

PUBLIC COMMUNICATION CAMPAIGN EVALUATION

An Environmental Scan of Challenges, Criticisms, Practice, and Opportunities

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SUMMARY	2
I. INTRODUCTION	4
A. Purpose.....	4
B. Methodology	4
II. PUBLIC COMMUNICATION CAMPAIGNS	5
A. Two Types of Campaigns	5
B. Individual Behavior Change Campaigns.....	6
C. Public Will Campaigns	7
D. Campaigns Types and Evaluation	10
III. EVALUATION CHALLENGES AND CRITICISMS	11
A. Evaluation Challenges and Stumbling Blocks.....	11
B. “Front-End” Versus “Back-End” Evaluation.....	12
C. Different Perspectives and Criticisms of the Field	14
IV. CAMPAIGN EVALUATION PRACTICE	17
A. Theory.....	17
B. Outcomes and Measures.....	20
C. Methods	25
V. OPPORTUNITIES AND THE ROAD AHEAD	29
A. Knowledge Development.....	29
B. Evaluation Tools	31
C. Exploratory Evaluation Investments.....	32
REFERENCES	35

SUMMARY

I. INTRODUCTION

As public communication campaigns grow more sophisticated and strategic, evaluation is not keeping pace with their innovation. While funders are asking for more information on results, evaluators are grappling with how to make their way in this developing and challenging field. They are trying to understand the strategies and theories that guide campaigns and how to choose the right outcomes and methods to assess them.

II. PUBLIC COMMUNICATION CAMPAIGNS

- A. Definition** – Public communication campaigns use the media, messaging, and an organized set of communication activities to generate specific outcomes in a large number of individuals and in a specified period of time. They are an attempt to shape behavior toward desirable social outcomes. To maximize their chances of success, campaigns usually coordinate media efforts with a mix of other interpersonal and community-based communication channels.
- B. Individual Behavior Change and Public Will Campaigns** – There are two main types of campaigns: (1) *individual behavior change campaigns* that try to change in individuals the behaviors that lead to social problems or promote behaviors that lead to improved individual or social well-being and (2) *public will campaigns* that attempt to mobilize public action for policy change. Public will campaigns are less understood, but are increasing rapidly in number.

III. EVALUATION CHALLENGES AND CRITICISMS

- A. Challenges and Stumbling Blocks** – Public communication campaigns are difficult to evaluate because: (1) they have horizontal and vertical complexity, (2) their interventions are unpredictable, (3) context and other factors confound outcomes, (4) control or comparison groups are difficult to create, (5) there is a lack of knowledge and precision about outcomes, and (6) evaluators lack the necessary tools.
- B. Front-End Versus Back-End Evaluation** – There are four basic types of evaluation: formative, process, outcome, and impact. Formative is referred to as “front-end” evaluation; process, outcome, and impact make up “back-end” evaluation. Front-end evaluation of campaigns is more advanced than back-end evaluation.
- C. Different Perspectives and Criticisms of the Field** – There is not complete agreement about the state of the campaign evaluation field and what direction it should take in the future. Those who subscribe to the *causal paradigm* feel the field is in need of more outcome and impact evaluation and should use rigorous methodology to deliver definitive answers about what works and whether the campaign caused its intended effects. Those who subscribe to the *social change paradigm* feel that evaluation should be more practical and process-oriented, delivering information that can be channeled quickly back into the campaign as it is implemented.

IV. CAMPAIGN EVALUATION PRACTICE

- A. Theory** – Evaluators use theory to understand campaigns and to guide evaluation design and practice. Theories are drawn from the public health, social psychological, communications, and clinical disciplines. Theories used to guide campaign evaluations include the Theory of Reasoned Action, Social Cognitive Theory, Health Belief Model, and Stages of Change Model. Theories particularly applicable to public will campaigns include Agenda Setting, Framing, and Priming.
- B. Outcomes and Measures** – There are many more relevant outcomes for public communication campaign evaluation than just the usual suspects: knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors. Process evaluation can assess campaign distribution, placement, and exposure. Outcome evaluation can assess knowledge/awareness, saliency, attitudes, norms, self-efficacy, behavioral intentions, behavior, skills, and environmental constraints. Outcomes particularly relevant to public will campaigns include media frames and policy change. Impact evaluation can capture the long-term outcomes of behavior change and systems-level outcomes.
- C. Methods** – Some evaluation methods are uniquely suited for communications evaluation. Process evaluation uses newspaper, television and radio tracking, website monitoring, ad assessments, and case studies. Outcome evaluation uses direct response tracking, framing analysis, and rolling sample surveys. Impact evaluation uses experimental or quasi-experimental research designs.

V. OPPORTUNITIES AND THE ROAD AHEAD

- A. Knowledge Development** – The dissemination of knowledge about available *theory* to guide campaign evaluations, and the development of theory on public will campaigns are particular needs. *Knowledge transfer and dissemination* from the commercial sector, international campaigns, failures, and successes are also needs. Another idea is *field building* that involves practitioners, for profit companies serving nonprofits, evaluators, and sponsors. And finally, theory, outcomes, and methods *education* can combat the lack of awareness about available evaluation options.
- B. Evaluation Tools** – For those struggling with evaluation design and implementation, tool development in the way of *decision aids* or *principles* and *planning and design supports* like logic models may be useful. In addition, nonprofits and evaluators may benefit from knowing more about and being able to access and use *data* sets that are available to the commercial advertising sector.
- C. Exploratory Evaluation Investments** – This is an appeal for evaluations that lead to new and valued learning in this field. Ideas include more *experiments* or *quasi-experiments* to determine what works, or *participatory and learning evaluations* in which the campaign practitioners and evaluators work together throughout the campaign's life and contribute information that can be channeled back into the campaign for continuous improvement. In addition, investments in *public will campaign evaluation* would force the development of new models and knowledge about how to approach the challenges that are unique to these campaigns (i.e., integrating theory to guide evaluation and measuring policy change).

I. INTRODUCTION

Public communication campaigns are growing more sophisticated and strategic. While there is still much progress to be made, campaign designers have begun to diversify their strategies and abandon the notion that information alone is the cure-all for society's behavioral ills. As a result, campaigns are decreasingly based only on the flawed notion that people will improve if they just know better. More campaigns are paying attention to context and linking their traditional media and behavior change strategies with on-the-ground community action to make the social and policy environment more supportive of the desired campaign results.

Evaluation of these efforts, however, has not kept pace with their innovation. At the same time funders are becoming more focused on results, we are still in the early stages of understanding how best to grapple with what many have called a "fuzzy" area of evaluation (Gould, 1996). Evaluators are trying to understand better the strategies and theories that guide campaigns, the right outcomes to measure, and appropriate methodologies to use in an increasingly sophisticated media and information-saturated world. Supports for both evaluators and nonprofit campaign planners and implementers trying to make their way in this field are lacking, with no definitive guides or mechanisms for learning what paths others have taken and what has been learned along the way.

A. Purpose

This paper presents the results of an environmental scan of what has been happening in the field of public communication campaign evaluation in recent years and what choices evaluators have been making in terms of their evaluation designs and methods. Drawing on pertinent research and evaluation studies, literature, and expert evaluator and practitioner opinions, it examines evaluation challenges, criticisms, and practice. It also maps potential opportunities for the road ahead.

B. Methodology

This research involved an exemplary, rather than a comprehensive, scan of public communication campaign evaluation practice. Primary research questions were:

- What are the challenges and current criticisms of evaluation in this field?
- What does the field look like? What are the characteristics of existing campaign evaluations—in terms of theory, methodology, and outcomes?
- What opportunities lay ahead for improving evaluation? What immediate and longer-term investments are needed?

Methods included: (1) a literature review primarily in the fields of evaluation, communications, social psychology, public health, and social marketing,¹ (2) key informant interviews with individuals knowledgeable about this topic, and (3) an examination of past and present campaigns and where possible their evaluations. Appendix A lists key informants and campaigns reviewed.

¹ One limitation of the literature review is that the published literature does not represent the full spectrum of campaign evaluation work. Non-published evaluations and techniques were reviewed whenever possible, but the literature review could not capture the full range of evaluation being done as many reports and articles have not been published or placed on the Web.

II. PUBLIC COMMUNICATION CAMPAIGNS

Public communication campaigns use the media, messaging, and an organized set of communication activities to generate specific outcomes in a large number of individuals and in a specified period of time (Rogers & Storey, 1987).² Public communication campaigns are an attempt to shape behavior toward desirable social outcomes (Weiss & Tschirhart, 1994). Those behaviors might include eating right, drinking less, recycling, breastfeeding, reading to our children, getting a mammography, voting, or volunteering. The outcomes of those behaviors—the campaigns’ ultimate goals—may include healthier individuals, families, and communities or specific policy results that lead to better outcomes for individuals, families, or communities.

Very rarely do public communication campaigns feature *only* communications through media channels. “Promotion is only part of the ‘marketing mix’” (Balch & Sutton, 1997, p. 64). Usually they coordinate media efforts with a diverse mix of other communication channels, some interpersonal and some community-based, in order to extend the reach and frequency of the campaign’s messages and increase the probability that messages will successfully result in a change (Dungan-Seaver, 1999).

Gary Henry, Director of Georgia State University’s Applied Research Center and an evaluator who has worked with campaigns, calls this mix of communication channels the “air” and “ground” strategies. The air strategy is the public media campaign and the ground strategy uses community-based communications or grassroots organizing. A good example of a ground strategy comes from the Centers for Disease Control’s (CDC) AIDS Community Demonstration Projects. Faced with the challenge of reducing the risk of HIV transmission among ethnically diverse, hard-to-reach, and high-risk populations,³ this campaign used volunteer networks of peers from the target audiences and other trusted community members to relay its messages and small media materials, along with condoms and bleach use kits (Fishbein, et al., 1997). Messages conveyed through an air strategy alone would not have worked; the situation called for a ground strategy that had a fighting chance of reaching the intended audiences in ways that mattered. As the next section shows, a ground strategy can also involve organizing and mobilizing people for policy change that will support the campaign’s main messages.

All campaigns are different and use different interventions. The common thread running through them is their focus on similar results—trying to influence what people think, think about, and do.

A. Two Types of Campaigns

Various literature and thinking about public communication campaigns makes a distinction between two types of campaigns based on their primary goals: individual behavior change versus public will and political change (e.g., Dungan-Seaver, 1999; Henry & Rivera, 1998). Table 1 lists characteristics of these two campaign types.

² The term “public communication campaigns” is used as a catchall to include what the literature and experts variously refer to as public information, public education, public awareness, or public engagement campaigns.

³ The target audiences included men who have sex with men but do not gay identify, injecting drug users not recruited from treatment programs, female partners of male injecting drug users, female prostitutes or sex traders, and youth in high-risk situations.

Table 1. Two Types of Media Campaigns

Campaign Type/Goal	Individual Behavior Change	Public Will
Objectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Influence beliefs and knowledge about a behavior and its consequences ▪ Affect attitudes in support of behavior and persuade ▪ Affect perceived social norms about the acceptability of a behavior among one's peers ▪ Affect intentions to perform the behavior ▪ Produce behavior change (if accompanied by supportive program components) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Increase visibility of an issue and its importance ▪ Affect perceptions of social issues and who is seen as responsible ▪ Increase knowledge about solutions based on who is seen as responsible ▪ Affect criteria used to judge policies and policymakers ▪ Help determine what is possible for service introduction and public funding ▪ Engage and mobilize constituencies to action
Target Audience	Segments of the population whose behavior needs to change	Segments of the general public to be mobilized and policymakers
Strategies	Social marketing	Media advocacy, community organizing, and mobilization
Media Vehicles	Public service/affairs programming: print, television, radio, electronic advertising	News media: print, television, radio, electronic advertising
Examples	Anti-smoking, condom usage, drunk driving, seat belt usage, parenting	Support for quality child care, after school programming, health care policy

B. Individual Behavior Change Campaigns

These campaigns, also called public information or public education campaigns,⁴ strive to change in individuals the behaviors that lead to social problems or the behaviors that will improve individual or social well-being. Well-known campaigns in this category target behaviors such as smoking, drug use, recycling, designated driving, seat belt usage, or fire (Smokey Bear) and crime prevention (McGruff the Crime Dog). Many come from the public health arena, but this type of campaign has branched out into other areas such as education, criminal justice, and early childhood. Examples include:

⁴ Public information campaigns are usually government sponsored, while public education campaigns are usually sponsored by nonprofits.

National Youth Anti-Drug Media Campaign (www.mediacampaign.org)

The Office of National Drug Control Policy instituted this campaign in 1998 to educate and enable the youth in this country to reject illegal drugs (especially marijuana and inhalants) and alcohol and tobacco. This enormous research-based effort uses television, radio, online and print advertising, school-based educational materials, and partnerships with civic and faith-based organizations to send its messages to all youth ages 9-18 and their parents.

Adults and Children Together Against Violence (www.actagainstviolence.org)

The American Psychological Association (APA) and the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) teamed up in 2000 with the Ad Council to create this national campaign to teach parents, teachers, and caregivers about the effects of their violent or aggressive behavior on children. The campaign features a multimedia campaign with public service announcements, educational materials, and campaign kits, and community training programs.

Voluntary Ozone Action Program (www.voap.org - forthcoming)

The Environmental Protection Division of Georgia's Department of Natural Resources began this campaign in 1997 to promote actions that would improve air quality in Atlanta from May to September by reducing behaviors that contribute to ground-level ozone. It is targeted to employers and employees and promotes education, attitude change, and behavior change (e.g., not driving during rush hour, speeding, or topping off the gas tank).

Many, if not most, individual behavior change campaigns use a social marketing approach. This now well-known approach is grounded in commercial marketing techniques. With a non-wavering focus on the "customer," it markets behavior change. How the customer thinks and acts continuously shapes the marketing process (see Andreasen, 1995 for a thorough description).

C. Public Will Campaigns

This second type of public communication campaign focuses on creating *public will* that will motivate public officials to take policy action. This type of campaign is becoming increasingly common, yet there is far less understanding about what it is, much less how it should be evaluated.

A public will campaign attempts to legitimize or raise the importance of a social problem in the public eye as the motivation for policy action or change (Henry & Rivera, 1998). It focuses less on the individual who is performing the behavior (i.e., the smoker, polluter, drug user), and more on the public's responsibility to do something that will create the environment needed to support that behavior change. For this reason it is sometimes also referred to as a public engagement campaign.

According to Ethel Klein, pollster and longtime campaign strategist, public will campaigns are sometimes borne out of individual behavior change campaigns. For example, the anti-smoking movement and campaigns began by focusing on smokers themselves. Once these campaigns "hit a wall" on the results they were achieving in terms of getting smokers to quit, they turned to the public to create an environment that would pressure smokers around them to stop. This included focusing on the dangers of secondhand smoke to create the will and rationale needed to get

smoking officially banned in most public places. Some campaigns now use an individual change and public will component in tandem (Atkin, 2001).⁵

The basic theory of change that underlies most public will campaigns with policy change as an outcome is based on the agenda-setting process, which encompasses media, public, and policy agenda setting, in that order (Bohan-Baker, 2001a), and integrates framing, agenda setting, and priming theory (described later). The idea is that the policy agenda is influenced by what the public thinks, cares about, and does. Public thinking and acting, in turn, are thought to be influenced at least in part by the media. So public will campaigns try to ignite a chain reaction of sorts in the agenda-setting process. They do this primarily on two fronts: by working to influence what's on the media's agenda and how issues get reported (e.g., using media advocacy) and by communicating to the public directly. Public will campaigns typically coordinate these efforts with more traditional organizing and policy advocacy work to bolster possibilities that the intended policy outcomes are reached.

Examples of public will campaigns include:

Choices for Youth Campaign (www.preventviolence.org)

The California Wellness Foundation began this public awareness effort to prevent violence against youth in 1992. Using a multimillion-dollar public education campaign and community-based programming, this effort aims to reframe handgun violence as a public health issue and shift the focus to youth as victims of violence rather than the perpetrators (Edgar, 2001). The initiative's first phase, called the Campaign to End Handgun Violence for Youth and led by Martin & Glantz, used mailings, television, polling, media briefings, and videoconferencing to educate and inspire people to action. The campaign, now called Choices for Youth, is still being implemented (now by i.e. communications) and cites California's tough gun control laws and changing public opinions about gun control as indicators of its effectiveness.

The Truth Campaign (www.thetruth.com)

Funded by the American Legacy Foundation since 1999, the mission of this aggressive campaign is to raise awareness about misinformation from cigarette companies, and to give people the tools to have a voice in changing that. It is largely geared toward youth and uses photography, print, television, radio, and Web advertising. The campaign is probably best known for its controversial television commercial that features youth putting body bags in front of a tobacco company building.

There's No Excuse for Domestic Violence (www.endabuse.org)

Supported by the Family Violence Prevention Fund in San Francisco and in partnership with the Ad Council, this campaign believes that stopping domestic violence requires changes in the social norms and context that allow domestic violence to exist. It asks those around battered victims, like friends, family, and co-workers, to take action. A similar campaign funded and developed by the same partners called Teach Early focuses on getting men to teach boys that violence against women is wrong.

The goal of these campaigns, as their name implies, is to build *public will*. Therefore the measure of a campaign's success is the extent to which it in fact accomplishes that goal. In order for

⁵ See, for example, Voices for Illinois Children's campaign, Start Early: Learning Begins at Birth, or the California Commission on Children and Families public education efforts around Proposition 10.

evaluation to be able to assess public will, it is important first to define it. Public will does not, however, have a precise definition. Some, for example, equate public will with public awareness or public education. According to the Center for Assessment and Policy Development (CAPD), it means more than that (Leiderman, Wolf, & York, 2000).

CAPD says public will is an expression of how the public both *feels* and *acts*. For example, public will on issues that affect children and families may be a community-wide, shared sense of ownership of the well-being of children and families *and* a shared commitment to make the necessary changes to improve it. Ethel Klein agrees with this definition and says that public will shares much more in common with public engagement than with education and awareness.

CAPD defines public will *work* as the steps required to change behaviors that influence social outcomes. It involves messaging, organizing, and advocacy targeted at individual and collective beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors. Public will work can include efforts to educate or inform the public with the intent of having them support or oppose actions at a programmatic, system, or policy level. According to Ethel Klein, “All public engagement campaigns have to figure out what it is that they want the public to do; legislation is often a piece of that.” This can mean more than calling one’s legislator to express a position; it can mean encouraging individuals to behave in a way that creates the necessary *social context* for change and to create the necessary rationale for policy change. For example, the There’s No Excuse for Domestic Violence Campaign asks friends, family members, and co-workers to take action to stop the violence of the battered victims they know. It also has a component targeted to men encouraging them to teach boys not to commit violence against girls and women. When it becomes more than just the victims’ responsibility for ending the violence, this helps create the rationale for policies that help put an end to domestic abuse.

With this definition, public will is more than just public opinion or awareness. It is the willingness to *act* in support of how a person feels about an issue. Effective communications campaigns let people know the actions they want people to take. They should be actions that reinforce policy agendas and that people can undertake in their own backyards (Gould, 1996). This linking of public will to behavior is important because it has implications for how these types of campaigns are evaluated.

A Note About Public Will Campaign Design

This definition of public will also has important implications for public will campaign design. The behavioral link is key. Some campaigns say they are building will, but simply provide information about an issue and then do not spur the audience to act. While “the impact of information on behaviors has a special place in the lore” (Henry & Rivera, 1998, p. 15) of campaigns, campaign results and research show that knowing more about an issue does not have a direct effect on behavior (Fishbein, et al., 1993). Raising public awareness can be an important part of a campaign, but awareness and knowledge without action will go only so far. As George Perlov, Director of Planning and Research at the Ad Council, put it:

Obviously our campaigns on safety belts are pretty straightforward—there’s a “Here’s what you need to do.” And that’s what we really strive for, what we really push our sponsors for, because with some of these campaigns on child abuse prevention or after school programs or community schools, you know you look at some of these ads and say, “What do you want me to do here?” We have to really push our sponsors to make sure that when the public sees the ads they’ll know what’s being asked of them.

The lamenting of many advocates about the lack of a broad social movement for children's issues, for example, may be connected to this issue. While many issues impact the will of the public to act on children's behalf (e.g., salience and sense of responsibility), another may be that the public is not effectively being told what to *do*. For example, once people get brain research and that the early years are important, what do they do about it, especially if they do not have young children? Leiderman, Wolf, and York (2000) note that a basic implication from its work on public will is that "we need to continue to develop outcome-oriented public will efforts" (p. 7). While a discussion of whether most public will campaigns are designed appropriately to achieve their intended effects extends beyond the scope of this report, it is an issue that deserves more attention and critical reflection.

D. Campaigns Types and Evaluation

While not a lot has been published about the evaluation of either type of campaign, much more literature exists on individual behavior change campaigns and their social marketing techniques, particularly in the public health arena. Because individual change and public will campaigns typically share some of the same outcomes—awareness, saliency, attitudes, social norms or context, and ultimately behavior or action—and some of the same communication techniques (e.g., print, radio advertising), they share some things in common when it comes to evaluation. Just as Leiderman, Wolf, and York (2000) suggest that social marketing provides a good framework for understanding and designing public will work, evaluations of campaigns that use social marketing techniques (most individual behavior change campaigns) provide lessons for evaluating public will campaigns.

The findings and points in the next sections apply to both types of campaigns, but draw primarily from the literature on individual behavior change campaign evaluation. Instances are noted where the type of campaign has implications for evaluation, for example, in terms of outcomes measured and methods used.

III. EVALUATION CHALLENGES AND CRITICISMS

Evaluations of public communication campaigns have been characterized as “notoriously unsatisfying” (Dungan-Seaver, 1999), “not useful” (Balch & Sutton, 1997), and “in need of a new paradigm” according to Sharyn Sutton of the Washington D.C.-based Sutton Group. These are some of the challenges and criticisms behind these unflattering characterizations.

A. Evaluation Challenges and Stumbling Blocks

It almost goes without saying that the evaluation of public communication campaigns is hard work. More important, are the reasons *why*.

Some of the challenges that make comprehensive community initiative evaluation difficult (Connell, Kubisch, Schorr, & Weiss, 1995; Fulbright-Anderson, Kubisch, & Connell, 1998), similarly afflict public communication campaigns. These include:

Horizontal and Vertical Complexity – Public communication campaigns often aim simultaneously for outcomes across a number of sectors: social, physical, economic, and political (horizontal complexity). They may also aim for outcomes at the cognitive, individual behavior, community, or systems levels (vertical complexity) (Rice & Foote, 2001). As William Novelli (1998), former president of the National Center for Tobacco-Free Kids, says, “Change must be broad in order to be deep” (p. 5). Many campaigns aim simultaneously for (1) *environmental* change (through public policy and agenda setting), (2) *community* level change (by affecting norms, expectations, and public support), and (3) *individual behavior* change (through skill teaching, positive reinforcement, and rewards).

The Unpredictable Nature of the “Intervention” – While campaign designers may carefully plan their campaigns, at least some aspects of the intervention will almost always be unscripted and unpredictable. For example, as George Perlov noted, Ad Council campaigns have to deal with donated media time. As a result their ads do not get the push that paid advertisers get and the process for campaign rollout and results can be unpredictable and slow. Also, it is hard to determine with the diffuse media of television, radio, or the Internet who has been reached by the campaign and by what aspects of the campaign (the treatment) and how much (dosage). Measures are imperfect and the intervention may be different for every individual reached, making it difficult to understand what about the intervention worked and for whom.

Context and Confounding Influences – Public communication campaigns are designed to affect outcomes that are affected by a complex and broad set of factors. “Reasonable behavior change expectations for which communications can be held accountable and evaluated to some extent include the usual hierarchy of effects: awareness, knowledge, attitudes, intentions, reported behavior, behavior. The further down this list, the more other variables come into play” (Balch & Sutton, 1997, p. 65). As a result, it is difficult to isolate the effects of information campaigns on outcomes that are bombarded by many competing influences (Weiss & Tschirhart, 1994).

Access to Appropriate Control or Comparison Groups – Campaigns typically have a broad scope and are intended to reach entire communities or segments of the population.

The most rigorous research designs—experimental designs, which allow us to draw more definitive conclusions about the impact of a campaign—require random assignment of individuals to “treatment” and “control” groups. It can be difficult to create a control group of individuals who have not been reached in some way by the campaign. Quasi-experimental designs, which do not require random assignment, but do require a comparison group or comparisons, face similar issues (though there are ways to deal with this as the section on methods illustrates). While experimental or quasi-experimental designs are not essential, without them it becomes difficult to say whether outcomes are the result of the campaign or would have occurred without it.

Lack of Knowledge or Precision About Outcomes – There is surprisingly little knowledge about appropriate outcomes for public communication campaigns, the different kinds of outcomes and their relative explanatory value, what to expect and when (short-term versus longer-term outcomes), and how those outcomes fit together using theory. This is one of the biggest problems for campaign evaluations, and especially for public will campaigns faced with the challenge of assessing policy change. In addition, common campaign outcomes, like attitudes or behavior, can in fact be quite tricky to measure. At times measures are not appropriate or get labeled incorrectly. Psychologists have been working for decades on how to measure behavior change and the many variables known to affect it, yet this knowledge often does not get applied in campaign evaluations. As a result, some evaluations make claims of success based on inappropriate assessments.

Lack of the Necessary Tools – Gary Henry at Georgia State University notes that because we are still in the early stages of understanding how to evaluate campaigns better, the tools available for this work are “vastly deficient.” These needed tools include appropriate methods for assessing communication technologies, and understanding what methods fit best with still poorly understood outcomes. An example of a new and potentially useful tool was employed by Henry & Gordon (2001) who used of rolling sample surveys for assessing different types of outcomes like salience or other attitudes over time.

B. “Front-End” Versus “Back-End” Evaluation

Evaluation can be categorized into four basic types.⁶ Table 2 presents each, along with their definitions and the sorts of evaluation questions that each type may address (National Cancer Institute, 1992). The first type—formative evaluation—represents front-end evaluation; the last three types—process, outcome, and impact evaluation—represent back-end evaluation.

⁶ Evaluation can actually be categorized into any number of evaluation types. These represent commonly used and accepted broad categories among evaluators.

Table 2. Four Evaluation Types

Evaluation Type	Definition/Purpose	Example Questions
1. Formative	Assesses the strengths and weaknesses of campaign materials and strategies before or during the campaign's implementation.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ How does the campaign's target audience think about the issue? ▪ What messages work with what audiences? ▪ Who are the best messengers?
2. Process	<i>Measures effort</i> and the direct outputs of campaigns—what and how much was accomplished. Examines the campaign's implementation and how the activities involved are working.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ How many materials have been put out? ▪ What has been the campaign's reach? ▪ How many people have been reached?
3. Outcome	<i>Measures effect</i> and changes that result from the campaign. Assesses outcomes in the target populations or communities that come about as a result of grantee strategies and activities. Also measures policy changes.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Has there been any affective change (beliefs, attitudes, social norms)? ▪ Has there been any behavior change? ▪ Have any policies changed?
4. Impact	<i>Measures community-level change</i> or longer-term results that are achieved as a result of the campaign's aggregate effects on individuals' behavior and the behavior's sustainability. Attempts to determine whether the campaign caused the effects.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Has the behavior resulted in its intended outcomes (e.g., lower cancer rates, less violence in schools)? ▪ Has there been any systems-level change?

Formative evaluation is the collection of information that helps to shape the campaign. Similar to the practical marketing research approaches and methods that commercial marketers use (Balch & Sutton, 1997), it is usually done during the campaign's creative design phase. This approach helps to define the scope of the problem, identifies possible campaign strategies, provides information about the target audience, senses what messages work best and how they should be framed, determines the most credible messengers, and identifies the factors that can help or hinder the campaign (Valente, 2001). Commonly this involves testing issue awareness and saliency through public polling, or messages and materials through interviews and focus groups.

Process evaluation is the least resource-intensive type of back-end evaluation. It assesses campaign implementation or how well a campaign was delivered. Process evaluation can be done fairly efficiently for virtually every campaign, and much of it can be done using services that are designed to do this kind of work. This involves tracking things like materials distribution or amount of media time bought or earned. More difficult to capture process measures include estimates of how many people the campaign reached, or the campaign's exposure. While process evaluation is important, it does not capture campaign *effects* and is not meaningful from an impact or causal point of view.

Outcome evaluation requires more time, resources, and methodological rigor. It involves measuring the outcomes in the target population—usually at least before (pre) and after (post) the campaign’s implementation and often at several points between—that the campaign was designed to affect, like attitude, behavior, or policy change.

Impact evaluation is usually most resource-intensive of the evaluation types to design and implement. Using rigorous research designs (usually experimental or quasi-experimental), it determines with as much certainty as is allowed whether the campaign affected the outcomes measured. This type is often referred to as the “gold standard” of evaluation because it yields the most definitive answer to the question of whether the campaign produced its intended outcomes and results. A trade off to impact evaluation is that it is expensive and resource-intensive to conduct. Costs include getting a large enough sample size to observe effects, being able to support data collection with a treatment and control or comparison group, and being able to support multiple waves of data collection.

Comparatively, *formative or front-end evaluation* is the most common, developed, and some say useful area of evaluation among public communication campaigns. While there is always room for improvement and this type of evaluation could be done better and more strategically overall (Dungan-Seaver, 1999), most campaigns today are based on at least some strategic research gathered through public polling, focus groups, or other methods. This focus is good and important, but one possible side effect is that campaign budgets can get exhausted in the creative process (Gould, 1996), leaving dollars left for implementation at risk, much less dollars that can be dedicated to evaluation of the campaign’s implementation or effects. Another criticism of front-end evaluation is that it often gets divorced from back-end evaluation. Front-end evaluation provides the opportunity not only to collect the information needed to instruct the creative process, it provides a critical opportunity to establish baseline measures for outcome or impact evaluation (Atkin & Freimuth, 2001).

Most of the opportunities for improving evaluation fall into the areas of back end evaluation. This means improving what we know about this type of evaluation, and improving the methodology and tools available to do it.

C. Different Perspectives and Criticisms of the Field

While there is universal agreement that the evaluation of public communication campaigns needs to improve, there is not complete agreement about what direction it should take. Some argue that the field needs to focus on more rigorous evaluation that delivers information on cause and effect. Others argue that evaluation needs to be more practical and process-oriented, channeling information quickly back into campaigns.

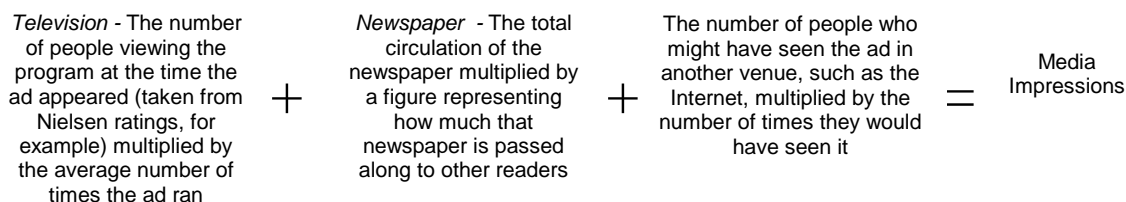
Sharyn Sutton sees two ways to look at the roles that evaluation can play; she calls them two paradigms. The first is the *causal paradigm* in which evaluation assesses the campaign’s results in order to attribute causality to the campaign effort. The second is the *social change* paradigm in which evaluation tracks and assesses the campaign’s results and uses that information to refine and build the campaign’s efforts and chances of making social change. The causal paradigm determines what works; the social change paradigm ensures that something does work.

Causal Paradigm – A look at the campaign evaluation field through this lens finds it in need of more outcome and impact evaluation. The view shows campaigns being deemed a

success without the evidence to prove it. What serves as proof is inconsistent and the standard for proving success is too low.

For example, some campaigns try to dazzle with a long list of process measures, or measures of their implementation and effort. This is the evaluation pitfall that Susan Bales characterizes as only “measuring the measurable” (Dungan-Seaver, 1999, p. 22). These measures include things like the number of op-eds written, the amount of media time purchased, the number of ads developed, or the number of brochures sent out. Another example is earned media as measured by “media impressions.” The number of media impressions represents everyone who might have seen the campaign (National Highway Traffic Safety Administration, 2002). For example, if an ad is run on television and in the newspaper, media impressions might be calculated using the formula in Figure 1:

Figure 1. Calculating Media Impressions



Not surprisingly, the formula ends up overestimating the ad’s exposure and the number of media impressions almost always runs into the hundreds of thousands or millions. Since figures in the millions usually only appear on campaign budget pages, such a figure on an evaluation report appears impressive. However, thinking about what media impressions actually are makes it obvious that this number is a weak measure of campaign effects.

When the intended role for evaluation is to show a causal link between the campaign and its results, then more is required than process evaluation alone. Process evaluation measures effort, not effect or impact.

Social Change Paradigm – This perspective holds that campaign evaluations should be used primarily for contributing knowledge that can be channeled quickly back into the campaign as it is implemented (Balch & Sutton, 1997). Sharyn Sutton uses this metaphor to describe the difference between the causal and social change paradigms:

With the causal paradigm of evaluation, we are seeking clear causes and effects. To do this we create campaigns in a test tube. It’s a controlled experiment with a defined intervention. Then, if our scientifically stringent evaluation suggests that our intervention works, we assume it will work elsewhere. The problem is, we are taking what grew in the test tube and trying to transplant it into the dirt of the real world. That doesn’t work. There are different conditions out there, and a variety of forces at work. So when we rely on causal evaluation, it holds us back. We end up with data that doesn’t tell us what to do or where to go. I believe it would be far better to spend more money figuring out what takes root in the dirt and using that information to generate and nurture growth over time. That would be a social change paradigm. If the causal paradigm of evaluation is a test tube, then the social change paradigm is organic gardening. This

isn't to say we shouldn't try to figure out what's working; we should spend our evaluation money on helping the campaign with its information needs.

Ethel Klein also finds evaluations like this not useful. She gave the example of one evaluation that found in the end the campaign did not work. By that time, the campaign did not want to hear it because it was not helpful. Klein says, "People work hard and are immersed in social issues. The only way evaluations in the end will really help them, is if they can help them as they're going along. And they give answers as well as say, 'Don't do this.'" Sharyn Sutton cites the Campaign for Tobacco-Free Kids as a good example of how to apply the social change approach because they constantly track what is happening, track the responses to what they are doing, and adjust to deal with new opportunities.

The social change paradigm places the most importance on process evaluation, though outcome and impact evaluation certainly can be geared for continuous feedback and improvement. It criticizes the causal paradigm for using irrelevant academic questions, unrealistic communication objectives, and a non-action orientation (Balch & Sutton, 1997). It holds that a disproportionate amount of campaign dollars are going to evaluations that either should be going into the campaign or for evaluation that is more useful to the campaign.

The 5 A Day Campaign, sponsored by the National Cancer Institute and the Produce for Better Health Foundation, is an example of a campaign where the cost of research and evaluation exceeded what was spent on the media campaign. Table 3 lists actual campaign expenditures from its beginning in 1992 through 1999 (National Cancer Institute, 2000).

Table 3. Expenditures for the 5 A Day Campaign From 1992-1999 (dollars in millions)

	Nutrition and Behavior Change Research	State Health Agency Research	Media	Program Evaluation	TOTAL
FY 1992			\$0.4		\$0.4
FY 1993	\$4		\$1		\$5
FY 1994	\$4	\$0.3	\$1		\$5.3
FY 1995	\$4	\$0.4	\$1	\$0.68	\$6.08
FY 1996	\$4	\$0.5	\$1	\$0.66	\$6.16
FY 1997	\$2	\$0.55	\$0.75	\$0.42	\$3.72
FY 1998	\$4	\$0.5	\$1.5	\$0.25	\$6.25
FY 1999	\$5.6	\$0.65	\$1.1	\$0.15	\$7.5
TOTAL	\$27.6	\$2.9	\$7.75	\$2.16	\$40.41

There is no *right* perspective or paradigm here, just *different* perspectives. The great many of us hold perspectives that fall somewhere in the middle—that evaluation should be used both for demonstrating results and continuous improvement and that there are ways to design evaluations and spread the available dollars to accomplish that. Still others feel this is a decision that needs to be made or negotiated by the evaluation's intended users on a campaign-by-campaign basis (Patton, 1997). The overarching point is that there are different perspectives and criticisms about the state of the campaign evaluation field and consequently different views about the best ways to move forward.

IV. CAMPAIGN EVALUATION PRACTICE

This section lays out characteristics of campaign evaluations reviewed for this research. The focus is on three things: their theory base, outcomes, and methods.

A. Theory

In order to change behavior, campaign designers need to understand why people behave the way they do (Fishbein, Triandis, Kanfer, Becker, Middlestadt, & Eichler, 2001). In other words, campaigns need to be based on theory.

What is missing from most of the process models is any kind of underlying theoretical framework. The models tell managers what to do and in what sequence. But, they do not tie these steps to any particular framework that makes clear how what they do is supposed to work to impact crucial social behaviors. This is a role, however, that can be played by ... social science theories ... It is important to have *some* framework. Frameworks provide a basis for both research and strategy (Andreasen, 1997, p. 8, 10).

Just as theory is important for campaign strategy, it is important for campaign evaluation. Providing the campaign with a theoretical base can both support its development and serve as a basis for its implementation and evaluation (Fishbein et al., 1997; Valente, 2001).

Fortunately, in the last decade in particular, much progress has been made on incorporating social science theory into both campaign design and evaluation, primarily in the health field. Yet many evaluators do not have a good grasp of the relevant theories that can help them with evaluation (Dungan-Seaver, 1999). Both Gary Henry at Georgia State University and John Bare, Director of Program Development and Evaluation at the John S. and James L. Knight Foundation, note the rich opportunity for evaluations of public communication campaigns to draw from what has been learned from decades of research in various social science disciplines. As John Bare put it, “We know a lot more than we use.”

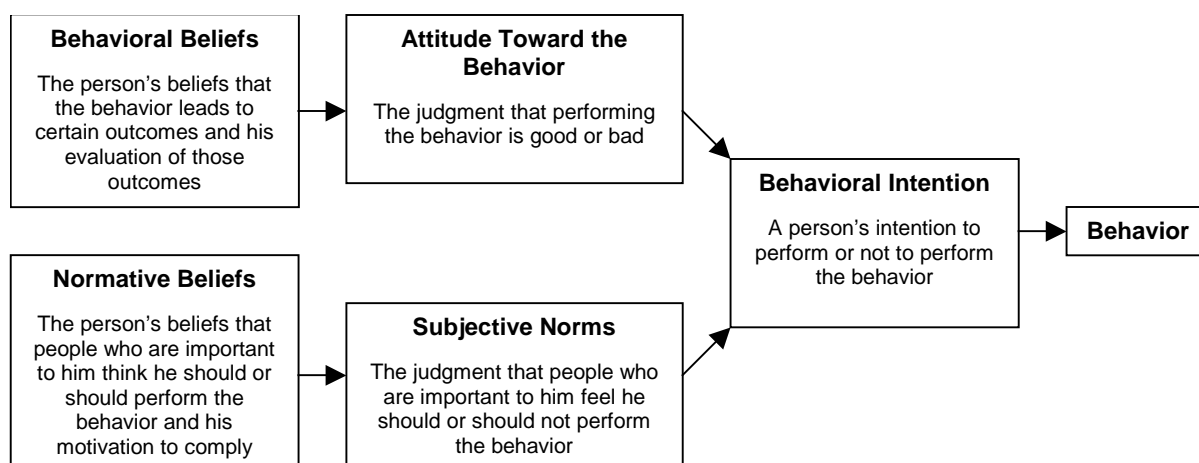
This review of campaign evaluations uncovered theories that have been used from the public health, social psychological, communications, and clinical disciplines. Many are theories about behavior change and the variables that affect behavior change. While the theories are not described in great detail here, this provides a brief overview.

It is important to note that an evaluation does not need to rely on just one theory. They can be used in combination, and many evaluations have integrated more than one of these into their designs (Cappella, Fishbein, Hornik, Ahern, & Sayeed, 2001; Fishbein, et al., 1997).

Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980)

As Figure 2 illustrates, this theory suggests performance of a given behavior is primarily determined by the intention to perform that behavior. Two major factors influence those intentions: a person’s attitude toward the behavior and a person’s subjective norms about the behavior, or belief that the people important to the person think he or she should or should not perform the behavior. Attitudes and subjective norms are in turn influenced by behavioral and normative beliefs.

Figure 2. Theory of Reasoned Action



This theory is one of the most frequently used in campaign evaluations. For example, it helped guide the large-scale evaluation of the National Youth Anti-Drug Media Campaign (Westat & the Annenberg School for Communication, 2001) and Henry and Rivera's (1998) evaluation of the Atlanta Voluntary Ozone Action Program.

Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1992)

This theory suggests that *self-efficacy*—the belief that one has the skills and abilities necessary to perform the behavior under various circumstances—and *motivation* to perform the behavior, are necessary for behavior change. In other words, a person has to believe he or she can perform the behavior in various circumstances and have an incentive (positive or negative) to do it. This theory also factored into the National Youth Anti-Drug Media Campaign, in which it was modeled along with attitudes and subjective norms (see Figure 2) to have a direct relationship with behavioral intentions for future drug use.

Health Belief Model (Becker, 1974)

This model comes from the public health arena. It says that two factors influence the adoption of a health protective behavior: (1) a feeling of being personally threatened by a disease, and (2) a belief that the benefits of adopting the protective health behavior will outweigh the perceived costs of it. This model has been incorporated into a number of public health campaigns to prevent AIDS (e.g., Fishbein, et al., 2001) and in international infant health campaigns (Rice & Foote, 2001).

Stages of Change Model (Prochaska, DiClemente, & Norcross, 1992)

This model views behavior change as a sequence of actions or events. It identifies the five main stages a person goes through on the way to behavior change (see Table 4). The model holds that to get people to change their behaviors, it is necessary to determine where they are on the continuum of behavior change and then to develop interventions that move them along from stage-to-stage, noting that individuals may recycle some stages and therefore the process is not necessarily linear. The types of interventions needed are expected to be different at different stages. Alan Andreasen (1997) asserts the usefulness of this theory for social marketing design and research, and William Novelli (1998) cited its use in the Campaign for Tobacco-Free Kids.

Table 4. Transtheoretical Stages of Change Model

Stage of Change	Description
1. Precontemplation	Target audiences do not see the proposed behavior as relevant to their needs and wants because they are unaware of the opportunity or believe it does not apply to them.
2. Contemplation	Target audiences consider or contemplate doing the behavior.
3. Preparation	Target audiences develop an intention to perform the behavior in the near future and attempt to adopt the behavior.
4. Action	Target audiences move to action because they perceive the behavior to have greater benefits, lower costs, increased social pressures, and more behavioral control than current behavior.
5. Maintenance	Target audiences maintain the behavior because they feel rewarded and are reminded about the benefits of the action.

The above theories can be used for both individual change and public will campaigns. Because public will campaigns also factor in the relationship between media coverage and public awareness and attitudes, and the relationship between public will and policy change, additional bodies of research and theory are applicable. These include:

Agenda Setting (McCombs & Shaw, 1973)

This theory emphasizes that the media does not necessarily instruct what people think, but what people should think *about*. The media acts as a “gatekeeper” of information and determines which issues are important. The theory holds that information or issues that appear more often in the media become more salient for the public and determine political and social priorities.

Framing (e.g., Tversky & Kahneman, 1981)

Generally, framing theory is concerned with how the organization and packaging of information (in messaging or in the media, for example) affects people’s perceptions of that information. “The concept of framing is found in the literatures of numerous academic disciplines across the social, behavioral, and cognitive sciences. Put simply, framing refers to the construct of a communication—its language, visuals, and messengers—and the way it signals to the listener or observer how to interpret and classify new information ... Frames trigger meaning (Bales, 2002).” Many campaigns are grounded in this theory, and therefore attempt to affect how the public thinks about an issue by changing the way that the media frames it.

Priming (Iyengar & Kinder, 1987)

Priming is the process in which the media attend to some issues and not others and thereby alter the standards by which people evaluate issues, people, or objects. For example, the more the media pays attention to the issue of campaign finance reform in an election, the more the public will use that issue to evaluate the candidates. This theory is based on the assumption that people do not have elaborate knowledge about a lot of things (especially

about politics) and do not take into account all of what they do know when making decisions. Rather they make decisions based on what comes to mind first.

Framework for Effective Campaigns (Weiss & Tschirhart, 1994)

While not a theory or model in the same way as the above, this work identifies four tasks that make campaigns more likely to produce their intended policy results (see Table 5). This can be used in the same way that a theory can—as a framework for evaluating public communication campaigns. The framework could serve as a guide for the design of an outcome evaluation, for example, or it could serve a role in formative evaluation or during pre-evaluation stages. For example, Henry and Gordon (in press) used this framework to examine the Atlanta Voluntary Ozone Action Program to determine whether the plausibility of the campaign’s success was high enough to warrant an evaluation of its impacts.

Table 5. Four Characteristics of Effective Campaigns

Tasks	Issues to Consider
1. To capture the attention of the right audience	Defining the target audience, selecting channels to reach the audience, attracting sufficient attention
2. To deliver an understandable and credible message	Source credibility, message clarity, fit with prior knowledge, duration of exposure
3. To deliver a message that influences the beliefs or understanding of the audience	Provide information, direct attention, trigger norms, change underlying values and preferences
4. To create social contexts that lead toward desired outcomes	Understand the pressures that govern the behavior of interest

B. Outcomes and Measures

This section provides a brief overview of common campaign outcomes and measures based on the theory discussion in the last section and a review of campaign evaluations. It also divides the list by the type of back-end evaluation that would likely be used to gather them and in some cases points out some possible advantages, disadvantages, or pitfalls in their measurement.

Models of how a campaign is supposed to work (based on theory) ultimately drive the selection of outcomes that get measured. There is often more to an evaluation than assessing the usual outcome suspects: knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors.

Process Evaluation – Measures collected during process evaluation are mostly concerned with the direct outputs of campaigns. They are “measures of effort”—what and how much the campaign accomplished and its distribution and reach. While in and of themselves, process measures may not tell much about the campaigns effects, they can help determine *why* a campaign did or did not work.

Distribution

Distribution measures assess what products the campaign delivered. They usually include the types and number of materials disseminated, including public service announcements (PSAs), news feeds, brochures, op-eds, and other campaign products.

Placement

Placement is influenced by the campaign, but unless the campaign buys media time, it is usually out of the campaign's direct control. It includes measures like the amount of donated or earned media, amount of press or publicity received, satellite downloads of a PSA or video, or how many times op-eds were run.

Exposure

Exposure includes the degree to which the target audience has encountered the campaign, how many times they were exposed, and whether they paid attention to the campaign and can recall (unaided) or recognize (aided) it. It is a measure of whether the campaign "breaks into" the minds of the target audience. Exposure can be a critical element in outcome evaluation, as different exposure levels can be linked to certain outcomes to gather important information on how much "dosage" was required to produce the intended effects. This is a tricky outcome to measure, however, as people have a hard time remembering where they saw an ad, and methods that measure recall after prompting tend to result in a large number of false positives (Peacock, 2002). Gross Rating Points or Targeted Rating Points, units of measurement that the advertising industry uses for exposure on radio or television, are one way to assess exposure.⁷

Outcome Evaluation – These are "measures of effect" that come about in the target populations or communities as a result of the campaign. The list begins with the cognitive variables that most campaigns try to affect, and ends with what Ethel Klein describes as the types of outcomes that make up the "social context" around an issue, the types of outcomes that public will campaigns are designed to affect.

Knowledge/Awareness

Almost every public communication campaign has a knowledge or awareness component, particularly in the campaign's beginning stages. Often the first measures of awareness come before the creative design phase with public polling to determine where the public stands on the issue at hand. That first measure then becomes a baseline for later comparative assessments, and raising awareness can be one of the campaign's first measures of progress. One criticism of campaign evaluations, however, is an overreliance on knowledge or awareness as a measure of success. It is important, but it does not give a complete picture of a campaign's effects.

Saliency

Saliency means how important an issue is, and though critical, it can be overlooked. As Gary Henry at Georgia State University put it, "Almost every group is convinced that if we

⁷ Gross Rating Points (GRPs) measure exposure to an ad. An agency that buys media time for an ad can purchase a certain number of GRPs. If 1% of the target audience sees an ad once, the ad earns 1 GRP. They are usually reported weekly. A weekly score of 100 GRPs means that an average person in the target audience saw the ad one time that week. A weekly score of 500 GRPs means that an average person in the target audience saw the ad 5 times that week. GRPs are estimated based on the projected audience for a particular medium. These projections are based, for example in television, on Nielsen ratings. GRPs capture availability of the audience, but do not mean that the audience paid attention to the ad (Westat & Annenberg School for Communication, 2001).

can just get people educated about an issue they will care more about it ... so folks are not accustomed to measuring salience. Actually, research indicates issue importance or saliency precedes becoming more informed or opinionated.” Often times there is high awareness of an issue, but it is not seen as important. Ethel Klein points out that domestic violence is a good example. Awareness is very high, but not enough people view it as important enough *to them* to do something about. Gary Henry also underscores the importance of assessing salience because in some cases, awareness and salience work in counterintuitive ways—people with high awareness may show the least amount of saliency increase, but they show it the quickest, and people with the lowest awareness show the greatest and most sustained amount of saliency increase, but there is a slow build.

Attitudes

Attitudes are a person’s affect for or against an object. They are one of the most common outcomes measured in campaign evaluations, as they have a strong relationship to behavior. A large body of research has shown how to measure attitudes, yet they can easily be measured incorrectly. Finding the right measure should be based on the campaign’s design. For instance, if a campaign is seeking behavior change by trying to affect attitudes about the behavior, then in order to assess whether the campaign is working, the evaluation needs to measure the attitude *toward the behavior*. A common mistake is to measure instead the attitude toward *the outcome* of that behavior. For example, if a campaign is trying to affect attitudes about wearing a condom in order to reduce HIV transmission, then the evaluation should measure the attitude toward wearing the condom—*not* attitudes toward HIV transmission. Doing the latter would not capture what the campaign was actually trying to affect (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

Norms

Social norms are the perceived standards of acceptable attitudes and behaviors among a person’s peer group or among those people important to that person. Sometimes this is the most critical factor in achieving behavior change, yet it goes unnoticed in a campaign’s design or unmeasured in an evaluation, getting overlooked in the typical knowledge-attitude-behavior framework. A good example of its importance for both campaign strategy and evaluation comes from campaigns to reduce college student drinking. Research on college drinking finds that students often overestimate how much alcohol their peers are drinking and as a result drink more in order to appear “normal.” Campaigns to fight binge drinking on college campuses now challenge these misperceptions and spread the news about the actual number of drinks most students have each time they go out (Haines, 1996). One such campaign focused on social norms at Northern Illinois University reported that 10 years after the campaign started, heavy drinking among students went down 44% (Frauenfelder, 2001).⁸

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is a person’s belief that he or she has the ability or competency to perform a behavior in different circumstances. Performance of a behavior is often affected by perceptions of self-efficacy and therefore this variable has the capacity to affect a campaign’s results. In fact this variable factors into a number of campaigns, modeled as a direct effect on a person’s intentions to perform a behavior.

⁸ There is now a body of research and campaign design called “social norms marketing” and a National Social Norms Resource Center on this topic at Northern Illinois University.

Behavioral Intentions

Behavioral intention is a measure of the likelihood that a person will engage in a specific behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). The Theory of Reasoned Action, which has been used in a number of campaign evaluations, says that there is a strong predictive relationship between people's intentions to perform a behavior and whether they actually perform it. The theory also says that attitudes and subjective norms about the behavior impact behavioral intentions. This puts behavioral intentions in an important position, and it is a common outcome in a number of campaign evaluations that use the Theory of Reasoned Action as part of their theory base. Because of their strong relationship to behavior, some evaluations measure behavioral intentions and forego the sometimes more difficult measurement of behavior.

Behavior

Behavior change of course is one of the most important campaign outcomes. It seems easy enough to assess—the person either did or did not do the behavior—yet difficulties in its measurement are prevalent. For one thing, behavior is usually captured through self-reports. For the most part self-reports of behavior are usually accurate, but for some behaviors (e.g., illegal drug use) the accuracy of self-reports may come into question. Another potential problem is measurement of the outcome of the behavior being sought rather than the behavior itself. For example, weight reduction might be used as a measure of dieting behavior, but weight loss might be the result of behaviors other than dieting like exercise or sickness (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). A third problem stems from the design of the campaign itself when campaigns are not specific enough about what behaviors they seek to change. Leiderman, Wolf, and York (2000, p. 7) for example, argue that with public will campaigns we “need to establish some common understanding of the behaviors of systems, professionals, regulators, legislators, and citizens that need to change in order to accomplish the campaign's desired results.” If the campaign is not actually asking people to do something, then measuring behavior as an outcome of that campaign is essentially meaningless.

Skills

Skills may be necessary to perform a particular behavior and therefore their presence or absence may have an effect on the campaign's results. For example, in order to practice safe sex a person may need to have the skills to use a condom correctly or to have the skills to negotiate with his or her partner about the use of a condom during sex (Fishbein, et al., 2001).

Environmental Constraints

Environmental constraints are situational factors that can make performance of a behavior difficult or impossible (Triandis, 1972). These constraints might be identified during the formative stage of the evaluation (Fishbein, et al., 2001). For example, use of birth control might be a constraint for someone who cannot afford to buy it. Access to devices that help a smoker quit (e.g., the patch, nicotine gum) might be another. Or as Wallack and Dorfman (2001) put it, “Motivating people to jog in neighborhoods riddled by violence or encouraging consumption of fresh fruits and vegetables where none is available, even if somehow successful in getting people's attention and motivating them to change, will do little to improve their overall life chances” (p. 392). Factoring in and measuring environmental constraints can help diagnose program failure—when the program is not implemented as planned, or theory failure—when hypothesized causal links do not occur (Rice & Foote, 2001).

Media Frames

This outcome is important for campaigns that aim to affect how the media frames certain issues. Determining how the media frames an issue is usually established through content analyses of print and broadcast media. For example, newspaper frames of child care have been found to include that the demand for quality child care is growing much more rapidly than the supply due to a lack of money, government ought to play a role in making child care available to every parent who wants it, and child care benefits everyone (McManus & Dorfman, 2002).

Policy Change

Policy change is related to the outcome of environmental constraints listed above. It may be the intended ultimate result of a campaign (public will) or a situational factor that the campaign tries to affect to support the behavior being sought. Knowing how to assess policy change is a universally cited challenge among evaluators. On the one hand there is the simple measure of the policy outcome itself; is the policy present or absent? But more importantly and infinitely more challenging is determining if and how a campaign affected that policy outcome. George Perlov notes, for example, that the Ad Council knows that their long-running public service campaigns have played a part in the development of local laws against drunk driving and the use of safety belts, but assessing what part they played is difficult. Lori Dorfman at the Berkeley Media Studies Group adds the challenge that policy change often takes much longer than the life of the campaign or evaluation. Gary Henry cites the need to figure out how to do this better, and points to some possible, but not well developed or used techniques.

If you are pursuing public policy change, there are specific measurable events and occurrences. Information from the campaign could influence actions within policy chambers and there are indicators that there is a level of activity going on with respect to these issues and then further down the legislative or governmental agenda toward consideration and adoption of a specific policy. But usually before legislators or administrators adopt a new policy you will see press releases from key leaders, you'll see legislative hearings, a variety of different kinds of things. We have got to be open to doing content analysis of those hearings to see the extent to which they were influenced by the media campaign. There are a lot of ways to get at whether or not the media campaign was really affecting public policy or corporate decisions. We need to develop our techniques more and test those techniques. Not just how many people saw the ad but did it echo inside governmental institutions; did it in fact have an effect on the policy agenda.

Impact Evaluation – These are measures of the ultimate aggregate results of the campaign's outcomes. They track community-wide progress toward the campaign's goals or desired results.

Long-Term Outcomes of Behaviors

If a campaign is successful in mounting behavior change in a sizable number of individuals or if a campaign is able to build public will to achieve policy changes, then these measures assess the long-term outcomes of those changes. For a designated driver campaign this might include traffic fatalities due to drunk driving. For a campaign to encourage women

to get a regular mammography this might include breast cancer rates. The Ad Council tracks these types of measures for the campaigns it works on.

Systems-Level Outcomes

Few evaluations actually look at systems-level change because so many campaigns are focused on individuals. Also, it is either difficult or possibly implausible to connect a campaign to this level of change. Systems-level outcomes might include long-term changes in service delivery or coordination, training, or distribution systems. For example, an evaluation of a campaign to reduce diarrheal infant mortality through the use of oral rehydration therapy in Honduras and The Gambia had system outcomes that included the institutionalization of oral rehydration therapy in the health and communication systems (i.e., incorporation of messages into other projects), distribution of the oral therapy in clinics and through community outlets, and incorporation of the oral therapy into local and national training (Rice & Foote, 2001).

C. Methods

In terms of methods needed to assess campaigns, the usual qualitative and quantitative methods come to mind: focus groups, interviews, surveys, and polling. Indeed, most evaluations use these methods to assess the outcomes listed above. This scan of campaign evaluations generated some additional options that are unique to the communications arena. Again, they are presented according to the type of evaluation that typically uses them.

Process Evaluation – These methods are mostly concerned with measuring the reach of the campaign. They have the challenge of tracking outcomes in the diverse communication technologies of print, radio, television, and the Internet.

Newspaper Tracking

Clipping services, like Burrelle's, can offer regular reports of a campaign's coverage or an ad's placement in newspapers (and typically broadcast media). Clippings allow for tracking of the volume of coverage a campaign generates, messages sent versus messages placed, and how often the coverage reflects the campaign's messages or intended framing (Radtke, 1998).

Television Tracking

When paying for a satellite uplink of a public service announcement (PSA) or video news release, it is possible to pay extra to get a specially encoding that will track information about its downloading and airing (Bonk, Griggs, & Tynes, 1999). For example, the Ad Council uses the Nielsen Sigma service from Nielsen Media Research. After broadcast facilities are notified of when the video or PSA will be aired, encoded video is sent to a satellite and beamed down for facilities to record. When the broadcast facilities air the encoded video, Nielsen tracks what stations air it, the air date and time, the broadcast market, rank compared to other downloads in that market, and the estimated audience size.

Radio Tracking

Radio tracking, offered through companies like Arbitron, follows the same principle as television tracking, but is less reliable. Services tend only to cover a small proportion of the universe of radio stations available. New technologies are now surfacing that have the potential to approach this tracking in a slightly different way—by tracking what individual

consumers are listening to. For example, Arbitron is currently testing a new tool called the Portable People Meter. The meter is a passive audience measurement device that reports consumers' exposure to radio, television, and cable outlets. It is carried like a pager and automatically detects inaudible codes embedded in TV, radio, and cable broadcasts. At the end of each day, consumers plug these devices into base stations that send the collected codes to Arbitron for tabulation. Radio ad effectiveness (and ads run on other media) can also be assessed using methods that assess recall (without ad playback). They might capture recall of the ad itself or campaign name or of images that the ad evokes. Measures of radio ad recall, however, suffer from the complication that even when radio is the only medium being used in a campaign, people often attribute their exposure to other media like television. And measures of recognition (with ad playback) suffer from high levels of false positives (Peacock, 2002).

Website Monitoring

A number of services provide evaluative information on websites. Data might include hits on the entire site or on different site pages, navigation patterns, bottlenecks, hot and cold content areas, who accessed the site, and how long they stayed. Services can also give reports on where banner ads are run.

Ad Assessments

Ad assessments can provide measures of ad recognition and recall. A Starch Readership Study conducted by the company Roper ASW, for example, provides measures based on what ads readers of a specific publication have seen and read. The study is based on a minimum of 100 interviews conducted one to three weeks after a publication is released and at locations throughout the publication's distribution area. The process begins with face-to-face interviews in which a researcher goes through a publication page-by-page and asks a reader whether he or she recalls seeing the ad, remembers the name of the advertiser or campaign, and how much of the ad was read. It delivers three scores: percentage of readers who remember seeing the ad, percentage who recalled the name of the advertiser or campaign, and percentage of readers who read half or more of the ad. It also provides benchmarks of the ad's scores by comparing it to all other ads in the same publication, and to other ads in its same category (e.g., organization advertising) (Goodman, 2002).

Case Studies

Case studies can be used effectively for evaluation purposes. Done well, they offer more than basic descriptive information; they offer valuable insight into what worked in a particular context, what did not work, and why. Case studies of alcohol and tobacco campaigns offer good examples of how to use this method effectively (e.g., Jernigan & Wright, 1994). Guides also exist to assist in the preparation and writing of case studies that can serve useful evaluation and learning purposes (e.g., Advocacy Institute, 1992).

Outcome Evaluation – Methods most often used to assess campaign outcomes include surveys or polling. Other methods used for campaign evaluations include:

Direct Response Tracking

Some ads used in campaigns will ask readers or viewers to do a *direct response*, or a measurable action like calling an 800 number, sending in a coupon or bounce-back card, or visiting a website. This is one indicator, albeit a weak one, of campaign effects. Usually those who call or write in will get information in return, like a brochure or toolkit. Whether that then inspires them to action is questionable, especially if the campaign is not clear

about what it wants the individual to do (and many are not). To add value to this approach, some evaluations will later use these same individuals for a follow up study to determine what respondents did with the information they received.

Framing Analysis

Framing analysis examines how issues are presented or discussed (framed) in the media. It “looks for key themes, expressed as arguments, metaphors, and descriptions to reveal which parts of the issue are emphasized, which are pushed to the margins and which are missing” (McManus & Dorfman, 2002, p. 10). A number of media researchers do this kind of work, including Lori Dorfman at the Berkeley Media Studies Group, who produces framing memos on issues that in the past have included children’s health and gun control. At the FrameWorks Institute, Susan Bales offers “strategic frame analysis.” As a methodology, it uses a team of researchers and practitioners to determine how the public perceives an issue and the implications of those perceptions for those who wish to reframe it. The process uses focus groups, surveys, content analyses, and interviews (Bohan-Baker, 2001b). Framing analysis is typically done in a campaign’s creative design phase, but analyses can also be done, for example, before and after a campaign to examine changes over time.⁹

Rolling Sample Surveys

Adapted from political polling methods, this method has recently been proven useful for public communication campaign outcome and impact evaluation (Henry & Gordon, in press; Henry & Gordon, 2001). It uses daily surveys to obtain measures of target outcomes (e.g., attitudes, behaviors) from an independent sample of individuals drawn each day. This method allows the evaluator to track the day-to-day shifts in public interest and behavior, and enables evaluators to create natural experiments based on when known events or media coverage will take place. (Treatment measures are on the days when campaign events are planned; comparison measures are on days when no campaign events take place). The advantages to this approach include being able to understand better how the public reacts to the campaign and how reactions rise and fall over time.

Impact Evaluation – Assessing impact requires either experimental or quasi-experimental research design. As stated earlier, campaign evaluations can find it difficult to use experimental designs with random assignment. Campaign evaluations have, however, been able to identify ways of using quasi-experimental designs effectively. As John Bare says:

There are ways to use the community as the unit of analysis even if you can’t vary the treatment within a community. There are also ways even to vary exposure of mass communication, ads or PSAs, by the channels they run in at all times of day ... So even with mass communications strategies that you might think can’t be varied, they can be varied. For the most part they are not. So we are spending all of this money to support campaigns and the incremental knowledge gained about effectiveness is very small.

These are other examples of ways to use comparisons if a non-treatment control or comparison group cannot be established at an evaluation’s outset (Rice & Foote, 2001).

⁹ Reframing in the media can be extremely hard and effects might take a long time to surface.

Repeated Measures

Individuals, households, or communities can serve as their own comparisons if repeated measures are taken over time.

Staged Implementation

If a campaign is rolled out in different phases with a substantial enough time lag, the evaluation can compare areas that were exposed to the campaign in its early stages to areas that have not yet been exposed.

Natural Variations in Treatment

In a complex campaign, implementation in some areas is bound to “fail” or not roll out exactly as intended. If these variations can be adequately tracked and measured, they can provide useful comparisons.

Self-Determination of Exposure

Some individuals in a targeted area will not be exposed to a campaign. For example, they might not have a television or listen to the radio or read the newspaper. These individuals might form a self-selecting comparison to individuals who have been exposed.

V. OPPORTUNITIES AND THE ROAD AHEAD

This scan revealed some of the major gaps in the design and practice of public communication campaign evaluation. This section explores, based on this assessment and key informant suggestions, what promising opportunities might lie ahead.

A. Knowledge Development

As earlier sections have made clear, there is an acute need for knowledge development and dissemination about how to approach this work. There is also a very real possibility that the demand for this information could increase quickly in the near future. As Gary Henry at Georgia State University said, “I think we could see a very strong ramping up of this [campaign evaluation] if foundations want to test their effectiveness, because the evaluation community will respond to that market. But we are in the very beginning stages and our tools are vastly deficient.”

Cross-Sector Field Building

Campaign evaluators do not currently enjoy the perception that they are part of a larger field of people doing similar work. There is not a special affinity group in the American Evaluation Association devoted to this topic; Sage has not published special evaluation books on this topic. Evaluators need opportunities to determine who else is doing this work, and what they are doing and learning. In addition, they need opportunities to interact with and learn from campaign practitioners. Some infrastructure to facilitate that interaction and exchange already exists. As Sharyn Sutton notes, while there is academic research on advertising, there are also professional conferences and trade journals (e.g., *Ad Age*, *Ad Week*) that are more “applied” and an existing advertising and campaign industry infrastructure. Evaluators need to gain access to and become part of that infrastructure.

Knowledge Transfer and Dissemination

A wealth of knowledge exists in other sectors or fields that can be applied to public communication campaigns, but previously this knowledge has not been well tapped or disseminated. This includes lessons from the for profit and commercial marketing sectors, political campaigning, international campaigns, lessons from campaigns on different ends of the political spectrum, and lessons from both campaign successes and failures. Investments in efforts that can pull that information together *and* make sure it gets disseminated broadly would serve the field well.

Theory Building

Theory is critical in these endeavors. A lot is already out there, but because it comes from many different disciplines, most evaluators do not have a good grasp of what is available. In addition, there is a need for more theory development and theory integration, particularly for public will campaigns. One way to do this is to borrow from the example set by the public health field. In 1991 while trying to battle the growing AIDS epidemic with prevention campaigns focused on behavior change, the National Institute of Mental Health organized a “theorists workshop” that brought together the developers and/or leading proponents of five of the most seminal theories on behavior change.¹⁰ Their task

¹⁰ The participants included Albert Bandura (social cognitive theory), Marshall Becker (health belief model), Martin Fishbein (theory of reasoned action), Frederick Kanfer (self-regulation, self-control), and Harry Triandis (Subjective Culture and Interpersonal Relations).

was to come up with a finite set of variables that should be considered in any behavioral analysis. Their purpose was to facilitate the development of theory-based interventions and campaigns that would prevent the behaviors that expose people to and spread HIV. They accomplished their task and came to consensus on eight variables that appear to “drive” or account for most of the variance on any deliberate behavior (Fishbein, et al., 2001).¹¹ While the model does not have to be a theorist’s workshop, the principle on which this effort is based is useful—collaboration and consensus building to advance theory.

Campaign Theory, Outcomes, and Methods Education

Part of the problem with public communication campaign evaluation is a lack of awareness among campaign practitioners, evaluators, and their sponsors about what outcomes and methods are appropriate and available. For evaluators, unless they have a communications background (and most do not), they would not encounter outcomes like media exposure or measures like media impressions in their other evaluation work. For campaign practitioners and sponsors, it is critical to understand the difference between process measures, outcomes, and impacts and what it is reasonable to expect from campaigns and from their evaluations. As John Bare at the Knight Foundation put it:

Program Directors, who are trying to develop support for [campaigns], speaking of foundations specifically, need to realize that they can’t treat these as separate from regular program interventions. It’s one thing to say that we are doing a teen pregnancy program, let’s look at how research says these things work. When you look at a communications campaign it’s easy to assume that you don’t need to reflect upon the science because it’s just advertising. We just put the messages out there and good stuff will happen. But there’s just as much science to consider on these kinds of things. And so we need training and/or materials targeted specifically to people who shepherd grant programs forward. So at the front end of the development they seek out and are not threatened by seeking out the kind of assistance that will strengthen [the campaigns].

Knowledge development for education purposes might take the form of a series of working papers or short briefs. It might also mean being opportunistic with meetings or conferences where interested parties gather (e.g., the Communications Network or associations like the American Evaluation Association, etc.). The same principles that apply to campaigns would apply here—the point would be not only to raise awareness, but also to give people the tools they need to *act* and put the ideas into practice.

¹¹ The variables were behavioral intentions, environmental constraints, skills, attitudes, norms, emotion, and self-efficacy.

B. Evaluation Tools

Evaluation tools are aids for campaign practitioners and evaluators who are struggling with evaluation design and implementation issues.

Decision Aids or Principles

Evaluators, campaign designers, implementers, and sponsors would benefit from the development of aids or principles that can help with decisions about the possibilities available for evaluation and the consequences or opportunities for making certain choices. They would not provide definitive answers, but would help guide choices for questions like: What utility should the evaluation serve (e.g., accountability, continuous improvement)? Where should most of the evaluation effort go (formative, process, outcome, impact evaluation)? What level of resource investment (money, time, staffing) will be needed to get the job done? What are reasonable expectations for the campaign and what are short-term and intermediate measures of progress?

Planning and Design Tools

As Elizabeth Heid Thompson of the Sutton Group and Ethel Klein advocate, ideally a campaign and its evaluation should be designed at the same time. Too often the evaluators are called in once the campaign has been set up. This allows them to establish together the important theory that underlies the campaign and the outcomes of interest, and for evaluators to inform the design process with formative research. Campaign designers and evaluators need planning tools that can assist them in this process and help them speak a common language. They need tools that respond to John Bare's concern that "We need stronger theory-of-change models connecting the activities to the desired change." While certainly not the only option available, logic models now perform this function in evaluations across many fields. This approach can be adapted to fit with public communication campaigns. For example, Figure 3 on the next page offers a template for a campaign logic model.¹² Appendix B offers an example logic model based on the evaluation of the National Anti-Drug Youth Media Campaign.

Data Access and Analysis Sophistication

Sharyn Sutton feels that helping nonprofits access existing data sets that commercial marketers use, and facilitating the better use of that data, would have enormous benefits for campaign development and evaluation. Nonprofits typically cannot afford the market data that for profits or advertising agencies use. Also, data sets typically do not meet the needs of nonprofit campaign planners and evaluators. Sutton would like to see more funding to help nonprofits access better data. Finally, while more campaigns are using quantitative data for planning, there is much room for improvement in data analysis design and sophistication. For example, audience tracking and segmentation are commonplace in the private sector, but rare among nonprofits.

¹² The logic model is based on a merging of two mapping approaches: Jaker's (2000) "Creative Blueprint Process" and Watson's (2000) approach to logic modeling.

C. Exploratory Evaluation Investments

These ideas channel the exploratory spirit of research and demonstration projects, without the non-participatory or thoroughly academic tendencies that go along with them. The appeal is for evaluation investments that lead to new and valued *learning*.

Experiments or Quasi-Experiments

While they can be a challenge to set up and can be expensive, experimental or quasi-experimental evaluation designs offer the most promise for learning more about what works. John Bare at the Knight Foundation feels that investments in these types of studies would provide a level of precision that is currently missing from many evaluations. His idea is for investments in quasi-experiments that would allow campaign designers and evaluators to vary their models and learn from different approaches. He offered the simple example of marketing for symphony orchestras to get people to buy tickets. One approach would be to randomly mail two incentives to two groups of potential buyers to see which yielded the most ticket buying at the least amount of cost. That approach can be particularly effective if theory or past practice helps program designers learn how to “match” treatments with individuals most likely to be moved by them. Getting campaign designers to use this approach is a barrier, however, as there is reluctance to vary the interventions used in campaigns.

We need to vary our models more so that we can start experimenting with different ways of doing it. And trying Model A versus Model B versus Model C in some quasi-experimental settings instead of just blanketing a population with a common message in a common media in a common timeframe. When we do it that way we're not left with any increased knowledge about what works and what doesn't. My biggest complaint is these blanket approaches.

Of course there are tradeoffs. The first is cost. Also, “The more tightly controlled the experiment, the less generalizable it is to real-world social settings for the causal question that it addresses” (Hornik, 1997, p. 46). And finally, because these designs may require significant time and controls, they can substantially impede campaign development and management (Balch & Sutton, 1997).

Participatory and Learning Evaluations

This is a call for sponsors to be open to diverse models of evaluation, including participatory evaluations that develop along with the campaign, stick with it throughout its implementation, and regularly have a learning exchange with campaign designers, implementers, and funders. As Ethel Klein put it:

There is the view of an evaluation, which is the external, “We take measurements, we're not involved, we're completely objective, and we come in the beginning, middle, and end and we give you information and we give you a report card basically.” That's a very good mechanism if you're not looking to help create change ... Too often evaluators say this is not working, but they need to be part of the answer. You can't just say it's not working. Even if you have a stupid answer you need to come in and say well here are some things we can try.

This model requires that the evaluation team be involved right away upfront in the creative design and formative evaluation process. It requires that the evaluation and campaign plan be done at the same time. And it requires that the evaluation team stay with the campaign over time.

Public Will Campaign Evaluation

The point was made throughout this paper that less is known about how to approach public will campaign evaluation. The field still needs to grapple with how to integrate framing, priming, and agenda-setting theory in useful ways to guide these evaluations. And evaluations need to take on the problem of how to determine whether campaigns have an effect on policy. An investment in evaluation to tackle these issues in an environment that encourages some degree of risk-taking and exploration could go a long way toward moving the field forward. As Gary Henry put it, “I think we should be undaunted by the challenge of systematic measurement of the impacts of these kinds of programs. We have to push ahead; we have to try some things.”

Figure 3. Campaign Logic Model Template

CAMPAIGN STRATEGY		EVALUATION
<p>GOALS/DESIRED RESULTS</p> <p>The overall long-term vision for children, adults, families, or communities. A campaign <i>alone</i> usually cannot accomplish the results, but should contribute.</p> <p><i>(e.g., quality child care, lower natural resource consumption, education reform)</i></p>		<p>IMPACT</p> <p>Measures or indicators to quantify and track the ultimate aggregate results of campaign outcomes.</p> <p>COMMUNITY WELL-BEING</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Indicators of community health and well-being</i> ▪ <i>Rates of recidivism, morbidity, etc.</i> <p>SYSTEMS-LEVEL</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Codification/institutionalization</i> ▪ <i>Training</i> ▪ <i>Quality and distribution of services</i> <div data-bbox="1218 472 1412 630" style="border: 1px solid black; border-radius: 50%; padding: 5px; text-align: center;"> <p>Ultimate Results of Campaign Outcomes</p> </div>
<p>MOTIVATING CONDITIONS</p> <p>The attitudes, conditions, circumstances, factors, issues, etc. that need to change in order to achieve the desired campaign results.</p> <p><i>(e.g., substance abuse rates, cancer rates, low academic test scores, poverty levels, prejudiced attitudes, lack of investments for children, etc.)</i></p>		<p>OUTCOMES/MEASURES OF EFFECT</p> <p>Outcomes in the target populations or communities that come about as a result of the campaign. For public will campaigns, measures of effect can include policy changes.</p> <p>FOR BEHAVIOR CHANGE</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Changes in audience beliefs</i> ▪ <i>Changes in audience attitudes</i> ▪ <i>Changes in social norms</i> ▪ <i>Changes in behavioral intentions</i> ▪ <i>Changes in audience behavior</i> <p>FOR MEDIA ADVOCACY/OUTREACH</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Changes in media framing of an issue</i> <p>FOR POLICY ADVOCACY/MOBILIZATION</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Changes in policies, rules, or other institutional changes (public will campaigns)</i> <div data-bbox="1218 1039 1412 1207" style="border: 1px solid black; border-radius: 50%; padding: 5px; text-align: center;"> <p>Can Be Affected by Campaign</p> </div>
<p>TARGET AUDIENCE</p> <p>Who the campaign is trying to reach, segmenting the population and being as specific as needed.</p> <p><i>(e.g., youth, likely voters, legislators, grandparents, Latinos, low-income parents, women, etc.)</i></p>		
<p>DESIRED ACTIONS/BEHAVIORS</p> <p>What the campaign asks the target audience to do.</p> <p><i>(e.g., stop smoking, reduce drinking, recycle, vote, call legislators, volunteer, build homes for low-income families, give blood, etc.)</i></p>		
<p>STRATEGIES</p> <p>The campaign's broad approaches or general action plan. The strategies tackle a <i>subset</i> of the above motivating conditions and causes.</p> <p><i>(e.g., mobilize a constituency, change attitudes, ground norms in reality, increase media coverage)</i></p>		
<p>MESSAGES</p> <p>The campaign's primary selling propositions, or why it is worth the audience's while to adopt or engage in the desired actions or behaviors.</p> <p><i>(e.g., negative/positive consequences of behavior, self-efficacy)</i></p>		<p>PROCESS/MEASURES OF EFFORT</p> <p>Direct outputs of campaigns—what and how much was accomplished—campaign distribution and reach.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Media time bought and earned</i> ▪ <i>Estimated # of viewers</i> ▪ <i>Message and materials distribution</i> ▪ <i>Message exposure in media channels</i> ▪ <i># media impressions</i> ▪ <i># response inquiries</i> ▪ <i>Ad recall</i> <div data-bbox="1144 1596 1421 1732" style="border: 1px solid black; border-radius: 50%; padding: 5px; text-align: center;"> <p>Implementation Measures</p> </div>
<p>COMMUNICATION VEHICLES</p> <p>The media used or how messages get delivered.</p> <p><i>(e.g., print, television, radio, electronic ads, community-based outreach, events, discussion groups)</i></p>		

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APPENDIX A: KEY INFORMANTS AND CAMPAIGNS EXAMINED

Key Informants

Susan Nall Bales,* President, FrameWorks Institute
John Bare, Director of Program Development and Evaluation, John S. and James L. Knight Foundation
Lori Dorfman,* Director, Berkeley Media Studies Group
Elizabeth Heid Thompson,* Sutton Group
Gary Henry, Director, Georgia State University's Applied Research Center
Ethel Klein, President, EDK Associates
George Perlov, Director of Planning and Research, Advertising Council
Sharyn Sutton, President, Sutton Group

* Based on transcripts and notes from 2001 interviews conducted for Harvard Family Research Project's *The Evaluation Exchange* issue on strategic communications (Volume 8, Number 3).

Campaigns Reviewed

Adults and Children Together (ACT) Against Violence (www.actagainstviolence.org)
AIDS Community Demonstration Projects* (www.cdc.gov/hiv/projects/acdp/acdp.htm)
Break the Silence on Domestic Violence Campaign (www.weaveinc.org/bts.html)
Buckle Up America (www.buckleupamerica.org)
California Children and Families Commission (www.cafc.ca.gov)
Campaign for Tobacco-Free Kids* (tobaccofreekids.org)
Choices for Youth Campaign* (www.preventviolence.org)
Connect for Kids (www.connectforkids.org)
Covering Kids* (www.coveringkids.org)
Designated Driver Campaign* (www.hsph.harvard.edu/chc/alcohol.html)
Doors of Hope (www.philipmorris.com/philanthropy/dom_violence/dom_violence.asp)
5 A Day Campaign* (www.5aday.gov)
Georgia Early Learning Initiative* (geli.policy.net)
Mass Media and Health Practices Campaign in Honduras and The Gambia*
Mothers Against Drunk Driving (www.madd.org)
National Youth Anti-Drug Media Campaign* (www.mediacampaign.org)
Northern Illinois University Social Norms Campaign* (www.socialnorms.org)
Start Early: Learning Begins at Birth* (voices4kids.org/startearly.html)
Stop It Now! (child sexual abuse) (www.stopitnow.com)
Take a Bite out of Crime Campaign* (www.ncpc.org)
Teach More Love More (www.teachmorelovemore.org)
There's No Excuse for Domestic Violence (endabuse.org)
The Truth Campaign (www.thetruth.com)
Voluntary Ozone Action Program* (www.voap.org - forthcoming)

* Indicates when campaign evaluation or evaluative information was also examined.

APPENDIX B: The National Youth Anti-Drug Media Campaign¹

CAMPAIGN STRATEGY		CAMPAIGN EVALUATION
<p>GOALS/DESIRED RESULTS</p> <p>Enable America’s youth to reject or stop using illegal drugs, especially marijuana and inhalants.</p>		<p>IMPACT</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Youth Use</i> – By 2002, reduce past month use of illicit drugs and alcohol by 20% and by 2007 by 50% ▪ <i>1st Time Use</i> – By 2002, increase the average age for first-time drug use by 12 months and by 2007 by 36 months <div style="text-align: right; border: 1px solid black; border-radius: 50%; padding: 5px; width: fit-content; margin-left: auto;"> <p style="text-align: center;">Ultimate Results of Campaign Outcomes</p> </div>
<p>MOTIVATING CONDITIONS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Drug use among teens on the rise since 1991, mostly because of marijuana and inhalant use ▪ A dramatic decline in anti-drug attitudes among 11-12 year olds ▪ Younger children have more easy access and more know people who use illegal drugs 	↔	
<p>TARGET AUDIENCE</p> <p>90% of American youth—40 million youth ages 9-18 and their parents, and other influential adults</p>		<p>OUTCOMES/MEASURES OF EFFECT</p> <p>BEHAVIOR/INTENTIONS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Parents talking with their children about drugs ▪ Influential adults talking about drugs ▪ Friends talking about drugs <p>ATTITUDES</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Youth Risk Perception</i> - By 2002, 80% of youth who perceive regular use of illicit drugs, alcohol, and tobacco is harmful <p>SOCIAL NORMS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Youth Disapproval</i> – By 2002, 95% of youth who disapprove of illicit drug, alcohol, and tobacco use <p>KNOWLEDGE AND BELIEFS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Subjective Norms</i> – Knowledge of friends’ and classmates’ use of marijuana <div style="text-align: right; border: 1px solid black; border-radius: 50%; padding: 5px; width: fit-content; margin-left: auto;"> <p style="text-align: center;">Can Be Affected by Campaign</p> </div>
<p>DESIRED ACTIONS/BEHAVIORS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ For nonusers – not start and talk about drugs ▪ For drug users – stop using ▪ For adults – talk to kids about drugs 	↔	
<p>STRATEGIES</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Educate and enable America’s youth to reject illegal drugs, especially marijuana and inhalants ▪ Convince occasional users to stop using ▪ Enhance adult perceptions of harm associated with adolescent use of marijuana and inhalants ▪ Emphasize to parents and other influential adults their actions can make a difference 		
<p>MESSAGES</p> <p>80 different anti-drug messages in a variety of media that are most watched and listened to by target audiences (translated into 11 languages)</p> <p>FOR YOUTH – Resistance skills and self-efficacy. Normative education. Negative/positive consequences.</p> <p>FOR PARENTS – Your child is at risk. Parenting skills and self-efficacy. Perceptions of harm.</p>		<p>PROCESS/MEASURES OF EFFORT</p> <p>CAMPAIGN REACH AND DELIVERY</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Ad Recall and Recognition</i> – How often messages were seen in different mediums, recognition of specific ads ▪ Media time purchased ▪ <i>Exposure</i> – proportion of parents and youth that would have been in the audience for each ad and all adds (gross rating points) ▪ Community drug activities <div style="text-align: right; border: 1px solid black; border-radius: 50%; padding: 5px; width: fit-content; margin-left: auto;"> <p style="text-align: center;">Implementation Measures</p> </div>
<p>COMMUNICATION VEHICLES</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Paid advertising (TV, radio, print, banner) ▪ Outreach to media, entertainment, sports industries to encourage anti-drug themes ▪ Partnerships with civic, community groups 	↔	

¹ This model does not capture the detail of the large-scale campaign and evaluation design in terms of its operations or the many measures being used to assess the campaign’s outcomes. This is intended to capture its theory-of-change at a very basic level.