has been reduced to its lowest on record and the lowest in the country.

During the referenced period of the integrated WorkSafe campaign, the standard measure used by WorkSafe to measure injury rates changed from injuries per 1000 workers, to injuries per million hours worked, largely as a result of learnings during the Global Financial Crisis. During the GFC hours worked declined more rapidly than employment, giving a minor overly 'positive' picture of safety outcomes on the claims per 1000 workers measure. The move to millions of hours worked addresses this issue. Whilst the change has created some complexity in comparing outcomes overtime, valid comparisons can be drawn as evidenced below and show significant improvements irrespective of the measure used.

On the claims per 1000 workers measure, injury rates fell from 12.48 in 2004/05, to 10.17 in 2011/12. When the 'new' measure of injury claims per million hours worked was adopted and retrospectively calculated for 2005/06, the rate of injury was 9.40, with the rate falling to 7.53 per million hours worked in 2012/13 This vastly improved injury performance helped facilitate a 35% reduction in the average employer premium rate from 2004/05 to 2012/13 (the average rate reducing from 1.998% of payroll in 2004/05 to 1.298%).

In terms of the 10 year injury and fatality rate reductions targeted by all states and territories in the national strategy 2001/02 – 2011/12, in Victoria fatalities fell from 38 in 2001/02 to 24 in 2011/12, a reduction of 37%. Victoria's standardized injury rate (calculated by the Federal statutory authority Safe Work Australia for the purposes of enabling comparisons across jurisdictions) fell by 30% over the same period. Only one jurisdiction, South Australia, achieved the 10 year injury rate reduction target of 40% and despite this improvement its injury rate remains some 38% higher than Victoria's.

In terms of the 'lead' indicators of workplace safety, significant improvement in survey responses was also achieved. The percentage of employers agreeing with the statement: "WorkSafe is effective in catching and prosecuting employers who break workplace safety laws", increased from a benchmark of 73% in 2006/07 to 88% in 2012/13, with worker agreement increasing from 71% to 81%. Agreement amongst Employers with the statement: "WorkSafe works with the community to keep workplaces safe", increased from 90% to 94% over the same period, and Worker agreement increased from 90% to 93%. Employer agreement with the statement "WorkSafe is an organisation I trust." increased from 85% in 2006/07 to 93% in 2012/13, with Worker agreement rising from 83% to 92%. Employer agreement with the statement: "A WorkSafe Inspector is likely to visit my workplace over the next 12 months" lifted from 62 % in the benchmark year 2007/08 to 72% in 2012/13 and Worker agreement rose from 52% to 55% during the same period.[i]

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[i] All research outcome data was supplied by Sweeney Research Pty Ltd; all Victorian injury claims data was supplied by WorkSafe Victoria; standardized injury claims data was supplied by Safe Work Australia; and all Victorian workplace injury insurance data was supplied by WorkSafe Victoria.

Bully stoppers: An integrated campaign

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Project Overview

The Bully Stoppers integrated communications campaign was launched on the National Day of Against Bullying and Violence in 2013. The campaign utilised an integrated marketing approach with a variety of channels used to maximize awareness, reach, frequency and engagement in order to influence behaviour. The campaign targeted key influencers of children including parents and teachers, as well as the children themselves and focused on bystander intervention and school education as strategies to manage/prevent bullying.

The integrated campaign comprised above and the below the line activity as well as a strong grass roots community engagement and education focus. This comprised a school grants program, direct communication to schools, social media, public relations and a dedicated website featuring resources to help students, parents and teachers prevent or manage a bullying situation.

The media campaign comprised regional television, radio, press and online advertising and served to raise awareness of the issue, engender a shared responsibility for bullying prevention and encourage bystander support. The media strategy had a strong focus on community engagement and invited students via radio and online competitions to actively engage on the topic.

Background and policy context

In the context of this campaign, bullying is defined as the repeated verbal, physical, social or psychological aggressive behaviour by a person or group directed towards a less powerful person or group that is intended to cause harm, distress or fear.

A survey into school attitudes conducted by the Department of Education and Early Childhood Development highlighted in 2011 that 14.6% of respondents in Years 5-6 reported having been bullied recently along with 20.2% of respondents in Years 7-9. To learn students need to feel safe and supported as such school communities need to work together to make schools safe and friendly places. For this reason the Victorian Government committed $14.5 million over four years to Stamp Out Bullying of which $4 million was allocated to developing school-based resources and an information campaign.

Case-study Benchmark Criteria

Behavioural Goals

The longer term behavioural goal for the campaign is ultimately to reduce the number of bullying incidents. To achieve this the campaign aimed to raise awareness of the Bully Stoppers website featuring the resources to equip parents, students and teachers with the tools to prevent/stop bullying; engender a sense of shared responsibility for preventing/stopping bullying at a school, community and personal level; and actively engage students in activities that would reduce the incidents of bullying. This included schools developing bully prevention resources and programs, and teachers and students actively taking part in bully prevention activities such as pledging to become a bully stopper (bystander support), taking part in competitions and working together to develop bullying prevention programs.

Customer orientation

The campaign's customer orientation is demonstrated via its focus on the student's wellbeing—having the student at the centre. The strategy was developed using customer insights gained through a review of bullying research which revealed that peers were present 85% of the time during a bullying situation however rarely intervened—only 11% intervened in school yard bullying (Atlas and Pepler, 1998). In 1996, Salmivalli, Lagerspetz, Bjorkqvist, Osterman and Kaukiainen found that 87% of students reported participating in a bullying situation but only 17% reported taking on the role of defending the victim. To address the discrepancy the campaign targeted students as well as their key influencers, parents and teachers, to influence attitudes and ultimately behaviour.

Insights and theory

A survey conducted by the Department confirmed that bullying was the number one concern for parents and that positive intervention from active bystanders was the most likely way to reduce its occurrence. This was supported by the 1999 research undertaken by Hawkins, Pepler and Craig which revealed that peer intervention was effective in stopping bullying within ten seconds over two-thirds of the time. Based on this insight, the campaign was developed with a strong focus on bystander support as a tool to managing and preventing bullying.

The creative concept was based on international best practice for anti-bullying campaigns, with particular regard for a campaign that originated in the Netherlands and was then adapted for the Canadian and the US markets. The creative concept highlights that bystanders can play a positive role in preventing and dealing with bullying, which was the basis of the television commercial that targeted the difficult to reach teenage market. Testing of the advertisement revealed that it strongly resonated with students as well as parents and teachers. It also confirmed that the messages were clearly understood and supported.

Segmentation

To ensure a holistic approach to addressing the issue of bullying in schools, the campaign was aimed at key influencers of students as well as the students themselves. As the campaign wanted to reach as many influencers and students as possible the groups were intentionally broad but were segmented by the type of influencer and the ability to target messages/media for that group. The media segments were informed by insights from the Department's media agency and comprised two influencer groups; parents of primary and secondary students and teachers within primary and secondary schools. The campaign also targeted upper primary and secondary students.

Exchange and competition

There are various psychological or personal issues that may impact a person's propensity to become a bully. As a Department, we were striving to build positive behaviours and empower people with the knowledge, confidence and strategies to intervene safely. We did this through, raising awareness of the issue, engendering a shared responsibly and providing the training, tools and resources to equip someone to safely intervene when someone is being bullied.

The required behaviour has no direct societal cost per se however there are societal barriers and attitudinal factors that impact behaviour. Based on the Theory of Planned Behaviour an individual's intention to engage in a behaviour relies on the assumption that behavioural intentions are influenced by the attitude about the likelihood that the behaviour will have the expected outcome, and the subjective evaluation of the risks and benefits of that outcome. As such the strategy focused on engendering a shared responsibly for stopping/preventing bullying and emphasising the benefits of the requested behaviour (together we can stop it).
The challenge with facilitating change within the school context is that teachers are time poor therefore it is hard for them to allocate time and resources within their classroom to address the issue.

However, the grants program facilitated this process by allowing teachers to dedicate time to focus on the issue and work with students to produce a variety of resources such as videos, songs, expos and SWOT teams that served to build positive behaviour and empower students with the tools to respond safely.

Marketing Mix
The communication strategy utilised an integrated approach with above the line activity as well as a strong grass roots community engagement and education focus that comprised direct online communication with schools, social media, public relations, a (resource) website and a school grants program that facilitated bullying prevention programs.

The above the line media campaign comprised regional television to target students aged 10-17 years of age and their parents; metro, suburban, CALD and regional press targeted parents and teachers; metro, regional and CALD radio targeted students and parents via a one-on-one relationship and engaging competitions; online targeted students, parents and teachers through a variety of channels and platforms including Search advertising, Facebook, viral video seeding and engaging competitions. A partnership was established with Leader Newspapers and the Herald Sun to generate editorial content in addition to paid advertising placements to promote the campaign messages and anti-bullying school initiatives.

Evaluation and results

The Department is currently undertaking a longitudinal study which is running over three years. This study will accurately reveal the campaign's direct impact on behaviour and attitudes. As this study is still in progress, behavioural measures are not available at this time. However, early indicators suggest that the integrated strategy has been successful in extending existing bullying prevention programs; raising awareness/profile of the issue amongst the broader community; supporting the development of a common language around bullying—this was viewed by schools as the first step in implementing a successful school-wide bullying prevention approach; and assisting schools to increase students' awareness of strategies for preventing and responding to bullying behaviours—increased awareness provides the foundation for a cultural change within schools (students who were more aware were more likely to report that they felt safe from bullying at school).

The integrated campaign also generated a positive shift in the number of students who would seek help if they were being bullied, stand up to a bully and report bullying behaviour as well as the number of bullying behaviour reported.

Other indicators of the campaign's success include website visits and resource downloads (60,866 visits, 167,866 page views, 2,597 factsheet downloads, 2,737 training packages started, 339 pledges and 1,738 bullying searches); TVC online views (119, 959); social media interactions (765); schools implementing Bully Stoppers grants programs (172) and the number of competition entries (1686). The campaign also achieved $575,841 of added media value; a media stretch of 71%. This included a highly successful PR strategy that generated 111 pieces of editorial that appeared in Leader newspapers.

Lessons Learned

A media campaign supported by strong below the line activity and a focus on students and their influencers is a strong formula for impacting attitudes and changing behaviour at a personal, school and community level. However this process requires a longer term sustained effort in order to bring about meaningful and sustainable change. As such, future campaigns and grants programs need to have an explicit focus on sustainability and longevity.

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My QuitBuddy quit smoking app: Supporting people through lifestyle behaviour change[1]

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Project Overview

The *My QuitBuddy* smartphone app was developed under the Australian National Preventive Health Agency's National Tobacco Campaign, as an additional element in a suite of options to support smokers to quit. Launched on *World No Tobacco Day* on 31 May 2012, this free quit-smoking app has been downloaded over 280,000 times to date from the AppStore, Google Play and Windows Phone Store. The multi-award winning *My QuitBuddy* app, which provides personalised 24/7 support to smokers seeking to quit (and stay quit), is attracting great success as measured by user review ratings in excess of 4.5 stars and almost 40% of users self-reporting that they are remaining quit after six months.

Background and policy context

While smoking prevalence has decreased significantly over the last two decades, over 2.8 million Australians still smoke daily. Tobacco-related illnesses cost Australia $31.5 billion annually in associated health care costs, disability, productivity loss and loss of life, due to conditions such as heart attack, stroke, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease and some cancers, most notably lung cancer. Tobacco use contributes to more hospitalisations and deaths each year than alcohol and drug use combined, with an estimated 15,000 people still dying each year of smoking-related illness. Evidence demonstrates that successfully reducing smoking rates relies on a comprehensive range of sustained, interrelated and mutually reinforcing actions – including education campaigns, taxation and regulation, plain packaging, support for people who want to quit smoking and access to therapies. New technologies such as through smartphones provide alternative opportunities for raising awareness and supporting behaviour change.

Case-study Benchmark Criteria

Behavioural Goals
Behavioural objectives of the *My QuitBuddy* app are to increase quit attempts amongst current smokers, increase the likelihood that quitters will maintain sufficient motivation to continue and sustain their quit attempts, and increase the likelihood that lapsed quitters will make repeated quit attempts after relapse. The app is a valuable part of the National Tobacco Campaign's activities towards meeting the Council of Australian Government's target to reduce adult daily smoking prevalence to 10% or less by 2018 (currently at 16.1%).
The goal of the *My QuitBuddy* app is to:
- Achieve 55,000 downloads of the app in the first year
- 5,000 interactions on the Community Board within the app
- 10% of people using the app to be smoke-free after six months.

National Tobacco Campaign surveys continue to demonstrate that over 74% of smokers are eager for a life without tobacco, with most say they were intending to quit in the next six months. Virtually all smokers think they would benefit financially from quitting and most acknowledge that their health would also benefit from quitting. Most smokers were aware they should quit and the majority had in fact tried. 69% of smokers said that smoking is widely disapproved of in Australia, as smoking is not the social norm it once was. While resources, tools and information available through the www.quitnow.gov.au, and the free quit counselling service Quitline 13 7848 are still very popular, some smokers feel they need access to 24 hour/7 day ongoing support to keep quitting.

While very few people had ever downloaded a quit smoking app at the time, the Agency had identified that this new form of technology could be harnessed with a tool developed to provide support, factual health information and other resources.

Insight
Through concept testing of National Tobacco Campaign materials, we were hearing that smokers were ashamed of and hiding their smoking, and were more likely to try to quit on their own rather than tell anyone, in case they failed again. Their attempts were often sabotaged by partners or friends who also smoke and usually within a social environment, making it difficult to say no to a cigarette.

Segmentation
The National Tobacco Campaign is primarily aimed at daily smokers and recent quitters aged 18- 40 years. In harnessing new technologies such as app development, the My QuitBuddy app was designed for a broad age-range from 18-54 years of age, noting that the majority of users were likely to be under the age of 35 years as this group is known to be early adopters of this technology. The My QuitBuddy app tailors specific information designed by the user, from self-messaging, pre-nominated danger time alerts, setting goals, and recording of motivational messages from loved ones.

Exchange
Campaign research indicated that smokers' reasons for not being able to quit included having to cope with stress in their lives, acknowledging their addiction and/or their enjoyment of smoking, and the difficulty in quitting if friends or partners smoked. Almost half the smokers surveyed reported no encouragement from friends or partners to quit in the previous six months. However, once users were quitting with the My QuitBuddy app, many were surprised at how much money they were saving from not smoking, how much easier it was to quit than they thought (regardless of how long they smoked), and how much better they felt healthwise. The app provides a range of distraction and games for times when stressed or craving, as well as support when needed through either calling a pre-programmed buddy or the Quitline from the app. Connections can be made to other smokers and quitters through the Community Board located within the My QuitBuddy app, with tens of thousands of posts and notes by users supporting one another, providing advice and understanding, sharing tips and personal journeys and motivations to quit.

Competition
Taking a break and having a cigarette represents time for oneself, enjoyment with friends in social situations, or respite from a stressful environment or situation. The My QuitBuddy app can replace the need for a cigarette as it provides a range of distractions and motivations that keep the user on track with their quitting journey. The success tile detailing how many days and hours not smoked, as well as total money saved, clearly tracks successes and rewards the user of the app.

Theory
Understanding the process in which a smoker moves from pre-contemplation stage to contemplation to actually quitting is complex. The My QuitBuddy app has designed an interface that allows the individual's user pathways to determine how the app is personalised and pre-programmes support for that individual. It gives a range of options from self-messages, alerts during danger periods, and recording of goals and personal messages in visual, written or audio formats.

Access to games and other distractions exists for when cravings occur to keep the app user engaged until the craving has passed. Tracking and rewarding the success for continuing to quit with the success tile, personal bests and interactive support from other people quitting at the same time helps the process to change.

Marketing Mix

Comprehensive action across governments and public health organisation with education campaigns, taxation, and regulation, plain-packaging and greater supports available for people who want to quit smoking and better access to therapies has assisted significant behaviour change. Without all these elements working together in tandem, smoking prevalence in the Australian population would not be as low as they are today. New technologies through smartphone and tablet devices are transforming the way in which live (24 hour/7 days), view the media (catch-up TV, YouTube, podcasts, online radio, new sites), interact with others (news feeds, blogs, and social media sharing site Facebook, Twitter, Instagram) and how we source information (keywords search, community forums, and apps). The app is available to download free of charge from the AppStore, Google Play and recently Windows Phone Store. Almost a thousand customers have reviewed the app, with an average 4.5 star customer satisfaction rating across the platforms. The Agency targets smokers in and around the places where they continue to smoke, such as workplaces (*Butt Out at Work* campaign), social gatherings, at Driver Reviver stops during holiday periods, and popular festivals such as *Summernats*, prompting them to quit and/or to get help.

Partnerships (if relevant)

The National Tobacco Campaign commenced in June 1997 and has continued in partnership between national, state and territory governments and non-government agencies. The Agency commissioned the development of the *My QuitBuddy* app through Universal McCann and The Project Factory. The Agency provides a range of analytics from the app that can inform other jurisdictions and campaigns.

<p align="center">Evaluation and results</p>

To date:

- Over 280,000 smokers have downloaded the *My QuitBuddy* app, in less than two years, which has more than exceeded our expectations.
- A very active Community Board within the app with over 13,500 posts where quitters are supporting one another, more than double than planned.
- 39% of smokers using this app reported themselves still smoke-free after six months, again exceeding our expectations four-fold.
- The app quickly became the top iTunes app within the Health & Fitness category.
- Over four million sessions and a cumulative four years' worth of valued support have been offered to *My QuitBuddy's* users.
- The app earned a 4.5 star rating and extremely positive user reviews, demonstrating its utility and ensuring the app was visible in the app stores amongst the hundreds of thousands of other apps available.
- The app is recognised for excellence, receiving two national two awards: 2013 Australian Mobile Awards - Best Mobile App in Government Services; and the 2013 ADMA (Association for Data-driven Marketing and Advertising) Gold Award for Effectiveness in Pharmaceutical/Health.

Lessons Learned

Developing an app of this nature is a complex process of identifying user wants/needs and likely use, and relies on current smokers to test functionality and navigation.

As a rapidly changing technology, understanding what is possible in app development can change significantly over the course of a year. Plan for further enhancements and updates to your app.

Finding a unique way to promote the app through the right channels to the target audience at the right time is challenging, especially given the plethora of apps that never attract more than a handful of downloads.

Customer reviews are an excellent way to identify issues with functionality or improvements that can be made to the app. *My QuitBuddy* recently released an upgrade of technological enhancements, including social media integration and better backdated data, following comments received and customer reviews.

Analytics provide day-to-day performance data on downloads generated, and other data on geographic location of user at download, length of usage, session times, some demographic information, and success at maintaining quitting status, making evaluation of the app more accurate.

Cultivating trust in social marketing

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Introduction

Social marketing aims to change behaviour for the good of the individual and that of society (Lee & Kotler, 2011). However, social marketing often struggles against better-resourced commercial marketing counterparts due to social marketing tackling behaviours that are often harder to change (e.g. reduce drinking, unprotected sex, littering for convenience) and faces an environment where the world's largest companies and their marketing departments spend billions of dollars promoting their products and services (Hastings, 2013) to build long-term relationships with their customers. Given that social marketers are outgunned by their commercial competition and are operating under short-term budget and funding driven constraints, research emphasis needs to be placed on understanding alternate approaches to extend the duration and continuation of programs. Continuous (e.g. 5 years) and multi-faceted intervention efforts are needed to address complex behaviours that are culturally embedded such as alcohol consumption (Marques & Domegan, 2011; Hastings, 2003). Therefore, it is evident that social marketing needs to move away from a short-term transactional focus to a long-term oriented strategic design (Rundle Thiele et al, 2013). The notion of building trust between the social marketing campaign and the behaviour change it offers emerges as a suitable form of fostering long-term client relationships.

Trust

The seminal work of Morgan and Hunt (1994) on relationship marketing transformed commercial marketing thinking, representing a shift from transactional one-off exchanges toward long-term relationships (Gronroos, 1994). More than a decade ago Hastings (2003) wrote about the importance of relationship building and recommended that trust is required to foster relationships and should be at the heart of any social marketing campaign. Despite these good intentions social marketing has been criticised for its resistance to the application of relational thinking, resulting in telling people what to do instead of listening to their problems first (Marques & Domegan 2011). Furthermore Rundle-Thiele and colleagues (2013) suggested that social marketing has in most cases a short-term focus. This is interesting particularly as customer orientation (French & Blair-Stevens, 2006), service marketing thinking (Russell-Bennett et al. 2013) and co-creation design (Domegan et al., 2013; Lefebvre, 2012, 2013) are methods that are increasingly appearing in social marketing literature and a common element for each concept is the relationship with the target audience.

Trust is one of the key factors in relationship marketing (Marques & Domegan, 2011). Interestingly, the concept of trust has received only limited application in the existing social marketing literature. Lefebvre (2012) and Russell-Bennett and colleagues (2013) suggest that trust should be incorporated in social marketing programs, yet they don't reveal a process on how this can be achieved. This article proposes that it is necessary for social marketers to gain target audience trust to achieve long term behaviour change. This feeling of belonging is what branding (brand loyalty) in marketing does so well. Consider *Colgate,* a reputable and highly recognised toothpaste brand (Lau & Lee, 1999). The target market trusts the brand to deliver a certain taste and to deliver the long term benefits of white healthy teeth. Consistent with Hastings (2003), Lefebvre (2012) and Russell-Bennett et al. (2013) this article suggests that trust is requisite for long-term behavior change.

Building Trust

On the interpersonal level, Moorman, Zaltman and Deshpande (1992) conceptualise trust as a willingness to rely on one another. Hardin (2002) suggests that for trust to exist; there needs to be a clear and distinct interest at stake for both parties in the continuation of the relationship. Our trust is usually, if not always, conditional. For example, A does not trust B unconditionally. Instead, A trusts B on the condition that B is trustworthy and continues to be trustworthy toward A. The moment B acts in a misleading or deceptive manner, A's trust in B will likely change to distrust. Commercial marketers are interested in repeat behaviours, which are achieved through a good relationship between a brand and the consumer. In a commercial setting the idea of building a trustworthy relationship between consumers and brands are key to a long-term profit oriented relationship (Kalwani and Narayandas, 1995).

Repeated transactions over time permit trust to be built. Mollering (2006) suggests that trust development is a gradual process of interaction requiring small steps. The long term focus on the relationship will ensure that over time the priority group's vulnerability and uncertainty is reduced. An example of a social marketing that promotes trust through the use of the parent brand is OPAL. Annual themes are developed to target factors known to impact obesity. There is a need for more in-depth research to understand the priority groups desires, wants and aspirations (Grier and Bryant, 2005). This would allow for the design of a desire-based value exchange that the priority groups will be more likely to trust.

Commercial marketing literature shows that companies build trust in brands by delivering consistent messaging with their target audience over time (Berry, 2000). However, securing and holding onto customer 'mindshare' is becoming increasingly challenging as a growing number of products and services flood the global marketplace (Almquist and Roberts, 2000). Just like commercial marketers, social marketers should seek to attain mindshare with regards to the behaviour change proposition. To do so, more collaboration is needed in the behavior change sector to minimize competing messages for the same targeted behavior. Berry (2000) proposed four principles to establish trust in a brand: (1) dare to be different, (2) make an emotional connection, (3) internalize the brand, and (4) determine your own fame. The strongest brands arise out of a company's desire to do things differently and building trust in a brand requires a deliberate effort to cultivate a distinct brand personality (Berry, 2000). Furthermore, great brands always make an emotional connection with their audience (McEwen, 2004; Bowden, 2009). Great brands transcend the utilitarian features and benefits and penetrate people's emotions (Webber, 1997) that allow the target market to connect with the brand and to return to the brand offering time and again. Social marketers should consider a marketing mix that builds trust in behaviour change interventions whereby they carefully consider each of the incremental actions required to slowly ensure the growth of trust. Berry (2000) has suggested four ways in which strong brands can be built and trust is established. This should be empirically tested in a social marketing context.

Conclusion

The concept of trust continues to receive limited attention in social marketing. This conceptual paper puts forth that trust should be placed at the heart of the customer orientation or consumer insight principle of social marketing. It is hypothesized that trust development and trustworthiness can develop better behavioural change outcomes. Trust can be built and used as a tool to improve the quality and effectiveness of a social marketing program. Trust should be viewed as a process (Mollering, 2006) whereby it can only be developed over time through a sustained long term social marketing program.

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Social marketing, value, and behaviour: Some important considerations

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Background

Perceived value, or value for consumers, concerns the experiences of consumers when using a good, service, or in as proposed in this paper - performing a behaviour. Value is an important theoretical concept in marketing, and specifically social marketing. This is reflected in the American Marketing Association definition of marketing as "*the activity, set of institutions and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have **value** for customers, clients, partners, and society at large*" (AMA, 2013). This definition also acknowledges that marketing is a social and societal process (Dann, 2008). Recognising the synergy between marketing, social marketing, and value, Kotler and Lee (2011, p8) define social marketing as a "*process that applies marketing principles and techniques to create, communicate, and deliver **value** in order to influence target audience behaviors that benefit society (public health, safety, the environment and communities) as well as the target audience*". These definitions demonstrate the relevance of value in social marketing. Yet, there is a relative paucity of empirical research in this area. This paper examines the extant literature on value in marketing and social marketing, identifying that perceived value being currently only identified with goods and services is limiting. We argue that it is imperative that the value concept is extended to consider perceived *value-in-behaviour*. In making this proposition, we identify some important areas for conceptual development, and for empirical research to advance knowledge. Value research has predominantly emanated from mainstream marketing, but is an emerging area of social marketing scholarship (Domegan et al., 2013; Zainuddin et al, 2011; 2013). Traditional conceptualisations of value originate from the value chain framework (Porter, 1985), and an industrial and supply-chain perspective. This approach views firms as value determinants, creators, and deliverers; and consumers as value consumers and destroyers. Much of the existing work in operationalising value has been goods-orientation (e.g. Sweeney & Soutar, 2001); and used a *value-in-exchange* perspective that is outcomes oriented (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). However, more recent conceptualisations of value have moved towards a *value-in-use* perspective (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Value-in-use proposes that consumer value is realised during the consumption experience, rather than being embedded within goods or services (Sandström et al., 2008). Moving further, *value creation* proposes that value is a process in which multiple actors provide inputs at various stages of a consumption experience. Most research exploring the value-in-use and value creation concepts is situated within services marketing. This has contributed to the dominant service-orientation of value and the rise of Service-Dominant logic (Vargo & Lusch, 2004).

Recent research has attempted to understand value creation in social marketing, utilising a service-orientation, and adapted goods-oriented value scale measures towards social marketing service contexts (e.g. Zainuddin et al., 2013). This has begun to demonstrate the utility of value in social marketing, particularly in relation to facets of social marketing programmes that involve service delivery, for example smoking cessation services. This focus on services forms part of the increasing scholarly attention on '*midstream social marketing*' - consideration of the role and impact the more immediate environment (workplaces, schools, local communities, and service organisations), has on behaviour and social change. Russell-Bennett et al. (2013) argue that a focus on services, and participant value in social marketing can help facilitate behaviour change and achieve social marketing objectives. However, this service-orientation of value in social marketing is somewhat limiting, as it applies only to limited contexts, namely service delivery in the midstream domain.

McCosker (2013) highlights that there are many social marketing contexts where individuals perform behaviours independently, with limited or no direct interaction with service organisations and systems. This identifies an imperative for a focus on participant value in social marketing, not only with respect to goods or services, but also towards behaviour.

This represents a significant gap in the extant literature. There are potentially numerous examples of social marketing contexts in which participants may perceive value towards behaviours – for example eating healthily, using energy efficiently, or volunteering. We therefore argue that it is appropriate to propose the concept of participant perceived *value-in-behaviour*.

Conceptual Proposal

Value-in-behaviour builds upon the value-in-use concept, and expands this towards consumer value that is, or is not, realised through the performance of behaviour (see Appendix). Scholars have argued that behaviour change is an active, rather than a passive activity (Dann, 2010). This view overlaps with the understanding that individuals provide their own contributions or inputs towards an activity that can result in the achievement of social marketing goals (Zainuddin et al., 2013). This lends support to the proposal that there is a need to move forward in our conceptualisations of value, to consider value towards, and also potentially as an outcome of a behaviour. While the current understanding of value has evolved from a goods-orientation, to a service-orientation there is limited existing work being done to understand it from a behaviour-orientation. Yet research has demonstrated that understanding, and influencing consumer/participant value is important and can have a positive effect on behaviour and outcomes (Zainuddin et al. 2013). In proposing *value-in-behaviour*, this paper heretofore suggests a research agenda for this area. First, there is a need for further refinement of the conceptualisation of behaviour-oriented value perceptions. Critical review and analysis of the existing work in value; and conceptual work and empirical testing in the social marketing domain can fulfil this aim. Second, there is a need for scale development of appropriate *value-in-behaviour* items, given the orientation of existing scales from mainstream and goods marketing towards services rather than behaviour. This is particularly the case for existing value scales of *functional value* (the utility of a good, a service (Russell-Bennett et al., 2009), or as argued here – a behaviour. As an example, existing scales are often written with a strong good/service focus and include items such as "this product would last a long time" (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001); and "this service is well-delivered" (Zainuddin et al. 2013). Such items are largely unsuitable for adaptation to a behaviour-orientation, necessitating robust scale development. This limits social marketers' ability to meaningfully examine the *value-in-behaviour* contexts prominent in social marketing. Third, empirical research can test specific concerns such as can social marketing create or influence *value-in-behaviour*, and what strategies are the most effective for affecting *value-in-behaviour*.

Implications for theory and practice

Increasing understanding of value by exploring the proposed *value-in-behaviour* concept holds important implications for theory and practice. Making an important contribution to value theory that also holds potential relevance for consumer behaviour and mainstream marketing can help demonstrate that social marketing offers fertile ground for theory development. Exploring the *value-in-behaviour* concept can also aid understanding of participants' attitudes and emotions in relation to behaviours, and social marketing processes. Developing appropriate *value-in-behaviour* scales can potentially improve the testing and evaluation of social marketing programmes, adding more to traditional behavioural outcome focused evaluation research. This is important, as we may often have a sense that a social marketing programme has had an effect, but outcome and cost-benefit evaluation might not show this, omitting the effect a programme has had on perceived values.

Finally, engaging with the *value-in-behaviour* concept can help social marketers form a more holistic understanding of participants by giving insight on their value perceptions of behaviour, not just attitudes and current behaviours. Doing so can help facilitate a more informed, empowering, and actor-network oriented approach to social marketing moving forward.

Appendix

Value perspective	Economic value	Experiential value	
Value approach	Value-in-exchange	Value-in-use	Value-in-behaviour
Where value is embedded	Within actual goods and services	Within the experience of using and consuming goods and services	Within the experience of performing behaviour
References	Porter (1985), Zeithaml (1988)	Sandström, et al., (2008)	This paper

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Promoting the punt: Is sports sponsorship fostering betting behaviour?

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Introduction

With the recent intensification of sports betting sponsorship from grassroots to the upper echelons of professional sport, debate has arisen as to the suitability of creating such undesirable brand alliances (Danson, 2010). The argument is exacerbated by the millions of dollars invested in marketing campaigns promoting gambling products to Australian consumers (Thomas, Lewis and McLeod, 2012). The Australian sports betting industry is the fastest growing gambling segment in Australia, with revenue in excess of 24.8 billion dollars (Ibis World, 2011). These brand alliances allow betting agencies to gain access to large audiences, with a common love for sport (Chalip, Ritchie and Adair, 2004; Madrigal, 2000; Yang, Shi and Goldfarb, 2009). Given this strong identification, loyalty and engagement of sports fans, sporting teams have proven to make favourable alliance partners for betting agencies to sponsor (Madrigral, 2001). Furthermore, the high convergence of sport and entertainment makes sporting organisations optimal marketing properties for their commercial advertising appeal (Rowe, 1996). However, sports sponsorship is now reflecting a movement away from traditional logo placement and naming rights, to becoming more embedded within he sport itself (Schwarz, Hunter and LaFleur, 2012). Thus, sports fans cannot avoid exposure to sports betting promotions, as it features heavily within arenas, live broadcasts, team websites and advertising or through vast media channels. This therefore shapes the way in which sponsors are now able to interact with sports fans and shape their experiences with a brand. However, it is questionable as to the extent that these alliances are contributing to the symbolic relationship between sport and gambling. McMullen (2011:4) coined this phenomenon as the 'gamblification of sport'.

A growing number of researchers are beginning to investigate how consumers are responding to sports betting advertising. However more research needs to be conducted to explore the effects of the promotion of gambling through sports sponsorship, which has hindered developments in public policy making within this field (Monaghan, Derevensky and Skalr, 2008). Furthermore, there is a specific need to investigate the nexus between sports sponsorship and the implications it may have on the betting behaviour of sports fans (McKelvey, 2004). Thus, this research aims to identify how sports fans are responding to sports betting sponsorship, and the influence it has on their betting behaviour. In addition, the research intends to highlight sports fans' perceived community concern towards these alliances, and if such concern has the potential to curb gambling intentions.

Methodology

The research design relied on an online questionnaire, to determine sports fans perceptions of and behavioural intentions towards sports betting sponsorship. In doing so, the web-based questionnaire was also able to encapsulate sports fans' degree of perceived community concern and behavioural intentions towards such alliances. Measurement items for each construct were adapted from prior literature, with each having a Cronbach's coefficient greater than .70. Perceived vulnerability, personal tolerance and perceived responsiveness were all study specific constructs, thus were put through exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis to ensure their reliability and validity. One hundred and thirty (N=130) sports fans of Australian sporting teams participated in this study. Of this sample, 65 respondents followed teams whereby a major sponsor of the team was an Australian sports betting agency. The remaining 65 respondents followed a sports team that receive sponsorship endorsement from alternative industries, such as finance, insurance, car and beverages. These two groups were purposively sampled to highlight any distinct differences between groups. These participants were recruited through the intercept method, by approaching respondents at local sporting events, sporting affiliations and snowball sampling.

Results and Discussion

Simple descriptive analysis revealed that from the sample, 63.1% of respondents were male, and predominantly between 25 to 54 years of age. A multiple regression was then conducted to evaluate the ability of six measures (hearing about betting sponsor, recognising sports betting sponsor, receiving betting sponsors promotional material, involvement and reputation of betting sponsor) to predict sports fans intentions to place a bet. The results indicated that recognising a betting agency as a sponsor of their team, is a significant predictor of a sports fans intention to place a bet (see Table 1 in Appendix). In addition, results highlighted that the more a betting agency is involved with a team, the more influence it has on sports fans intentions to bet. Interestingly, recognition of the betting agency as a sponsor had a negative impact on betting intentions. This may be apparent, as sports fans want to be perceived as acting in a socially desirable manner. In contrast, receiving material from a sponsoring betting agency demonstrated to be a salient predictor of intentions to bet. However, simply seeing sports betting advertising or hearing that a betting agency is a sponsor of their team was not significant. These factors, explained over 50% of the variance in sports fans intentions to bet. This is somewhat concerning, given that problem gamblers have reported that exposure to promotional material has made it more difficult to control their compulsive behaviours, which is detrimental to them actively breaking the urge to gamble (Adams and Rossen, 2006). A study conducted by Derevensky, *et al* (2010), indicated that adolescents believe gambling advertisements portray an easy acquisition of wealth and the ability to upgrade their lifestyle, in addition to immediate gratification after winning. Thus, may be potentially contributing to the rapid increase of problem gambling in Australia (Binde, 2009).

Current public health policies to restrict the promotional activities of betting agencies are based on the belief that these activities may induce gambling amongst vulnerable groups (Williams, et al, 2007). Therefore, after identifying a relationship between sports betting sponsorship an sports' fans intention to place a bet, the next stage of analysis involved identifying the level of concern sports fans exhibit towards such sponsorship brand alliances. Univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine whether differences were apparent in the level of concern, between those sponsored by a betting agency and those who were not. Level of concern was assessed using three variables; perceived vulnerability, personal tolerance and perceived responsiveness. Perceived vulnerability measured sports fans susceptibility of risk associated with their sports team being sponsored by a potentially undesirable brand (i.e. betting agency). The degree to which respondents were willing to accept undesirable sponsors for their team was assessed using the construct of personal tolerance. Finally, a sports fans willingness to take action against undesirable sponsors was measured by perceived responsiveness. Interestingly, the results indicated that those who followed a team sponsored by a betting agency had greater perceived vulnerability, (see Table 3). Comparatively, these sports fans also presented to a higher personal tolerance towards undesirable sponsorship.

Jones and Middleton (2007), indicate that targeted marketing strategies are developed then exposed to the market, and consumers approving or disproving behaviour provides feedback of the effectiveness of their marketing strategies. It appears that sports fan have yet to provide significant negative feedback in response to potentially undesirable brands, hence sports teams believe they are socially accepted. Given that the promotion by betting agencies fosters potentially risky behaviour and may exacerbate problem gambling, more substantiating evidence needs to be established (Lamont, Hing and Gainsbury, 2011). Therefore, the final stage of analysis investigated whether perceived vulnerability, personal tolerance and perceived responsiveness have a potential influence on an individual's intention to bet.

Results suggested that perceived vulnerability and personal tolerance were significant predictors of an individual's intention to bet (see Table 3).

The results indicated that the greater perceived vulnerability from sports fans, the less likely they are to place bet. In addition, quite simply the more tolerance they display towards a sponsor the more likely they are to place a bet. These findings point to the need for public health campaigns that emphasise sports fans sense of vulnerability towards sports betting and aim to reduce their tolerance towards such partnerships with their teams.

Appendix

Table 1. Influence of sports betting sponsorship promotion on sports' fans intention to bet

Variables	B	$SE\ B$	β	p value	Adj. R^2
					.52
Receiving sponsors promotional material	.67	.12	.78	.00*	
Recognise sports betting sponsor	-1.05	.34	-.93	.00*	
Sponsors brand reputation	-.33	.12	-.29	.00*	
Sponsors involvement with team	.44	.13	.37	.00*	

* Significance level (p≤ 0.05)

Table 2. Influence of sports betting sponsorship on sports' fans decision to bet

Variables	N	Mean	Sig
Perceived Vulnerability			.00*
Not sponsored by betting agency	65	55.35	
Sponsored by betting agency	65	75.65	
Perceived Responsiveness			.09
Not sponsored by betting agency	65	59.95	
Sponsored by betting agency	65	71.05	
Personal Tolerance			.00*
Not sponsored by betting agency	65	49.07	
Sponsored by betting agency	65	81.93	

* Significance level (p≤ 0.05)

Table 3. Influence of perceived community concern on sports' fans intention to bet

Variables	B	$SE\ B$	β	p value	Adj. R^2
					.51
Perceived vulnerability	-1.18	.15	-1.18	.00*	
Perceived responsiveness	.29	.17	.25	.10	
Personal tolerance	.70	.16	.69	.00*	

* Significance level (p≤ 0.05)

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Identifying the competition as desire

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Introduction

Understanding the competition allows marketers to assist in the development of appealing and accessible consumer products. For social marketers identifying the competition is challenging. Many define the competition as the detrimental behaviours consumers currently prefer (Lee and Kotler, 2012). Peattie and Peattie (2003) argue that seeing the competition as 'the behaviour that needs to change' is at odds with what commercial marketers consider to be the competition. They maintain that identifying the competition as current detrimental behaviour equates to 'not purchasing the product' in the commercial setting which differs substantially from consumers purchasing an alternate product.

Instead of behaviours, Andreasen (1995) identifies desires as the main competition for social marketing. Indeed, research shows desires lead to behavioural intention and enactment (Bagozzi et al., 2003). Because resources and time are limited, consumers regularly have to choose between competing desires. We want excitement but also security, comfort but also challenges. As such, it is essential to understand the competition at the level of desire so that we can address the competition before actions are taken.

Our aim is to identify the competition in terms of consumer desire. Here we focus on both the hedonic and eudaimonic internal states of consumer desire. We draw on work in social marketing, specifically Peattie and Peattie (2003) and Rothschild (1999), and integrate research in motivation, integrating Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1943) and calling attention to Ryan and Deci's (2000) self-determination theory, coupled with Holbrook's (2006) consumer value typology and Sheth et al.'s (2011) mindful consumption. We also note the powerful additional internal competing forces of habit, inertia and apathy as well as the external forces of social pressures and the counter marketing of detrimental goods and services (e.g., snack foods high in salt, fat and sugar).

Conceptual Model

As shown in Figure 1 we propose five generic competing desires for social marketers to consider. Competence, autonomy and relatedness are the key intrinsic motivating factors of self-determination theory (Ryan and Deci, 2000). The desire for autonomy develops in the form of independence, freedom and control. Competency results from achievement, ability and means. Relatedness is the desire to be socially connected in love, friendship, status and esteem. The conceptual model places these three desires in a pivotal position, indicating that the fulfillment of these intrinsic desires leads to desires associated with positive functioning. Positive functioning includes financial and environmental security (e.g., money, food, water, clothing and shelter), physical and mental health (e.g., vitality, resilience, hope and self-esteem) and sense of community and spirituality (e.g., acceptance, respect, equality, integrity, ethics and kindness). The model also proposes that the lack of autonomy, competency and relatedness are associated with more hedonistic pleasures involving desires for instant gratification and over consumption. For example, someone who has to comply daily with the directives of others with little freedom to voice opinions and no ability to change the situation may feel the need to take some control in their life by engaging in behaviours that is not 'approved,' such as overindulging by consuming too much alcohol and unhealthy food or by engaging in unsafe sex or risky driving.

Competence and relatedness in combination also can lead to both positive (e.g., being a respected skillful member of a sports team, working to provide food for the family and altruistically assisting those in need) and negative behaviours (e.g., feelings of superiority, privilege, egotism leading to greed, self-interest and the desire to be honoured and idolized). In addition to the five generic competing desires we also include two extrinsic and two intrinsic factors that directly influence consumer desires.

Research shows that mere exposure to visual and verbal marketing cues easily trigger habitual responses and consumers find it difficult to fight such routinized behaviour when faced with external social pressures (Pechmann et al., 2003; Thaler and Sunstien, 2008). Such habits and pressures can encourage positive functioning as well as more hedonistic pleasures. Conversely, as noted by Rothschild (1999), automatic inclinations requiring no thought or action such as apathy and inertia are key factors in supporting detrimental desires.

Implications

The proposed model highlights consumers' competing desires suggesting that some desires naturally lead to more positive consumer outcomes whereas others are more problematic. The model also indicates the complex role of autonomy, competency and relatedness, as these desires can have both positive and negative ramifications suggesting the need for social marketers to consider how these desires interact. We believe the model will prove useful in a number of areas such as excessive alcohol and food consumption, road safety as well as in the areas of domestic violence and bullying. The ultimate aim is to develop social marketing programs that fulfill the intrinsic desires of autonomy, competence and relatedness. The conceptual model suggests that once these intrinsic desires are satisfied, desires related to positive functioning are more likely to be triggered.

The next step is to conduct future qualitative and quantitative research to determine the value of considering the competition in social marketing in terms of desire. Qualitative research is needed to provide evidence for the five generic desires, to identify additional dimensions of consumer desires and to determine whether the proposed relationships among the desires are suitable. Ideally, qualitative research should be conducted across a number of social marketing issues using a variety of methods such as focus groups, depth interviews, observation using videography and netnography (Kozinets, 2010) in order to understand the ways in which desires compete. Information gained through qualitative research then can be used to refine the model, identify reliable measures and create realistic scenarios or vignettes to be used in a quantitative survey and/or experimental design.

Figure 1. Conceptual Model of Competing Desires

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                    ┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
                    │         SOCIAL PRESSURES            │
                    └─────────────────────────────────────┘

                       ┌───────────────────────────────┐
                       │            HABITS             │
                       └───────────────────────────────┘

                        ┌─────────────────────────────┐
                        │   AUTOMATIC INCLINATIONS    │
                        └─────────────────────────────┘

                         ┌───────────────────────────┐
                         │     COUNTER MARKETING     │
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HEDONIC PLEASURE	AUTONOMY	POSITIVE FUNCTIONING
Immediate Gratification	- Freedom	- Security
- Sensation	- Independence	money, food, water,
- Comfort	- Control	clothing, shelter
- Bodily pleasures		
- Appetites	COMPETENCE	- Health
- Self-interest	- Achievement	vitality, resilience,
	- Ability	hope, self-esteem
Over-consumption	- Means	
- Repetitive		- Community
- Acquisitive	RELATEDNESS	acceptance, respect,
- Aspirational	- Love/Friendship	equality, integrity,
	- Status	ethics, kindness
	- Esteem	

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Is food marketing making us fat? Fat cats vs dogmatists

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For many, it seems obvious that food marketing is making us fat. The anger and outrage that was once evoked by tobacco companies is now being repackaged and aimed at 'Big Food' (Hennessy, 2014). But is it justified, is food marketing the cause of obesity? And in any case, does outrage and dogmatism help solve the problem?

Arnot (2014) claims that "[t]here's growing conviction that 'Big Food' is out of touch with the values of consumers and likely to put profit ahead of public interest." However, this appears to confuse 'customer values' with 'public interest'. Food marketers may well put profit ahead of public interest, but they have not misunderstood consumer values. In fact, it is because they understand consumer values so well that they have been so successful, even to a point where we are inclined to blame them for causing obesity.

The physiology of obesity is straightforward. It arises when energy (kilojoules or kJ) input is consistently greater than output for any given individual. Food marketing may impact on excessive consumption, the energy input, but it cannot be held to account for inadequate activity, the energy output. It therefore represents at most, just half of the equation.
Food marketers attract customers through appealing offers, in particular by manipulating the qualities of the food offered (Moss, 2013) such as taste (salt, sugar, fat), colours, shapes, appetitive images (Schüssler et al., 2011) and add-ons such as micronutrients (vitamins, minerals, etc.). Marketers also manipulate quantities – offering bonuses, or larger sizes for just "a few extra cents" (Dobson & Gerstner, 2010).

The two manipulations that contribute directly to increased energy intake are larger quantities and higher energy densities. A recent meta-analysis shows that a doubling of portion size leads to a 35% increase in consumption on average (Zlatevska, Dubelaar, & Holden, 2014), even over multiple days (Rolls, Roe, & Meengs, 2006a; 2007). Coupled with this, consumption seems to be relatively insensitive to changes in energy density (Fisher, Liu, Birch, & Rolls, 2007; Rolls, Roe, & Meengs, 2006b). Accordingly, obesity is likely being fed on the input side by larger portions encouraging greater consumption and increasing energy-density which does not affect satiety.

Marketers create energy-dense foods (e.g., using sugar and/or fat) and larger portions because they appeal to customers. However, the appeal of high energy density foods has been established genetically long before marketers came along (Drewnowski, 1998). Similarly, portion sizes have been growing long since before modern marketing as seen in the way that portions of bread and wine in paintings of the Last Supper have grown over the last 1000 years (Wansink & Wansink, 2010).

Marketers could of course avoid using appeals based on energy density and portion size to attract customers, but in so doing, they give up their core objective which is to create customer value in order to facilitate exchange and generate profit. By this account, obesity and ill-health are most likely unintended consequences arising from successful marketing efforts being widely adopted in a competitive environment. It is not evident that food marketers wish for obesity or ill-health for their customers. They do however, want to be competitive in attracting customers. The obesity problem is collectively created by customer desires, food marketers and the competitive environment in which they operate.

Public health agencies and media may be inclined to criticize food marketers, but as influence agents themselves, they are required to show how their influence is more justified than that of marketers. It is my assertion that public health marketers are distinguished from food marketers in two important ways. First, public health marketers tend to put "public interest" ahead of "consumer values".

While food marketers focus on meeting customer desires even to the detriment of public interest, public health advocates will promote public interest even to the detriment of individual preferences. Second, on the continuum of influence from education to legislation (Rothschild 1999), public health advocates have more access to coercive (legislative/regulatory) means of influence than food marketers. Consequently, public health pursues public interest even to the point of forcing individuals to comply; food marketing at least grants consumers power of veto (*caveat emptor*), even if consumers find it difficult to exercise that power.

In general, consumers and others appear to fear that marketers have access to tools of influence that can create behavior change without the individual's conscious consent. Individuals are indeed subject to cognitive biases and perceptual illusions, but both food marketers and public health marketers have access to such influences. For instance, research on portion size effects shows that consumers tend to view a tall, thin glass as larger than a small, wide glass and this reduces both the pour and the consumption (Wansink & Van Ittersum, 2003). Marketers have used the illusion to support price-discrimination tactics (Boone, 2014) while public health advocates encourage the use of taller thinner glasses to encourage lower consumption (Burnham, 2012).

Public health advocates have two bullets to take before they can step up to do battle with marketers and consumers on obesity. One is in the definition of the public interest. To justify their actions, public health marketers must be able to show that the public interest is a valuable objective (Holden & Cox, 2013). Extant research shows that obesity is not as clear-cut a problem as declared in the media. A recent meta-analysis shows that obesity grade 1 individuals (BMI 30-35) face the same mortality risk as normals (BMI 20-25) and being overweight (BMI 25-30) significantly reduces mortality risk (Flegal, Kit, Orpana, & Graubard, 2013).

The second bullet for public health marketers is whether they are willing to pursue the public interest which is difficult to define clearly, and even more difficult to measure, even while denying individual rights and freedoms (Holden & Cox, 2013).
With these two bullets in mind, let us agree that there is some good served by reducing obesity, even at the cost of some individual freedom. We might now re-examine the best approaches to doing so through a more comprehensive view of the problem. Food marketing is only a part of the problem: it affects energy input rather than output; it is but one of multiple environmental factors affecting input. Moreover, food marketing is a problem only to the extent that it successfully fulfils consumers' desires.

If we are to focus on food marketing, the two attributes to target primarily would appear to be those that directly affect energy input: portion size and energy density. Focus directed at less direct influences such as colour, shapes, and even more remotely, advertising will likely have less impact. However, limiting portion size and energy density will likely arouse the ire of both consumers and food-marketers.

Nonetheless, food marketers at least might be amenable if the changes are regulated and affect all food marketers equally; that is, if legislative changes completely remove competition based on these characteristics.

Obesity is a problem that emerges in the convergence of customer and corporate desires which are met in an unrestricted market exchange. Adopting a dogmatic view about the ill-effects of obesity and blaming 'big food' while ignoring the consumer role is to offer a biased view. More importantly, it is likely to lead only to a partial and potentially ineffectual solution. For public health to intervene and block this market exchange, it is necessary to be clear about the public interest being served, and the justification for sacrificing private desires (both corporate and consumer) to this public interest.

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Can you keep a secret? Private information in the age of online behavioral advertising

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Introduction

Social marketing uses marketing to benefit society, typically drawing upon all the tools of marketing, adopting new ones as they develop. However, current practices are leading marketers, including social marketers, to adopt a practice known as Online Behavioral Advertising (OBA). The problem is that OBA practices may run counter to the best interests of consumers, and hence of society. Therefore, social marketers should think about creating their own "best practices" approach, showing other marketers how to do it properly.

The problem of privacy is serious and self-regulation isn't working. For example, industry now promotes "AdChoices" as the solution. Adchoices can be described as the OBA equivalent of a health warning on cigarette ads. An icon appears on an ad, which, if clicked takes users to a web page where they can opt-out of having PII collected – *along with a sales pitch about the fabulous benefits of OBA*. Despite efforts to inform consumers of options to opt out of online data collection, consumers remain largely unaware and increasingly concerned about the protection of their personal data. The current study explores perception of privacy and seeks to determine the extent and nature of the concerns surrounding OBA.

The following section describes a set of studies intended to explore the extent of and nature of concern among American adults. More specifically, the studies first ask about perceptions of threats to personal information. Second, this research assess whether people are aware of industry efforts to that allow consumers to opt-out of OBA. Third, this research discusses possibilities for future research and specific considerations for social marketers.

Method & Results

This research involves two studies. Study 1 involves a sample of college students enrolled in communication classes at Michigan State University. An online survey was used (October – December of 2014). Participants (N=101) ranged from 18 to 31 years old, 27% male, and 73% female. Respondents ranked several agencies on the amount of information each had on the average U.S. consumer. They ranked government agencies (CIA and NSA) slightly higher than Facebook or Google, however 26 percent indicated Facebook had the most information on an average U.S. citizen or consumer. Results also suggested participants were largely unaware of Adchoices. Seventy-three percent had no recall of the Adchoice logo, only one could correctly identify the icon.

Study 1 yielded interesting results, but sample size was too small and unrepresentative of the U.S. population to be generalizable. Study 2 made several changes. First, to minimize external validity concerns Study 2 used Amazon.com's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) to collect data. This is a crowdsourcing web service where participants are asked to complete an MTurk HIT (Human Intelligence Task). The MTurk population is older, and represents a population with more experiences (Buhrmester, Kwang & Gosling, 2011), socio-economic and ethnic backgrounds compared to student samples (Casler, Bickel, & Hackett, 2013).

For this research, subjects were paid $1 for a completed 10-question questionnaire. The Study 2 sample included 307 participants from ages 18 to 24 years (18%), 25 to 34 years (46%), 35 to 44 years (22%), 45 to 54 (6%), 55 to 64 years (6%), 65 years and over (1%). This sample had a male bias (59%) compared to female (41%).

The Study 2 questionnaire was adjusted based on the responses of Study 1. It included a question about the frequency of online purchases. Questions that yielded redundant responses were dropped and several response choices added to create a more concise questionnaire with a set of exhaustive response choices.

In order explore the AdChoice recognition question, two experimental conditions were used. The first condition displayed the AdChoice logo, the second included a fictitious design, Asterisk Man, who could be described as a solid-blue but slightly disjointed, stick-figure resembling the asterisk symbol (see Figure 1). The AdChoice and Asterisk Man designs were randomly assigned to subjects so that each saw only one.

Figure 1

| Adchoice | Asterisk Man |

Less than 2% had any awareness of the Adchoice logo. Just 4 were able to correctly identify the logo. Other responses included "to give idea," "walk, "something about information," "information breech," "Google ads," "internet," and "health." These findings suggest that any efforts of marketers to create awareness about consumer choices have been futile, at best. Further, Study 2 results suggest that participants are skeptical of making online purchase, yet most continue to do it. Those reporting "sometimes" or "always" being concerned about personal information online, still made 1-4 online purchases in the past month.

Results suggest participants were most concerned about the U.S. government collecting private information, compared to other industries and social media. Participants believe the NSA has the most information -- 41 percent (n=126) of our participants ranked this first among a list of 9 (see Figure 2). Overall, like Study 1, most Ss believed Facebook holds less information than the NSA or CIA. Ss said that Google holds less information than any of the listed government agencies and more information than Facebook, while Facebook holds more information on U.S. consumers than American Express.

Figure 2. Information Collection Sources Statistics

Statistic	NSA	Walmart	Google	IRS	Facebook	American Express	CIA	Salvation Army	American Red Cross
Mean	2.70	6.36	3.59	3.21	3.88	5.98	3.79	8.05	7.45
Variance	4.41	3.34	3.01	3.19	2.91	2.24	4.63	2.44	2.54
Standard Deviation	2.10	1.83	1.74	1.78	1.71	1.50	2.15	1.56	1.59
Total Responses	307	307	307	307	307	307	307	307	307

Study 2 results suggest growing concerns over privacy change how people behave online. When asked about concern for personal data while surfing the web, 25 percent noted social media as the biggest concern (n=77). Among a list of changing behaviors, 29 percent (n=87) report closing social media accounts, 23 percent (n=68) say they falsified information about themselves online. In terms of perceptions and concern levels, our sample did not reach statistically significant thresholds. However, the descriptive data warrant further exploration. For example, among the respondents who are "always concerned" about their personal information online, 25 percent are most concerned about social media (n=33).

Table 3.Actions to Protect Data Frequency

Answer	# of Responses	Percent
Other	3	1%
Closed a bank account	6	2%
Subscribed to an identity protection service	19	6%
Removed information from a cloud service	20	7%
Changed credit cards	22	7%
Removed information about myself through ad choices	42	14%
Refused to make an online purchase	46	15%
Installed a privacy plug-in	54	18%
Removed my name from list serves	65	22%
Falsified personal information online	68	23%
Removed passwords from auto-fill options	84	28%
Removed profile information from social network(s)	87	29%
Checked my credit	98	33%
Declined push ads	120	40%
Verified security icons upon checkout	126	42%
Browsed privately	156	52%
Changed my password	209	70%
Cleared cookies	219	73%

Discussion and Conclusion

The current "Big Data" trend is about mining mountains of data – including private data – to unearth profitable patterns of information. The economic promise is big, but the privacy peril is equally enormous. Polonetsky and Tene (2013) opine, "Finding the right balance between privacy risks and big data rewards may very well be the biggest public policy challenge of our time." These findings shed light on the growing complexity of privacy protection today. It also illuminates some less obvious concerns to be considered when trying to protect private data. This research is intended to build a framework for further discourse around principles of fair use, which U.S. companies claim to follow. For Social Marketing practitioners, these findings are especially relevant, if their true goal entails the good of society.

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What is the difference between social marketing promotions and social advertising?

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Introduction/Background

Social marketing campaigns that use promotions (mass media) as part of the marketing mix to prevent tobacco use have been proven effective in preventing initiation among youth and are recommended as a "best practice" in the US in reducing use among youth (US Department of Health and Human Services, 2012, Centers for Disease Control, 2007). However, little is known from a social marketing perspective about the mechanisms that cause successful behaviour change in these programmes. Health communicators often point to the increase in knowledge about health consequences or about the tobacco industry's practices as the source of the behaviour change. This perception unfortunately leads to many misguided "social advertising" campaigns that try to use the same tactics as commercial advertising to change behaviour, such as over-emphasizing humor, creativity and memorability while deemphasizing the behavioural constructs that could lead to real change.

This is a significant problem for the field of social marketing. Since "promotion" is a key component of the marketing mix, social marketing is often associated with commercial advertising. In reality, commercial advertising and social marketing differ significantly. Unfortunately, without studying and demonstrating how "social marketing promotions" are different from "commercial advertising," programmes will continue to implement promotions strategies that do not cause change.

The authors of this study argue that promotions that are part of comprehensive social marketing programmes must contribute to a change in the behavioural equation to achieve behaviour change, such as increasing the perceived price of a risky behavior. However, to achieve this change, we must better understand which kinds of promotional messages contribute to behaviour change and which do not.

Existing research in this area has been limited and results have been mixed (Schar et al., 2006; Terry-McElrath,et al. 2005; Wakefield et al., 2003; Teenage Research Unlimited, 1999; McKenna & Williams, 1993). This study sought to optimize the development of effective smoking prevention social marketing promotions by asking: What characteristics do promotions need to embody in order to contribute to a comprehensive social marketing programme?

Methods

Sample and Recruitment
Focus groups were conducted with high school teens in Rhode Island (17 focus groups, n=166), New Mexico (8 focus groups, n=77) and Ontario, Canada (12 focus groups, n=123) to examine the characteristics of anti-tobacco ads most appealing to youth. Teens who indicated past 30-day use of tobacco (current use) or indicated susceptibility to future use of tobacco (at-risk non-users) were invited to participate in focus groups after school the following day on school premises.

Data Collection and Analysis
A survey was used to assess demographics, tobacco use, personal values and tobacco-related knowledge. Following the surveys, teens were shown up to 15 televised smoking prevention ads representative of existing smoking prevention campaigns in the U.S. and Canada and chosen to reflect variable ad characteristics and themes.

Following exposure to each individual ad, participants were asked to rate on a 5-point Likert-type scale, with options ranging from "Completely disagree" to "Completely agree", the degree to which they agree or disagree with the following statements. The following statements were then provided to access receptivity: 1) This commercial really made me THINK; 2) This commercial affected me EMOTIONALLY; 3) The information in this commercial was something I DID NOT KNOW; 4) I LIKED the people in this commercial; 5) This commercial was CREATIVE; 6) This commercial was FUNNY; 7) If I could, I would be FRIENDS with the people in this commercial; 8) This commercial was SERIOUS; 9) This commercial was INTERESTING. A second question designed to assess effectiveness of the ad in communicating an anti-smoking message was, "Do you think this commercial would convince people your age to LIVE TOBACCO-FREE?" The order in which ads were shown was rotated in order to protect against order effects.

Frequencies of demographic variables, tobacco use behaviour, values and tobacco-related knowledge were computed. Frequencies of the items measuring ad effectiveness and receptivity were also calculated. The association of the ad effectiveness item ("Do you think this commercial would convince people your age to LIVE TOBACCO-FREE?") and each of the nine items assessing ad characteristics was examined using correlation analysis and backwards regression in order to determine the characteristics most associated with ad effectiveness. Statistical significance was determined if $p < 0.05$. Qualitative data was transcribed, coded and examined for general themes by trained research staff.

Results

Demographics and Tobacco Use Behaviour
Across all areas, gender was roughly evenly distributed. The racial/ethnic composition differed across area, with Canadian teens being mainly White (80.0%), teens in Rhode Island mostly White (49%) or Hispanic (22%), and teens in New Mexico, being mostly Hispanic (42.1%) or Native American (26.3%). Lifetime tobacco use ranged from 51% in Rhode Island to 86.5% in New Mexico, and past 30-day tobacco use ranged from 37% in Rhode Island to 77.3% in New Mexico.

Receptivity to Smoking Prevention Ads
The items that showed the strongest relationship with effectiveness were commercials that were rated highly in these factors: 1) This commercial really made me THINK; 2) This commercial affected me EMOTIONALLY; 3) The information in this commercial was something I DID NOT KNOW; 8) This commercial was SERIOUS and 9) This commercial was INTERESTING.

High ratings in these factors did not increase the perceived effectiveness of an ad: 4) I LIKED the people in this commercial; 5) This commercial was CREATIVE; 7) If I could, I would be FRIENDS with the people in this commercial.

Finally, commercials that were highly rated as 6) This commercial was FUNNY were either not effective or were perceived to be less effective because of this association.

Discussion and Conclusion

Many "social marketing" programmes are truly just "social advertising." This confusion is largely caused by the fact that promotions are a key component of the marketing mix in social marketing programmes. However, there is an assumption that commercial advertising techniques can be used to cause behavior change. In fact, an Australian parody of this idea recently went viral worldwide with an over-the-top social advertisement against skipping school (http://youtu.be/STHpMUYeznQ). Social marketers know that social marketing promotions and social advertising are not the same, but research that highlights these distinctions is limited.

This study aimed to begin to understand the differences between these two concepts by studying existing advertisements against teen tobacco use. The findings are counter-intuitive to the principles of advertising, but align well with the tenants of social marketing. Specifically, this study found that ads considered to be funny and/or creative were not associated, or even negatively associated with behavior change. In contrast, ads that were found to be serious, interesting, and included information youth did not previously know were rated as effective. Social marketers or government agencies working with traditional advertising agencies should take note of this finding, as these agencies will often focus on the creativity or humor of a message, rather than the message's connection to a behaviour change process. This finding helps to differentiate the best practices of commercial advertising from the best practices of social marketing, a first step towards redefining social marketing promotions.

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CRUSH: A social marketing program to prevent tobacco use in the lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender population

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Project Overview

To address the elevated rates of smoking of the lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) population, Rescue Social Change Group (Rescue SCG) implemented a social marketing intervention using the "Social Branding" strategy called "CRUSH," which includes an aspirational brand that delivers behavior change messages at unique places (bars and clubs) through influencers and branded products to reduce the perceived social benefit of smoking and the perceived "cost" of being tobacco-free. Through these social events, branded experiences and targeted media, CRUSH discourages smoking among LGBT young adults in Las Vegas, Nevada, USA. The program originally launched in 2005, but this paper focuses on a period of increased activity between 2010 and 2012.

Background

Lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) individuals are approximately 1.5-2 times more likely to smoke than the general population (Lee et al., 2007, King, Dube, & Tynan, 2012). Reasons for this disparity are unclear, but social desirability, rebellion against established social norms, low self-esteem, depression, loneliness, antigay harassment and violence, victimization, and psychological distress linked to being LGBT (Newcomb et al., 2014; Bontempo and D'Augelli, 2002; Tyas and Peterson, 1998) may promote initiation and use among this population. Targeted marketing of tobacco to the LGBT community (Stevens et al., 2004; Washington, 2002) and increased exposure to tobacco-related images (Smith et al., 2006) are likely contributing to the high rates of tobacco use and normalization of use in the LGBT community, which is not being adequately addressed by general market smoking prevention campaigns. Unless smoking prevention campaigns are developed to specifically target the LGBT population, it is likely that the disparity between the heterosexual and LGBT population with respect to tobacco use will increase. In order to reduce the morbidity and mortality of tobacco use among this vulnerable population, LGBT social marketing programs to prevent smoking are needed. Rescue SCG addressed this need by developing the CRUSH campaign, which aimed to change the social norms around tobacco use in the LGBT community.

The 8 Social Marketing Criteria

Behavioural Goals
Goals for the CRUSH Campaign were informed by prior research on outcomes of tobacco prevention campaigns (US Department of Health and Human Services, 2012) as well as internal experience of Rescue SCG on the effectiveness of localized social marketing strategies to address tobacco use.

Specific behavioural goals for the campaign among the target audience were as follows:
1. Increase awareness among the target audience of the CRUSH Campaign by 50%;
2. Increase tobacco-related knowledge, including about the health consequences of tobacco (varying percentile goals);
3. Increase anti-tobacco attitudes and beliefs (varying percentile goals);
4. Reduce perceived tobacco use within the LGBT community by 10% (social norms);
5. Reduce past 30-day tobacco use by 10%;
6. Increase tobacco quit attempts among smokers by 10%.

Customer orientation

At the core of the CRUSH programme is the development and delivery of a strategy and messages that align with the lifestyle, habits, goals and ambitions of the target audience, which are LGBT young adults who use tobacco. CRUSH uses the Social Branding model, which is primarily concerned with manipulating the perceived "price" of engaging in both the at-risk behavior (smoking) and the low-risk alternative (not smoking). In this case, many LGBT young adults associate a social benefit with tobacco use. The CRUSH programme's goal was to use a unique social marketing strategy to disrupt this by truly understanding how the customer uses and perceives tobacco use.

This was initially exemplified by Rescue SCG's decision to focus the programme in bars and nightclubs rather than mass media messages or even LGBT community organizations. Seeing LGBT tobacco users as the campaign's customers, Rescue SCG sought environments with the highest concentrations of LGBT tobacco users. Bars and nightclubs became the focus of the programme for this reason. In addition, a determination of the messages that would most appeal to the LGBT population, as well as the most effective and authentic ways to reach this audience, was informed by extensive qualitative and quantitative research. While many unique and customer-oriented messages were designed, one especially customer-oriented approach was to design interactive messaging games that required patrons to approach strangers to participate. This was part of CRUSH's "price manipulation" strategy by being specifically designed to undermine the tobacco use value of "meeting new people." By associating the brand and its message with an experience filled with socializing and new experiences, subconscious associations were formed between living tobacco-free and being social. Finally, Rescue SCG contracted LGBT young adults from within the local community as "brand ambassadors" to maintain a customer orientation long after formative research was completed.

Insight/Exchange/Competition

To inform campaign development, formative research was conducted in with LGBT young adults to understand this population's relationship with tobacco. A total of 250 young adults filled out surveys and 37 participated in focus group discussions. High smoking rates (53.64%) were identified among LGBT young adults. Qualitative interviews identified several key insights regarding the best ways to message to and reach LGBT young adults. This includes engaging the audience at bars and clubs, which are places where they socialize and are exposed to tobacco industry advertising and imagery. Additionally, since tobacco use is so common among the LGBT population, it means the messages need to change the social norms around tobacco use and equate a tobacco-free lifestyle with LGBT culture. In addition, anti-industry messages, such as those popular with the truth® campaign in the US, were found to be ineffective with this audience due to the industry's early acceptance of the LGBT community as a market segment. A key messaging tactic was to highlight local LGBT young adults who were attractive and preferred dating tobacco-free same-sex partners. Since the tobacco industry's messaging largely focused on inclusivity and attractiveness, this message unraveled the industry's promise with more tangible examples of locals who were not interested in dating smokers. This again contributed to CRUSH's price manipulation strategy by decreasing the benefits of tobacco use and increasing the benefits of living tobacco-free.

Theory
The CRUSH Campaign was based on the idea that social marketing efforts targeted to the LGBT community need be culturally competent and should consider the population's unique psychographics in intervention design, implementation, and evaluation (Bye et al., 2005). CRUSH primarily focused on the perceived price of tobacco use and of non-tobacco use, but used product, place and promotion strategies to effectively manipulate that price. Consistent with Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1986) and Diffusion of Innovations Theory (Rogers, 2003), behaviors and attitudes demonstrated by influential peer crowd members are likely to be replicated by others in the peer crowd, including tobacco use. The CRUSH Campaign leverages the known influence of peers to change behavior by speaking directly to this high-risk audience in their own language and style.

Segmentation and Marketing Mix
Through segmentation research focused on the unique lifestyles of LGBT people, Rescue SCG discovered a critical distinction between many smokers and non-smokers within the LGBT community. Non-smokers were more likely to be concerned about the overall image of the LGBT community and how it was perceived by outsiders. For this reason, they disliked messaging that was too focused on sexuality and dating. In contrast, tobacco users were more likely to be focused on their own personal position within the community and were very interested in messages about sexuality and dating. Understanding this distinction allowed Rescue SCG to narrow its audience and develop a message specifically for those at highest risk of tobacco use, rather than the entire LGBT community. Results of the segmentation yielded evidence that LGBT young adults, 21-30 years of age who were most concerned about their social image and attractiveness were at high risk of tobacco use. This finding was critical in formulating CRUSH's price manipulation strategy. In this case, tobacco use's value was tied to the perception that it is attractive and socially desirable. The more a person valued these characteristics, the more likely they were to use tobacco.

LGBT young adults were reached through a variety of mechanisms, including:

1) Price: The cost of not using tobacco was high, including perceived difficulties meeting new people at bars, being less attractive and withdrawal from addiction. CRUSH conducted interactive messaging games that gave bar patrons an excuse to socialize without tobacco to reduce the cost of being tobacco-free and offered free tobacco cessation support. Messages also focused on the attractiveness of being tobacco-free.

2) Product: "Living Smokefree" was treated as a product and promoted using a lifestyle marketing approach. The tagline "cute, fresh and smokefree" was associated with images of local LGBT young adults who prefer to date tobacco-free same-sex partners, and modern/trendy imagery was used to change the image of living tobacco-free. Direct mail magazines and branded clothing were created to promote the overall tobacco-free lifestyle.

3) Place: The majority of programme efforts occurred at bars and nightclubs since these venues had the highest concentrations of high risk LGBT young adults. In addition, Social Media and Direct Mail were used to reinforce messaging from the events and provide opportunities to further engage the audience in an authentic manner. Direct mail in particular was a low-competition medium since young adults rarely received LGBT-focused direct mail.

4) Promotion: CRUSH's message was promoted in an appealing way via events, social media, direct mail, street marketing and some traditional media. CRUSH formed partnerships with venue owners and managers to ensure that these influential community members become part of the campaign itself. Brand ambassadors were used to spread the message organically within the community.

Partnerships
The CRUSH Programme was developed and implemented in partnership with Southern Nevada Health District and Malcolm Ahlo. Evaluation was designed and analyzed by Dr. Pamela Ling and Dr. Amanda Fallin at the University of California, San Francisco. Multiple local nightclubs, promoters and others critical partners in campaign implementation.

Evaluation and results

Cross-sectional surveys (N=2520, 63% response rate) were collected in Las Vegas LGBT bars at baseline and 1 year follow up. Multivariate logistic regressions examined associations between campaign exposure and past 30 day smoking controlling for demographics.
Overall, past 30-day tobacco use fell from 45.6% at baseline to 38.3% at follow-up (a 16.1% decrease). Approximately 47% of the respondents reported they would attend a CRUSH event on a night when they usually went somewhere else. After adjusting for covariates, participants with high levels of exposure to the campaign (heard of the campaign, went to an event, received a mailer and visited the website) were 43% less likely than those with no exposure to have smoked in the past 30 days. Participants who did not like the CRUSH campaign had three times greater odds to have smoked in the past thirty days. Respondents who correctly identified the campaign was about "partying fresh and smokefree" were 33% less likely to be past 30 day smokers than those who did not identify the campaign message.

Lessons Learned

By leveraging existing channels and influencers within the LGBT community, the CRUSH campaign generated high levels of awareness and reduced rates of tobacco use among the LGBT community. While difficult to measure CRUSH's affect on the "price" of tobacco use, anecdotal evidence suggests that CRUSH was able to increase the desirability of being tobacco-free. Customer orientation changed the focus of the campaign, diverting CRUSH from messages cited as "best practices" in tobacco control to messages uniquely designed for this audience and the unique Social Branding strategy.

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The role of perceived policy effectiveness in explaining climate change mitigation policy support behaviour

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Introduction

Opinion surveys of the Australian public over the last few years have shown an overwhelming support for the idea that governments, through their policies, should play an important role in climate change mitigation. However, there is little agreement on exactly what form these mitigation policies should take (Nielsen, 2012; TCI, 2013). Taking the carbon tax for an instance, since the introduction of it in 2012 by the Labor government, there has been continuing public debate and controversy on the policy's cost-benefit to the public. One of the reasons for this ambivalence is perhaps due to the to the public's perceived low effectiveness of the policy. Consequently, the carbon tax is now under review in the parliament, with a strong push from the Liberal government to remove it (Daily Telegraph 2013). This paper explores the dynamics of this situation by proposing that the role of individuals' perceived policy effectiveness (PEP) plays a crucial role in driving public support for climate change mitigation policies (CCPS) − a link that has not been adequately investigated in the literature (Bostrom et al., 2012; Ellen, O'Connor, Bord, & Fisher, 1999; Stern, Dietz, Abel, Guagnano, & Kalof, 1999). PEP measures the degree to which an individual perceives the policies under a consideration to be effective in resolving climate change mitigation issues. The importance of the link is shown by the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) which posits that individuals' attitude toward a behaviour's effectiveness, e.g., PEP, positively predicts the likelihood of the behavioural intention and thereafter the actual behaviour, e.g., CCPS, (Ajzen, 1991). Other well-evidenced drivers of CCPS such as perceived adverse climate change impact (PCI) which draws upon the risk ameliorating behavior from risk perception theory (P. Slovic, 1987); and perceived anthropogenic cause of climate change (PAC) are also examined. Moreover, findings from the social dilemma literature are used to dissect the mitigation policies in terms of structural and behavioural solutions (Wiener & Doescher, 1991). The specific research questions are: (1) What is the nature of climate change mitigation policies from the perspective of social dilemma literature?; and (2) How does PEP, in comparison to PCI and PAC, affect CCPS?

Method

The data was collected using web-based surveys in 2012. A link to the web-based questionnaire was distributed to a panel of adult respondents Australia wide by a professional market research firm. The sample was screened to include only climate change believers (73.7% the total sample). The data was further screened to remove inconsistent and incomplete questionnaires, resulting in an effective sample of 1,476 respondents (40% female; 62.7% in middle-age; 49.5% employed; 44% university graduated; 88% from urban areas). The PCI construct was measured using a set of nine items (Appendix 1). A single item measure was used to measure the PAC construct (human activities or natural factors has caused climate change). General public support towards 10 climate change mitigation policies was measured. The respondents were also asked to rate the policies in term of their effectiveness (Appendix 1, 2). Factor analysis with Varimax rotation was used to simplify the multiple-item scales' structure. The sub-scales derived from this process were validated for reliability and aggregated to form an index to represent constructs. Ordinary Least Square regression method was applied to test hypothesised links.

Results

To address the first research question, CCPS and PEP were subjected to factor analyses resulting in a two-factor solution. For both constructs, Factor 1 summarised policies that encouraged voluntary actions to mitigate climate change whereas Factor 2 consisted of policies related to non-voluntary ones such as the carbon tax. Considering climate change mitigation as a case of social dilemma and the policies as solutions to solve the dilemma, Factor 1 is interpreted as consisting of Behavioural *policies* as these policies encourage members to act voluntarily; and Factor 2 is interpreted as *Structural policies* as these policies reduce individual freedom by such as imposing a tax on fossil fuel consumption (Messick & Brewer, 1983). Factor analyses of the PCI construct also revealed two factors. Factor 1 captured the perceived adverse consequences of climate change arising from factors that had a slow, prolonged and unnoticeable effect on individuals such as effect on biosphere, and is therefore classified as the *Low-critical* factor. Factor 2 captured consequences of climate change that were perceived to directly affect individuals' wellbeing, such as community health or personal income, and is therefore interpreted as the *High-Critical* impact factor. This is consistent with Paul Slovic et al., (2004) interpretation that perception of risk, captured by the PCI construct, consists of both cognitive and emotional factors. Consequently, although PCI is a cognitive factor (Bostrom et al., 2012; O'Connor, Bord, Yarnal, & Wiefek, 2002), emotional aspects (e.g., worry, concern) are also embedded in the construct (van der Linden, 2014). Consequently, the found dual-factorial structure of the PCI construct possibly reflects emotional factors of the perceived impact. The above interpretations are supported by the high subscales' reliability indices (Cronbach's alphas) (Appendix 1, 2).

In terms of research question (2), PEP was found to be the dominant construct in explaining CCPS, outperforming PCI and PAC as found in early studies. Ones who has confidence in the effectiveness of behavioural policies tended to support those policies while oppose structural policies (A.djusted R-square=.61), and vice versa (Adjusted R-square=.29). There was also a unique difference in the way PCI affected CCPS. Those who perceived low-critical climate change impact supported both behavioural and structural policies (Adjusted R-square=.23), however, those who believed in high-critical impact only supported structural policies but opposed behavioural ones (Adjusted R-square=.07) (Appendix 3).

Discussion and conclusion

This study draws upon the TPB and social dilemma literature to specifically explain the dynamics of public support for climate change mitigation policies. The attitude-behaviour link is well-confirmed as postulated by the TPB. Social dilemma literature improves upon this perspective by drawing upon the conflicting motives individuals might experience based on their perception of not only what personal action will be effective but also their perception of how others in society will react to a particular policy. The empirical findings not only support the notion that PEP is important in explaining the level of support for mitigation policies, but also further our understanding its role. The degree to which individuals believe in the effectiveness of the proposed policies greatly influences the likelihood of supporting or opposing them. Moreover, examining the effect along the two different aspects of mitigation policies reveals a more complex pattern than previously thought. Structural solutions, which are mandatory for every society members, would help solve the barrier of "free-rider" in solving social dilemmas (Wiener & Doescher, 1991) while behavioural ones would not. This possibly also explains the differential effect of high-critical and low-critical PCI on CCPS.

The results suggest that policymakers should not only emphasise the policies' effectiveness to gain public support – the main finding of this paper, but also be cognizant of the fact that the support is likely to vary with the policies' nature, and the differences in emotional aspect of PCI also affects the support for different types of policies. For instance, to gain public support for structural policies such as the carbon tax, focusing on high-critical impact factors in the communication would elicit a better response than focusing on the low-critical factors. This study still needs some refinements such as ones of scale's reliability (e.g., support for structural policies – alpha <.90).

Appendix 1, 2. List of Items and Exploratory Factor Analysis Results

Items	Factor loadings – Climate change mitigation policy support (CCPS)		Factor loadings – Perceived climate change mitigation policy effectiveness (PEP)	
	Behavioural policies	Structural policies	Behavioural policies	Structural policies
1. Government subsidies for more energy efficient household equipment	**.80**	.20	**.71**	.47
2. Government subsidies for more energy efficient business equipment	**.75**	.23	**.72**	.46
3. Government Support for a Cap and Trade or Emission trading system	.30	**.81**	.44	**.79**
4. Increased investment in renewable energy	**.82**	.13	**.83**	.29
5. International standards for more energy efficient products	**.79**	.22	**.82**	.32
6. Introduction of a carbon tax	.02	**.79**	.16	**.86**
7. Education about actions to reduce climate change	**.72**	.28	**.73**	.39
8. A self-regulatory carbon usage scheme managed by business groups	.14	**.61**	.32	**.62**
9. Improvements in public transport	**.80**	.02	**.82**	.25
10. Investment in fuel efficient vehicles	**.81**	.07	**.86**	.20
Cronbach's Alpha – Full-scale	.83		.93	
Cronbach's Alpha – Sub-scale	.91	.62	.94	.78
% of variance explained – each factors	49.10%	13.91%	63.34 %	9.19%
% of variance explained – all factors	63.00%		72.53%	

Appendix 3. Regression Results

	Dependent variable: CCPS - Support for Structural policies		Dependent variable: CCPS - Support for Behavioural policies	
	Model 1 Beta[a, b] (S.E.)	Model 2 Beta[a, b] (S.E.)	Model 3 Beta[a, b] (S.E.)	Model 4 Beta[a, b] (S.E.)
(Constant)				
Perceived climate change impacts – **PCI** *Low critical*	.25*** (.04)	.02 (.03)	.31 *** (.03)	.16*** (.03)
Perceived climate change impacts – **PCI** *High critical*	.15*** (.03)	.04 (.03)	-.15** (.02)	-.16*** (.02)
Perceived anthropogenic cause of climate change – **PAC**	.17*** (.02)	.09*** (.02)	.10 (.02)	.04 (.01)
Perceived Effectiveness – **PEP** *Behavioural policies*		-.20*** (.02)		.50*** (.02)
Perceived Effectiveness – **PEP** *Structural policies*		.78*** (.02)		-.13*** (.02)
	147.94***	126.50***	39.54***	28.77***
F (df)	(1,475)	(1,475)	(1,475)	(1,475)
Adjusted R-square	.23	.61	.07	.29
R-square	.23	.61	.08	.30
ΔF	94.13***		31.07***	

[a] Standardised coefficients; [b] *p* < .05, **p* < .01, ***p* < .001, all are two-tailed tests; S.E = Standard Error

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Understanding human trafficking as a social issue in Nigeria: Early insights from a formative multi-stream social marketing study

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Introduction

Human trafficking is a multi-faceted social issue that continues to impact a broad range of people around the world, including the trafficked, their families and local communities (for a full definition of human trafficking please see Appendix A). Nigeria was named one of the top eight countries of origin for human trafficking and is one of the leading African countries in human trafficking with substantial cross-border and internal trafficking (UNODC, 2006). Human trafficking in Nigeria is driven by a number of economic and socio-cultural factors such as poverty, high unemployment, illiteracy, manipulation of religious rituals, perversion of cultural traditions and the quest for a better future overseas (*ibid.*). There have been attempts to address human trafficking in Nigeria via various frameworks including criminal law (migration controls and legislative measures), education (awareness campaigns) and economic empowerment (capacity building) yet the extent of human trafficking continues to rise (Okojie, 2009), prompting calls for the phenomenon to be considered through an alternate lens (Asiwaju, 2008). To date, no evidence has been identified that social marketing has been used in the context of human trafficking. Hence, this formative research study seeks to understand human trafficking in Nigeria from a social marketing perspective.

Method

This research adopts a novel approach to formative research in human trafficking by conducting research at all three streams of social marketing (i.e. upstream, midstream and downstream). Further, the formative research design employed includes three qualitative studies based on three of the eight NSMC (2006) Social Marketing Benchmark Criteria: Customer Orientation, Insight and Theory. Study one looks upstream to seek understanding of the dominant discourses of Human Trafficking in Nigeria through Fairclough's (2013) Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) of current intervention campaigns and programs and in-depth interviews with government and non-government agencies. Study two seeks to gain understanding of the influences, motivations and behaviour intentions of the midstream, which consists of members of the community close to trafficked persons, through autoethnography (a journal was kept during the six week of data collection) and 15 in-depth interviews conducted in the cities of Lagos and Benin. Study three focuses downstream utilising 14 existential phenomenological interviews with trafficked persons to understand their trafficking experience as it was lived, as well as 15 in-depth interviews with individuals at risk to gain insights into behavioural intentions of individuals at risk of being trafficked. Studies two and three are guided by the critical theory concept of cultural hegemony (Gramsci, 1971).

Findings

The initial data analysis indicates that human trafficking in Nigeria is prevalent throughout the country as opposed to being highly localised as reported by Cherti, et.al (2013). However, two different types of trafficking are endemic to parts of the country.

Internal Trafficking for the Purpose of Domestic Labour
Internal trafficking of children for the purpose of domestic labour is rampant throughout Lagos (Duru & Ogbonnaya, 2012). Children and young adults hawking goods on busy streets are a common sight as are children engaged in manual labour and use of heavy machinery. From interviews with the midstream, an emerging theme among respondents was that Nigerians did not consider children being put to work 'child trafficking'.

The general attitude was that if a child is not in school, the child should learn a trade so that they can work to support the family. For example:

> *It is our belief that children support their parents be that in doing farm work, petty trading or other type of work that generates income. […]For instance, I was sent off to live with my uncle as a young boy and everyday after school we would go and work at the farm until dark before coming home to do our homework with the aid of an oil lamp.* [67 yr old father of four, Akesan Community, Lagos]

Further, while education is important to parents, earning potential appears to be prized higher. Some parents are opting to take their children out of school for a host of reasons including affordability, to learn a trade:

> *When the cost of sending my 12yr old son to school became too much for me, I took him out of school to learn how to become a plumber like me. So he follows me to work everyday and learns on the job.* [50 yr old father of five, Akesan Community, Lagos]

This shift in focus from education to the workforce may be due to the alarmingly high rate of youth unemployment in the country. Thus, reinforcing parents' belief that learning a trade or a vocational skill is a smarter financial option than formal education evidenced by millions of graduates around the country who remain unemployed up to five years after completing university.

International Trafficking for the Purpose of Sexual Exploitation

Awareness of international trafficking of young women and girls for the purpose of sexual exploitation is high, yet its understanding appears to be one-dimensional. Almost all respondents interpreted 'human trafficking in Nigeria' as sex trafficking abroad. As a largely religious country (Christian South/Muslim North) trafficking is considered morally reprehensible, however communities most affected in Edo and Lagos State felt that it was understandable that young girls would consent to be trafficked because the government continues to fail them by denying them of opportunities for legitimate work. Individuals at risk of trafficking blamed high unemployment and desperation to make a living in the absence of other worthwhile options as reasons they might consent to trafficking. Respondents from Government and NGO agencies, however, felt that aside from the widely documented 'push/pull' factors driving human trafficking in Nigeria (see Jegede et al, 2011), trafficking was less of an economic issue and more of a 'culture' issue. They claim deeply ingrained 'get rich quick' syndrome and greed as apparently inherent in Nigerian youths. Evidently, the problem of human trafficking in Nigeria is multi-dimensional. Multiple factors are at play in the Nigerian society, which appear to fan the flames of desperation and contribute to the desire to acquire wealth by any means possible. These include, the lure of quick money facilitated by institutionalised corruption; the undue glorification of money reaffirmed by pop culture; the ever-widening economic disparity demonstrated by the flamboyant lifestyle of Nigeria's elite contrasted by deplorable living conditions of the masses (68% of Nigerians live on less than $1.25 a day, World Bank, 2010), such as poor infrastructure, widespread unemployment, disproportionately high cost of living to income ratio; the paucity of basic necessities such as electricity, running water and healthcare.

Conclusion

This research contributes to both human trafficking and social marketing literature in two ways. First, it provides triangulated formative research insights conducted systematically across three steams of social marketing namely the upstream (government), midstream (community) and downstream (individual), thereby extending understanding of the issue from a multi-lens perspective while demonstrating a multi-stream formative research design approach, which is sparse in social marketing. Second, it establishes the potential of social marketing application to a broader range of problem behaviours and social issues such as human trafficking. The indicative findings reported in this paper constitute a first attempt to organise a substantial amount of data and will be followed with further detailed analysis of the identified themes.

Appendix A: Definition of Human Trafficking

The UN Palermo protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children (2000) defines Human Trafficking as:

> *The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs.*

The definition of trafficking can be deconstructed into three separate parts: criminal acts (illegal migration), the means used to commit those acts (fraud, deception, coercion, giving and receiving of payments or benefits, etc.), and goals (i.e. for the purpose of various forms of exploitation). At least one element (not necessarily all three) from one or more of these three groups is required before the definition applies. The consent of a victim of trafficking in persons to the intended exploitation is irrelevant where any of the means detailed in the definition have been used (Trafficking in Persons Report, 2010).

Appendix B: Understanding Human Trafficking in Nigeria: Quotes from three streams

Stream	Participant quotes
Upstream	*Greed is the major problem not poverty. Research helped us to understand that the most endemic states in Nigeria are actually the richest. In states like Edo, the people see it as a way of life, it's almost like a culture, because they are exposed to stories of women who have gone abroad and returned to become successful. [Head of Research & Public Enlightenment, G.E. Morka, NAPTIP, Abuja]* *Human trafficking in Nigeria is not just caused by poverty or ignorance, but also from other socio-cultural factors such as family values, polygamy and large family sizes. We preach morality and educate communities at risk on their responsibility and we try to instill a sense of civic responsibility [Project Coordinator, Idia Renaissance, Benin City, Edo State]*
Midstream	*The problem of trafficking in Nigeria is basically because of hardship faced by the masses as a result of our government's nepotism. So, unemployed youths roam the streets, helpless. If such a person sees anyone who can help them travel, of course, they will take the opportunity. [Elder of Ihama Community, Benin, Edo State]*
Downstream (lived experience of trafficked persons)	*My aunt introduced me to some traffickers who organized to take me to Dubai for prostitution but unfortunately I was arrested even before travelling overseas by Nigerian Immigration because of my falsified documents. I knew I had to do prostitution but I didn't mind. I had to go because I couldn't afford to pay my rent with the little money I earn as a hairdresser or feed my five younger siblings who can't survive on their own. [23yr old female from Edo State, residing at NAPTIP shelter, Lagos]* *My aunty brought me to Lagos from Benue. When I got to Lagos, I was forced to hawk bread on the busy roads of Lagos. I was beaten and maltreated on a regular basis. I ran away but after a few weeks of living on the streets, a man approached me and took me to a woman who needed a maid. When I got there the woman kept me with her for a year, maltreating me and abusing me until one of the neighbours who saw what I was going through took pity on me and reported my case to the police who then brought me to the NAPTIP shelter. [13 year old female from Benue*

	State, residing at NAPTIP shelter in Lagos]
Downstream (persons at risk)	*Human trafficking is bad. I have been approached by friends to travel but I just know it can't help me because I've heard what girls have to go through. In fact, a lady who was passing by just approached me that she wants me to come and work as a housemaid for her sister abroad but when I investigated I saw it was a lie and I refused. [19yr old, female, Benin City, Edo State]*

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The cancer good news project

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Project Overview

'The Cancer Good News Project' (2012-2013) utilised a social marketing framework to address cancer related stigma and improve cancer screening rates amongst Macedonian and Serbian community members in the Illawarra. Research insights were translated into a tailored, integrated and evidenced based program to promote 'good news' about cancer survival and screening behaviours for two priority cancers – breast and bowel. Multiple strategies were utilised to address literacy and language barriers including: the recruitment of community champions, community events, paid radio ads, community newsletters, interactive PowerPoint community education resources, and a multilingual project website. The sharing of the stories of 'community champions' regarding experiences of cancer survival and screening were critical to facilitating open discussion and promoting screening norms. The project was successful in promoting discussion about cancer and decreasing associated fears, fatalism and stigma. Preliminary survey results also indicate success in promoting positive screening norms within both the Serbian and Macedonian communities.

Background and Policy Context

Research suggests that members of Culturally and Linguistically Diverse (CALD) communities strongly associate cancer with certain death and fatalism. Misconceptions about cancer and cultural taboos also inhibit the open discussion of cancer and cause delays in help-seeking and low attendance for screening (FECCA, 2010; Phillipson, Larsen-Truong, Jones, & Pitts, 2012). To ensure equitable access to cancer information and to improve cancer outcomes in CALD communities it is important that tailored interventions are developed which both address literacy and language barriers as well as the cancer related stigma and misconceptions that exist within communities (FECCA, 2010; Phillipson et al, 2012).

Case-study Benchmark Criteria

Behavioural Goals

Awareness, belief and behavioural objectives were developed to address fatalistic attitudes towards cancer and the taboos associated with talking about cancer. For adults in both communities, behavioural goals included: promoting use and uptake of project resources (e.g. website, newsletters); participation of more than 200 community members in forums/events; the recruitment of 5-10 community champions to share cancer screening and survival stories within the intervention materials; and the promotion of discussion about cancer and screening in more than 80% of participants. Breast cancer screening objectives for women (50-74 years) included: promoting agreement in a majority of participants (> 50%) that mammogram is important to detect breast cancer early and to reduce the risk of dying from breast cancer; and to increase intention to have a mammogram in current non-screeners by 25%. Similarly, for men and women (>50 years) target objectives included: promoting agreement in a majority of participants (>50%) that FOBT is important to detect bowel cancer early and reduce the risk of dying from bowel cancer. Finally, the program aimed to increase intention to conduct an FOBT in current non-screeners by 25%.

Customer Orientation

Focus groups were undertaken to gain insight into the nature of cancer related stigma and existing beliefs, knowledge and behaviours about cancer and cancer screening within the target audiences. Eight focus groups were conducted with 69 male and female members of the Serbian and Macedonian communities with an age range of 20-81 years.

Focus group discussions also identified preferred strategies for the dissemination of project resources and activities. Development of the program was informed by ongoing consultation with community members via two community panels to test resources for content, readability (i.e. use of plain language) and cultural appropriateness. An iterative research and consultation process allowed for the project resources and activities to be tailored to the needs of the target audiences.

Insight

Formative research revealed that there was a notable absence of 'good news' or survival stories associated with cancer from within the target communities. Cancer was not openly discussed and was seen as a death sentence – and not associated with treatment or survival. Stories of cancer survival and cancer prevention were largely inhibited within these cultural groups. Based on this key insight, the project focused on 'reframing' the community cancer narrative, highlighting the good news about survival and early detection through screening for two priority cancers; bowel and breast cancer. Collecting and promoting personal stories of cancer survival through timely screening from community champions was an important strategy to facilitate open discussion about cancer and influence uptake of cancer screening tests.

Segmentation

The target audiences were defined as Macedonian and Serbian community members in the Illawarra region. These two cultural groups have a significant presence in the region and have been identified as high priority CALD groups in terms of health outcomes and needs. Further segmentation of these two audiences occurred through specific targeting of; women aged 50-74 years regarding breast cancer initiatives and men and women aged >50 years regarding bowel cancer initiatives. In order to reach these segments in a culturally appropriate manner, health service personnel with cultural and linguistic skill were engaged as cultural brokers. Tailored project resources and engagement activities were developed for each of the Macedonian and the Serbian audiences.

Exchange

Significant psycho-social barriers to discussion around cancer and to participating in cancer screening tests were identified. The key barriers related to; a shared, culturally embedded fear that talking about cancer or undertaking screening tests can precipitate the disease, lack of knowledge around screening procedures, a belief that screening and treatment doesn't improve outcomes, and strong fear about negative screening results ("I would rather not know"). An approach that sought to maximize the benefits of cancer screening tests was developed by promoting current, improved bowel and breast cancer survival rates and the important relationship of screening to survival rates. Personal stories about cancer survival and screening positioned the benefits of screening as realistic, appealing and achievable for the target audience.

Competition

For the target audiences, the key competitive behavior was not engaging in open discussion about cancer and/or delaying or avoiding screening and help-seeking in the absence of signs and symptoms of disease. The main benefits of avoiding discussion or screening were a level of 'personal comfort' associated with not discussing, thinking or engaging with cancer ("It's the worst thing you can mention"). There was also a level of 'cultural comfort' associated with adhering to existing social norms around cancer.

For these audiences it was easier and more comfortable not to encounter the fear and anxiety commonly triggered by cancer dialogue and screening experiences. In response to the competition, all project resources featured the 'Cancer Good News' branding to promote comfort and reduce fear around discussing cancer, developed positive, accessible information and captured personal stories about breast and bowel cancer screening and survival. The project also provided opportunities to reframe existing cultural norms through discussion and the sharing of personal narratives.

Theory
Goffman's theory of stigma (1986) was utilized to inform the development of the Cancer Good News project. Goffman's theory provided a framework for understanding cancer related stigma where it is experienced as either 'felt' stigma (the fear of being discriminated against, internalised shame and a sense of inferiority) or 'enacted' stigma (actual experiences of discrimination)(Goffman, 1986). The theory provided understanding of the 'silencing' effect of cancer related stigma and the related impact on screening behaviours. This guided the development of multiple strategies designed to reduce stigma and 'reframe' cancer in a positive way by facilitating open, positive dialogue about cancer.

Marketing Mix
Product – The core product or benefit for the target audience was reduced fear and stigma surrounding cancer through open discussion about cancer, cancer survival and screening. Augmented products included community newsletters, radio scripts, a multilingual website *(http://cancer-goodnews.com.au)*, community education sessions and interactive PowerPoint resources. *Price* – Perceived barriers to discussing cancer included beliefs that discussing cancer or even saying the word cancer can precipitate the disease, strong associations with fear and cultural positioning of cancer as a 'taboo' topic. Strategies focused on decreasing the nonmonetary costs associated with the desired behavior by providing a range of mediums, including public forums, for discussing cancer within a positive framework. Involvement of community champions who modelled the desired behaviors was also influential. These strategies served to decrease fears and fatalistic views and challenge cultural taboos around discussing cancer and beliefs that cancer was a death sentence. *Place* – To decrease barriers to the desired behavior community members were encouraged to 'start the discussion about cancer' by participating in public discussions/ forums about cancer survival and screening tests. These were delivered in culturally appropriate venues, e.g. church halls, with influential community leaders and medical professionals contributing to the discussion. The suite of project resources was available at these events and encouraged to be shared and discussed amongst family and friends. The inclusion of a multilingual project website and radio messages via local ethnic radio allowed the key messages to achieve widespread reach. *Promotion* – Key messages were tailored to be culturally specific and appropriate for each of the Macedonian and Serbian target audiences and promoted positive cancer survival rates (Good News Facts) emphasized the importance of cancer screening tests (Good News Tests) and modelled open discussion and testimony about cancer survival (Good News Stories). Promotional activities included radio messages, bilingual newsletters, a multilingual website and interactive PowerPoint presentations designed to be used sustainably by a broad range of health service providers.

Partnerships

Strategic partnerships were established at the start of the project to ensure a sense of common purpose and shared ownership of the project (Abercrombie, Sawatzki, & Lotenberg, 2012). The University of Wollongong (UOW) in partnership with the Multicultural Health Service (Illawarra Shoalhaven Local Health District) as lead agencies, then involved Cancer Care nurse consultants (ISLHD), and the Cancer Council NSW as key partners in the project. Community and cultural organisations associated with each community were also engaged as key stakeholders in the project, including the local Orthodox Church leaders. These partnerships facilitated effective engagement of the target communities, appropriate delivery of resources and activities and the provision of culturally appropriate medical and technical expertise.

Evaluation and results

The first phase of the Cancer Good News Project has achieved high community engagement and success in promoting discussions around cancer, reducing stigma and promoting screening intentions. For adults in both communities, behavioural goals related to reducing stigma and promoting community discussion were achieved or exceeded including: the participation of more than 391 community members in community forums/ events; the use and uptake of project resources (e.g. 317 website visits, 7,000 breast cancer newsletters); and 93% agreement in a survey of n=114 participants that Good News Stories and Information about screening had promoted positive discussion about cancer with family or friends. In relation to breast cancer screening knowledge, beliefs and intentions, for women (50-74 years) objectives were achieved or exceeded including: 93% agreement that mammogram is important to detect breast cancer early and to reduce the risk of dying from breast cancer; 51% of women who had never had a mammogram also indicated they were likely or very likely to have one within the next 3 months. As for bowel screening knowledge, beliefs and intentions, for men and women (50-74 years), 92% agreed that FOBT is important to detect bowel cancer early and to reduce the risk of dying from bowel cancer; and 45% of people who had never had a bowel screen test (FOBT) indicated they were likely or very likely to have one within the next 3 months.

Lessons Learned

Project success was underpinned by the strategic partnerships between the University, the Local Health District's Multicultural Health Service, Cancer Care Services and Cancer Council NSW. Of particular importance were the involvement of local bi-cultural health workers and the engagement of community champions to share their stories of screening and survival. The emphasis on engaging community members in participatory research was significant in promoting the participation of both community groups and leaders.

Appendix 1

Please see the project website for examples of cross cultural resources
http://cancer-goodnews.com.au

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Changing health behaviour with incentives – AIA vitality

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Project Overview

Vitality is the world's largest wellness program which uses incentives to influence behaviour related to prevention of non-communicable diseases (NCDs). While traditional health promotion initiatives rely heavily on providing information to change health behaviours, Vitality uses incentives and rewards anchored in behavioural economics and social psychology insights (such as the Health Behaviour Model) to motivate members to adopt and sustain healthy behaviours. With over five million members in several countries, Vitality has received high rates of success in changing health behaviour and was launched as AIA Vitality in Australia by life insurer AIA Australia in March 2014 through a range of stakeholder engagement and consumer relation activities.

How AIA Vitality Works

When AIA Insurance members first register for to be part of Vitality, they participate in online health assessments and biometric and preventative screening activities performed by healthcare professionals. This provides clients with a complete assessment of their health risks using a tool called AIA Vitality Age. Vitality Age is a medically and actuarially derived tool that calculates an individual's health risk-related age based on lifestyle behaviours and clinical measures. It presents an individual's health risk as years "lost" or "gained", relative to chronological age, because of unhealthy or healthy practices. This allows members to appreciate the impact of their lifestyle choices and understand how their lifestyle risks (e.g. smoking, not exercising) affects their health.

Once members understand their health, they are offered access to a variety of wellness solutions at a discounted rate, for example, subsidised visits to wellness professionals, subsidised gym members and discounts on purchases of healthy food and exercise devices.

To further motivate members to sustain their health behaviours, members receive points each time they make a healthy choice (e.g. 100 points for each gym visit; 10 Vitality Points for each $4 spent on fresh fruits and vegetables from Aussie Farmers Direct). These points allow members to climb statuses (i.e. Bronze, Silver, Gold) which, in turn, allow them to claim greater discounts on a range of goods and services from well-known brands (e.g. when members earn 5000 AIA Vitality points they get rewarded with a $50 Myer Gift Card). Members can track their health status and status on the online platform www.aiavitality.com.au.

Background and Policy Context

Recent estimates indicate that over 60% of adult Australians are overweight or obese, with the population-wide prevalence of overweight and obesity steadily increasing (Australian National Preventive Health Agency, 2013). Three modifiable behaviours – excess weight, smoking and excess alcohol use – account for a third of all illness, reduce Australian's life expectancy by five years and cost taxpayers almost $6 billion per year (Preventative Health Taskforce, 2008). With the Abbott government expressing concern about the growing health budget and emphasising personal responsibility, Australia needs to consider innovative solutions to curbing the rise of chronic diseases and amount spent on ill health (Volpp, 2014).

Case-study Benchmark Criteria

Behavioural Goals

Vitality is a wellness program that aims to influence behaviour related to prevention of NCDs. The key interventions of Vitality aim to: increase physical activity; improve nutrition and eating habits; encourage attendance at health assessments and preventive screenings; promote and assist with smoking cessation; and assess mental wellbeing. The key behavioural goals which have been academically evaluated are:

a) Increase physical activity; and
b) Improve nutrition and eating habits.

Customer Orientation

AIA Vitality structures its program based on behavioural economics and social psychology research into the inherent biases and mental short cuts people take which gets in the way of them pursuing what's best for their health

Insight

The insight central to the AIA Vitality program is that people have a tendency to focus on the immediate benefits or costs of a situation while undervaluing future consequences, also known as present bias (O'Donoghue et al, 1999; Frederick et al, 2002). Research has also found that the provision of small, frequent and fairly immediate rewards can overcome present bias and encourage healthy behaviours (Volpp et al, 2009; Volpp et al, 2011; Loewenstein et al, 2013). AIA Vitality utilizes this insight to offset present bias by offering points immediately after a member makes a healthy choice (e.g. going to the gym, attending a smoking cessation course). Points allow members to climb AIA Vitality Statuses which in turn allow them to claim greater discounts on a range of goods and services (e.g. $50 Myer voucher when 5000 points is achieved).

Segmentation

AIA Vitality is designed for people in the contemplation and action phase. For people in the contemplation phase, the short-term incentives provide the necessary 'nudge' to get them into the action phase. For people in the action phase, incentives in a status-based health promotion program encourage individuals to climb up the AIA Vitality Status ladder, keeping them motivated against slipping back in their health progress.

Exchange

The principle of value exchange is at the heart of AIA Vitality. The provision of immediate rewards (i.e. gaining points for discounts) in exchange for a healthy behaviour maximises the short-term benefits while minimising the short-term costs.

Competition

The key competition for healthy lifestyle choices is the sacrifice of immediate gratification obtained from the unhealthy choices (e.g. satiability of junk food) as well as lack of time to perform the healthy behaviour, and prevalence of marketing from junk food and tobacco companies.

Theory

Below outlines the key behavioural economics and social psychology theories used to inform Vitality's development.

- **Present bias or hyperbolic discounting theory** posits that people have the tendency to focus on the immediate benefits or costs of a situation while undervaluing future consequences (O'Donoghue et al, 1999; Frederick et al, 2002). Providing an immediate reward after each healthy choice is made addresses this bias (Volpp et al, 2009; Volpp et al, 2011; Loewenstein et al, 2013).
- **Loss aversion** theorises that people are more influenced by the prospect of losses than by gains (Kahneman et al, 1991). By providing a status-based program which encourages individuals to climb up the status ladder by continually making healthy choices but discourages a loss of status keeps with this principle and helps to sustain healthy behaviour.
- **Goal Gradient** theory suggests that smaller goals are more achievable than steeper and larger goals (Hull, 1932). Vitality's status-based program provides incremental rewards for incremental achievements.
- **Health Belief Model** posits that personal belief influences health behaviour (Hochbaum, 1958). By starting the program with a health assessment, this increases the perceived susceptibility and severity of chronic disease, contributing to increasing the perceived threat of disease for members. Obtaining a concrete AIA Vitality Age post health assessment increases the consumer's belief that they could take control of their lifestyle choices. Through the provision of access incentives such as subsidizing the cost of gym memberships or of healthy food — the perceived barriers to action is reduced. Through the provision of contingent rewards which are immediate rewards for participation in wellness activities, the perceived benefits of taking action are increased. All of these factors increase the likelihood of members taking recommended health actions.

Marketing Mix

AIA Vitality is a truly integrated program which considers the marketing mix (4Ps) as well as education and supporting technology in order to effect behaviour change. AIA Vitality as a **product** has been shaped by evidence from a range of disciplines including medicine, exercise science, dietetics, epidemiology, public and community health, psychology and behavioural economics. Through the provision of access incentives such as subsidising the cost of gym memberships or healthy food, the **price** or cost of healthy living is reduced. **Place** is virtual as members track their health progress and receive self-efficacy information online through the AIA Vitality website. In terms of **promotion**, AIA Vitality will be sold initially through financial advisers to people who purchase an eligible life insurance policy with AIA Australia. While the program is promoted through the financial advisor network, it was crucial that the public health sector as well as the public is aware about the impact of incentives on health behaviour as they would be the key advocates and users of the program. Public health stakeholders were engaged through one-on-one meetings and a stakeholder engagement conference conducted in March 2014, while the public was engaged through a range of consumer media relations activities.

Partnerships

AIA Vitality partnered with well-known Australian brands with national presence and substantial market share such as Hoyts, Myer and Qantas to provide rewards to members. As an insurance company which covers two and a half million Australians (that's around 20% of the working population), AIA Australia is able to partner with high visibility brands for this program.

Evaluation and results

a) Increasing gym usage
  - According to a longitudinal study by Patel et al (2011), participation in Vitality in South Africa increased the proportion of individuals using the gym by 22% (from 27% to 33.1%) between 2004 and 2008. The proportion of individuals initially classified as inactive decreased from 76% to 68% over the same time period and the odds of remaining inactive were 42% lower.

b) Improve nutrition and eating habits
  - According to a study by Sturm et al (2013), participation in the HeathyFood™ benefit which Vitality members are eligible for in South Africa (the HeathyFood™ benefit provides a 10 – 25% discount on healthy household food purchases) led to 6 – 9.3% increase in the ratio of expenditure on healthy foods to total food expenditure; 5.7 – 8.5% increase in expenditure on fruits/vegetables and a 5.6 – 7.2% decreased expenditure on less desirable food.
  - Another analysis by An et al (2013) found that participation with the HealthyFood™ program was associated with healthier dietary behaviours including a higher consumption of fruit and vegetables and wholegrain foods and a lower consumption of processed, fried, high-sugar and high-salt foods.

Lessons Learned

The key lesson learned are that the rewards offered need to be attractive and provided in a timely manner in order to encourage participation in the program and maintenance of healthy behaviour.

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Developing a decision-making model of environmental coaction

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Introduction

Human-induced climate change is one of the most pressing issues facing humanity. Much of the focus on mitigating the effects of climate change has centred on changing specific CO_2 emitting behaviours. While this emphasis on changing individual behaviours is a logical first step in reducing CO_2 emissions, by itself it is unlikely to bring about the CO_2 reductions necessary to prevent catastrophic climate change. That is, minor or isolated changed in CO_2 emitting activities will invariably have only a minor impact on mitigating the effects of climate change. Attention must therefore be directed towards understanding the co-occurrence, or coaction (Paiva et al., 2012), of multiple environmental behaviours. This alternative perspective shifts attention from motivating isolated environmental behaviours to encouraging the enactment of the full suite of behaviours that humanity must adopt to mitigate increases in global temperature. To date, however, models explaining the decision-making processes that underpin environmental coaction have yet to be advanced. Thus, the purpose of this study was to identify a set of decision-making processes that could explain the coaction of environmental behaviours.

Conceptual framework

Rational decision-making typically involves conducting means-ends evaluations whereby the outcomes of behaviour (ends) are weighed against the skills and effort required to enact that behaviour (means; Liberman & Trope, 1998). Two means-ends evaluations that may be particularly relevant to understanding environmental coaction are the perceived benefits of taking action to reduce CO2 emissions (ends) and perceived consumer effectiveness (means).

Personal benefits
Identifying personal benefits for engaging in environmental behaviours provides a powerful incentive to perform those behaviours (Griskevicius et al., 2010). Consumers who have performed multiple environmental behaviours should therefore perceive greater personal benefits from those actions than consumers who have performed no environmental behaviours. Thus:

> **H1:** Individuals who have performed coaction with perceive greater personal benefits of taking action that those who have performed no action.

Environmental behaviours are associated with a range of costs, so performing several environmental behaviours will necessarily entail incurring more costs than performing a single environmental behaviour. Consumers looking to enact multiple environmental behaviours (i.e., coaction) will therefore need to perceive greater benefits for taking action to reduce CO2 emissions than consumers looking to enact a single environmental behaviour. Thus:

> **H2:** Individuals who have performed coaction will perceive greater personal benefits of taking action than those who have performed a single action.

Perceived consumer effectiveness

Reducing the risks of climate change will require large numbers of consumers to make meaningful reductions to their CO_2 emissions. Consumers' beliefs about the environmental impact of their personal actions (i.e., their perceived consumer effectiveness) consequently represent one of the most important determinants of pro-environmental behaviour (Roberts, 1996; Straughan & Roberts, 1999). After all, consumers are unlikely to perform environmental coaction if they believe their actions will have no environmental effect. Thus:

    H3: Individuals who have performed coaction will have greater perceived consumer effectiveness to effect environmental change than those who have performed no action.

Those who have enacted single pro-environmental behaviours also tend to have high perceived consumer effectiveness (Iwata, 2004; Kim & Choi, 2005). In this regard, such individuals are likely to have similar levels of perceived consumer effectiveness as those who have engaged in coaction, for performing pro-environmental behaviour is predicated on an assumption that such actions will make some difference to environmental wellbeing. Thus:

    H4: Perceived consumer effectiveness will not differ between individuals who have performed coaction and individuals who have performed a single action.

Method

The current study sought to test the proposed model using samples drawn from Australia (n = 502), the UK (n = 500), and the US (n = 501). Multiple countries were examined to minimise the likelihood that the findings would be culturally specific. Following recruitment, participants completed measures of perceived personal benefits for taking action to reduce climate change and perceived consumer effectiveness. Participants then indicated whether they had purchased energy from a green energy provider, purchased green products, and used public transport.

Results

The three pro-environmental behaviours (green energy, green products, public transport) were examined pair-wise, and for each pair, participants were categorised as to whether they had enacted both behaviours (coaction), either behaviour (some action), or neither behaviour (no action). Multinominal logistic regression analyses were then conducted for each behavioural pair among each national sample (see Table 1). Results revealed that irrespective of national sample and behavioural pair, those who had performed no action perceived fewer personal benefits to reducing CO_2 emissions than those who had engaged in coaction. This finding was consistent with H1. Consistent with H2, participants in the coaction group perceived greater personal benefits for taking action than those who had engaged in some action, and this finding was observed in all national samples and across each behavioural pair.

Only partial support was found for H3, with participants in the coaction group reporting greater perceived consumer effectiveness than those in the no action group for only two of the three behavioural pairs. However, consistent with H4, perceived consumer effectiveness did not differ among participants in the coaction and single action groups across the three national samples and three behavioural pairs.

Discussion

Motivating environmental coaction will be critical in efforts to reduce the likelihood of experiencing catastrophic climate change, for encouraging the adoption of one-off or isolated changes to CO_2 emission behaviours will have only modest impacts on CO_2 emissions. The current study is therefore of particular importance in that it advances and finds support for a decision-making model of environmental coaction. That this model was found to be consistent across three separate national samples suggests that it could form the basis of cross-national campaigns aimed at motivating the types of behaviours necessary to mitigate the worst effects of climate change. This model therefore provides key insights for social marketers interested in fostering the adoption of multiple environmental behaviours across nations.

Table 1

Multinomial logistic regression examining coaction, some action, and no action in relation to paired pro-environmental behaviours by national samples.

Variable	Coaction vs. no action[†]	Coaction vs. some action[†]	χ^2
	Odds ratio	Odds ratio	
Green energy & green products			54.48**
Australia			
Personal benefits	0.62**	0.72**	
Perceived consumer effectiveness	0.75*	1.01	
UK			130.17**
Personal benefits	0.46**	0.54**	
Perceived consumer effectiveness	0.66**	0.82	
USA			80.98**
Personal benefits	0.64**	0.77**	
Perceived consumer effectiveness	0.64**	0.96	
Green energy & public transport			
Australia			53.95**
Personal benefits	0.60**	0.70**	
Perceived consumer effectiveness	0.85	1.09	
UK			80.09**
Personal benefits	0.56**	0.65**	
Perceived consumer effectiveness	0.82	1.09	
USA			48.88**
Personal benefits	0.62**	0.69**	
Perceived consumer effectiveness	0.85	0.91	
Public transport & green products			
Australia			48.78**
Personal benefits	0.68**	0.75**	
Perceived consumer effectiveness	0.66**	0.83	
UK			82.76**
Personal benefits	0.67**	0.77**	
Perceived consumer effectiveness	0.57**	0.84	
USA			83.07**
Personal benefits	0.64**	0.70**	
Perceived consumer effectiveness	0.65**	0.94	

* $p < .01$; ** $p < .001$
[†]Reference group: coaction

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Using theory and data to encourage cycling to the train station

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Project Overview

Bicycle Network developed the Parkiteer Program in consultation with Public Transport Victoria in 2007, and the program has now been running for 7 years. The objective of the program is to encourage Victorian train commuters to switch mode from driving to the station to cycling to the station. Parkiteer members use an access card to store their bike in a highly secure bike cage at more than 70 train stations across Victoria.

This project focused on understanding the key drivers of behaviour for both compliers and non-compliers of the program, with the key goal being to drive positive behavior change (i.e., increased cycling) to a key group of inactive Parkiteer members. The target audience received a series of communications addressing key beliefs, and prompting them to ride to the station. Change in behaviour was evaluated by downloading data from the Parkiteer cardax access system.

The research component of the project began in October 2013, the campaign ran in May 2014 and the evaluation is ongoing.

Background and policy context

Physical inactivity in Australia is the second largest health crisis after smoking. Two out of three Australians do not meet the National Physical Activity Guidelines of five blocks of 60 minutes moderate to vigorous exercise per day (Department of Health, 2014). Meeting the physical activity guidelines ensures Australians are less prone to a range of chronic diseases such as heart disease, type 2 Diabetes, and some cancers (Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, 2012). The Parkiteer Program encourages Victorian commuters to consider their health and make bike-riding part of the everyday by riding to their nearest Parkiteer cage as part of their morning commute. The Parkiteer concept was conceived in 2007 when then Public Transport Minister Lynne Kosky banned bikes on trains during peak hour (Clay, 2008). This move was not aligned with the Victorian Government's commitment to encouraging more Victorians to use sustainable forms of transport, so Bicycle Network put forward an alternative proposal to allow bike commuters to ride to the station and securely lock their bikes.

While the Parkiteer program has shown positive growth in the number of cages and number of members, there is a large group (approximately 58%) of 'inactive' members who have not a cage in more than 12 months. This project was designed to understand how to drive a change in behaviour among individuals who have demonstrated an intent to ride to the station by registering for the program, but are currently inactive.

Case-study Benchmark Criteria

Behavioural Goals
Specific goals for the project are:
Precursor
- Develop an understanding of key drivers for riding to the station for our target audience
- Measure whether the key beliefs and attitudes to the desired behaviour have changed post intervention

Actual change in behaviour
- Increase the number of inactive Parkiteer members riding to the station by 10% over a four week period
- Reinforce the behavior of cycling to the station

Post-campaign evaluation goals
- Develop an understanding of which communication channel had the most significant behavioural impact on the target audience

Customer orientation
The campaign was developed by researching our customers (Parkiteer members) beliefs and attitudes to riding to the station. In the first instance this was conducted via belief elicitation surveys with open-ended questions, both face-to-face and over the phone. Second, data was collected via an online survey (quantitative) sent to all Parkiteer members. To encourage participation, respondents were offered an incentive of being entered into a prize draw to win bike store voucher. The communications campaign was developed after analysis and measurement of these beliefs and values.

Insight
The key findings pertain to differences in beliefs between the compliers (active members) and non-compliers (inactive members) of the Parkiteer Program:
1. Compliers are motivated to ride to the station because of their own internal pressure to 'do the right thing'
2. Compliers are also motivated to ride to the station due to the pressure from their spouse or partner to ride

Segmentation
The target market for the campaign was defined as:
- registered Parkiteer members
- having not used the cage in 12 months or more
- and registered at the Reservoir, Caulfield or Croydon cage

Exchange
The benefits of the desired behaviour (riding to the train station) include health benefits, saving time, saving money, the security of the bike cage, and choosing a sustainable means of transport. These benefits can be classed in two ways – either being egoistic or altruistic motives. Egoistic motives are classified by when 'one's self is, or should be, the motivation and the goal of one's own action', whereas altruistic motives are those that 'concern (what one perceives to be) the benefit of at least someone other than oneself' (Sober & Wilson 1998, p. 229).

Analysis of the beliefs and attitudes of Parkiteer members revealed that the strongest belief for compliers was that they ride to the station due to internal pressure, that is, 'to do the right thing by themselves', which was classified as an egoistic motive. This was developed as a key message for the campaign.

The second strongest belief that differed between the complier and non-complier was that compliers feel more pressure from their spouse or partner to ride to the station. This motivator can be classed as an altruistic motive as it is the partner or spouse that benefit from the behaviour. This message may be developed for future campaigns.

Competition
In surveying Parkiteer members, certain behavioural controls and beliefs were expressed which could be perceived as competing for the behavior. These included lack of time to ride to the train station, the convenience of driving a motorcar, the strength of the habit of driving a motorcar instead of riding a bicycle, poor weather conditions, and having competing after work commitments.

Theory
The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) was used to inform and guide development of the campaign. TPB is 'a major framework for understanding, predicting and changing human social behaviour' and basically rests on the notion that human behaviour is influenced by three key things: behavioural beliefs, normative beliefs, and control beliefs (Azjen, 1991 p. 179). The TPB framework is outlined in Figure 1.
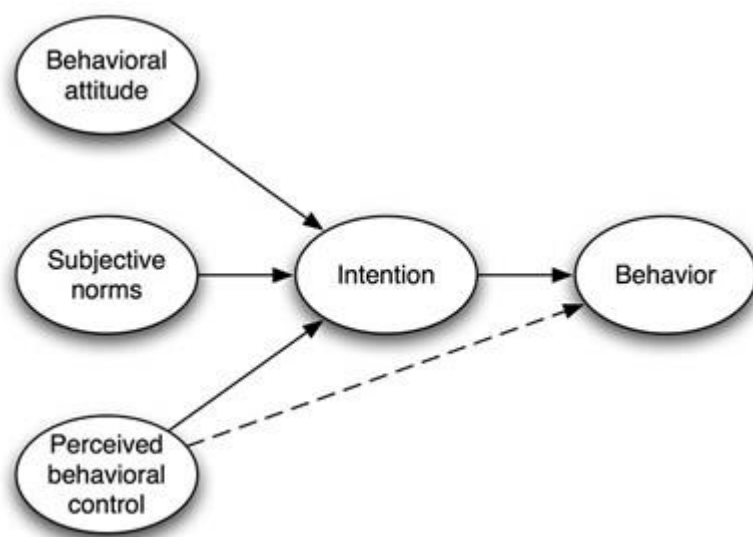

Figure 1. Schematic of the theory of planned behaviour constructs.

The theory distinguishes these three beliefs against three constructs of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control. (Ajzen, 1991, p198). Ajzen describes these constructs as 'personal evaluation of a behaviour (attitude), socially expected mode of conduct (subjective norm), and self-efficacy with respect to the behaviour (perceived behavioural control); (Ajzen, 1991, p199).

In the case of the Parkiteer campaign, the decision was made to leverage two of these constructs: attitudes and subjective norms.

Marketing Mix

To effectively evaluate the campaign it was important to hold as many variables as possible constant across the locations. As such, the campaign was limited to Parkiteer non-compliers registered at one of three Parkiteer stations in metropolitan Melbourne – Caulfield, Reservoir and Croydon cages. These cages were selected as they are similar in average daily cage usage and are all located in middle Melbourne suburbs. This enabled us to compare similar demographics across the cage locations.

A low budget communications campaign was designed with a mix of email, SMS, letter by post, and phone calls made to the target audience. The target audience for each group was split into five equal groups, each receiving a different form of communication as a way to evaluate which communication tool is most effective. Each form of communication contained the same message. A control group for each cage received our regular Parkiteer member newsletter but no additional communication specific to the campaign.

The message that was sent out, in a shorter version for the SMS is as follows:
We've noticed that you have not used the Parkiteer cage in the last 12 months. Recent research with Monash University found that Parkiteer cardholders who regularly use Parkiteer do so because they 'know it's the right or good thing to do'. We know that by using Parkiteer and riding to the station, you can become healthier, spend less money and stress less.

Your access card is still active. Commit to ride to the station at least one day next week and use the Parkiteer cage. Which day will you choose?

Partnerships (if relevant)

Bicycle Network worked in partnership with Behaviourworks (Monash Sustainability Institute) for research support and guidance on the project.

Evaluation and results

Evaluation is currently taking place and will be finalised by the end of June (in time for the conference!)

Lessons Learned

The partnership with Behaviourworks on this project has empowered the project team to be more confident with applying a theoretical framework to our work. In the past the theory applied to the program direction was Community Based Social Marketing (CBSM), (McKenzie-Mohr, 2011). Applying CBSM has been effective up until this point in developing an understanding of human behaviour, and using the simple five-step process in developing and evaluating campaigns. The theory, however, has not been fully embedded to the program, so the introduction of TPB as a framework to influence behaviors that are highly habituated has resonated with the Parkiteer team.

Undertaking pre-campaign background research and aligning this with a theoretical framework has forced the team to put aside any assumptions as what drives the target audience and instead rely on real data to develop campaigns. Having Behaviourworks on board also enabled the team to implement a very rigorous randomized control trial to help us to identify the most effective media channel.

Our discussions with Behaviourworks also served as a constant reminder that to achieve impact with the target audience, resources must be invested to talk to the target audience more frequently.

Conducting belief elicitation surveys in the initial research stages of the project, the team found speaking face-to-face to the non-compliers difficult. Phone surveys, however, were very successful and extremely insightful. We were able to gain more responses this way, and the respondents were very willing to provide their views on the Parkiteer system. It was also a more cost-effective use of time as compare to standing at a train station, and waiting to approach the right person in our target audience to talk to.

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Finding business justifications for increasing the affordability and assortment of fruit and vegetables in retail outlets

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Introduction

A diet high in fruit and vegetables is associated with numerous health benefits, including reduced incidences of cancer (Key, 2011; Reiss et al., 2012) and cardiovascular disease (Crowe et al., 2011; Scarborough et al., 2012). Unfortunately, in most Western countries, insufficient quantities of fruit and vegetables are consumed to realise these health benefits. Australians, for example, are advised to eat two serves of fruit and five serves of vegetables each day (National Health and Medical Research Council, 2013), yet only 52% and 10%, respectively, achieve these recommendations (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2009).

Although individual-level factors are usually examined as causes for low fruit and vegetable consumption (Weyers et al., 2010), retail-level variables, such as the price and assortment (i.e., variety and quality) of stocked fruit and vegetables also exert an influence. Osorio et al. (2013), for example, suggested that the affordability and quality of food offerings available to individuals may play a key role in their ability to be food secure (i.e., have consistent and dependable access to enough food for an active, healthy lifestyle).

While increasing the assortment and lowering the price of fruit and vegetables available in supermarkets may enhance consumption, there are a range of barriers that are likely to dissuade store managers from taking such actions. For example, expanding the stock of fruit and vegetables is associated with additional capital expenditures (e.g., refrigerated product displays) and increased energy, labour, and transportation costs relative to other product lines (Weitz, 2013). Moreover, the limited shelf-life of fruit and vegetables means that they are more likely than other products to be disposed of before they can be sold. In one UK supermarket chain, for instance, fruit and vegetables made up 21% of all food wastage, second only to baked goods (Tesco, 2013). Finally, many supermarkets are experiencing difficult trading conditions as a result of declining revenue growth and increasing competition (Burgio-Ficca, 2014). Thus, store managers may find it difficult to justify the expense of reducing the price and/or increasing the assortment of the fruit and vegetables that they stock.

A business justification for supporting additional investment in the stocking of fruit and vegetables must therefore be found if the retail-based barriers to the adequate consumption of fruit and vegetables are to be addressed. The basis for one such justification may lie in the fact that most stocked products vary little from one retail outlet to another and, as a consequence, are unlikely to influence store satisfaction. Fruit and vegetables are different, however, because of their variable quality and seasonal fluctuations in price. Put another way, fruit and vegetables provide a way for consumers to gauge whether a store is committed to providing high quality or affordably-priced products. Stores that offer a large assortment of fruit and vegetables at an affordable price may therefore engender greater store satisfaction than those that do not. There is some evidence to support this contention. In one study, for example, perceptions of produce quality and value for money were found to be important considerations when selecting one's preferred supermarket (Hutcheson & Moutinho, 1998). Similarly, Brown (2004) found that having a wide variety of products induced greater levels of supermarket loyalty among supermarket shoppers. The purpose of the current study was therefore to identify whether consumer evaluations regarding the price and assortment of stocked fruit and vegetables are associated with general store satisfaction. Such associations, if found, could provide a powerful motivation for store managers to voluntarily enhance the quality and affordability of stocked fruit and vegetables.

Method: Study 1

One hundred and fifty one adults residing in a suburb of Melbourne, Australia completed a computer-based street intercept survey. Six participants did not complete all study materials. The age of the remaining 145 participants (79.3% female) ranged from 19 to 89 years ($M = 41.10$, $SD = 16.17$). In the survey, participants were asked to separately evaluate the four stores in their local neighbourhood that sold fruit and vegetables. Participants evaluated the price and assortment (i.e., variety and quality) of the fruit and vegetables available at each store. Participants also evaluated their general satisfaction with each store.

Results and discussion

Multiple regression analyses were utilised to determine whether the perceived price and assortment quality of fruit and vegetables were associated with general store satisfaction. Results suggested that assortment quality was a significant predictor of general store satisfaction for each of the four stores located in the sampled community (see Appendix, Table 1). Price was also identified as a significant predictor of general store satisfaction for all but one of the stores. Most importantly, price and assortment explained between 61% and 79% of the variance in general store satisfaction. These findings therefore highlight the strong association that exists between general store satisfaction and the presence of a large assortment of well-priced fruit and vegetables.

Method: Study 2

A limitation of Study 2 was that it failed to account for variations in store patronage. As a result, price and assortment evaluations may have been made on the basis of hearsay or general community perceptions rather than from direct experience with each of the stores. A second study was therefore conducted to resolve this potential limitation.

One hundred and fifty six residents of a second Melbourne suburb completed a computer-based street intercept survey. Participants ranged in age from 18-83 years ($M = 43.96$, $SD = 14.52$), and a majority were female (69.9%). Participants completed the same items as those assessed in Study 1 for each of the three retail outlets stocking fruit and vegetables in that suburb. Participants were also asked to specify how often they shopped at each of the stores.

Results and discussion

In each of the multiple regression analyses, assortment was consistently identified as a significant predictor of general store satisfaction (see Appendix, Table 2). Price was also found to significantly predict general store satisfaction for one of the three stores. Patronage did not have a direct, main effect on store satisfaction, although significant price × patronage and assortment × patronage interaction effects were found for one of the stores. Post hoc assessment of the price × patronage interaction revealed that the relationship between price and general store satisfaction was greater among those who regularly shopped at the store. Conversely, for the assortment × patronage interaction, the association between assortment and general store satisfaction was higher among those who did not regularly shop at the store.

General discussion

On the basis of the current findings, store managers could improve general store satisfaction by increasing the assortment of the fruit and vegetables that they stock and, in some cases, the affordability of stocked fruit and vegetables. Increasing general store satisfaction could result in a range of beneficial business outcomes, including enhanced customer loyalty and retention (Bowen & Chen, 2001; Flint, Blocker, & Boutin, 2011), a greater incidence of repurchase behaviours (Oliver, 2010), and improved financial performance (Gomez, McLaughlin, & Wittinik, 2004; Williams & Naumann, 2011). Highlighting the benefits to businesses of investing in the assortment of stocked fruit and vegetables may therefore go some way towards reducing the retail-based barriers to fruit and vegetable consumption.

Appendix
Table 1. Influence of fruit and vegetable price and assortment on store satisfaction (Study 1).

Attribute	B	$SE\ B$	β	Adj. R^2
Store 1				.61
Price	.23	.05	.40***	
Assortment	.25	.06	.42***	
Store 2				.69
Price	.16	.03	.34***	
Assortment	.27	.03	.57***	
Store 3				.79
Price	.08	.05	.15	
Assortment	.40	.05	.75***	
Store 4				.66
Price	.21	.03	.44***	
Assortment	.25	.03	.46***	

***$p < .001$

Table 2. Influence of fruit and vegetable price and assortment, moderated by patronage, on store satisfaction (Study 2).

Attribute	B	$SE\ B$	β	Adj. R^2
Store 1				.67
Price	.22	.04	.49***	
Assortment	.32	.06	.49***	
Patronage	-.12	.14	-.04	
Price × assortment	-.02	.02	-.08	
Price × patronage	.02	.05	.04	
Assortment × patronage	-.16	.08	-.16	
Price × assortment × patronage	.00	.02	.00	
Store 2				.40
Price	.04	.05	.11	
Assortment	.33	.06	.58***	
Patronage	.09	.17	.04	
Price × assortment	.01	.03	.06	
Price × patronage	-.02	.06	-.04	
Assortment × patronage	.04	.08	.05	
Price × assortment × patronage	-.01	.03	-.03	
Store 3				.70
Price	.10	.05	.15	
Assortment	.42	.05	.73***	
Patronage	.07	.21	.02	
Price × assortment	.00	.01	.01	
Price × patronage	.44	.14	.27**	
Assortment × patronage	-.35	.13	-.27**	
Price × assortment × patronage	-.02	.03	-.05	

**$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$

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