1 THE KEY PRINCIPLES AND CONCEPTS OF SOCIAL MARKETING

ABOUT THIS CHAPTER

In this chapter we will consider what social marketing is, and how it is increasingly being used around the world by organisations in the public, private and NGO sectors to enhance the effectiveness of programmes designed to improve people's lives (French and Mayo, 2006).

Nearly every big policy challenge facing governments requires action to change behaviour (Australian Public Service Commission, 2007; Darnton, 2008). For example, obesity, alcohol misuse, infection control, recycling, saving for retirement and crime reduction are all essentially about helping people change to deliver better lives for individuals and at the same time helping society as a whole. At a population level, little progress is being made in many of these fields. Additionally, questions relating to the legitimacy of state intervention, in what can be considered private matters, are often raised (Reeves, 2010). More recently, the need to ensure value for money when investing government spending has also become a live debate (UK COI, 2009a).

As discussed in this chapter, governments and NGOs are becoming increasingly alert to emerging evidence from fields such as social psychology, behavioural economics and neural sciences, all of which are developing new evidence and theories around approaches to social behavioural change. In parallel with these developments, social marketing has, over the last 25 years, been developing a growing body of theory, evidence (Gordon et al., 2006) and experience that is starting to have a profound influence on the delivery of both national and local efforts to promote social good. Social marketing is, Nancy Lee suggested at the world social marketing conference in Brighton in 2008, a 'best of breed' approach to developing effective social change programmes that are based on sound evidence, user insight and systematic planning.

WHAT IS SOCIAL MARKETING?

The two words 'social' and 'marketing' can appear to be antagonistic. 'Social' programmes, politics and movements are about making the world a better place; whilst commercial-sector 'marketing' is the process of developing value and wealth for people who already possess resources and capital. The potential clash of basic philosophy is clear and raises the fundamental question: 'is it possible to apply any form of 'marketing'

thinking when attempting to tackle 'social' issues? We believe the answer to this question is 'yes'. In this chapter, we will review what social marketing is, and how it can enhance attempts to bring about social good. By working through the case studies in this book, we aim to clarify and demystify social marketing, so that the reader can develop a clear understanding of what social marketing is and is not. The reader should also be able to assess whether an intervention, regardless of what it is called, is or is not applying a social marketing approach. This is important not for any dogmatic or ideological reasons but rather because the key social marketing concepts and principles set out in this chapter and explored in this book are based on sound evidence and experience about what works and what does not.

In summary, this chapter provides an overview of key social marketing concepts and principles. These concepts and principles are reflected in the vignettes and case studies within this book. Chapter 2 goes on to describe a social marketing planning framework that embodies these key principles.

DEFINING SOCIAL MARKETING

In 1971 Kotler and Zaltman published social marketing: An approach to planned social change. This paper marked the first time the phrase 'social marketing' was used in an academic journal, but in reality social marketing approaches were being applied from the 1960s onwards, in both developing and developed countries.

There have been, and continue to be, a developing range of formal definitions of social marketing. For example:

> Social marketing is a programme planning process that promotes the voluntary behaviour of target audiences by offering benefits they want, reducing barriers they are concerned about and using persuasion to motivate their participation in program activity. (Kotler and Roberto, 1989)

> Social marketing is the application of commercial marketing technologies to the analysis, planning, execution, and evaluation of programs designed to influence the voluntary behaviours of target audiences in order to improve their personal welfare and that of their society. (Andreasen, 1995)

> Social marketing is the use of marketing principles and techniques to influence a target audience to voluntarily accept, reject, modify or abandon behaviour for the benefit of individuals, groups, or society as a whole. (Kotler et al., 2002)

Formal definitions vary across the literature, but three key elements commonly appear in the vast majority of these definitions:

- Social marketing's primary purpose is to achieve a particular social good (rather than commercial gain) and its primary focus is on achieving specific behavioural objectives.
- It consists of a finite and coherent set of concepts and principles that can be used in policy formulation, strategy development and implementation of social change programmes.
- It is a systematic process that is defined by learning and evaluation.

Social marketing, like any form of social endeavour, is accompanied by a lively and ongoing debate about its theoretical and practical base, and what should or should not be included under the title. However, authors increasingly agree that it has a number of defining principles and concepts and that it is a coherent approach that can be used to shape policy development and delivery in a broad range of public sector arenas.

Social marketing is also widely accepted to be a systematic planning and delivery methodology, drawing on techniques developed in the commercial sector, but also drawing on experience from the public and non-profit sectors about how to achieve and sustain positive behaviours and how to construct, deliver and evaluate effective programmes of action.

By the very nature of its focus – helping to influence behaviour for social good – social marketing needs to be a multi-disciplinary, trans-theoretical field of study and practical endeavour. Social marketing draws on many theories, models, research approaches, feeder disciplines and forms of analysis to build a rich understanding of why people act as they do and how we can help them to either maintain positive behaviours or change their behaviour for their own and society's benefit. Like commercial-sector marketing, social marketing applies a rigorous and systemic approach to developing, testing, refining and measuring return on investment.

Social marketing is a set of evidence and experience based concepts and principles together with a systematic approach to understanding behaviour and modifying it for social good. It is not a science but rather a form of 'technik' (from the German): a fusion of science, practical 'know-how' and reflective practice aimed at continuously improving the performance of social programmes. To reflect this assessment of the current state of social marketing theory and practice in this book, we use the functional definition of social marketing developed by French et al. (2010):

> Social marketing is the systematic application of marketing alongside other concepts and techniques, to achieve specific behavioural goals for social good.

THE WORDS MATTER LESS THAN THE APPLICATION OF THE PRINCIPLES

If you do an internet search for the term 'social marketing' you will quickly discover that it is used to describe a wide range of interventions, but especially social media, social advertising, or media advocacy. There is nothing wrong with any of these forms of intervention but they are not social marketing as we understand the term. In addition there are many forms of social programme, including civic-education programmes, mass-media information campaigns and community-engagement programmes, many of which apply elements of social marketing practice but not the full suite of principles. Again there is nothing wrong with such approaches but it is important to be clear about when a social marketing approach is being applied and when just specific elements of the social marketing approach are being applied to another form of intervention.

It is therefore important to look beyond the terms people use to describe their work, and to get to the substance of what they do and how they do it. The 'benchmark criteria' set out in this book act as a checklist to help review whether what you are doing, reading about or hearing about is consistent with social marketing principles or not.

Finally, it needs to be recognised that fully implementing the principles and planning processes of social marketing can represent a big challenge for any individual or organisation. There are few 'perfect' social marketing interventions that apply every single principle and systematically work their way through every step of a full planning process. Real issues such as deadlines, the need to spend money and pressures from policy makers, managers and communities often mean that compromises need to be made. This is the reality of developing and implementing social marketing interventions. The vignettes and case studies in this book demonstrate how it is possible to apply many of the principles of social marketing, whilst at the same time managing the real world pressures that every practitioner faces. The point is not to apply social marketing principles set out in this chapter in a mechanical way, but rather to apply them as a reflective practitioner, making judgements about what needs to be done in the particular circumstances that you find yourself in. Being clear about when and how you might need to make a few short cuts or compromises and what you can do to minimise the impact of these on the integrity of the programme is part of what you will gain from reading this book.

SOCIAL MARKETING BENCHMARK CRITERIA

The 'Customer Triangle' is a diagrammatic representation of the eight benchmark criteria that are described below (Figure 1.1).
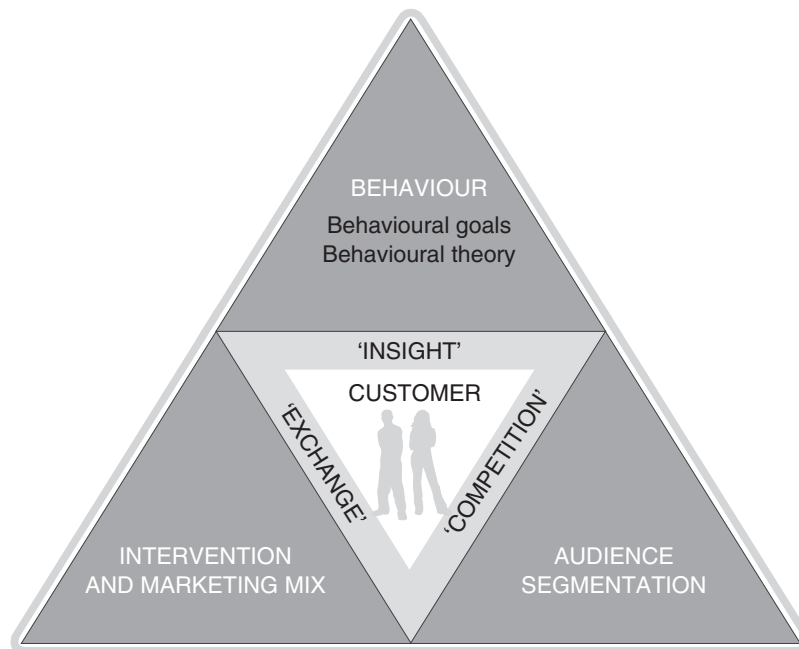

Figure 1.1   The Customer Triangle

Source: French and Blair-Stevens (2005).

These eight 'benchmarks' describe the key concepts and principles of social marketing, and include: Customer Orientation, Exchange, Competition Analysis, Insight, Theory, Behavioural Focus, Segmentation and Method Mix.

1 CUSTOMER ORIENTATION

This is about more than just understanding people. It involves 'seeing things through their eyes'. This means understanding people's social context, the challenges they face and their coping mechanisms. Adopting a customer orientation perspective requires finding out, through different types of audience research, about the lives, needs, fears, aspirations and concerns of your target audience. This should include direct research with the target audience, observation, collating intelligence from existing data and seeking the views of key people who understand or influence the audience. A key risk to avoid is assuming that we know what people want. The aim is to develop interventions that are informed by what we know will motivate people rather than starting from the premise that people need to understand and then change in line with what experts recommend.

2 BEHAVIOURAL FOCUS

The bottom line for social marketing is about measuring changes in behaviour. However, the focus is not just on 'changing' behaviour, but on being able to influence and sustain positive behaviours over time. This means that, in some instances, such as recycling, what we are aiming to do is to encourage people to keep doing a positive behaviour. Social marketing interventions recognise the dynamic and changing nature of behaviour and do not treat it as a simple on/off switch. They recognise that achieving sustainable behavioural change or maintenance requires sustained action. The establishment of clear measurable behavioural goals is one of the most important principles of social marketing. These goals need to be realistic and achievable. As Bill Novelli states:

> Picking the wrong goal is one of the mistakes non-profits repeat the most too often, people create an elegant plan around the wrong premise or the wrong goal. (Quoted in Fenton Communications, 2001)

A successful social marketing programme starts with very clear, realistic and measurable behavioural goals.

3 THEORY INFORMED

Theory is used in social marketing to inform both problem understanding and programme design. Selecting and using behavioural theory involves looking at the underlying ideas about what may influence behaviour in a given situation. A good example of using theory can be seen in the 'Liverpool's Challenge' case study in Chapter 6. The key principle of using theory in social marketing is to use it to understand significant influences on behaviour, and select a theory, or set of theories, that will help explain and pre-empt interventions that will influence target audience behaviour. Later in this chapter, we summarise 24 factors drawn from behavioural change theory and research that can be used as a checklist when analysing behavioural challenges and developing potential interventions.

4 DEVELOPING INSIGHT

'Insight' (IDEA and UK Local Government Association, 2008) is about moving from an initial focus on developing a broad understanding of the lives and behaviours of people towards a more focused, deeper understanding of what is or is not likely to engage a target audience or motivate them in relation to a particular behaviour. The key task is to identify 'actionable insights' which are meaningful to the audience and which the social marketer can do something about. Developing insight moves beyond selecting interventions based on evidence reviews, demographic data, and problem identification and mapping to incorporate understanding about why people act as they do and what they believe would help them to change. Insight is developed through a process of discovering why people behave in the way that they do, what they value and what they say about what will help them. Understanding beliefs, attitudes, barriers to change and potential enabling factors is key. It is also often very helpful to understand why some people carry out the positive behaviour you want to promote as these people can often provide vital clues about the benefits and costs involved.

5 UNDERSTANDING THE EXCHANGE

Rewards and barriers for both problem and desired behaviours need to be considered when planning a social marketing intervention in order to develop a valued exchange proposition. An exchange proposition is an offer that is made to a target audience, which they will value sufficiently to willingly bear the cost either of maintaining, or of changing, specific behaviours.

Benefits that result from an exchange in social marketing can either be tangible or intangible. Bagozzi (1975) suggests that social marketing is a form of 'complex exchange', where value or benefits tend to be intangible in nature. The emphasis on creating value through marketing activity is reflected in Vargo and Lusch's 'Service-dominant Logic Theory' (Vargo and Lusch, 2004; Lusch and Vargo, 2006). The focus of social marketing is on creating value for the 'customer' through every aspect of service delivery, rather than just providing a product. The value of a product is not in the physical product itself, but in the service, benefit or value it provides to the customer. This means that in social marketing the core product is the benefit people will get from undertaking the behavioural goal of the programme.

A key factor in developing a powerful exchange proposition is therefore to ensure that what is offered is something that is valued by the target audience, and not just those proposing the change. Sometimes exchanges are positive (i.e. people get a physical, social or psychological reward or benefit); sometimes exchanges can be negative (i.e. people will face a penalty, social disapproval or some other form of negative consequence if they continue to adopt a particular behaviour). In addition, some exchanges are 'passive' (i.e. they require little cognitive engagement), whilst others involve 'active' decision-making (i.e. a rational assessment of the exchange, and a conscious decision to act in a particular way).

Both positive/negative behavioural reinforcement and passive/active decision-making are spectrums rather than absolute categories. However, if we combine the notion of rewarding or penalising a behaviour with the notion of active or passive decision-making, it is possible to construct a 'value/cost exchange matrix' to represent these various forms of exchange (Figure 1.2).
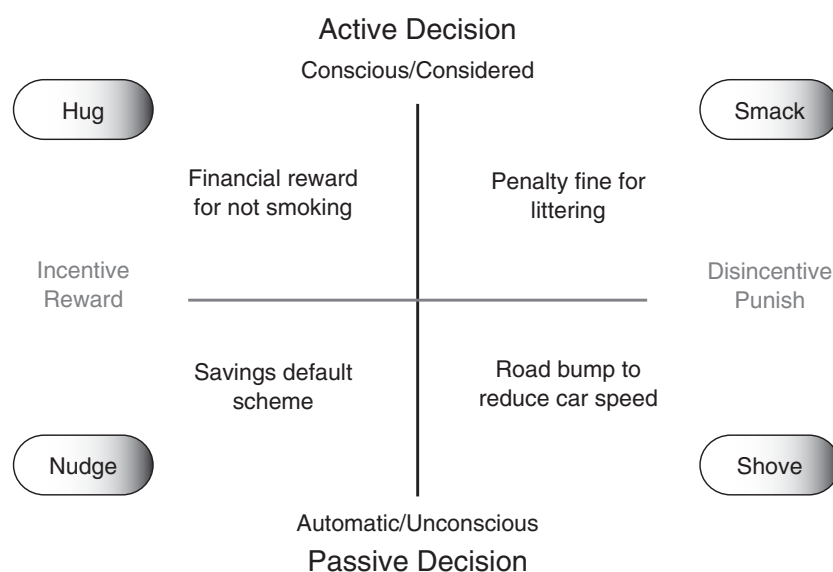
Figure represents a two-axis matrix. Vertical axis top: **Active Decision / Conscious/Considered**; vertical axis bottom: **Automatic/Unconscious / Passive Decision**. Horizontal axis left: **Incentive Reward**; right: **Disincentive Punish**. Quadrant labels: top-left **Hug** (Financial reward for not smoking), top-right **Smack** (Penalty fine for littering), bottom-left **Nudge** (Savings default scheme), bottom-right **Shove** (Road bump to reduce car speed).

Figure 1.2 Value/cost exchange matrix

Source: French (2010a).

Exchange requires a full appreciation of the real 'costs' and 'value' to the audience. This can include things such as time, effort, money and social consequences. The key aim with a positive exchange is to maximise the potential offer and its value to the audience, whilst minimising the costs of adopting, changing or maintaining a particular behaviour.

With negative exchanges the important issue is to make sure that the cost is one that has meaning to the target audience. For example, imposing a penalty fine that is set at a rate that the audience does not consider high enough, or where they believe there is little chance of being caught, will probably not bring about the desired change.

6 THE COMPETITION

When seeking to influence behaviour there will always be a range of competing factors that will work to undermine the desired change. A key social marketing principle is to understand what may be competing with what you are promoting. In social marketing, there are two main types of competition: external and internal competition. External competition comes from the influence of those people, environments, systems, social norms or organisations that directly or indirectly promote a counter-behaviour, or influence people to maintain an unhealthy or social undesirable behaviour. Competitive forces, such as anti-health advertising and promotions, negative social norms and stress-inducing environments make it harder to motivate people to adopt a desired behaviour. Internal competition includes such things as people's feelings and attitudes about something; the pleasure involved in the thrill of risk taking; the difficulty of giving up an ingrained habit; or addiction. Competition analysis in social marketing leads to the identification of countervailing forces and the systematic development of strategies to reduce the impact of these external and internal competitive forces.

7 SEGMENTATION

Segmentation is a social marketing process that involves assigning people to groups that exhibit similar characteristics, beliefs values and behaviours in order to develop specifically targeted interventions deigned to help them change behaviour. Traditionally, targeting of approaches has tended to concentrate on characteristics such as age, gender, ethnicity, income. Segmentation examines alternative ways that people can be grouped and profiled, for example by their beliefs, values and aspirations or by their actual behaviours. This process of grouping people with similar characteristics helps social marketers to understand both the differences between people, and the types of intervention that might help different groups to change. There is no single 'right way' to segment, but in social marketing programmes segmentations that focus on both behaviour and motivations are the most helpful when it comes to developing potential interventions.

8 METHODS MIX

The last key principle of social marketing is to develop a tailored, evidence- and insight-led mix of interventions, to bring about the desired behavioural goal. In most cases a single intervention is less likely to be effective than multi-component interventions. For example, just 'informing' someone of something may have some limited effect, but if this is combined with practical support and a chance to actively consider it with guidance (education) it is more likely to be effective. A key task in social marketing is then to establish the right mix of interventions given the available resources and time.

The intervention mix described by the de-CIDES intervention framework (French et al., 2010) can help guide the selection, coordination and combination of different intervention types that will be used in a programme. (See Figure 1.3 and Table 1.1.)
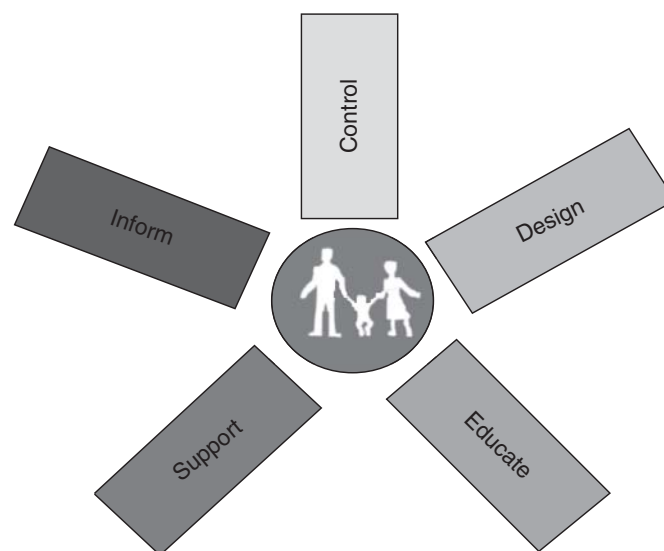

Figure 1.3   The de-CIDES five intervention domains

Source: French et al. (2010).

Table 1.1   The de-CIDES five intervention domains

INFORM/COMMUNICATE:

- **inform/communicate/prompt/trigger/remind/reinforce/awareness/explain**

EDUCATE:

- **enable/engage/train/skill development/inspire/encourage/motivate**

SUPPORT:

- **service provision/practically assist/promote access/social networks, social mobilisation**

DESIGN:

- **alter: physical, product, social, organisational, systems, technology**

CONTROL/REGULATE:

- **control/rules/require/constrain/restrict/police/enforce/regulate/legislate/incentivise**

If we combine these five domains of intervention with the four types of exchange, we are able to draw up an intervention matrix (see Figure 1.4) that can be populated with different types of intervention. The selected intervention mix should be informed by all available evidence, data and insight.

All of the case studies in this book use a combination of intervention types and different forms of exchange. You can use the matrix in Figure 1.4 to plot which combination each uses as you read the case studies. You can also use this intervention matrix to help describe and record the intervention mix for social marketing programmes that you develop.

As well as de-CIDES, another common way of thinking about the marketing mix is by referring to the 4Ps of marketing: Product, Price, Place and Promotion (Borden, 1964). Despite their age, the 4Ps are still used by both commercial and social marketers, to ensure that marketers focus on all four of the key marketing domains when developing interventions (Table 1.2).

	Hug	Nudge	Shove	Smack
Control				
Inform				
Design				
Educate				
Support				

Figure 1.4   The social marketing intervention mix matrix

Source: French (2010b).

Table 1.2 The 4Ps marketing mix

|	
Product	The thing being provided, i.e. the product or service. In social marketing terms, the programme, campaign, project, service, etc.
Price	A similar concept to 'Exchange'. What it costs the person to get the product or service – not just money – but also time, effort, social consequences, etc.
Place	Where the product or service can be delivered Where the customer can be reached/engaged Where the customer takes up the service or product
Promotion	The package of things that will highlight and promote the product or service – incentivise and encourage its adoption/purchase, the media promotion

The 4Ps have been criticised by some (e.g. Nelson, 2010) for focusing too heavily on the planner (rather than the target audience), and for putting 'product' first on the list of tasks. However the 4Ps are often used when planning social marketing interventions, providing a useful intervention checklist, and we have made reference to them in several chapters of this book to illustrate how they have been applied.

USING SOCIAL MARKETING STRATEGICALLY

The eight social marketing benchmarks outlined above form the core of what this book is about. The principles are reflected in our chosen case studies, and can be used as a guide to good practice as well as a useful checklist when developing social marketing interventions.

It is common for people initially to think of social marketing as something that is used to develop a particular programme or campaign. While this can be the case, it can also be used strategically to inform policy development, analysis and strategy selection.

Figure 1.5 illustrates how social marketing can be used strategically to assist policy analysis, support strategy development and then guide implementation and delivery, as well as operationally to plan programmes, campaigns or other interventions.
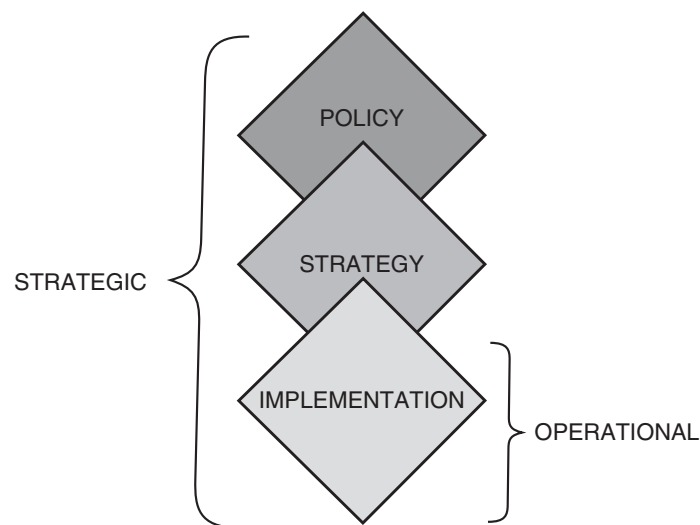
Figure 1.5 The social marketing process

In Chapter 2 we explore why and how social market principles can be applied to assisting with the development of policy and strategy in more depth.

INFLUENCING BEHAVIOUR

In addition to applying the social marketing principles set out above, social marketers also need to be aware of the growing evidence base about how to effectively change behaviour, and to have a working understanding of some of the underlying science of behavioural change. The issue of behaviour change, even for the social good, is not without its political, ethical and ideological dilemmas. Commentators, academics and politicians from all points along the political spectrum often feel uncomfortable with the idea that people's behaviour can be modelled, predicted or changed (Buchan, 1988). Many citizens also share this disquiet, principally unsettled by the fear that behaviour-change interventions imply that we can circumvent people's free will.

However as Ormerod (1988) contends, much of this perceived fear can be reduced by the knowledge that complex systems such as human behaviour, even if driven by what appear to be simple rules, result in behaviours that cannot be controlled or predicted in a very precise way. The best that we can currently say with assurance is that we have a certain amount of knowledge about why people act as they do; what can influence this; and how to develop and deliver programmes that have a greater chance of success. It must always be remembered, however, that it is unlikely that there will ever be a simple approach to behaviour change that will work in every circumstance.

There is strong evidence to demonstrate that what most of us know from experience: that simply telling someone to do something is no guarantee of success (Mulgan et al., 2004). We know, instead, that if we want to help people to change behaviours, we need to consider other factors such as looking at the timing, context and situation involved, all of which will influence whether someone is likely to follow what we propose. The tone and feel of the approach, along with the social context, can be hugely important. If others are supporting what you are proposing, this social effect on the person can be hugely important, particularly if the person values or appreciates the other people supporting a particular course of action.

PUTTING THEORY INTO PRACTICE

Recent findings from a variety of fields of study have all helped to expand and enhance our understanding of how and why people behave as they do.

This learning gives us a powerful set of principles, which can be used to help design more effective social change interventions. In particular, there is a much wider appreciation now that while behaviour can be 'rationale' and the result of conscious consideration, in practice many decisions flow from emotional engagement, social influence and environmental prompts.

What we now know is that many of the decisions we make that influence our behaviour are not the result of active decision-making. Rather, as discussed above, they are unconscious and automatic. These 'decisions' are influenced by our social and emotional contexts and by factors such as timing, and our physiological state. The following set of 24 principles

summarises much of what we currently know about influencing behaviour, drawn from fields of study that include management, psychology, policy development, economics, design, sociology, biology and communication studies:

1   Change in behaviour is usually a process not an event, and often entails several attempts before success. When delivering intervention programmes there is a need to be persistent, sustain interventions over time and offer multiple paths to success.

2   A desire or acceptance of the need for change must be present in the target audience. Some people will already want to change their behaviour; others will need to be persuaded to consider a change.

3   People need to feel involved and engaged. Participatory involvement often creates bigger behavioural change effects. Wherever possible, involve, consult and engage people in both designing and delivering interventions.

4   Active consideration often leads to more permanent change. If people have a chance to explore and consider issues, this often helps them reconsider attitudes and beliefs that help them change their behaviour or maintain a positive behaviour.

5   People can be taught critical thinking skills that can help them take more control over their lives and resist media, social and environmental influences on their behaviour.

6   People are often motivated to do the 'right thing' for the community as well as themselves and their families. Interventions that appeal to people's sense of community togetherness tend to be more successful.

7   Social relationships and social support have a strong and persistent influence on behaviour. Working with and through key influencers improves the impact of behaviour-change programmes. Use the power of group norms and behaviour to inform and engage people in change, let them know that others are changing and use the power of group action.

8   People can be 'locked into' patterns of behaviour and need practical help to break or unfreeze these. Programmes that provide practical support to change, are easy to access and require small steps tend to be more effective.

9   Beliefs and values influence how people behave. Programmes should start by understanding target audience beliefs and attitudes and use these to inform the development of behaviour change services and products.

10 Behavioural experience can influence beliefs and values. Programmes that move people to behaviour as quickly as possible, i.e. give them a chance to try the thing that is being promoted work best. It is not always necessary to rely on shifting attitude first. Often behaving differently often leads to a shift in attitude.

11 Change is more likely if an undesired behaviour is not part of an individual's coping strategy. Avoid 'telling people off' for 'bad' behaviour if they are using it to cope with life. Demonstrate an understanding of the reasons for their behaviour and offer realistic and attractive alternatives that give practical support to change.

12 People's perception of their own ability to change can either enhance or detract from attempts to change. So, it is best to develop services and support that will build people's confidence, knowledge and skills.

13 People's perception of their vulnerability to a risk and its severity is key to understanding behaviour and developing effective interventions. Focus on understanding people's perceptions and how they view the risks associated with the behaviour. Also focus interventions on people's views and frame risks in ways that they can understand and are meaningful to them.

14 People's perceptions of the effectiveness of the recommended behavioural change are key factors affecting decisions to act. This factor means that we need to set out – in terms that people value – the benefits and potential impact of the change that is being promoted.

15   People influence and are influenced by their physical, social and economic environments. There is a limit to a person's capacity to change if the environment militates against the desired change. Deliver programmes that tackle the underlying environmental, social and economic barriers to change as well as personal factors.

16   People are loss averse. They will put more effort into retaining what they have than acquiring new assets or benefits. Stress potential losses associated with the behaviour as well as the positive gains that can be accrued from change.

17   People often use mental short cuts and trial-and-error approaches to make decisions, rather than 'rational' decision-making. An understanding of these short cuts or heuristics should be used to develop interventions and develop new 'scripts' associated with the behaviour you are trying to influence.

18   The more beneficial or rewarding an experience, the more likely it is to be repeated. Maintaining positive behaviour can be assisted by reinforcement. Behavioural interventions should seek to reward desired behaviours and when appropriate penalise inappropriate behaviour. Interventions should also seek to support positive behaviour by maintaining a relationship with people which affirms their new behaviour and encourages them to build on it.

19   Many people are often more concerned with short-term gains and costs, and tend to place less value on rewards or costs that might happen in the future. Programmes should emphasise short-term as well as long-term benefits and seek to reduce short-term costs.

20   People are more likely to change behaviour if they value what is being offered or in the case of a negative penalty that the penalty has meaning and real consequences for them. Offers and penalties need to be presented in a way that people find meaningful and understandable.

21   Change is more likely if the actions that have to be taken are easy and specific. Making the first step to change very easy also helps engage people in the start of a change process. Keep interventions specific and promote them in a way that the target audience views as relevant and appealing.

22   People can be helped to change by designing services and environments in a way that encourages people to act and does not involve complex choice decisions. Design services and environments that encourage 'mindless choosing', i.e. by removing the need for complex choices, for example making only low or non-alcoholic drinks available at social functions will encourage fewer people to get drunk.

23   Many people are bad at computation and risk assessment. Many of us do not understand numbers, risk ratios or odds. Test the users' understanding of numerical and risk-based messages before using them. Convey risks and factual numeric information in ways that the target audience can understand and find compelling, for example the number of Olympic-sized swimming pools full of water that can be saved by fitting a low-volume flush toilet.

24   Communications and media can have a powerful effect on people's attitudes, beliefs and consequently behaviour. However, this effect is not mainly concerned with information transmission. Media can however help to build up impressions of relationships between issues, set the agenda for public debate and create emotional responses as well as transmit information.

This list is drawn from hundreds of papers and books, but the reader is directed to the following texts which provide useful summaries of state-of-the-art thinking: Hornick (2002), Ariely (2007), Brafman and Brafman (2009), Ciladidi (1994), Kahneman (2003), Dawney and Shah (2005), Thaler and Sunstein (2008), Mulgan et al. (2010), French et al.

(2010), Du Plessis (2005), UK COI (2009b, 2009c), Cottam and Leadbeater (2004), Design Council (2010), Challenger et al. (2009), Earls (2007), Grist (2010), Goldstein et al. (2007), Dolan et al. (2010).

This 24-point summary of common human traits and tendencies can be considered when planning and implementing social marketing interventions.

CHAPTER RECAP

The main features of social marketing can be understood by reference to the eight benchmark criteria set out in this chapter. Social marketing draws on many fields of study to develop client- or citizen-focused strategies for promoting behaviour change. There are very few perfect social marketing programmes that exhibit every feature set out in this chapter, but it is possible for programme designers and practitioners to apply as many of these evidence-based principles as possible.

In this chapter we have introduced the terminology and key social marketing concepts that we use throughout the following chapters. We have also agreed our definition of social marketing as:

The systematic application of marketing alongside other concepts and techniques to achieve specific behavioural goals for social good.

In the next chapter we will learn how to plan a social marketing programme, using the 'Total Process Planning Model'.

? SELF-REVIEW QUESTIONS

1 List the eight benchmark criteria for social marketing, and summarise the key characteristics of each.
2 Set out your own definition of social marketing in not more than 30 words.
3 List some of the key social marketing models that have been introduced in this chapter and some of the key features of each one.

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