INTEGRATED MARKETING COMMUNICATION AT THE SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL BLOOD SERVICE: AN EVALUATION OF ITS SOCIAL MARKETING CAMPAIGNS

by

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Submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

In the subject

COMMUNICATION

at the

University of South Africa

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February 2015
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I declare that Integrated marketing communication at the South African National Blood Service: an evaluation of its social marketing campaigns is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

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February 2015
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First and foremost I would like to thank the Mighty Lord for it is through His grace that all was made possible.

I would like to thank the following individuals and organisations for their contributions which made this study possible:

- My supervisor, Prof TC Du Plessis for her immense support through constructive and insightful comments and advice. Thank you for your patience and belief in me and no amount of words can truly express how much I appreciate your guidance throughout this study. I will forever be grateful.

- South African Blood Services, Ms Raju and Ms Rodolo, whose input and support made this study possible.

- University of South Africa for the financial support which made this study feasible.

- My parents, Lillian and Gilbert Chauke, thank you for showing me the importance of education from an early age. I will always hold dearly the values of hard work you taught me.

- To my wife, Nyasha, thank you for all your patience and emotional support throughout this study. I love you and am blessed to have you in my life.
ABSTRACT

Integrated marketing communication (IMC) is a concept which has been explored in commercial contexts by numerous studies. Numerous scholars in the literature highlight the benefits of adopting an IMC approach which creates message consistency, amongst others. However, there is still limited literature on the adoption and use of IMC in the context of non-profit organisations involved in social marketing campaigns to support their behavioural change messages. Insight into the adoption and use of an IMC approach could be useful to non-profit organisations involved in social marketing as it could increase the success of behavioural change messages. This study aims to explore the use of IMC by one non-profit organisation within a social marketing context. By doing so the study proposes and refines IMC criteria for social marketing to support behavioural change messages and thus contributes to the existing body of knowledge on using IMC in social marketing.

The study uses a single case study approach which includes using three data collection methods to collect data from the South Africa National Blood Service (SANBS) to evaluate its social marketing campaigns according to proposed IMC criteria for social marketing. Based on the findings revised IMC criteria which are more tailor-made for social marketing to support behavioural change messages are proposed. It became evident that non-profit organisations need to be sensitive to the complexities of communicating messages aimed at behavioural change. A proper understanding and application of more tailor-made IMC criteria for social marketing can thus benefit non-profit organisations to effectively communicate behavioural change messages through their social marketing campaigns.

KEY WORDS:
Integrated marketing communication; social marketing; behavioural change messages; non-profit organisation and social marketing campaigns
OPSOMMING

Geintegreerde bemarkingskommunikasie (GBK) is ‘n konsep wat deur talle studies in kommersiële kontekste ondersoek word. Talle geleerdes in die literatuur beklemttoon die voordele van die aanneming van ‘n IMC benadering wat onder andere boodskap konsekwentheid skep. Maar daar is nog steeds beperkte literatuur oor die aanvaarding en gebruik van IMC binne die konteks van nie-winsgewende organisasies wat betrokke is by sosiale bemarkingveldtoe om hul gedragsverandering boodskappe te ondersteun. Insig in die aanneming en gebruik van ‘n IMC benadering kan vir nie-winsgewende organisasies wat betrokke is in sosiale bemarking van nut wees as dit die sukses van gedragsverandering boodskappe kan verhoog. Hierdie studie het ten doel om die gebruik van IMC binne ‘n sosiale bemarkingskonteks te verken deur middel van ‘n nie-winsgewende organisasie. Deur dit te doen stel die studie IMC kriteria voor en verfyn ook die kriteria om sosiale bemarking gedragsverandering boodskappe te ondersteun en dra dus by tot die bestaande liggaam van kennis oor die gebruik van IMC binne sosiale bemarking.

Die studie maak van ‘n enkele gevallestudie benadering gebruik wat drie data-insamelingsmetodes insluit om data van die Suid-Afrika Nasionale Bloeddiens (SANBS) in te samel ten einde sy sosiale bemarkingsveldtoe te evaluer. Gebaseer op die bevindinge word hersiene IMC kriteria, wat meer gerig is om sosiale bemarking gedragsverandering boodskappe te ondersteun, voorgestel. Dit het duidelik geword dat nie-winsgewende organisasies sensitief moet wees vir die ingewikkeldheid van kommunikasieboodskappe wat daarop gerig is om gedrag te verander. Behoorlike begrip en toepassings van meer pasgemaakte IMC kriteria vir sosiale bemarking kan dus nie-winsgewende organisasies baat om gedragsverandering boodskappe deur middel van hul sosiale bemarkingsveldtoe effektief te kommunikeer.

SLEUTELWOORDE:

Geintegreerde bemarkingskommunikasie, sosiale bemarking, gedragsverandering boodskappe, nie-winsgewende organisasie en sosiale bemarkingsveldtoe.
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CHAPTER ONE
ORIENTATION AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

1 ORIENTATION AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter an introduction of the overall study is provided. The context of the study is discussed by providing the background to the study, outlining the objectives of the study and explicating the four research questions. Key concepts and the theoretical point of departure of the study are explained while the methodology used in this study is summarised. In addition the chapter provides a discussion on anticipated findings and clarifies the ethical considerations of this study. Lastly the demarcation of the study is outlined.

1.2 CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

This section deals with the background of the study, relevance of the study and relation to the discipline of communication and other studies in the field.

1.2.1 Background to the study

Various scholars and studies highlight the adoption and implementation of an integrated marketing communication (IMC) approach to communicating marketing messages in various organisational contexts (Eagle et al 2007; Ebren, Kitchen, Aksoy & Kaynak 2006; Kim, Han, & Schultz 2004; Kerr & Drennan 2010; Sisodia & Telrandhe 2010; Kallmeyer & Abratt 2001). Growth in the adoption of an IMC approach by organisations has been driven by aspects which include market place changes, media changes and consumer changes (Shultz & Patti 2009: 76; Kitchen & Burgamann 2010: 1). The aforementioned aspects gave rise to the need for organisations to integrate their various marketing communication mix elements to create coordinated and consistent marketing messages (Koekemoer 2011: 3). Furthermore it is illustrated in literature by scholars
and authors that there are benefits that could be achieved by adopting an IMC approach to communicating marketing messages within organisations (Winter & Sundqvist 2008; Dow & Jung 2011; Yu-Ju, Chihkang & Jingxue 2009; Gabrielli & Balboni 2010; Stokes 2009; Sucharit 2011; Prakash & Sharma 2010). Nonetheless IMC literature has mainly focused on the adoption and implementation of IMC within commercial contexts with limited studies going beyond these contexts (Hawkins, Bulmer, & Eagle 2011: 228).

Though very limited, there are some studies mainly in the health context, which focus on an IMC approach adopted by non-profit organisations involved in social marketing campaigns to support behavioural change messages (for instance, studies by Herstein, Mitki & Jaffe 2008; Hawkins et al 2011). These studies clearly show that social marketing campaigns which support behavioural change messages can benefit from adopting an IMC approach given the limited resources at their disposal (Hawkins et al 2011: 230). In addition these studies also highlight the need for more literature on how to use an IMC approach within non-profit organisational context such as for social marketing campaigns. There is to date still an absence of sound theoretical IMC criteria for social marketing to support behavioural change messages to which this study contributes (Kerr & Patti 2002: 2382). In this regard Kerr and Drennan (2010: 8) argue that failure to identify IMC criteria for social marketing could negatively influence non-profit organisations involved in social marketing campaigns to adopt an IMC approach. Against this background the aim of this study is thus to not only propose but also to refine theoretical IMC criteria for social marketing to support behavioural change messages in the context of a non-profit organisation.

1.2.2 Relevance of the study and relation to the discipline of communication

This study is relevant to the fields of social marketing and IMC by proposing and refining theoretical IMC criteria for social marketing to support behavioural change messages. Scholars and studies in literature show that not much research has been done in this regard (Hawkins et al 2011). The study can thus extend literature on the application of an IMC approach by non-profit organisations which are engaged in social marketing
activities. Non-profit organisations can benefit from findings of this study in that they can apply the proposed IMC criteria to make their behavioural change messages more successful in promoting desirable behaviours. Furthermore many scholars and studies have pointed to the adoption of an IMC approach in other parts of the world and more specially developed countries (Ebren, Kitchen, Aksoy & Kaynak 2006; Kim, Han, & Schultz 2004). This study in particular highlights the adoption of IMC within the South African context thereby contributing to literature in the fields of both social marketing and IMC.

1.2.3 Other research in the field

After an intensive search of literature, few studies seem to examine the application of IMC in the context of social marketing (Herstein et al 2008; Hawkins et al 2011; Morgan & Voola 2000) and they are mostly within the context of health studies. In this regard Hawkins et al (2011), for example, highlight the application of an IMC approach by health promoting schools resulting in effective communication which led to behavioural change among school pupils. Morgan and Voola (2000: 839) on the other hand established that an IMC approach in drug and alcohol treatment services had the potential to increase chances of successful attitude re-enforcement among people who seek drug and alcohol abuse treatment. Herstein et al’s (2008) study illustrates how Magen David Adom (MDA), which is equivalent to the Red Cross in Israel, managed to successfully use an IMC campaign to reinforce its corporate image. It should be noted also that an extensive search on both the Nexus and Sabinet databases indicates a lack of similar studies within the South African context.

This study is thus particularly significant in that it proposes and refines theoretical IMC criteria for social marketing. This contribution is important in that no available research studies have proposed IMC criteria in the context of a non-profit organisation involved in social marketing.
1.3 OBJECTIVES AND GOAL OF THE STUDY

In research there are two types of objectives namely exploratory and descriptive objectives. An exploratory objective explores an unknown area of a phenomenon understudy while a descriptive objective describes characteristics of a phenomenon under study (du Plooy 2009: 50-51). The objectives of the study are both exploratory and descriptive in nature. The objectives of the study are explained as follows:

**Objective 1:** To describe proposed theoretical IMC criteria within a social marketing context to support behavioural change messages.

**Objective 2:** To explore the use of an IMC approach within one non-profit organisational context to establish how social marketing campaigns’ behavioural change messages are informed by an IMC approach.

**Objective 3:** To explore how the proposed theoretical IMC criteria based on the study's findings can be further refined within a social marketing context.

Research can have two goals namely basic and applied communication research. According to du Plooy (2009: 50) basic communication research is when a research study investigates and develops theories which seek to explain any communication phenomena. Applied communication research on the other hand is when a research study investigates solutions to practical issues (du Plooy 2009: 50). The goal of the study is applied communication research because the study seeks to understand how theoretical IMC criteria could be used to support behavioural change messages in the context of social marketing campaigns. The key concepts underpinning this study are explained in the next section.

1.4 LITERATURE REVIEW: EXPLAINING THE KEY CONCEPTS OF THE STUDY

The key theoretical underpinnings of this study are anchored in IMC, social marketing, a social marketing campaign and the context of a non-profit organisation as discussed in the subsections below.
1.4.1 Integrated marketing communication

IMC according to Kitchen, Brignell, Li, and Spickett-Jones (2004) can be regarded as the major development in the field of communication. IMC according to Kitchen and Del Pelsmacker (2004) is a product of the twentieth century and it caught the attention of marketers in the mid-nineties (Blakeman 2009). The growth of IMC can be attributed to, among others, media fragmentation, easier access to consumer databases, importance of relationship marketing and the growing importance of building brand equity (Kitchen et al 2004).

Many authors and scholars (Kitchen et al 2004; Barker & Angelopulo 2006; McGrath 2005; Blakeman 2009; Schultz & Patti 2009) agree that there has not been consensus on the definition of IMC. Kitchen et al (2004) in this regard state that there are many different definitions of IMC ranging from what it entails to how it should be implemented. For the purpose of this study IMC is defined as “a process for managing the customer relationships that drive brand value. More specifically, it is a cross functional process for creating and nourishing profitable relationships with customers and other stakeholders by strategically controlling and influencing all messages sent to these groups and encouraging data-driven dialogue with them” (Duncan 2002: 8). This definition was adopted because it reflects the nature of IMC as discussed in literature (see chapter 3, section 3.4). Though the definition of IMC is still a topic of debate, IMC has become a major concept within many industries and it is considered a key competitive advantage in that it produces message consistency (Kitchen et al 2004).

1.4.2 Social marketing

Origins of social marketing can be traced to Wiebe (1951), who in 1951 asked “Why can’t you sell brotherhood and rational thinking like you sell soap?” (Wiebe 1952 in Stead, Gordon, Angus & McDermott 2006: 127). According to Stead et al (2006), this marked the beginning of academic inquiry by applying traditional marketing principles and techniques to marketing of social behaviour. However, it was not until 1971 that Kolter and Zaltman (1971) coined this new approach to marketing as social marketing (Andreasen 1994). Social marketing unlike traditional commercial marketing, sells
behavioural change for the benefit of the individual and society at large (Kotler, Roberto & Lee 2002: 5).

In the nineties social marketing was considered a new subject and consequently there has been a lot of debate since, on what it entails and not (Andreasen 1994: 108). Maibach (2002: 7) notes that “social marketing remains poorly understood by many in the field”. However, many authors (Andreasen 1991; Maibach 2002; Harvey 2008 and Stead et al 2006) agree that for any programme to be labelled a social marketing programme, it must apply commercial marketing techniques, influence voluntary behaviour on its target audience and primarily seek to benefit individuals, families and the broader society. Stead et al (2006: 127) add the principle of exchange as one of the fundamental prerequisites for a social marketing programme, where the customers exchange their time, effort or money for goods and services offered. In social marketing, consumers in return for their effort or money usually get intangible benefits like social and psychological satisfaction.

Some of the pioneers of the concept of social marketing, Kotler et al (2002: 5) define social marketing as “the use of marketing principles and techniques to influence a target audience to voluntary accept, reject, modify or abandon behaviour for the benefit of individuals, groups, or society”. This definition is adopted for this study because it acknowledges the voluntary nature of social marketing and the central theme of changing behaviour and also accommodates most of the key elements of social marketing (Kotler et al 2002). These key elements of social marketing are discussed in detail in chapter 2, section 2.8.

1.4.3 Social marketing campaign

Willoughby (2013: 267) explains that social marketing campaigns are designed to apply principles of marketing to behavioural change with the aim of improving either personal or societal welfare. Social marketing campaigns are used to influence adoption of a desired behaviour of a target group or audience (Weinreich 2011: 21). It is through social marketing campaigns that behavioural change messages are communicated using marketing communication mix elements (see chapter 3, section 3.6). Social
marketing campaigns are systematic and planned like any other campaigns in traditional marketing (see chapter 2, section 2.9). Various authors and scholars have proposed different models to social marketing campaign planning and implementation and steps within these models range from analysis of the social problem to the evaluation of the social marketing campaign (Dooley, Jones & Desmarias 2009: 35). This study adopts Weinreich’s (2011) model for planning and implementing a social marketing campaign because it encompasses most of the steps which are proposed in many other models by various authors and scholars (see chapter 2, section 2.9).

1.4.4 Non-profit organisation

A non-profit organisation is defined in this study as an organisation which is “voluntary and self-governing, may not distribute profits and serve public purposes as well as the common goals of their members” (Boris & Steuerle 2006: 3). This definition is widely used by other authors and scholars as it reflects the main features of a non-profit organisation (Cutlip, Centre & Broom 2009: 456). According to Worth (2014: 56-57) the most distinguishable features of a non-profit organisation are that it is an organised entity, private, which is non-profit distributing, self-governing, voluntary and of public interest. The most fundamental different between a non-profit organisation and for-profit organisation is the profit motive (Ahmed 2013: 5). Unlike for-profit organisations, non-profit organisations do not pursue a profit motive. According to Glavin (2011: 7) non-profit organisations play a pivotal role in society and some the roles include identifying societal problems, advocating for behavioural change and providing a structure for the investment of private capital to cause social change.

1.5 FORMULATION OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In the following subsections the study's research problem, research questions and assumptions are summarised.
1.5.1 The research problem

The research problem is a general statement which usually guides formulation of a research project by outlining the issue or problem which merits research (Walliman 2011: 366). Several studies were conducted on the adaptation and implementation of an IMC approach in producing consistency in marketing communication messages in the commercial marketing context. However, as mentioned in section 1.2 above, not many studies in literature reflects how an IMC approach can be applied to behavioural change messages in the context of social marketing campaigns. For this reason the study’s research problem can be stated as follows:

The purpose of this qualitative study is to propose and refine theoretical criteria for IMC within the context of social marketing to support behavioural change messages by means of a cross sectional single case study.

1.5.2 The research questions

A research question can be defined as “a theoretical question that indicates a clear direction and scope of a research project” (Walliman 2011: 366). This study attempts to answer the following four research questions:

Research question 1: What are the theoretical criteria for an IMC approach to support goals of behavioural change messages in social marketing campaigns?

Research question 2: To what extent do SANBS' social marketing campaigns conform with the theoretical criteria for IMC to support goals of behavioural change messages?

Research question 3: How is the use of IMC in social marketing campaigns relevant to a non-profit organisational context?

Research question 4: How can the theoretical IMC criteria for social marketing campaigns be further adapted based on the results of the study to support goals of behavioural change messages?
1.5.3 Assumptions

According to du Plooy (2009: 57) assumptions in research are regarded as tentative explanations or statements which can be provisionally regarded as true despite there being no proof. This study makes the following assumptions:

**Assumption 1:** IMC criteria within a commercial marketing context can be used to support goals of behavioural change messages in a non-profit context for social marketing campaigns.

**Assumption 2:** SANBS’ social marketing campaigns conform to the proposed theoretical IMC criteria for social marketing.

**Assumption 3:** An IMC approach to social marketing within a non-profit organisational context is relevant to supporting behavioural change goals.

**Assumption 4:** Based on the study’s findings IMC criteria for social marketing can be further refined to support behavioural change messages.

1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study is argued from an interpretivist research paradigm (see chapter 5, sections 5.2 and 5.3). Maree (2007: 60) states that the “aim of interpretivist research is to offer a perspective of a situation and to analyse the situation under study to provide insight into the way a particular group of people make sense of their situation or the phenomena they encounter”. The study seeks to explore the phenomena of an IMC approach from a social marketing perspective. Being mainly exploratory in nature, the study aims for rich, in-depth and quality information to understand the variables under study. To obtain rich, in-depth and quality information, the study will use a single case study approach. There are different views on whether a case study is a research design or a research method (see chapter 5, section 5.7). This study adopts Creswell’s (2013: 97) view of a case study as methodology used in qualitative research. A single case study as a research methodology for this study is discussed in the subsection below.
1.6.1 The research method

The study uses a single case study to apply and refines proposed IMC criteria to support behavioural change messages within a social marketing context by evaluating three social marketing campaigns at the SANBS. The single case for this study is the SANBS, a non-profit organisation that is involved in blood transfusion services in South Africa (see chapter 4, section 4.4). According to Berg (2009: 202) a case study as a research method is about studying a particular phenomenon which is examined through one or more cases. Creswell (2013: 97) defines a case study as “a qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a real-life, contemporary bounded system or multiple bounded systems over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information and reports a case description and the case themes”. It is apparent from Creswell’s (2013) definition that a case study using information from many data sources, aims for a focused and rich description of a phenomenon within its broader context.

There are various instances in which a single case study is applicable (see chapter 5, section 5.7.1). In this study a single case study was chosen because of two important reasons. Firstly the study applies proposed IMC criteria within the context of social marketing by evaluating three social marketing campaigns to support behavioural change messages (see chapter 3, section 3.11). As such it can be argued that social marketing campaigns should be evaluated within the organisational context in which they are planned. This is so because social marketing campaigns are a product of internal planning within an organisation. For this reason it is logical to use a single case study since the evaluation of campaigns is carried out in the context or setting in which they are planned and in this case the context is the SANBS. Rowley (2002: 18) states that the “strength of a case study is the ability to undertake an investigation into a phenomenon in its context”.

Secondly a single case study provides an extensive and in-depth description of the phenomenon under study (Yin 2009: 4). For this reason a single case study becomes appropriate in that the phenomenon of proposed IMC criteria within a social marketing
context to support behavioural change messages can be explored in a much deeper and more detailed investigation which also uses multiple sources of evidence (Rule & John 2011: 7). Using multiple sources of evidence (triangulation) thus enhances the quality of the research findings and allows the phenomenon of IMC criteria for social marketing to support behavioural change messages to be evaluated from a variety of perspectives which can reveal the multiple facets from which the phenomenon can be understood (Baxter & Jack 2008: 544; Gibbert, Ruigrok & Wicki 2008: 1468).

1.6.2 Research approach

According to Denzin and Lincoln (2003:33) a research approach refers to the “skills, assumptions and practices used by the researcher as he or she moves from the paradigm to the empirical world”. Quantitative and qualitative approaches are two broad approaches found in research. A quantitative approach explains that the world is real and truth about reality can be established through measuring properties of a phenomenon using quantitative measurements (Walliman 2011: 75). The quantitative approach is guided by a positivist paradigm which regards human behaviour as observable and measurable (see chapter 5, section 5.2). On the other hand qualitative research seeks to develop a comparative understanding of the phenomenon as experienced by different participants in different settings and provides insights into phenomenon from the research subjects’ perspective (du Plooy 2009: 35).

A qualitative approach to research states that there are multiple sources of knowledge which can explore, interpret and understand a subjective world (du Plooy 2009: 35). This study uses a qualitative approach in that it seeks to provide insights into the phenomenon of IMC within a social marketing context and to understand how meaning of such phenomenon is constructed from the research subjects' point of view. Also another main concern is to understand the phenomenon under study in terms of its specific context rather than attempting generalise to some theoretical population. The qualitative approach adopted for this study is guided by an interpretivist perspective as explained in section 1.6 above.
1.6.3 The population

The population of a study is the group from which a researcher wants to draw conclusions (Babbie 2013:115). The target and accessible population for this study are explained in the subsections below.

1.6.4 The target population

According to du Plooy (2009:56) the target population “is the entire class or group of units, objects or subjects to which one want to generalise findings”. In this study the target population were SANBS employees and all SANBS’ documents which relate to messages of their planned marketing communication activities.

1.6.5 The accessible population

The accessible population “are the units of analysis in the target population to which researchers have access” (du Plooy 2009:51). For this study the accessible population were individuals interviewed in the face-to-face semi-structured interviews and focus group. The individuals were identified through purposive sampling and their inclusion in the face-to-face semi-structured interviews and focus group was due to their knowledge of marketing communication activities at the SANBS (see chapter 5, sections 5.8.2 and 5.8.3). With regards to the qualitative content analysis the accessible documents included three annual reports, six Blood Beat SANBS magazines, five transcripts of radio advertisements, five transcripts of television advertisements, seven newspaper advertisements, 55 pages containing 176 Facebook updates and 55 pages containing 276 ‘tweets’ on Twitter (see chapter 5, Table 5.1).

1.6.6 Sampling

The two broad types of sampling are probability and non-probability sampling. In probability sampling the aim is to select a set of elements which accurately portray parameters of the total population by way of random selection (Babbie & Mouton 2011: 174). On the other hand in non-probability sampling not every unit has an equal chance
of being selected (du Plooy 2009: 112). This study uses non-probability type of sampling in the form of a purposive sample method.

For this study in face-to-face semi-structured interviews, one focus group and documents for qualitative content analysis were selected using a purposive sample method. According to Liamputtong (2013: 14) a purposive sample method refers to “the deliberate selection of specific individuals, events or settings because of crucial information they provide that cannot be obtained so well through other channels”. This study was not interested in the representativeness of the sample but rather in the in-depth and rich information which the participants and selected documents provided in advancing the objectives of the study.

1.6.7 Data collection methods

According to Gibbert et al (2008: 1468) triangulation can be achieved when using a case study as multiple sources of data collection can be used. Using multiple sources of data collection is beneficial in using a single case study in that insights into the case can be confirmed by various sources (Creswell 2013: 97). In this study data was collected using three data collection methods, namely qualitative content analysis, focus group and face-to-face semi-structured interviews. The main purpose of the face-to-face semi-structured interviews (interview schedule) in this study was to gain insight into how IMC is considered in planning of marketing communication messages (behavioural change messages) for SANBS’ social marketing campaigns. Another data collection method was a focus group (moderator’s guide) with the aim of getting insight into the proposed IMC criteria to support behavioural change messages at operational level. The third data collection method was a qualitative content analysis. The qualitative content analysis was used to assist, corroborate and augment evidence from the focus group and face-to-face semi-structured interviews.

1.6.8 Interpretation of the data

Data analysis provides meaning to collected data. This study used two methods in analysing collected qualitative data. For the face-to-face semi-structured interviews and
focus group a six-phased thematic analysis process as proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006) was used (see chapter 5, section 5.11.1). Braun and Clarke’s (2006) thematic analysis describes six steps which can be followed in analysing qualitative data to enhance validity. Data collected from documents was analysed using a directed approach to qualitative content analysis. Hsieh and Shannon (2005: 1278) propose specific steps to follow when using a directed approach to content analysis of data and this study thus adopts these five steps to analyse data from the documents (chapter 5, section 5.11.2).

### 1.6.9 Validity and Reliability

Yin (2009: 41) argues that every study should ensure the quality of both the research process and the research findings. For this study a set of validity and reliability measures were applied to face-to-face semi-structured interviews and one focus group while another set of validity and reliability measures were applied to the qualitative content analysis. Babbie and Mouton (2011: 122) define validity as “the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration”. In the case of face-to-face semi-structured interviews and the focus group internal, construct, external validity and reliability measures were used (see chapter 5, section 5.9.1). These measures prescribe that for quality to be achieved, interview questions have to be pretested. As there is a need for triangulation, a case study protocol also has to be formulated to establish a clear chain of evidence of data collected using databases (Yin 2009: 45; Rowley 2002: 20; Reign 2003; Gibbert et al 2008: 1468).

With regards to the qualitative content analysis, validity and reliability were ensured using conformability, credibility, transferability, dependability measures (see chapter 5, section 5.9.2). For such measures to be followed the study clearly explains the data collection and data analysis process using peer debriefing and researcher self-monitoring and inter-coder reliability (Reige 2003: 81; Joffe & Yardley 2004: 62; du Plooy 2009: 133).
1.6.10 Feasibility of the study

The researcher was awarded funding for the study from the employer and all the costs incurred during the research study were covered by funds received through the employer.

1.7 ANTICIPATED FINDINGS AND CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE DISCIPLINE OF COMMUNICATION

Anticipated findings as well as the contributions this study might make to the discipline for communication are discussed in the following sub sections.

1.7.1 Anticipated findings

The study will indicate that theoretical IMC criteria for social marketing to support behavioural change messages can be used. However, more tailor-made criteria are needed for social marketing due to the complexity of communicating behavioural change messages and the process of behaviour change.

1.7.2 Anticipated contributions to the discipline of communication

The study seeks to contribute to the field of communication and in particular the disciplines of IMC and social marketing. Previous studies in IMC were conducted mainly from a commercial marketing perspective and this study had the potential to contribute to the existing body of knowledge on how to use IMC from a non-profit organisation’s perspective within a social marketing context.

1.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR THIS STUDY

The study complies with all necessary ethical guidelines in accordance with Policy for Research Ethics of UNISA and maintains the confidentiality of all data collected from participants and maintains security procedures for the protection of individual and organisation information. The researcher read and familiarised himself with UNISA policy on ethics regarding research. Formal permission to collect data from its employees was requested by the researcher and granted by SANBS. Informed consent
from all individuals involved in face-to-face and focus group was sort before the interviews (see Annexures A, B, C, D and E). Permission to record all the interviews was requested from each of the participants (see Annexure A, B, C, D and E). Furthermore the purpose and aims of the study were explained to the participants prior to each interview. An ethical clearance form which contains a declaration on ethical considerations accompanies this research report (see Annexure G).

### 1.9 DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY

The study is demarcated as follows:

**Table 1.1: Demarcation of the study in terms of addressing the research questions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHAPTER</th>
<th>ADDRESSING RESEARCH QUESTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>All four research questions</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chapter Two: Social marketing</td>
<td>Research questions one and two</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chapter Three: Integrated marketing communication</td>
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<td>Chapter Four: SANBS’ campaigns as a case</td>
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<td>Chapter Seven: Conclusions and recommendations</td>
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1.10 SUMMARY

Within this chapter an introduction of the overall study was provided. Context of the study was outlined by discussing the background to the study and also outlining the objectives of the study and the four research questions. Furthermore key concepts and the theoretical point of departure of the study were explained. The methodology used in this study was also summarised. In addition a discussion on anticipated findings was provided and the ethical considerations of this study we clarified in detail. Lastly the demarcation of the study was outlined.
2 SOCIAL MARKETING

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the theory of social marketing is discussed. Firstly, social marketing is conceptualised within the broader field of marketing by clearly explicating how social marketing is viewed as one of the approaches to marketing. A detailed discussion on the origins and development of social marketing follows. Competing concepts which are sometimes confused with social marketing are discussed. Theories of social marketing are explained in detail as well as key elements of social marketing. Lastly, the theory of social marketing campaigns is offered by way of explaining some of the steps involved in planning and implementing a social marketing campaign.

2.2 THE BROADER CONCEPT OF MARKETING

It is first necessary to discuss the broader concept of marketing since the concept of social marketing is theoretically imbedded in this field. The American Marketing Association's (2013: 1) definition of marketing is still widely adopted and defines marketing as “the activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society at large”. This latest definition of marketing by the American Marketing Association (2013) illustrates how much marketing has broadened to include offering of value not only to consumers but to society as a whole. American Marketing Association's (2013) definition of marketing is adopted for this study mainly because it acknowledges that marketing adds value to society which is the essence of social marketing. Using marketing tools and techniques to add value to society is the central idea of social marketing, which is discussed in greater detail in this chapter. Marketing tools include the traditional marketing mix elements also referred to as the 4Ps.
Palmer (2009: 21) argues that the traditional marketing mix is central to marketing management and Masterson and Pickton (2010: 410) support this assertion by stating that the 4Ps of the marketing mix have been at the heart of marketing since the nineteen sixties. Armstrong and Kotler (2011: 81) define the marketing mix as a “set of tactical marketing tools that the firm blends to produce the response it wants in the market place”. The concept marketing mix was first coined by Neil Borden in 1953 according to van Waterschoot and Foscht (2010: 188). McCarthy (1964) later reduced the 12 variables identified by Borden (1953) to just 4Ps (Constantinides 2006: 408). Cant (2010: 14) identifies the 4Ps of the marketing mix as product, place, promotion and price. These four elements are used by marketers to facilitate the potential for exchange with customers in a market place (Belch & Belch 2012: 21). The traditional 4Ps are the tools which marketers manipulate to meet the needs and demands of their target markets. Palmer (2009: 21) states that the marketing mix “highlights the principle decisions that marketing managers make in configuring their offerings to suit customers' needs”. Configuring offerings has also extended to suit the needs of society as a whole.

Development of the marketing discipline to acknowledge the value it adds to society represents a shift for marketing, from being a goods-dominant discipline to a service-dominant discipline (Vargo & Lusch, 2004: 2). The goods-dominant view of marketing can be described as the traditional approach to marketing while the service-dominant represents the contemporary approach to marketing. In the traditional approach to marketing, emphasis was placed on products and how they could improve their appeal to consumers. Panthari (2010) identifies production, product and sales oriented marketing as some of the earliest approaches to marketing. Vargo and Lusch (2004: 2) chronicle the evolution of marketing by stating that “marketing has moved from a goods-dominant view, in which tangible output and discrete transactions were central, to service-dominant view, in which intangible, exchange processes and relationships are central”. Such a move to a service-dominant view represents more contemporary marketing approaches which include non-profit marketing, cause-related marketing, societal marketing, and social marketing (Panthari, 2010; MacFadyen, Stead & Hastings, 2003) (see section 2.5). Social marketing can thus be considered a sub-
discipline of marketing as well as a product of the broadening of marketing over the years as was highlighted in the above discussion.

As an emerging concept, social marketing has experienced a continued change in its definitions. Since social marketing’s acceptance as a field of study, many definitions have thus been proposed of which one was adopted for this study as explained in the next section.

### 2.3 DEFINING SOCIAL MARKETING

In its most basic form, social marketing is the “application of marketing principles and exchange to social issues” (Domegan 2008: 135). Numerous definitions of social marketing have been proposed since the concept was coined in 1971. In its first formal definition, social marketing was defined by Kotler and Zaltman (1971: 5) as “the design, implementation and control of programmes calculated to influence the acceptability of social ideas and involving considerations of product planning, pricing, communication, distribution, and marketing research”. However, this definition of social marketing has been widely criticised by both academics and practitioners for its emphasis on promoting acceptability of ideas since the scope of social marketing goes beyond the promotion of ideas (Andreasen 2003: 296).

For the purpose of this study social marketing is defined as “the use of marketing principles and techniques to influence a target audience to voluntarily accept, modify, or abandon a behaviour for the benefit of individuals, groups, or society as a whole” (Kotler et al 2002: 5). The above definition is adopted for this study because it acknowledges the use of marketing principles for the benefits of individuals and society at large which is the focus of this study. This definition not only outlines the voluntary nature of social marketing and the central theme of changing behaviours but also accommodates most of the key elements of social marketing (Kotler et al 2002). These key elements of social marketing are discussed in detail in section 2.8 of this chapter.
Having adopted a definition of social marketing for this study, it is also important to trace the origins of social marketing and to illustrate how it has grown in stature over the years. In the next section the origins and growth of social marketing are explained.

2.4 ORIGINS AND GROWTH OF SOCIAL MARKETING

Social marketing according to French, Blair-Steven, McVey and Merritt (2009: 21) evolved alongside commercial marketing. In 1951 Wiebe asked the famous question of why brotherhood or rational thinking cannot be sold like soap. This question puts forward the idea that some of society’s problems and issues could be solved by applying commercial marketing tools and techniques. Social marketing was born out of the need for traditional marketing to be more socially relevant, however it was not until 1971 that the concept social marketing was coined by Kotler and Zaltman (French et al 2009: 20).

Many authors and scholars (French et al 2009; MacFadyen et al 2003; Kotler et al 2002; Lee & Kotler 2011) agree that social marketing has its intellectual foundation in the seminal work of Kotler and Zaltman’s (1971) article in the Journal of Marketing. On one hand Glenane-Antoniadis, Whitwell, Bell and Menguc (2003: 324) assert that Kotler and Levy’s (1969) paper was the launching pad for the introduction of social marketing, while on the other Andreasen (1994) in his seminal article argues that social marketing’s growth was a product of the Northwestern School’s attempts to broaden the application of traditional marketing to other fields of study. This assertion is supported by MacFadyen et al (2003: 696), who describes social marketing as a concept which started from an institutional focus, where academics asked if marketing should be applied to social issues, to a programme focus, where academics asked how marketing should be done.

Andreasen (2003) likens the growth of social marketing to that of a human being, from birth to childhood to its current state of early maturity. In the birth phase of marketing, Andreasen (2003: 294) explains that “social marketing involved relatively simple products where the principal marketing tools were convectional promotion and distribution”. It was also during the birth phase of social marketing when it was used in
health related areas (Lee & Kotler 2011: 12). French et al (2009: 22) add that the early application of social marketing was in the area of health, for example, contraceptives marketing and high blood pressure. In many developing countries in the nineteen sixties commercial marketing technologies began to be applied to health education campaigns (Donovan & Henley 2010: 8). This clearly demonstrates that there was early application of social marketing before serious theoretical probing. The childhood phase of social marketing is explained by Andreasen (2003: 295) as a period of limited expansion where practitioners were held back in the application of social marketing. This was due to social marketing’s early association with marketing of products and consequently many organisations and agencies did not view social marketing as applicable in instances where there was no product or sale (Lefebvre 2011: 56).

Andreasen (2003: 295) further describes the childhood phase of social marketing as characterised by an identity crisis, where its early definition did not distinguish it from other areas such as health communication and health education. Even in the nineties social marketing was still considered a new subject and there was consequently a lot of debate on what it is and what it is not (Weinreich 2011:4). Maibach (2002: 7) notes that “social marketing remains poorly understood by many in the field” and in this regard Andreasen (2002a:4) identifies four major problems which hamper the growth of social marketing which are a lack of appreciation of social marketing by top management, poor ‘brand positioning’, inadequate documentation and publicity and lack of academic stature. These challenges constitute problems which social marketing has had to overcome in order to make it a robust field.

Apart from a lack of appreciation, a social marketing identity crisis during its childhood phase also gave rise to more critics of the field. Social marketing was, for example, criticised for threatening the economic exchange theory due to its replacement of a tangible product with an idea (French et al 2009: 22). Andreasen (2002a) describes the lack of academic stature as one of the criticisms of social marketing which has questioned its legitimacy as an academic field. Some of the above criticisms can be attributed to what Andreasen (2002a: 3) describes as “absence of a clear understanding of what the field is and what its role should be in relation to other approaches to social
change”. Regardless of the criticism and barriers noted above, social marketing has grown in both theory and application.

In the nineteen nineties during what Andreasen (2003) refers to as the adolescence phase, social marketing managed to shrug off its early crisis of identity and saw its true nature being established. According to Andreasen (2003: 296) “a number of scholars and practitioners came to the realisation that the essence was not changing ideas but changing behaviour”. The established identity of social marketing made it achieve wide awareness and adoption as an approach to social change (Lee & Kotler 2011: 12). According to Andreasen (2002a), there are numerous developments both on a theoretical and application level to indicate the broad acceptance of social marketing. Theoretical development of social marketing according to Smith (2007: 78) mostly came from American academics. However, the practice has been evident around the world (Smith 2007: 78). Today social marketing is an established concept which is applied to diverse areas such as health (Agha, van Rossem, Stallworthy, & Kusanthan 2007; Chang, Bultman, Drayton, Knight, Rattay & Barrett 2007), safety (Cismaru, Lavack & Markewich 2009), the environment (van Berkel 2007) and the community (Bryant, McCormack-Brown, McDermott, Forthofer, Bumpus, Calkins & Zapata 2007).

In its development, social marketing has been identified as both being strategic and operational in nature. According to French et al (2009: 6), strategic social marketing mainly focuses on policy development and selection of appropriate interventions which can achieve strategic goals. Strategic social marketing designs and adjusts the environment to make it more conducive for the adoption of a desirable behaviour. On the other hand operational social marketing is “applied as a planned social marketing process either as social marketing initiative, campaign or programme” (French et al 2009:6). In operational social marketing the best intervention which consists of product, price, place and promotion is considered and applied. Due to the nature of this study, both strategic and operational social marketing is adopted as applicable for this study. The study mainly focuses on social marketing at campaign level by evaluating its IMC approach to support behavioural change messages.
As highlighted in the above discussion, social marketing has had its fair share of supporters and critics. Critics point to the identity crisis of social marketing as a major stumbling block to its acceptance as a field of study. Adding to the debate of identity crisis is the confusion of social marketing with concepts which on the surface might be similar to social marketing. These concepts include cause-related marketing, social responsibility, societal marketing and non-profit marketing. However these ‘competing concepts’ are different from social marketing as is eluded in the next section.

2.5 COMPETING CONCEPTS

Social marketing seeks to influence the behaviour of a target audience for the benefit of individual or society at large. Nevertheless, there are concepts which have been used by both corporate organisations and non-profit organisations in promoting or solving social issues. These concepts include cause-related marketing, social responsibility, societal marketing and non-profit marketing. Furthermore, there are concepts which have been used to highlight and counter some of the negative consequences of marketing activities with a good example being societal marketing. Some of these approaches have been confused with social marketing (Donovan & Henley 2010: 9). It is imperative to highlight the differences between social marketing and the above mentioned ‘competing concepts’ in order to give social marketing its rightful place in the marketing domain and to also contextualise this concept for the purpose of this study.

2.5.1 Cause-related marketing

According to Anghel, Grigore and Rosca (2011: 73), cause-related marketing (CRM) involves “an offer that is valid for a period of time, refers to a specific product of the company and performs for the benefit of non-profit organisations who has a legitimacy in the selected cause”. CRM is when an organisation intends to build a partnership around a notable cause supported by a non-profit organisation (Svensson & Wood 2011: 204). According to Anghel et al (2011: 74), CRM “is the explicit link between the purchase of goods and services and funnelling of revenue to a cause or specific charity”. CRM is based on the premise that consumers support organisations which care for their environment and that are prepared to spend more on products and
services of such organisations. CRM has a transactional character because an organisation's donation to an identified cause is triggered by consumer purchase of an organisation's goods or services (Moosmayer & Fuljah 2010: 544). In CRM business and charities, partner to market an image, product or service for mutual benefit. In some instances a certain percentage of total sales or customer transaction is donated to a non-profit organisation or cause. However, for the partnership to work an organisation should seek a cause that complements its existing business profile (Svensson & Wood 2011: 205).

Papasolomon and Kitchen (2011:63) argue that CRM builds brands, create product awareness, revitalise corporate values and make community involvement visible for any organisation. Organisations use their CRM initiatives to distinguish their products and services from that of other organisations. In CRM, non-profit organisations benefit financially in that they receive financial support for their social causes. Kotler et al (2002: 354) explain CRM as a win-win-win proposition because the business, customer and the non-profit organisation all benefit from the partnership.

As much as cause-related marketing seeks to promote social causes, it is not social marketing. A major difference between social marketing and cause-related marketing is the ultimate goals of the two. In social marketing the ultimate goal is to influence behaviour which must benefit an individual or society and not the social marketer or the organisation which promotes such behaviour. This is contrary to organisations which engage in cause-related marketing and aim to achieve strategic marketing objectives from their endeavours and consequently having a return on investment (ROI). Moosmayer and Fuljah (2010: 544) support this assertion by stating that organisations engaging in CRM primarily aim to improve consumer product evaluation. Papasolomon and Kitchen (2011: 65) further agree by explaining that CRM “is a potential tool for enabling an organisation to achieve its marketing objectives while making a positive contribution to communities on which they depend”. As a result of organisations’ indirect and sometimes direct benefit from cause-related marketing, their contributions or activities cannot be labelled social marketing.
2.5.2 Social responsibility

According to Hughes, Patterson and Terrell (2005:71), social responsibility “entails recognising and assuming responsibility for the wellbeing of the larger group and for the other individual who live and operate within it”. Hughes et al’s (2005) definition of social responsibility implies that every individual, organisation or entity has an obligation to act in a manner that benefits the society at large. Dickson, Loker and Eckman (2009: 29) are of the view that social responsibility embraces all the social issues that surround relationships between people and their communities or society. In social responsibility individuals and businesses entities should be mindful of how their actions can impact the environment. There should always be a balance between human actions and sustainability of the environment. According to Dickson et al (2005: 23) many large organisations took a leading role in social responsibility which thus gave rise to the concept of corporate social responsibility (CSR). CSR is part of organisations’ corporate responsibility towards the environment in which they operate and a product of society’s concern about corporate organisations’ activities which have negatively affected society. Concerns have been raised on how far corporate organisations should go in pursuit of profits. In other words the concern is how corporate organisations should operate in a manner that benefits not only its shareholders but also the society at large. According to Blowfield and Murray (2008), there are growing expectations that organisations should come up with solutions and alternative ways in solving some of the twenty-first century’s main social and environmental challenges.

The above description of social responsibility bears some resemblance to social marketing in that both are for the greater good of society and seek coexistence of economic development and welfare of the society or environment. However, the two concepts are not entirely the same and should not be confused with one another. Social responsibility occurs more on an ideological level as to how individuals and entities should ethically behave towards the environment while social marketing deals with practical ways, using commercial marketing tools, of solving society’s problematic issues. In other words social responsibility takes a broader perspective on how human activities can be balanced with the ecosystem while social marketing is limited to how
marketing tools can be used in influencing human behaviour for the betterment of individuals and society at large.

It is without doubt that social marketing and social responsibility share some commonalities and to some extent may be labelled as ‘competing concepts’, but it is by no means a sound conclusion to assert that they are the same. The above discussion highlighted major distinctions between the two while in the next subsection the dissimilarity between social marketing and societal marketing is highlighted.

2.5.3 Societal marketing

Societal marketing according to MacFadyen et al (2003: 697) is “concerned with the ethical and societal implications of commercial activities”. According to Kumar and Sahn (2010: 424) an “organisation should deliver consumer satisfaction in a way that preserves the consumers’ and the society’s wellbeing”. Societal marketing seeks to uphold both ethical and social considerations in corporate organisations’ marketing decisions. Josh (2010: 356) argues that societal marketing expects marketers to balance organisational profits, satisfaction of consumers and welfare of society.

As is evident from the explanation of societal marketing, a clear difference from societal marketing can be noted. As stated above, societal marketing is mainly concerned with the social implications of some of the marketing activities of corporate organisations. Cant (2010: 1) explains that a societal oriented organisation “goes beyond a pure marketing orientation to include the preservation or enhancement of individuals’ and society’s long term best interest”. Social marketing, on the other hand is the application of marketing techniques in solving social issues. The ‘competing’ element between the two concepts is evident in their concern for the wellbeing of society. However, approaches taken by the two concepts in confronting some of these social ills are different. Social marketing uses various marketing tools in proposing solutions to pertinent social issues while societal marketing considers broad social and ethical considerations in safe guarding customers and society at large.
Societal marketing and social marketing cannot be used interchangeably or confused with one another. Nevertheless, the two concepts are products of the broader field of marketing. Likewise, non-profit marketing is a product of the broadening of marketing and is thus considered a 'competing concept' of social marketing. In the next section non-profit marketing is discussed and distinguished from social marketing.

2.5.4 Non-profit marketing

The idea of applying marketing concepts to non-profit organisations has its roots in the success of marketing for-profit organisations. Non-profit marketing according to Bennett and Sargeant (2003: 797) is a product of the growth of marketing both as an applied and theoretical discipline. Helmig and Thaler (2010: 152) illustrate the development of non-profit marketing through the evolution of marketing definitions which have come to accept the application of the marketing concept beyond the traditional perspective. In simple terms non-profit marketing is the application of marketing principles to non-profit organisations. Supporting their view Helmig and Thaler (2010: 153) argue that “non-profit marketing is a philosophy that includes internal and external activities that aim to contribute to the fulfilment of an organization’s overall mission”. This definition reflects that non-profit marketing supports internal and external activities aimed at achieving overall organisational objectives. Some of these internal and external activities according to Lee and Kotler (2011: 16) are used for volunteer recruitment, advocacy efforts and fundraising. However, marketing for-profit is different than marketing for non-profit. According to Winton and Hochstadt (2011: 412) “the big difference between a non-profit marketing message and that of a for-profit company is that the benefits are different: in the case of your non-profit you are not selling products and services, you are selling social impact”. This means that in non-profit marketing non-profit organisations are mainly selling an idea to individuals.

In distinguishing social marketing and non-profit marketing authors and scholars such as Bennett and Sargeant (2003: 801) approach social marketing as a sub set of non-profit marketing. They argue that social marketing as a one of the milestones in the development and maturity and thus recognition of non-profit marketing (Bennett &
Sargeant 2003: 801). However, Lee and Kotler (2011: 9) are of the strong view that social marketing and non-profit marketing should be differentiated. According to MacFadyen et al (2003: 697), non-profit marketing deals with “marketing management of institutions or organisations in the non-profit arena” while on the other hand, social marketing is mainly concerned with changing behaviour of target audience, using traditional marketing tools and techniques.

From the above discussion it is clear that social marketing and non-profit marketing differ in terms of their central objectives. However, it must be noted that the two concepts overlap in some aspects. Areas of overlap include their roots in the broad field of marketing, their common use by mostly non-profit organisations and their application of marketing tools and techniques. As much as these two concepts are confused with each other in some contexts, in this study and for the sake of clarity, social marketing and non-profit marketing are viewed as two different concepts. Their main difference in the context of this study is that social marketing deals with changing of behaviours by applying traditional marketing tools, while non-profit marketing concerns itself with the broader marketing management of non-profit organisations which might in some instances, not only deal with behavioural change.

Distinguishing social marketing from other ‘competing’ concepts is important in locating its legitimate position in the marketing literature. Using distinct theories is another feature which separates social marketing from other fields of study. In the next section social marketing theories are explained to explicate the theoretical point of departure of this study.

2.6 SOCIAL MARKETING THEORIES

In social marketing, theories help comprehend how human behaviour can be changed using traditional marketing tools. According to Dann, Harris, Mort, Fry and Binney (2007: 294) “development of models and theory specific to social marketing is deficient”. Dann et al (2007: 294) propose that a more urgent approach to theory development be taken for the survival of social marketing as a distinct entity.
Current social marketing theories have their roots in fields such as economics, health and psychology (Hastings 2007; Fourie & Froneman 2009; Dann et al 2007) and the central focus of these theories is on human behaviour (Hastings et al 2010: 330). It is, however, not the scope of this chapter to provide an exhaustive list of theories associated with social marketing, but to highlight some of the most widely used theories. These theories help in appreciating the central aim of social marketing, which is to successfully understand and change behaviour in the most desired direction (Hastings et al 2010: 331). In this section three theories will be discussed in relation to social marketing, namely the exchange theory, the transtheoretical model and the social cognitive theory. These three theories were chosen mainly due to two reasons. Firstly, they constitute some of the most widely used theories of social marketing adopted by most of the recognised authors and scholars in the field. Secondly, they explicitly explain human behaviour in simplified terms which helps enlighten the theoretical underpinnings of social marketing. This is in line with the aim of this chapter, which is to provide comprehensive and recent theoretical discussion of social marketing.

2.6.1 Social exchange theory

The social exchange theory, in social marketing, is borrowed from the broader marketing theory and is one of the central themes in economics (Fourie & Froneman 2009). According to Kotler (2003) exchange is an act of obtaining a desired product or service from someone by offering something in return. The theory states that for exchange to take place, two or more parties must mutually benefit from the transaction (Hastings et al 2010: 341). According to Kotler (2003: 12), the following five conditions must be satisfied, for exchange to take place:

- There should be at least two parties
- Each party should have something that might be of value to the other party
- Each party should be capable of communication and delivery
- Each party should be free to accept or reject the exchange offer
- Each party believes it is appropriate or desirable to deal with the other party
The above conditions form the basis for any potential exchange. However, for any exchange to be desirable the perceived benefits must outweigh the perceived costs (Hastings et al 2010: 341). For individuals to adopt any behaviour the benefits of adopting the behaviour must be greater that the cost of adopting the behaviour. The exchange theory postulates that exchange is a process of negotiating between two parties and the negotiation should produce mutually agreeable terms (Kotler 2003). These agreeable terms should produce value for both parties hence Kotler (2003) expresses exchange as a value-creating process.

In social marketing, behaviour will change if there is a clear perceived benefit for the customer (Fourie & Froneman 2009). However, benefits in social marketing offerings are not always as tangible as in commercial marketing for which there are two main types of benefits, namely utilitarian and symbolic (Hastings et al 2010: 341). Utilitarian refers to the economic and relatively tangible benefits while symbolic benefits refer to the psychological, social and intangible benefits of social marketing (Hastings et al 2010: 341). The exchange theory assists social marketers to design offerings that are perceived desirable or easy to adopt. The theory guides social marketers to present behaviours which have minimum costs and maximum benefits. Costs in social marketing translate to the cost of adopting certain behaviour and the offerings are thus the benefits gained from adopting the behaviour being promoted by a social marketer. As much as exchange theory helps inform strategic decisions in social marketing campaigns, it still has its challenges with regards to its application.

There are also several challenges to the application of the exchange theory to a social marketing context. Fourie and Froneman (2009) assert that exchange in social marketing is more complex and ambiguous compared to commercial marketing. Hastings et al (2010), Hastings (2007) and Glenane-Antoniadis et al (2003) point towards four problematic areas from which they critique the application of the exchange theory in social marketing. Some of the criticism is based on the prerequisites of exchange as set out by Kotler (2003). Firstly, Hastings et al (2010: 341) argue that it might not be correct to assume that parties always have the capability and freedom to
exchange as Kotler’s (2003) fourth requirement of exchange state. In social marketing there are instances where customers are not in a position to engage in a mutually beneficial exchange. Usually this inability of customers to engage fully as equal partners in the exchange process is due to social inequalities (Hastings et al 2010: 341). A case in point is when potential blood donors fail to adopt the behaviour of donating blood because they do not have enough educational skills to respond constructively to the campaigns. The theory of exchange states that these potential donors should be in a position to respond to blood donation campaigns, but illiteracy is a social reality which has the potential to hamper the application of exchange in such a scenario.

A second weakness of the exchange theory in social marketing is the simplicity with which benefits are viewed. In commercial marketing it is clear-cut that marketers offer customers goods and services in exchange for money. However in social marketing, benefits customers derive are often more ambiguous (Hastings 2007: 30). Hastings (2007: 30) argues that it is difficult to sell benefits that customers never see. In social marketing customers usually acquire what Hastings et al (2010) refer to as ‘symbolic benefits’ and these benefits may be in the form of self-esteem or satisfaction of adopting certain behaviour. This ambiguity of social marketing benefits makes the exchange theory complex to apply in social marketing contexts.

A third challenge of exchange theory according to Hastings et al (2010: 341) is the notion that there are mutual benefits between two parties. This assumption of the exchange theory is, however, contested by some authors and scholars (Hastings 2007: 32). According to Hastings et al (2010: 343), “social marketers argue that they do not seek any benefits in return of their efforts”. In social marketing, initiators of social marketing campaigns do their work without regard for self-interest (Hastings 2007: 31) and this is one of the unique features of social marketing.

The fourth challenge to the application of exchange theory is the idea of externalities which goes against principles of exchange. Glenane-Antoniadis et al (2003: 331) argue that in social marketing there are instances where some members of society receive benefits when they are not involved in the exchange process. There are positive and
negative externalities. Positive externalities are positive benefits which some members of society derive without being involved in the exchange process, while negative externalities are those negative outcomes which some members of society incur even when they are not part of the exchange process (Glenane-Antoniadis et al 2003: 331). Glenane-Antoniadis et al (2003: 331) give an example of a successful immunisation social marketing campaign, where those who did not participate in the immunisation, still benefitted because the spread of diseases was minimised by those immunised. This is a good example of positive externalities which defy the assumption of the exchange theory, which states that for exchange to take place there should be voluntary participation from at least two parties. It is clear in the case of both positive and negative externalities that some parties who are affected by the exchange process are not parties to the process.

Even if there are noticeable weaknesses to the exchange theory it is widely used in social marketing literature and constitutes a very important element in a social marketing strategy. Exchange is regarded as one of the most important criteria for any campaign to be classified as a social marketing campaign (Andreasen 2002a: 7). For the purpose of this study all the five conditions set out earlier according to Kotler (2003) are adopted as required for an exchange process to take place. The social exchange theory is very much relevant to this study because in blood donations there are benefits for both the initiator of the campaign and the targeted potential blood donors. During the exchange process, which is the actual donation of blood, the SANBS gets the much needed blood and the donors in return get the feeling of satisfaction from the idea that their blood will save someone’s life (see discussions in chapter 6). The relevance of this theory is also important for this study in understanding how the SANBS formulates its behavioural change campaign messages by emphasising the potential benefits which current donors can derive from the act of donating blood, which in essence is the exchange process.
2.6.2 Social cognitive theory

The social cognitive theory states that “behaviour changes are influenced by factors within the individuals and the environment” (Weinreich 2011:107). Hastings et al (2010: 336) describe the social cognitive theory by stating that “all our decisions and behaviours are a product of both our individual skills and volition and the social context we live in”. The theory underlines the importance of other people in influencing behaviour of others. The social cognitive theory points to the fact that people are always inclined to perform behaviours which they see as rewarding when performed by others. It is human nature that individuals learn from watching the behaviour of others (Weinreich 2011: 107). Individuals tend to approve or conform to prevailing behaviours by others as a way of trying to be accepted in the social system (Hastings et al 2010: 337). This assertion by the social cognitive theory is supported by results of a study by Bridges, Searle, Selck and Martinson (2010). Bridges et al (2010: 63) in their study of preferences of male circumcision services for the prevention of HIV/Aids in the Johannesburg area in South Africa note that the decision to be circumcised is influenced by the interaction of individuals within their social spheres.

The social cognitive theory can be described as informing this study through two important aspects. Firstly, the theory helps this study in highlighting the importance of environmental analysis before engaging in any social marketing campaign, for instance blood donation campaigns (see section 2.10.1.2). An investigation on the social contexts of targeted potential or current blood donors informed by the social cognitive theory, guides the campaign in identifying those social factors which explains the act of donating blood. Secondly the theory also enlightens the study of the crucial role opinion leaders or gatekeepers play in influencing potential blood donors in donating blood. The social learning behaviour thus helps reinforce the idea of using influential people such as celebrities in social marketing campaigns. The importance of the social cognitive theory can be summarised as “combining internal, personal factors as well as external factors from the wider social context in the explanation of human behaviour” (Hastings et al 2010: 340).
2.6.3 Transtheoretical model

The transtheoretical model also known as the stages of change theory, assumes that "when people change complex behaviour they will often do so gradually in a stepwise fashion, rather than in one flip" (Hastings et al 2010: 334). This means that individuals when adopting certain behaviour consciously follow certain steps. According to Weinreich (2011: 108) this theory proposes five steps to follow to adopt and change certain behaviour. These steps are (Weinreich 2010: 108):

**Step 1: Pre-contemplation**

According to the theory, in the pre-contemplation step an individual may not be aware of a potential problem related to certain behaviour. If he or she, for example, is abstaining from donating blood the potential donor does not consider donating blood as important and is not aware of the consequences.

**Step 2: Contemplation**

The second step of contemplation, an individual might realise the consequences of his or her behaviour and seek ways of dealing with his or her behaviour.

**Step 3: Preparation**

In the preparation step the individual then makes a decision about what actions to take and learns more about how to change his or her current behaviour. Using the example of the potential blood donor, he or she decides to obtain more information on how to donate blood and where blood donation centres are located.

**Step 4: Action**

Action is the fourth step of the transtheoretical model. In this step an individual performs or adopts the intended behaviour and also determines whether the benefits outweigh the costs. A potential blood donor will donate blood and see if there are any benefits to his or her preformed behaviour.
**Step 5: Maintenance**

The last step of maintenance, involves the individual being committed to the adopted behaviour and in the case of the blood donor he or she continues to donate blood as this behaviour reinforces positive benefits.

The transtheoretical model has its fair share of criticism, one being that “people do not always methodically weigh pros and cons” when adopting certain behaviours (Hastings et al 2010: 335). Hastings et al (2010: 336) further argue that the model does not accommodate the fact that some complex behaviour is a result of multiple attempts and the stages an individual goes through are not always simple or straightforward. Regardless of the criticism of the model, it is a very important model in social marketing which “provides a better understanding of the customer and their proximity to desired behaviour changes” (Hastings et al 2010: 336). The theory according to Weinreich (2011: 108) helps social marketing campaigns in segmenting customers according to the step in which they are in the model. A potential blood donor in the pre-contemplation step will respond to a social marketing campaign which emphasise on raising awareness, while on the other hand, a blood donor in the maintenance step respond to social marketing campaigns which emphasise on retaining current donors.

The transtheoretical model is adopted for the purpose of this study for two main reasons. Firstly in blood donation, for this study, it is assumed that many potential blood donors go through many if not all of the five steps of the transtheoretical model when deciding on donating blood. Potential blood donors may or may not concisely be aware that they are going through the five steps of changing their behaviour with regard to blood donation. Secondly the transtheoretical model is very instrumental in a social marketing campaign. Using the five steps of the transtheoretical model, the SANBS can be in a position to know through research which potential donors are at which stage of behaviour change. Such knowledge helps the SANBS make important decisions on appropriate messages which are targeted at various donor segments.
From the above discussion of the three theories it was highlighted that, the exchange theory seeks to understand human behaviour in terms of how individuals view benefits and costs of adopting behaviour while the social cognitive theory explains how individuals can be influenced to behave by other individuals or the environment they are in. Furthermore the transtheoretical model seeks to understand the steps which an individual goes through in changing or adopting behaviour.

As mentioned earlier in section 2.3, in this study social marketing is defined as “the use of marketing principles and techniques to influence a target audience to voluntarily accept, modify, or abandon a behaviour for the benefit of individuals, groups, or society as a whole” (Kotler et al 2002: 5). In the next section elements of the social marketing mix are discussed to further clarify the fundamentals of ‘what social marketing is’ in addition to its definition.

2.7 SOCIAL MARKETING MIX

As explained in section 2.2 of this chapter, the use of the marketing mix is not limited to only traditional marketing. Social marketing has also used the marketing mix as one of the tools and techniques to solve social problems. Adoption of the marketing mix by social marketing can be attributed to the prominence of the concept in traditional marketing. However, the concept has its fair share of criticism and limitations which has led to the expansion or modification of the 4Ps. Many authors and scholars (Baker 2008; van Waterschoot & Foscht 2010; Constantinides 2006; Armstrong & Kotler 2011; Palmer 2009; Masterson & Pickton 2010) agree that the traditional 4Ps may not be adequate in today’s marketing context. Some of the criticism levelled against the 4Ps include its neglect of the human factor (van Waterschoot & Foscht 2010: 204; Baker 2008: 253), failure to apply to the service industry (Masterson & Pickton 2010: 410) and taking a simplistic view of a complex reality of marketing (Barker 2008: 255). In responding to some of the above criticism authors and scholars have proposed additions to the traditional 4Ps to include people, process, physical evidence (Masterson & Pickton 2010: 411) and packaging (Armstrong & Kotler 2011: 82). According to Masterson & Pickton (2010: 415) Lanterborn (1990) also modified the 4Ps
to 4Cs which include customer, cost, convenience and communication. Masterson and Pickton (2010: 415) argue that the 4Cs are more customer-focused compared to the traditional 4Ps.

From the above discussion it can be noted that the 4Ps of the marketing mix have had a profound effect on marketing. However, additions to the 4Ps were necessary to make them more applicable and relevant to current marketing conditions. The same can be said about social marketing which has not only adopted the traditional marketing mix but also added publics, partnerships and policy to its marketing mix (Weinreich 2011: 13). Since the 7Ps are contextual to the field of social marketing, they are referred to in this study as the social marketing mix (Peattie & Peattie 2003: 370). For this study the 7Ps of the social marketing mix are adopted because of their relevance to social marking. In the next sections a detailed discussion of the seven elements of the social marketing mix is provided, namely publics, partnerships, policy, product, price, place and promotion.

2.7.1 Publics

According to Weinreich (2011: 19) publics are the internal and external groups who are involved or affected by social marketing activities. Internal publics usually include individuals in organisations which design social marketing campaigns. It is crucial for internal publics to buy in the social issues being promoted by social marketing activities for them to be successful (Weinreich 2011: 19). External publics are those outside the control of an organisation carrying out social marketing activities but have an influence in behavioural change activities. In social marketing some of the most important external publics include policy makers and gatekeepers in communities. These groups have the ability to create or change the environment to be conducive for behaviour change or maintenance (Weinreich 2011: 19).

2.7.2 Partnerships

Some social issues are so complex that social marketers cannot solve them on their own (Weinreich 2011: 19). In social marketing there is a need for partnerships
especially in providing funding and other resources. There is also need for partnerships with communities for a social marketing intervention to make a meaningful contribution to a social issue. Luca and Suggs (2010) did a systematic review of peer reviewed articles between 1990 and 2009 to identify strategies used in the social marketing mix. In their review, Luca and Suggs (2010) established that the majority of social marketing interventions make use of partnerships and community-based organisations in their social marketing campaigns.

2.7.3 Policy linked to strategic social marketing

Social policy has been an important element in the growth of social marketing. According to Weinreich (2011: 21), change in policy has been very effective in supporting behavioural change in social marketing. This was observed by Kotler et al (2002: 18) 13 years ago when they identified policy making as an approach which could be used to change behaviour. In recent years there has been a move towards what Hastings (2007: 107) refers to as an ‘upstream approach’ to social marketing. Hastings (2007: 108) argues that instead of only looking at changing individual behaviour, there is a need to consider the environment which can effect behavioural change through policy makers. Kotler et al (2008: 18) offer examples of policy measures in the USA which have resulted in the compulsory use of booster seats for children and limiting blood alcohol levels for drivers. In South Africa, blood donation has been made possible through the establishment of the SANBS which is governed by the Companies Act (see chapter 4). Such a policy measure has ensured that people are encouraged to donate blood which can save a lot of lives. It is evident from the above two examples that social policy is central in the development of social marketing to such an extent that Novelli (2007: 64) has argued for the use of marketing and policy as complementary tools. Novelli (2007: 65-66) is of the view that marketing places a lot of emphasis on the individual but there is also a need to look at the environment in which social marketing is trying to influence behaviour. Public policy advocacy serves the role of influencing an environment which is conducive for behavioural change.
Policy according to Weinreich (2011: 21) applies to “the environment surrounding target audience” of a social marketing intervention. Policy involves mechanisms which have been or can be put in place to encourage or discourage certain behaviours. Policy changes may in some instances be the most effective tools to support behaviour change. In such cases social marketing interventions take the role of advocating for policies that create an environment that is favourable for the adopting of a desired behaviour. Luca and Suggs (2010) after reviewing some social marketing interventions, conclude that policy played an important role in social marketing campaigns and mostly in health related campaigns and this is indicative of how an important element of the social marketing mix policy is.

2.7.4 Product

A product in social marketing is the desired behaviour or the associated benefits of adopting certain behaviour (Kotler et al 2002: 10). Wood (2008: 79) prefers the word social product to describe a bundle of attributes which are offered to customers. These bundle of attributes according Kotler and Roberto (1989) in MacFadyen et al (2003: 714) may be grouped into ideas, behaviours and tangible objects. Social marketers market ideas, behaviours or tangible objects with an ultimate aim of influencing the behaviour of a target market.

Furthermore, Kotler et al (2002: 196) identify three levels of a product in social marketing, namely the core product, the actual product and the augmented product. The authors explain the core product as the benefits or experience which one gets in adopting a new behaviour (Kotler et al 2002: 196). A good example is when one experiences good health as a result of quitting smoking. An actual product is that specific behaviour which the social marketer is trying to promote (Kotler et al 2002: 196). Using the smoking example, the actual product in a stop smoking campaign will be the act of quitting cigarettes. Kotler et al (2003: 196) explain the augmented product as the “tangible objects and services the social marketer promotes along with the desired behaviour”, which in the smoking example could be electronic cigarettes which have the same nicotine effect but do not contain nicotine. Though the idea of a product
seem clear from Kotler et al’s (2002) explanation, some authors (MacFadyen et al 2003; Wood 2008; Peattie & Peattie 2003) argue that it is not that clear cut.

MacFadyen et al (2003: 714) in this regard put forward the idea that a social marketing product involves complex behaviours which makes conceptualisation of the concept very difficult. In demonstrating the complexity of a product in social marketing, MacFadyen et al (2003: 714) provide an example of trying to reduce fat intake. The authors argue that this will involve “a change in food choice, menu design, shopping behaviour, food preparation, personal habits, family routines, wider social norms and so on” (MacFadyen et al 2003: 714). The above example not only shows the difficulty of trying to come up with a bundle of attributes to present as a single product, but also the number of variables which social marketers have to consider when trying to market a single product.

Peattie and Peattie (2003: 371) out rightly oppose the concept of a product in social marketing and argue that product as a concept does not fit into the social marketing context. Behaviour is not ‘produced’ by the organisation or the marketer, but is produced by the customer (Peattie & Peattie 2003: 371). Consequently the social marketer only facilitates the customer to ‘produce’ the product thereby rendering the use of the concept inapplicable to social marketing (Peattie & Peattie 2003: 371). Marketers only make ‘propositions’ to target markets which they can adopt or reject (Peattie & Peattie 2003).

Though the concept of product is complex because of what Peattie and Peattie (2003: 371) describe as “the sheer variety of social marketing contexts”, one certain thing is that “social marketers attempt to determine the most important benefits sought by members of a target market and tailor the product offering accordingly” (Maibach 2002: 11).

2.7.5 Price

Price in social marketing is the perceived cost or sometimes barrier that is associated with the adoption of certain behaviour (Storey, Saffitz & Rimon 2008). The cost or
barriers may be in the form of “time, effort, change of life style and negative impact on social relations resulting from the changed behaviour” (Wood 2008: 80). Kotler et al (2002) identify two broad groups of costs namely, monetary and non-monetary costs. In social marketing customers in many instances pay non-monetary costs rather than monetary costs. This is one of the distinguishing features of price in the social marketing context as compared to the generic marketing context. Common instances where customers pay monetary costs include safe sex campaigns where a target market is influenced to practice safe sex by using condoms for which they may have to pay. MacFadyen et al (2003: 716) add embarrassment, inertia and perceived social exclusion as some of the non-monetary costs which customers have to incur when adopting any behaviour which is being promoted by social marketers. There are also exit and entry costs in social marketing (Kotler et al 2002: 217). According to Kotler et al (2002: 217) exit costs are those incurred when a person tries to abandon certain behaviour and the entry costs are the opposite, associated with adopting a new behaviour.

Whatever form it takes, price in social marketing is a very difficult concept to understand and measure according to Wood (2008: 80). Coreil, Bryant and Henderson (2001) concur and state that many health behaviours come with a high price which makes it very difficult to lower or to make them more attractive. A good example is when “people have a hard time sacrificing the special taste, texture, and satiety that accompany a high-fat diet” (Coreil et al 2001). Furthermore Wood (2008: 81) argues that there are instances where there is negative pricing, where costumers get to save some money by adopting certain behaviour. When smokers stop their behaviour they get to save money which they could have used in buying cigarettes.

Peattie and Peattie (2003: 373) reject the concept of price in social marketing and argue that price is interpreted as relating to ‘cost’ of behaviour change so that there is no need to refer to the concept price. A more applicable way of approaching cost in social marketing is looking at the costs which are incurred during the whole process of consumption, which Peattie and Peattie (2003: 373) describe as the transaction costs. Peattie and Peattie (2003) further argue that in practice social marketers are already
using the transaction cost-based approach rather than the concept of price which has numerous problems when attempts are being made to apply it to social marketing. Some of these problems are highlighted by Bloom and Novelli (1981) in Peattie and Peattie (2003). They include the fact that as much as monetary price is universally understandable, the same cannot be said about the cost of adopting behaviour. The cost of adopting behaviour varies from individual to individual and as a result it is difficult to measure the price and controlling costs for the customer. In proposing a solution to the price-cost debacle Peattie and Peattie (2003: 373) put forward the term ‘cost of involvement’ as more applicable in reflecting the practical realities of social marketing.

Though there may be many perspectives in viewing costs in social marketing, many authors (Coreil et al 2001; Wood 2008; Kotler et al 2002; Storey et al 2001) agree that a social marketer should try to reduce the costs of behavioural change to increase the rate of adoption.

2.7.6 Place

Place is the location where services are offered, where tangible products are distributed and where consumers receive information about products and behaviours (Coreil et al 2001). Storey et al (2008) describe the place as where voluntary exchanges are done and consumers are reached with information on products. In some cases social marketers use intermediaries to get to their target audiences and these intermediaries act as gatekeepers (MacFadyen et al 2003: 716). Influencing people to practice safe sex may involve people such as teachers who distribute the ‘product’ to pupils. The challenge is for social marketers to maximise the ‘buying experience’ of the customer (Storey et al 2008) and there is thus a need to provide convenience to the target market (Kotler et al 2002: 243). Coreil et al (2001) add that it is important for social marketers to know when and where their target groups are more receptive to their messages.

In most social marketing interventions, social marketers rely on the goodwill of intermediaries to convey their messages to customers. These intermediaries are identified by MacFadyen et al (2003: 716) as health professionals, pharmacists, teachers and community workers and have the role of distributing information and ideas
about behavioural change and new products to promote this behaviour. Peattie and Peattie (2003: 374) observe that social marketers have led the way in coming up with creative ways of dealing with issues of accessibility and locations of behavioural interventions.

2.7.7 Marketing communication (promotion)

Marketing communication (also referred to by some authors and scholars as promotion) is the communication and messaging elements of any social marketing campaign. In chapter 3, section 3.6 this concept is explained in more detail with particular reference to the various elements of the marketing communication mix. In addition these marketing communication mix elements are also extended to the social marketing mix as also discussed in chapter 3, section 3.10.

In the next section the key elements of social marketing are discussed to clarify the nature of social marketing. These key elements thus provide theoretical underpinnings of social marketing from both theoretical and practical perspectives.

2.8 KEY ELEMENTS OF SOCIAL MARKETING

As mentioned earlier in the introductory section of this chapter the purpose of the chapter is to provide comprehensive theory on social marketing. This can partly be achieved by clarifying the various theoretical elements underpinning social marketing. The following are considered key elements of social marketing as put forward by numerous authors and scholars.

2.8.1 Behavioural change

Kotler et al (2002) argue that commercial marketing sells goods while social marketing sells behaviour. Social marketing aims to influence behaviour of target audiences rather than promote an idea (Dooley et al 2009: 36). According to Serrat (2010: 4), the bottom line of social marketing is behaviour change and this makes it distinct from other disciplines. Kotler et al (2002) further explains that target audiences should accept a
new behaviour, reject a potential behaviour, modify a current behaviour or abandon an old behaviour.

Brennan and Binney (2008: 266) emphasise behavioural change by describing social marketing as “generally applied to individuals or groups to voluntarily adopt socially desirable behaviour”. This explanation by Brennan and Binney (2008) shows dimensions to the behavioural element of social marketing, namely that it is voluntary and that behaviour change can be of an individual or a group level. According to Domegan (2008: 137), social marketing is not only concerned with behaviour of an individual but also the broader social, cultural, structural and policy influences. Furthermore, Levy and Zaltman (1975) in their seminal article state that influencing behaviour should be sought on three levels, namely the micro level (individual), group level (groups or organisations) and the macro level (society). Brennan and Binney (2008: 266-267) provide almost similar levels which include individual, political, economic and behavioural. Niblett (2005: 14) on the other hand, proposes what he refers to as upstream and downstream social marketing. According to Niblett (2005: 14) upstream social marketing focuses on influencing policy and government, while downstream social marketing focus on the individual level.

Whether it is upstream or downstream social marketing, many authors and scholars agree that the behaviour change should be the underpinning rationale behind social marketing. Influencing behaviour voluntarily distinguish social marketing from other forms of behavioural change which are not voluntary like policies or laws (Dann 2010: 151).

2.8.2 Individuals or groups are the primary beneficiaries

According to Dann (2010: 151), the primary beneficiaries of any social marketing campaign should be the individual or the society at large. Brennan and Binney (2008: 266) add that a social marketing campaign may target the individual or society while some may seek to target both the individual and society. Unlike in commercial marketing contexts, the organisation that initiated the social marketing campaign does not benefit from the campaign (Weinreich 2011:4). This distinction clearly eliminates
campaigns done by corporate organisations on issues such as safe driving or saving the environment. Though such initiatives may include some features of a social marketing campaign, their goal is to enhance the image of the organisation which will ultimately result in more sales and more profits for the organisation.

2.8.3 Voluntary and mutually beneficially exchange

It is the nature of humans to fulfil their interests, while organisations seek to fulfil their own needs (Maibach 2002: 9). When the two parties interact there is an exchange of resources which result in mutual fulfilment. According to MacFadyen et al (2003: 700) in economic terms “exchange is defined as an exchange of resources or values between two parties or more parties with the expectations of some benefits”. Lee and Kotler (2011: 15) describe exchange as a fundamental concept for marketing and this concept also apply to social marketing. In social marketing there are two important elements of the exchange process, mutual benefit and voluntary involvement. For any exchange to be meaningful parties involved must not be coerced into the process and there should be clear benefits for all. The concept of exchange in social marketing is widely accepted and is core philosophy underlying social marketing (Lee & Kotler 2011: 15).

In commercial marketing, consumers exchange their money for goods and services offered by the organisations and according to Donovan and Henley (2011: 31) there is mutual and dependent transfer of value. Marketers in social marketing offer products, information or incentives and customers in return are expected to change their behaviour. In some cases customers receive psychological benefits or peace of mind in return of their changed behaviour (Peattie & Peattie 2003: 370). Wood (2008: 80) provides good examples where psychological benefits like peace of mind are received as benefits such examples include blood donation or safety belts campaigns. Despite its acceptance, exchange in social marketing is more complex than the simple buyer-seller relationship in traditional marketing. There are instances where the social marketer has nothing to offer or the customer or recipient does not believe there is need for the offer. Wood (2008: 80-81) gives an example of social marketing campaigns which seek to reduce drinking or smoking where the targeted customers feel like there is no need to
stop something they enjoy in return for behaviour which may not be attractive to them for instance not drinking or not smoking. There are also instances where an individual does not directly benefit from the changed behaviour. A good example is when individuals are encouraged to recycle used goods or engage in activities which seek to save the environment. In such a campaign there is no direct or quick benefit for the individual as much as there is some form of exchange. Andreasen (1994) argues that sometimes consumers in social marketing voluntarily suffer when making a ‘purchase’. A good example is when blood donors have to endure needles.

Pitt, Keating, Bruwer, Murgolo-Poore and de Bussy (2001) add another interesting concept to the debate of exchange in social marketing. In this regard Pitt et al (2001) argue that as much as the exchange theory is used in literature to explain donations, there are instances where people give without expecting anything in return. They refer to this as agapic or selfless giving (Pitt et al 2001). This is also applicable to the social marketing context where target customers give without expecting to receive anything in return. Blood donation again is a point in case where donors do not expect anything in return for donating their blood. According to Pitt et al (2001) this act of unselfish giving gives a symbolic value to that which is given and received, unlike in commercial marketing where the value of that which is exchanged is determined by the market value.

Such a dynamic nature of exchange in the social marketing context led Donovan and Henley (2010: 32) to caution application of the exchange theory to social marketing. They therefore argue for a more thoughtful application of the exchange theory (Donovan & Henley 2010: 33). Regardless of which perspective of exchange is considered as the best, exchange is one of the major components of social marketing (French et al 2010: 39).

2.8.4 Consumer orientation

One of the important components of social marketing, which has its roots in traditional marketing, is consumer orientation. According to Andreasen (2007: 667) social marketing is “fanatically customer-driven”. Social marketers require the inputs of
customers during all stages of their campaigns or programmes (Lefebvre 2011: 58) and it is thus this aspect of social marketing where top down approaches are used that distinguishes it from traditional marketing (Thomas 2008: 20). Peattie and Peattie (2003: 371) are of the same view and describe the consumer as an active participant in the social marketing exchange process. In social marketing the consumer is at the centre of everything (Leo 2013: 58).

Lefebvre (2011:58) argues that in social marketing the needs and desires of customers are listened to on which campaigns are built thereby attending to individual needs. Consumer needs and wants are identified through consumer research which has a central role in pretesting, monitoring and evaluation of social marketing campaigns (Andreasen 2007: 14) (see also sections 2.10.4 and 2.10.6). In-depth formative research is used in social marketing to ask questions such as, “What don’t we understand about our target audiences?” (MacFadyen et al 2003: 699). Furthermore consumer orientation is driven by two types of research, namely consumer research and competitive or environmental analysis (Maibach 2002: 11). This type of probing allows social marketers to identify all the attributes of their target consumers. Identifying attributes of target consumers leads to segmentation which is another important feature of social marketing born out of its customer-driven approach. Through market segmentation social marketers are able to put their customers into groups with common behaviours, motivations and information channel preferences (Andreasen 2007: 14).

Peattie and Peattie (2003: 366) summarise the importance of a customer driven approach to social marketing by stating that, “in applying a customer orientation to the management of social change, social marketing has achieved considerable progress in a range of fields relating to health, injury prevention, environmental protection and community involvement”.

2.8.5 Research

As highlighted in the previous section, research is linked to the consumer orientation approach and has a central role to play in social marketing. Research, according to Hastings (2007:181) should be considered a navigation aid in guiding progress and
decision making in social marketing campaigns. Any social marketing intervention starts and ends with research (Willoughby 2013: 267). In addition social marketing research typically uses both quantitative and qualitative research approaches. Qualitative research uses research methods such as focus groups, in depth interviews, case studies and observational studies while knowledge, attitudes and behaviour (KAB) surveys, intercept surveys and marketing databases can be used in quantitative research (Weinreich 2011: 55-56). It is important that social marketers understand their target audiences' motives and lifestyles and this is achieved through a comprehensive formative research (Hastings 2007: 182). For any intervention to be considered as social marketing, research must feature prominently from the analysis of the social problem to the evaluation of the intervention process.

2.8.6 Competition

One of the unique features of social marketing is the nature of its competition. According to French et al (2009: 39), behaviour a social marketer tries to influence has at least one competitor. In social marketing, competition is behaviours and associated benefits that target customers prefer over those that a social marketer is promoting (Donovan & Henley 2010: 219). MacFadyen et al (2003: 707) explain that current behaviours by the customers are the obvious competition in social marketing. However, current behaviour is not the only source of competition, as there are numerous others which are referred to as ‘competing ideas’ (Peattie & Peattie 2003: 376). Competing ideas emanate from commercial counter-marketing, social discouragement, apathy and involuntary disinclination which are explained below (Peattie & Peattie 2003: 376).

Commercial counter-marketing as argued by Peattie and Peattie (2003: 367) occurs when commercial marketers promote the same behaviour which a social marker is trying to discourage. Kotler et al (2002: 10) concur with Peattie and Peattie (2003) and state that organisations or individuals can send messages that counter or oppose the desired behaviour which works against the aims of a social marketing campaign. Ritchie and Weinberg (2000) in Peattie and Peattie (2003: 375) refer to this as ‘the combative competition’. The second source of competition in social marketing as identified by
Peattie and Peattie (2003: 376) is social discouragement. Social values, peer pressure and discouragement from significant others can work against social marketers in trying to influence a certain behaviour (Donovan & Henley 2010: 219).

Apathy is identified by Peattie and Peattie (2003: 377) as the third source of competition in social marketing and describes it as the “deadening hand that prevents change or behaviour adoption”. The fourth source of competition is the individual’s involuntary disinclination (Peattie & Peattie 2003: 376). Peattie and Peattie (2003: 377) argue that although people change behaviour after weighing benefits and cost, consciously, sometimes they may adopt a certain behaviour not because of the conscious decision making process. A good example is when “a smoker who is desperately trying and failing quit smoking is not deciding that the benefits outweigh the cost, instead his/her addiction represents an involuntary disinclination to cease smoking” (Peattie & Peattie 2003: 377).

In addition to the above four sources of competition, Andreasen (2002a) adds competition among social marketing organisations as another form of competition. As much as Andreasen (2002a: 44) acknowledges that direct competition in the social sector is considered “not nice”, he argues for an “unbridled cutthroat competition” which benefits target audience and organisations themselves. Peattie and Peattie (2003: 367) on the other hand, caution against translating concepts of commercial competition into social marketing. They argue that it is important to have a systematic way of identifying competition in social marketing, one which does not take “a relatively commercial view of competition”, but view competition as a ‘battle of ideas’ (Peattie & Peattie 2003: 375).

Based on the above discussion the key elements of social marketing are summarised in the table below:
Table 2.1: Key elements of social marketing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key social marketing elements</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Behavioural change</strong></td>
<td>• Aim is to influence behaviour change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Individuals either accept new behaviour, reject potential behaviour, modify current behaviour or abandon old behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Behaviour change can be at individual or group level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Individuals or groups are the primary beneficiaries</strong></td>
<td>• Individuals or society are primary beneficiaries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Organisations which initiate campaigns are not the beneficiaries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voluntary and mutually beneficial exchange</strong></td>
<td>• There is mutual benefits for parties involved in the process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• There must be voluntary participation in the exchange process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Consumer orientation</strong></td>
<td>• Social marketing activities are focused on the consumer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Consideration of needs and wants of targeted consumers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Research</strong></td>
<td>• Research central to consumer orientation approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Research guides progress of social marketing activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Research identifies social problem to be solved by social marketing campaigns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Competition</strong></td>
<td>• Competition to promoted behavioural change is present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Competition can be in form of behaviour or associated benefits individuals prefer over the promoted behaviour change</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: (Kotler et al. 2002; Brennan & Binney 2008; Dann 2010; Lee & Kotler 2011; Pitt et al. 2001; MacFadyen et al. 2003; Peattie & Peattie 2003: 376)
Indicated in the Table 2.1 above are the key concepts which underpin social marketing as became evident during the literature review. Nonetheless, it is equally important to explain the theory of social marketing campaigns as part of providing a comprehensive discussion of social marketing. In the next section the nature of a social marketing campaign and some of the steps in planning a social marketing campaign as identified by various authors and scholars are discussed.

2.9 A SOCIAL MARKETING CAMPAIGN

A social marketing campaign is designed by way of applying principles from the broader concept of marketing to behaviours that aim to improve personal welfare or societal welfare (Willoughby 2013: 267). It is systematic and planned in the same manner as any other campaigns in traditional marketing. Social marketers use social marketing campaigns to influence adoption of a desired behaviour of a target group or audience. Planning and implementation of a social marketing campaign involve specific steps and in the next section these steps are discussed in more detail.

2.10 SOCIAL MARKETING CAMPAIGN PLANNING

Various scholars and authors propose different models for social marketing campaign planning (for instance, Lee & Kotler 2011; Weinreich 2011; Donovan & Henley 2010; Dooley et al 2009). These scholars and authors have identified and described “processes which range from a few as three to as many as seven or more phases in the application” of social marketing campaigns (Dooley et al 2009: 35).

Social marketing campaign planning for this study is mostly based on Weinreich’s (2011) model because it accommodates most of the steps described in other models and more importantly it condenses all the campaign activities in six simple but comprehensive steps. However, relevant aspects of other models by other scholars and authors are also incorporated in this discussion as proposed by Lee and Kotler (2011), Donovan and Henley (2010), Tian and Borges (2012) and Dooley et al (2009). Aspects of other models help complement the adopted model to provide a precise picture of social marketing campaign planning. Weinreich (2011: 23) identifies six steps of social
marketing planning namely analysis, strategy development, program and communication design, pretesting, implementation and evaluation and feedback. In the next sections the social marketing planning steps based on Weinreich’s (2011) model are discussed.

2.10.1 Analysis

According to Weinreich (2011: 27), any social marketing campaign starts with an analysis. Analysis involves the interrogation of three aspects, the social problem, the environment and resources.

2.10.1.1 Analysis of the problem

In analysing the problem, social marketers need to identify the social issue to be addressed by the campaign (Lee & Kotler 2011: 42). During the analysis process it is important that the social issue is thoroughly described and a compelling rationale for addressing the issue is provided. Weinreich (2011: 33) describes the analysis of the problem as involving a process of getting information about the attitudes and behaviours of the target audience(s) with relation to the problem to be addressed. According to Donovan and Henley (2010: 400) people’s perceptions of the problem to be addressed by the campaign should be analysed before a social campaign is implemented. It should also be established whether the target audiences are aware of the problem at hand and how they are impacted by the problem (Donovan & Henley 2010: 400). Equally important during the analysis of the problem step is deciding on the aspects of the problem to address (Weinreich 2011: 34). Some social problems may be holistically approached while in other instances it might be more effective to select aspects of the broader problem according to Weinreich (2011: 34).

2.10.1.2 Analysis of the environment

According to Lee and Kotler (2011: 43) during the analysis step it is important to analyse the external environment which might have an impact on the problem being addressed by the social marketing campaign. The external environment is one which also surrounds the social marketing campaign (Weinreich 2011: 36). Environmental
factors can serve to reward or punish adoption of the behaviour being promoted by the social marketing campaign (Donovan & Henley 2010: 404). Within the environment there are some aspects which make the adoption of the promoted behaviour possible or not possible (Donovan & Henley 2010: 402). According to Weinreich (2011: 37) aspects such as current or pending policies and laws might compel targeted individuals to adopt a certain behaviour being promoted by the social marketing campaign.

During the analysis of the environment social marketers should analyse barriers and competition to behavioural change being promoted (Lee & Kotler 2011: 45). According to Lee and Kotler (2011:45) what individuals are currently doing or what they prefer doing might be barriers or competition to behavioural change. Equally important is to analyse educational and regulatory alternatives for influencing behaviour change (Donovan & Henley 2010: 404). Education and regulatory policies in some instances might be better alternatives than carrying out a social marketing campaign (Weinreich 2011: 37).

2.10.1.3 Analysis of resources

According to Weinreich (2011: 40) a social marketing campaign should analyse its internal resources and this include a look at the budget, sources of funds, staff, time, access to target audiences, partners, and also the overall feasibility of carrying out the campaign. Donovan and Henley (2010: 404) add that analysis of resources should identify both internal and external factors that might affect the social marketing campaign. An analysis of resources allow social marketers to determine if there is need to work with other partners or to hire outside agencies to do the work on behalf of the organisation which initiated the campaign (Weinreich 2010: 42).

2.10.2 Strategy development

Strategy development is the second step in the social marketing campaign planning. This step involves two broad aspects, namely segmenting of the target audience and setting of goals and objectives (Weinreich (2011: 67).
2.10.2.1 Segmenting the target audience

Before segmenting the target audience social marketers should provide a rich description of the target audience(s) using characteristics such as at what stage of change individuals are, demographics, geographic and other related behaviours (Lee & Kotler 2011:43). According to Weinreich (2011: 70) segmentation involves “identifying distinct groups of people who are like each other in key ways and therefore are liable to respond to particular messages”. Segmentation in social marketing campaigns is most importantly used to identify segments with the greatest need which are most ready to adapt a specific behaviour, are easiest to reach and best suit the organisational mission and expertise (Kotler & Lee 2005). In terms of resource management, segmentation helps in ensuring that resources are used in the most efficient possible way (Weinreich 2011: 72).

Kotler et al (2002: 116), state that segments may be based on geographic factors, demographic factors, psychographic factors, and behavioural factors. However, these are not the only exclusive aspects which can be used to segments the target audience(s) in social marketing. According to Weinreich (2011), segmentation can also be based on the stages of behavioural change in the transtheoretical model discussed earlier (see section 2.6.3). Kotler et al (2002: 117) state the benefits of segmentation in a social marketing campaign as, increased effectiveness and efficiencies, important input for resources allocation and developing strategies.

2.10.2.2 Setting goals and objectives

Social marketing campaign goals and objectives are set at the strategy development step (Weinreich 2011:79). Social marketing campaigns should always include behavioural change objectives (Lee & Kotler 2011: 44). A social marketing campaign should also have knowledge and belief objectives. According to Lee and Kotler (2011: 44) knowledge objectives relate to information or facts about the promoted behavioural change while belief objectives relates to feelings and attitudes targeted audiences have about the behavioural change. Social marketing campaign objectives must have a time
frame, be specific, measurable, achievable, relevant, related to specific campaign focus and the target audience(s) (Weinreich 2011: 80).

2.10.3 Programme and communication design

This step of the social marketing campaign, according to Weinreich (2011: 91) “focuses on designing the campaign approach and developing communications to convey the messages”. Designing the campaign approach is part of using research results from the analysis of the problem to frame a solution to the problem (Tian & Borges 2012: 108). Influencing behavioural change through social marketing campaigns can be achieved by either focusing on a product or the environment (Weinreich 2011: 91). The product of the social marketing campaign is the behavioural change which is offered to target audience(s) for adoption and the environment is one which surrounds the social issue, such as “policy and structural elements in place” which might help in the adoption of a certain behaviour (Weinreich 2010: 98). Programme and communication design involve designing effective messages, identifying appropriate channels and producing creative communications as explained below.

2.10.3.1 Developing effective messages

In social marketing campaigns, behavioural change message development should be informed by behavioural theories according to Weinreich (2011: 105). The most relevant of these theories were discussed in this chapter (see section 2.6). Any message communicated in social marketing campaigns should aim to promote either adoption of a desired behaviour or rejection of an undesirable behaviour. Developing effective behavioural change messages include producing a positioning statement which describes how the social marketing campaign wants targeted audiences to view the promoted behavioural change relative to competing behaviours (Lee & Kotler 2011: 45). Dooley et al (2009: 41) refers to this as brand positioning and defines it as the unique points of difference and end benefits of a behaviour change. Effective behavioural change messages should always form part of persuasive communication strategy of the social marketing campaign (Lee & Kotler 2011: 48). Persuasive messages are more effective because behavioural change in social marketing is voluntary in nature and as
such individuals respond more to persuasive messages (see section 2.8.3). Behavioural change messages in social marketing campaigns comprise of three important elements, namely the main selling point of the behaviour, the ideas target audiences need to come away with and how the campaign will present information in order for target audience to pay attention (Weinreich 2011: 111). The selling point of the promoted behavioural change is mainly focused on the benefits of adopting the promoted behaviour. According to Lee and Kotler (2011: 46) effective messages should not only concentrate on the behavioural change but also include messages regarding the other elements of the social marketing mix (see section 2.7). For instance messages should also include information on monetary and non-monetary costs to adopting the promoted behaviour (price), when and where target audience will perform the desired behaviour (place) and the communication channels used to convey the behavioural change messages (promotion). Once effective behavioural change messages have been developed, it is important to decide on the best combination of marketing communication mix elements which will optimally convey these messages.

2.10.3.2 Identifying appropriate channels

According to Weinreich (2011: 125), the channel “refers to the medium that delivers the campaign messages”. In this study they are referred to as the marketing communication mix elements and are discussed in detail in chapter 3 (see section 3.6). Social marketers at this step have to make decisions on the most appropriate marketing communication mix elements to augment the behavioural change messages. It is important to choose the most effective and efficient methods of reaching each target audience segment as identified in step two of the social marketing campaign (see section 2.10.2.1) (Weinreich 2011: 125). Different marketing communication mix elements have their different strengths and weaknesses and as such integrating the various marketing communication mix elements may appeal more to the target audiences (Weinreich 2011: 126). According to Tian and Borges (2012: 109) marketing communication mix elements must be used with reference to a thorough understanding of the target audience(s). A detailed discussion on integrating the various marketing communication mix elements is in chapter 3 (see chapter 3 section 3.6).
2.10.3.3 Producing the creative communications

After messages have been developed and appropriate marketing communication mix elements identified, creative communications must be produced (Weinreich 2011: 135). During this step all the creative concepts regarding the behavioural change messages are refined in terms of the campaign design (Dooley et al 2009: 41). Abstract ideas and concepts about the campaign messages are put into “words, graphic designs and production formats” (Weinreich 2011: 144). Part of producing creative communications involves production and printing of materials which will be used by the various social marketing campaigns (Dooley et al 2009: 41). Once materials for the social marketing campaign are produced there is need to pre-test the creative behavioural change messages with a sample of the target audience.

2.10.4 Pretesting

The fourth step of a social marketing campaign involves the pretesting of all the designed communications to determine if they will produce the intended results (Weinreich 2011: 159). According to Tian and Borges (2012: 109) pretesting should be limited in scope and expenditure. Pretesting helps point to all the strengths and weaknesses of the social marketing campaign to ensure that target audience comprehend the campaign behavioural change messages. Weinreich (2011: 161-162) point out the following as some of the benefits of conducting a pre-test:

- ensures that the target audience comprehend the message
- catches costly mistakes of the campaign
- makes materials more appealing to target audience
- identifies details that subvert the message

The size or extend of pretesting according to Weinreich (2011: 159) sometimes depends on the nature and size of the social marketing campaign being undertaken. It is crucial to conduct pretesting if the campaign involves a large target audience and if there are a lot of resources committed to the social marketing campaign. The next step after pretesting is implementation of the social marketing campaign.
2.10.5 Implementation

It is important for social marketers to design an implementation plan before the actual implementation is done which “covers all of the preparatory activities as well as what will happen after the programme is introduced” (Weinreich 2011: 187). During the implementation step all the social marketing planning is translated into social marketing activities. These social marketing activities aim to raise awareness among target audience about the promoted behavioural change and encouraging the target audience to adopt the behavioural change (Tian & Borges 2012: 109). According to Lee and Kotler (2011: 49) during the implementation step it has to be specified who will do what, when and using how much. It is important during the implementation step that social marketers monitor time lines of carrying out social marketing campaign activities and the spending of the allocated budget.

2.10.6 Evaluation and feedback

Evaluation should not only be done at the end of the campaign but also built into the social marketing campaign process (Weinreich 2011: 257). Evaluation of a social marketing campaign focuses on different aspects of the campaign. Dooley et al (2009: 41) state that activities which have to be monitored and evaluated include:

- target audience change in knowledge, attitudes and behaviours as a result of the social marketing campaign
- social marketing campaign reach in terms of both paid and earned media exposure
- assessment of the social marketing campaign in regard to meeting social benchmark criteria
- establishing key stakeholders and social marketing campaign partnership relationships

Decisions regarding the social marketing campaign have to be made once the evaluation is done. Evaluation results can help decide if the social marketing campaign was successful or certain aspects of the campaign need to be changed. Either way
evaluation enables social marketers to determine if the social marketing campaign managed to convey the right behavioural change messages and if the target audiences have been influenced to adopt a desirable behaviour.

From the above discussion it is clear that a social marketing campaign has systematic steps which are followed when planning and implementing the campaign. Of importance to this study also is how marketing communication mix elements have to be integrated for behavioural change messages to be effective (see section 2.10.3.2). The aspect of integrating various marketing communication mix elements is discussed at length in the next chapter.

2.11 SUMMARY

The aim of this chapter was to provide a theoretical discussion of social marketing. In the chapter, literature on social marketing was pointed out through discussions on the origins and development of social marketing. Key elements of social marketing as well as theories applicable to social marketing were discussed. In explaining the nature social marketing campaigns, steps in planning and implementing social marketing campaigns were discussed. In the next chapter, chapter 3, IMC is fully discussed with the aim of proposing theoretical IMC criteria for social marketing campaigns to support behavioural change messages.
CHAPTER THREE

INTEGRATED MARKETING COMMUNICATION CRITERIA FOR SOCIAL MARKETING TO SUPPORT BEHAVIOURAL CHANGE MESSAGES

3 INTEGRATED MARKETING COMMUNICATION CRITERIA FOR SOCIAL MARKETING TO SUPPORT BEHAVIOURAL CHANGE MESSAGES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to theoretically unpack IMC with the aim of proposing IMC criteria for social marketing to support behavioural change messages. The chapter commences by explaining IMC as a subset of the overall marketing communication concept and outlining the origins and aspects which gave rise to the adoption of IMC. The chapter then proceeds to provide a discussion on the nature of the various marketing communication mix elements which constitute IMC. As a way of showing implementation of the IMC approach within commercial marketing contexts, the chapter reviews relevant studies at both country and organisational level. Furthermore limited literature on IMC application to social marketing contexts is highlighted and the social marketing communication mix elements are explained. Theoretical IMC criteria for social marketing to support behavioural change messages are then proposed.

3.2 MARKETING COMMUNICATION

According to Koekemoer (2011: 1) most activities marketers engage in communicate something to the target audiences. Activities which marketers engage in are informed by a marketing strategy which is a set of conscious decisions about which target market to offer, which products and services, when, at what price and how the target market will be reached (Koekemoer 2011:1). A marketing strategy comprises of four marketing instruments which are commonly known as the traditional marketing mix or the four Ps. The four Ps comprise of product, price, place and promotion which are combined to influence the target market (du Plessis 2010: 2). The fourth element of the
marking mix, promotion, is also referred to as marketing communication and according to du Plessis (2010: 1) is the most visible element among all the marketing mix elements.

Marketing communication is the process of communicating to a target market about specific products or services which the marketer has to offer (Koekemoer 2011:1). According to du Plessis (2010:1), marketing communication attempts to influence the target audience’s attitudes and behaviours using different techniques. Informing, persuading and reminding customers are some of the aims of marketing communication which constitute a carefully planned process done through a marketing communication programme (du Plessis 2010: 2). According to du Plessis (2010: 2), a marketing communication programme guides an organisation’s communication strategy. As part of its strategy, marketing communication uses different marketing communication mix elements which when combined are referred to as the marketing communication mix (see the discussion in chapter 3, section 3.6).

Koekemoer (2011: 3) states that in the past, marketing communication mix elements used to be regarded as separate with separate experts working on different elements. However, the marketing environment has changed, as will be clearly explained in section 3.3.1. As a result of such environmental changes, there has been a need to integrate all the marketing communication mix elements to create coordinated and consistent marketing messages. The process of integrating the different marketing communication mix elements gave birth to the concept of IMC. Principally, the idea of an IMC approach stems from the notion of combining the different marketing communication mix elements which will be explained in detail in section 3.5. In the next section the historical development of the IMC approach is first discussed by explaining its origins and growth for purposes of contextualisation.

3.3 ORIGINS AND GROWTH OF IMC

According to Schultz and Patti (2009: 75) “integrated marketing communication is one of the most influential marketing management frameworks of our time”. IMC is thus a concept which emerged in the late eighties and early nineties in the United States of
America (USA) and is a product of market situations present at the time (Kitchen & Schultz 2009; Luck & Moffatt 2009; Kitchen & Burgmann 2010). Reinold and Tropp (2010: 1) state that IMC has its roots in psychology, marketing and mass communications. Prior to the growth of IMC, marketers used to invest their marketing communication efforts in what Kitchen et al (2004: 20) refer to as a “separatist manner” meaning that different specialists would focus on their respective marketing communication areas. Not much, if any, interaction was solicited from other marketing communication areas of the organisation. All marketing communication efforts were regarded as separate functions resulting in customers receiving fragmented messages (Koekemoer 2011: 3). Traditional marketing communication efforts were simple and marketers would just deliver a message to the buyer using an inside-out approach which only considered organisational needs (Blakeman 2009: 7). However, from the nineteen eighties grew the need to integrate all the marketing communication efforts to avoid message fragmentation (du Plessis 2010: 8; Belch & Belch 2012: 9).

The period between the nineteen eighties and early nineteen nineties saw numerous developments in the field of marketing which gave prominence to IMC (Kitchen & Schultz 2009: 197). According to Villarreal (2010: 1), “IMC emerged as a natural evolution in marketing communication brought about by drastic changes in the market place”, indicating that the move towards integration reflects the adaptation of marketers to the changing environment evident in consumers, technology and media consumption behaviour (Belch & Belch 2012: 11). Changes that led to the growth and adoption of IMC can be categorised into three broad categories namely market place changes, media changes and consumer changes which are explained in the next section.

### 3.3.1 Market place changes

During the early nineteen nineties there was a marked increase in brand competition or “me too” products (du Plessis et al 2010: 8). To distinguish products from competitors, marketers had to make their messages more effective and IMC promised to combine the different messages to make them more uniform and consistent. Furthermore, the
ever increasing cost of traditional advertising gave rise to the adoption of IMC (Villarreal 2010: 1). In the early days of marketing communication, advertising was a major tool in communicating with customers. As the cost of advertising increased, marketers started to look for alternative and cheaper ways of persuading customers. Much consideration was given to other marketing communication mix elements such as public relations, sales promotion, direct marketing, publicity, sponsorship and the World Wide Web (WWW). All these elements had to be included in marketing communication efforts in some integrated form to avoid message ambiguity. Linked to its cost, advertising was also becoming less effective due to its impersonal nature (Villarreal 2010: 1). According to Blakeman (2009: 6) advertising messages were more generalised and sent to large audiences. Such a ‘hit or miss’ approach to marketing communication was no longer viable in a market place which was now segmented into many different markets (Kitchen & Burgmann 2010: 1). There was a need for messages to be specific and to reach the right customers and IMC using customer databases and market research provided a way to reach customers with tailor-made messages.

Targeting audiences was no longer just a local activity due to globalisation. Globalisation increased international competition among the often many similar brands. According to Luck and Moffatt (2009:314), the competitive and consolidated market place forced marketers to “to understand the importance and benefits of employing open, transparent and interactive marketing communication that is integrated holistically through their business”. With homogeneous products available to customers from global competitors, marketers had to find an innovative way of communicating how their products added value to customers.

3.3.2 Media changes

The biggest development in media was the “multiplication of media” which meant that marketers had more choices in reaching customers (Kitchen & Burgmann 2010: 1). New technology ushered in many channels on which customers could be reached and gave marketers more platforms to convey their marketing messages. Media
fragmentation was both an opportunity and a challenge for marketers. On the one hand marketers, for the first time, could reach customers using many channels besides the dominant traditional advertising. According to Belch and Belch (2012: 9) marketing communication mix elements such as public relations, direct marketing and sales promotion challenged the dominate role of advertising in marketing communication. However, it was a challenge using these multiple channels as it created message inconsistencies. Emergence of many channels also gave rise to commercial message clutter which eroded the impact and credibility of marketing messages (du Plessis 2010: 8). Customers were exposed to a lot of different messages on a typical day and there had to be a way to make marketers’ messages stand out from those of competitors. By using IMC marketers were in a better position to distinguish their brands by presenting multiple messages speaking in one voice across the many marketing communication efforts. Using these unified messages, marketers attempted to create a brand image which was different from competitors.

The WWW also resulted in numerous media changes. A case in point is the introduction of Web 2.0 technologies. Using Web 2.0 technologies, marketers are now able to target and reach specific market segments and through social networking sites, views, opinions, insights and experiences about certain products and services are shared among customers (Belch & Belch 2012: 13). By using such shared information on networking sites marketers, are now able to target the right customers, at the right time, using the right marketing communication tools (see also section 3.6.8). According to Belch and Belch (2012: 13) “marketers are now learning that it no longer makes economic sense to send an advertising message to the many in hope of persuading the few”. Instead marketers are sending targeted messages to different segments of the market.

3.3.3 Consumer changes

Due to homogeneity of products consumer loyalty has decreased among customers (du Plessis 2010: 8). Customers no longer see the need to be loyal to one brand given the proliferation of similar products in the market place. The challenge was for
marketers to react to this change and position their products in the minds of customers and one way of doing this was to provide various messages which offered a consistent image about a brand. Advanced technology also shifted power to customers and according to Schultz and Patti (2009: 76) “the former receivers suddenly became active communication generators”. This means that customers during this period became more informed and empowered in that they could control part of the communication process (Koekeemoer 2011: 3). Customers who in previous years were considered inactive receivers of marketing communication were now in a position to choose which information they want to receive. Customers had become empowered to take absolute control not only over what they wanted to receive but also what they wanted to create (Kliatchko 2008: 148). The improved status of the customer in the communication process led to some manufactures adopting an IMC approach which eliminated the retailer and encouraged active communication with marketers or directly with customers (Blakeman 2006: 11). According to Kitchen and Burgmann (2010: 4) the “consumer of today has knowledge and does not need to wait for messages and information from the marketer”. Kitchen and Schultz (2009: 198) summarise the power of the customer by stating that “the consumer is essentially driving the market place and will likely continue to do so perhaps even in the future”.

Though the above mentioned aspects propelled the adoption of IMC by scholars and practitioners, definitional issues of IMC have lingered on since its inception (Kitchen et al 2004; Kliatchko 2008; Kerr, Schultz, Patti & Kim 2008; Villarreal 2010). Problems with arriving at a universally acceptable definition of IMC stem from the fact that there is no consensus on what IMC really entails (see section 3.5). According to Kitchen and Burgmann (2010: 3), it may not be possible to reach consensus on an IMC definition due the different values placed on it by practitioners and scholars and also due to the different interpretations of the field. However, it is imperative at this stage to mention and discuss some of the commonly referred to features of IMC which give form to the widely perceived nature of IMC. A discussion on the nature of IMC also helps in identifying and adopting a definition of IMC for the purpose of this study which to a
larger extent highlights many of the features which prominent authors and scholars of IMC regard as important.

3.4 NATURE OF AN IMC APPROACH

In its basic form, an IMC approach seeks to combine and integrate marketing communication mix elements to create message consistency and synergy (Kitchen et al 2004: 20; du Plessis 2010: 10). Du Plessis (2010: 10) describes synergy as “the interaction of individual parts to make the integrated whole greater than the sum of its parts”.

IMC is built on the assumption that “combined effects of multiple organisational activities are greater than the sum of their individual effects” (Christensen & Daderman 2009: 10). According to Kitchen and Schultz (2009: 198) in the early days of IMC “looking alike and sounding alike” of marketing communication mix elements was the idea behind IMC. Kitchen et al (2004: 19) refer to this as the one voice phenomenon. Kitchen and Burgmann (2010: 1) also describe IMC “as a one sight, one sound and one voice approach”. On the other hand Kerr et al (2008: 514) argue that the concept of integrating the numerous elements of the marketing communication mix is not new but the processes of managing it are. Nevertheless, IMC can be traced to the 1970s where the idea of integration was first proposed (Kitchen & Burgmann 2010: 1). In the next section the key IMC features as put forward by prominent authors and scholars are explained.

3.4.1 Message consistency

Whether IMC is a new or old concept its primary role is to coordinate and manage messages to ensure that customers receive consistent messages about an organisation and its products and services. Belch and Belch (2012: 10) describe IMC as a way of projecting a consistent, unified image to the customers. Such projection of a unified image should be present in every brand contact (Armstrong & Kotler 2011: 408). According to Armstrong and Kotler (2011: 408) brand contacts “are touch points where the customer may encounter the organisation and its brands”. The central idea
behind IMC is to produce messages which present a common theme on each brand contact which should be present in everything that an organisation says and does. In other words all organisational messages are tied together around a consistent theme.

### 3.4.2 Customer-oriented approach

In addition to creating message consistency, IMC has a market orientation approach hence all its activities start and end with the customer (Kitchen et al 2004; Kitchen & Schultz 2009). According to Kliatchko (2008: 140) IMC is a customer driven process which takes into account the needs and wants of customers. Emphasis on the needs and wants of customers imply that marketers use an outside-in approach (Blakeman 2006: 7). Consequently, before an IMC campaign is conducted understanding of the target market is needed. According to Blakeman (2006: 10) there is a need for intimate knowledge of a target audience in order to provide a specialised appeal to them which has expanded beyond customers to also include all stakeholders.

From its inception, IMC has always been a customer-centric process (Kliatchko 2008; Percy 2009; Schultz & Patti 2009; Kitchen & Burgmann 2010; Villarreal 2010). According to Percy (2008: 8) IMC is all about building customer relationships and these relationships should start by looking at the needs and wants of the customer (Kliatchko 2008: 146). Though IMC still pays important attention to the customer, Reinold and Tropp (2010: 2) argue that “the concept of an audience in IMC has been expanded from customers to all stakeholders”. One of many definitions of stakeholders refers to stakeholders as “all the relevant publics or multiple markets with which any given firm interacts” (Kliatchko 2008:145). This definition is relevant to this study because it demonstrates that the idea of a stakeholder is not restrictive to immediate publics of any organisation but extends to multiple parties. Du Plessis (2010: 9) also illustrates the growing importance of stakeholders by explaining that stakeholder groups have also been identified as having an important role as primary customers. Such a shift in approach means IMC considers each and every stakeholder as crucial to the success of IMC and conversely marketing efforts should embrace all stakeholders, not only customers.
According to Mulhern (2009: 95) adopting an IMC approach means an organisation acknowledges that each stakeholder deserves a voice in the IMC process. Stakeholder voices can only be heard if organisations have what du Plessis (2010: 9) refers to as stakeholder-conscious employees. These are employees who are aware not only of the presence of many stakeholders but also the profile of the stakeholders. Being customer-centric also implies that IMC seeks to build sustainable and lasting relationships with customers (du Plessis 2010; Luck & Moffatt 2009).

3.4.3 Building brand relationships

According to Percy (2009: 138) it is now more expensive to acquire new customers than to retain current customers. Consequently, marketers have invested more in keeping current customers than looking for new customers. According to Blakeman (2006:6) the “goal of IMC is to build a long term relationship between buyer and seller, involving an interactive two-way exchange of information”. This perspective is supported by Luck and Moffatt (2009:318) who argue that “communication is at the heart of IMC” meaning that two-way exchange of information solicits brand loyalty on the part of the customer. Efforts to solicit for brand loyalty, has resulted in IMC taking a more pronounced role in brand relationship building.

A brand is “a name, sign, symbol or design or a combination of these that identify the maker or seller of a product or service” (Armstrong & Kotler 2011: 243). Explained differently, a brand represents a combination of values which together promises customers' answers to their needs as put forward by Masterson and Pickton (2010 416). In a very simplistic perspective, all organisations endeavour to limit the gap between their brand identity and brand image. The most common perceptions of brand identity are based on cues which help consumers form impressions about a certain brand while brand image refers to how consumers perceive the brand (Masterson & Pickton 2011). If consumers perceive a brand in almost the same way the marketer intended, then the brand is considered to have high brand equity. Armstrong and Kotler (2011: 256) describe brand equity as “the ability of the brand to capture customers’ preference and loyalty”. In arguing for the greater role of IMC in branding, du Plessis
(2010: 10) states that a "brand is crucial and all communication should be integrated around this concept". The meaning of a brand should be identified in all sources of brand contacts which a customer has with the product or service (du Plessis 2010: 10). All brand contacts should give a consistent brand image which stakeholders identify with which is achieved by adopting an effective IMC approach which ensures that brand messages reinforce each other.

IMC has the ability to develop and sustain both brand identity and brand equity (Belch & Belch (2012: 15). Many authors agree with Belch and Belch (2012) and argue that for a brand to be successful all communication messages from the organisation must be coordinated and consistent (du Plessis 2010; Percy 2009; Delgado-Ballester et al 2012; Sisodia & Telrandhe 2010). Delgado-Ballester et al (2012: 31) further point out that numerous authors advocate for IMC in building and maintaining brand equity. Views from different authors and scholars show how important IMC is becoming not only in creating meaning of a brand but also sustaining that brand meaning among customers and prospective customers. According to Percy (2009: 33) “a brand provides meaning to a product and IMC ensures control over the meaning”. The meaning of a brand is built through consistency in all communications which also builds the right brand-knowledge structure (Delgado-Ballester et al 2012: 32). Through building of sustainable relationships, marketers and stakeholders are able provide a shared meaning of a brand.

3.4.4 Tactical coordination of marketing communication mix elements

IMC integrates and coordinates various marketing communication mix elements to provide a single and unique image to its stakeholders (Kitchen & Burgmann 2010: 1). However, in an IMC approach all forms of marketing communication are also considered as potential platforms to build a relationship. All sources of marketing communication and organisational contact are considered and included in the marketing communication strategy (du Plessis 2010: 10). According to Blakeman (2006:11) everything in IMC has a potential message because everything “an organisation does is some form of communication with the market” (Koekemoer 2011:
1). Recent IMC literature points to a shift from tactical integration to strategic integration representing one of the most noticeable changes to how IMC is viewed by both scholars and practitioners.

According to Belch and Belch (2012: 10) both practitioners and scholars agree that IMC needs to be viewed from a strategic perspective. This is in contrast to an earlier perspective where IMC was considered merely a tactical tool for marketing communication (Kerr & Drennan 2010: 8). Nowadays IMC “forms part of the core of an organisation not as an edge function “(du Plessis 2010: 9). Being strategic in nature implies that IMC’s core messages have to be aligned with the strategic intent of the organisation (du Plessis 2010: 9). Winter and Sundqvist (2008: 203) in this regard argue that there is a need for strategic consistency in order for IMC to be successful. Such strategic consistency should not only constitute consistency from different messages which an organisation sends but also between past and present messages (Gabrielli & Balboni 2010: 277). Navarro, Sicilia and Delgado-Ballester (2012: 224) in their study of how integration affects consumer processing, recall and attitudes towards a brand, observed that many studies “consider strategic consistency as the main criterion to integration”. Navarro et al’s (2009) observation goes further to show that not only is IMC viewed as strategic in nature but its strategic nature is used as a measurement tool of how organisations have achieved total integration.

Adding to the growing voices calling for strategic integration, Kerr and Drennan (2010: 16) state that the majority of public relations and advertising practitioners who participated in their study believe that IMC is a strategic way of thinking. Kerr and Drennan’s (2010) study conclusion is supported by du Plessis (2010: 12) who states that communication specialists in organisations need to be strategists not only technicians. The above views from different scholars and authors clearly show that IMC goes beyond the simple and basic tactical coordination of different marketing communication mix elements to include the “aligning of activities, procedures, messages and goals in order to communicate with consistency and continuity within and across organisational boundaries” (Gabrielli & Balboni 2010: 277).
3.4.5 Data-driven

Arguably the most important aspect which led to the growth of IMC is the advancement in information technology (Christensen & Daderman 2009; Kitchen et al 2004; Du Plessis 2010; Schultz & Patti 2009 & Blakeman; 2006). According to Reinold and Tropp (2010: 1) advances in technology have primarily caused the need to coordinate marketing communication of organisations. Every IMC approach should be database-driven (Reinold & Tropp 2010; Schultz & Patti 2009; Kliatchko 2008). In support of the above assertion, Mulhern (2009: 93) argues that customer databases are a source of information on actual consumer behaviour. Since IMC is customer-oriented, there is a need for deeper insight into consumer behaviour and one of the most effective ways to get customer information has been through databases (see also section 3.6.6). Advancement in technology also led to increasingly use of computerised databases (Blakeman 2006: 7). Databases enable mass storage and manipulation of customer data to the advantage of marketers. With such information marketers are able to target the right segments and provide the correct information according to the needs of the target segment. Marketers are in a position not only to gather, but to also retrieve and manipulate intimate information about their customers by tracking their purchasing patterns (Koekemoer 2011: 4). A detailed discussion on data mining and data mining technologies is provided in section 3.6.6 of this chapter.

3.4.6 Management philosophy

According to du Plessis (2010: 12) “unsupportive structures of an organisation are not conducive for IMC”. Supportive structures imply that top management considers IMC as part of their management philosophy. Kerr and Drennan (2010: 16) agree with this idea by stating that IMC can only be successfully implemented with the support of top management in an organisation.

Many scholars and authors concur that for IMC to work, an organisation must change its internal processes and structures (du Plessis 2010; Kerr & Drennan 2010; Gabrielli & Balboni 2010; Sisodia & Telrandhe 2010). For an IMC approach to permeate to all organisational functions there is a need for a change in how an organisation functions
internally. Belch and Belch (2012:11) agree and state that IMC requires organisational change and investment in that organisations have to structure their internal structures to suit an IMC approach. Gabrielli and Balboni (2010: 277) support this assertion by arguing that “integration requires a high degree of interpersonal and cross functional communication within the organisation”. Cross functional communication within the organisation includes the building of relationships internally before building them externally (du Plessis 2010). Internal stakeholders should understand why there is a need for change in structures and how the structures are going to change. Sisodia and Telrandhe (2010: 135) summarise the importance of IMC as a management philosophy by stating that “the effects of IMC plans are building bridges with other departments and making everyone aware of the thrust and theme of the programme”.

3.4.7 Centralised planning

Du Plessis (2010: 12) argues that for IMC to work there is a need for central control which involves a communication generalist being responsible for implementing and monitoring the IMC strategy in an organisation. In their study Winter and Sundqvist (2008: 208) found that IMC is “more personified than being institutionalised within an organisation”. Such research results point to the fact that organisations prefer to have IMC centralised for easy control and coordination. However, it is not all who agree that IMC should be centralised since there is a debate on who should lead integration in an organisation. Planning of IMC has been viewed from different perspectives with questions being asked as to whether public relations or advertising should lead to integration or should organisations as clients lead the way instead of outside agencies. Furthermore, within organisations, there is also a debate as to whether integration should be centralised or decentralised in an organisation.

Kerr and Drennan (2010: 10) argue that both advertising and public relations practitioners have been apprehensive in working together. According to Stokes (2009: 345) “advertising and marketing has been in favour of IMC while public relations has called it an encroachment on the field”. This could be because advertising and public relations practitioners and scholars think differently about each other’s perceptions of
IMC (Kerr & Drennan 2010: 17). Such ‘turf wars’ between advertising and public relations expose some of the problems in implementing IMC given the control issues it comes with which are not only limited to advertising and public relations practitioners. Clarity is also needed on who should lead the implementation of IMC between an organisation as the client or an external agency. Garbrielli and Balboni (2009: 278) are of the view that organisations as clients should lead in IMC implementation, while Kerr and Drennan (2010: 10) state that “among clients, marketing communication practitioners and academics there is no consensus on who leads implementation of IMC”. However in their study, Kerr and Drennan (2010) discovered that the more a public relations practitioner is educated the more he or she believes that the client should be responsible for integration.

In this regard Caemmerer (2009: 536) is of the view that organisations can use different agencies but they still have to retain control of coordination. Caemmerer (2009) carried out a study on how Renault successfully implemented an IMC campaign in Germany on raising awareness among potential German consumers on the safety of their cars. According to Caemmerer (2009) the success of the Renault campaign was its ability to use a lot of expertise in different areas for the planning and implementing the campaign. This combination of expertise was evident in Renault’s ability to use two different agencies in its campaign and still managed to integrate activities of the two agencies (Caemmerer 2009). With research studies and IMC theory supporting the organisation in leading the implementation of IMC, it is appropriate to propose that an organisation such as the case study in this study, SANBS, should take the initiative in planning and implementing their social marketing campaign by adopting an IMC approach even if an external agency is involved.

Even though the list of key IMC features discussed above might be criticised as not being exhaustive they are considered as constituting the ‘true’ nature of an IMC approach for the purpose of this study as also put forward by numerous prominent scholars and authors. Most of these key features are also contained in the definition of IMC below which is adopted for the purpose of this study.
3.5 DEFINING IMC

Numerous definitions of IMC have been put forward by various authors and scholars and one of the earliest definitions of IMC is by the American Association of Advertising Agencies (AAAA) (Lee & Park 2007: 224). According to the AAAA (1989) IMC is “a concept of marketing communication planning that recognises the added value of a comprehensive plan that evaluates the strategic roles of a variety of communications disciplines – general advertising, direct response, sales promotion, and public relations – and combines these disciplines to provide clarity, consistency, and maximum communication impact” (Quesenberry, Coolsen & Wilkerson 2012: 61). The AAAA (1989) definition of IMC indicates the processes of using different forms of marketing communication mix elements to achieve maximum communication impact (Belch & Belch 2012: 9). Though widely regarded as one of the earliest and popular definitions of IMC it is criticised for failing to consider all sources of brand and organisational contacts and also for portraying marketing communication as one-way process (McGrath 2010: 363; Belch & Belch 2012: 9). According to Belch and Belch (2012: 9) IMC definition should reflect the importance of brand contacts in the marketing communication process.

Kliatchko (2008: 140) on the other hand defines IMC as “an audience-driven business process of strategically managing stakeholders, content, channels and results of brand communication programs”. This definition emphasises the audience-driven nature of IMC and also reflects four important pillars of IMC namely stakeholders, content, channels and results (Kliatchko 2008: 145). According to McGrath (2010: 364) Kliatchko’s (2008) definition is one of the interesting definitions of IMC as it attempts to show some of the important elements of the nature of IMC. It is not the focus of this study to provide an exhaustive list of IMC definitions; however, it is important to highlight one IMC definition which is considered applicable to this study. For the purpose of this study IMC is defined as (Duncan 2002: 8):

“a process for managing customer relationships that drive brand value. More specifically, it is a cross functional process for creating and nourishing profitable
relationships with customers and other stakeholders by strategically controlling and influencing all messages sent to these groups and encouraging data-driven dialogue with them”

Though not one of the latest definitions of IMC, this definition is in particular relevant for this study in that it is one of the mostly used by other authors and scholars and resonates to a broader application of IMC beyond the traditional commercial marketing context (Luck & Moffatt 2009: 317; Quesenberry et al 2012: 61). More importantly Duncan’s (2002) definition reflects all the elements of the nature of IMC as discussed in section 3.4. Duncan’s (2002) definition clearly demonstrates that IMC is a cross functional process (see section 3.4.7), which aims to create and nourish relationships (see section 3.4.3) with customers and stakeholders (see section 3.4.2) in a strategic manner (see section 3.4.6) by controlling all messages (see section 3.4.1) using a data-driven dialogue (see section 3.4.5). Given the many areas of agreement between Duncan’s (2002) definition and literature on IMC, Duncan’s (2002) definition can be considered as giving a broad view of the nature of IMC.

After discussing the historical background, growth and nature of IMC, it is appropriate to explain the marketing communication mix elements which are used in an IMC approach.

3.6 MARKETING COMMUNICATION MIX ELEMENTS

As stated earlier in section 3.4.4, any IMC approach should consider all the marketing communication mix elements because they are all potential platforms to build customer relationships. The integrative nature of IMC implies that all marketing communication mix elements must be integrated to create consistency and synergy in an IMC campaign. As indicated in chapter 2 (see section 2.10.3.2) various scholars and authors propose different marketing communication mix elements which can be included in a social marketing campaign. Eight marketing communication mix elements are discussed and adopted for the purpose of this study which primarily represents a comprehensive list of marketing communication mix elements considered essential for an IMC approach supported by various scholars’ points of view. Furthermore, in this
study it is argued that all the eight marketing communication mix elements when combined provide the best mix to a social marketing campaign (see chapter 2, section 2.10.3). In the next section advertising, sales promotion, marketing public relations, publicity, personal selling, direct marketing, sponsorship and digital communication are discussed as well as explained as to how they could be integrated in a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach to support behavioural change messages.

3.6.1 Advertising

Duncan's (2002: 506) definition of advertising is still very relevant today as also put forward by Belch and Belch (2012: 18). Duncan (2002: 506) defines advertising as “non-personal, one way, planned messages paid for by an identified sponsor and disseminated to a broader audience in order to influence their attitudes and behaviour”. Two important features of advertising are that, it is paid for and non-personal. Berkowitz (2011: 354) states that these features make advertising different from other marketing communication mix elements. Due to its non-personal nature advertising has the ability to reach consumers through mass media and is still considered as cost effective in reaching a large number of consumers according to Belch and Belch (2012: 18). Du Plessis (2010: 5) and Belch and Belch (2012: 18) agree that advertising is still the most visible of all the marketing communication mix elements. Advertising’s high visibility, to some extent, highlights its dominant position, though fading as argued in the next paragraph.

Van Rooyen (2010: 37) states that advertising has not fundamentally changed since its early days. However, Perez-Latre (2009: 35) argues that traditional advertising is losing ground to new innovative ways of communicating to customers. Early in the chapter (section 3.3.1) it was alluded to, that one of the reasons for the growth of IMC is the ineffectiveness of advertising and its ever-increasing cost. This trend is evident in that advertising is no longer that powerful marketing communication tool that could get results for marketers. Perez-Latre (2009: 36) attributes the loss of ground by advertising to the development of new technology which has given birth to other cost-effective ways of reaching customers. To highlight how traditional advertising is no
longer central to today’s marketing communications strategy, Perez-Latre (2009: 36) states that many large organisations such as Amazon.com, Google and eBay have had phenomenal growth with little help from traditional advertising.

Some of the limitations of advertising include lack of credibility and competition for customer attention in a market which is clustered with advertising messages from competitors (Berkowitz 2011: 355). Due to its paid-for nature, it is difficult for advertising to claim credibility from customers since the advertiser controls the process. Customers always interpret advertising messages as trying to manipulate them into buying goods and services. Also the fact that many other competitors are sending their messages to the same customers means that advertising might not be the best method to get customers’ attention.

Though advertising might be losing ground to other marketing communication mix elements, it still has a role to play in an IMC context. According to Berkowitz (2011: 355) if a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach seeks to promote a product or service where product differentiation is strong, advertising plays a leading role in highlighting the differences. Advertising is also a valuable tool for building organisation or brand equity as argued by Belch and Belch (2012: 19). An IMC campaign which aims to reposition or promote an organisation’s brand will give advertising a central role in its marketing communication mix. According to van Rooyen (2010: 43) “advertising takes the essence of the brand and communicates it to the market, to inspire customers to choose product over competitors”. Advertising is also an essential source of information, especially if the product or services is new (Butterick 2011: 43) or buyer awareness of the product or service is minimal (Berkowitz 2011: 355). If the product or service has been in the market, advertising helps in reminding customers about the product (du Plessis 2010: 5).

In terms of integration, Percy (2008: 11) is of the view that today’s advertising messages can also be delivered through direct marketing. This is a typical instance of how advertising could be integrated with other marketing communication mix elements to produce message consistency, which is the ultimate goal of an IMC approach. In
their study, Keller and Fay (2009: 155) highlight how word of mouth conversations among customers referred to advertising as a source of information. Word of mouth is described by Belch and Belch (2011: 151) as direct interpersonal communication between either marketers and customers or customers amongst themselves about products or services. Word of mouth (WOM) is also known as viral marketing (see section 3.6.8.1). This is another example of how advertising can integrate with WOM as a form of promotional tool to give advertising messages more credibility. According to Keller and Fay (2009: 157) customers are more inclined to try out products which are mentioned in WOM conversations, which are in turn informed by advertising.

For social marketing advertising is used to communicate behavioural change messages (Fenton & Chen 2011: 485). Through advertising social marketers are able to convey their behavioural change messages to their targeted audience. Donovan and Henley (2010: 330) argue that the two main roles of advertising in a social marketing campaign is to first create awareness about a social issue being promoted and then create a tentative positive attitude towards the issue. Advertisements for social marketing campaigns can be conveyed as public service announcements (PSA). PSA is when the media agrees to place or print social marketing advertisements either for free or at deeply discounted fee (Lee & Kotler 2011: 359). Through advertising marketers not only are able to influence behavioural change but they are also able to dispel misconceptions and negative costs associated with the behavioural change being promoted (Donovan & Henley 2010: 330).

Once targeted audience adopt the promoted behaviour advertising can be used to repeat the behavioural change message and a way of reinforcing the message (Fenton & Chen 2011: 485). The aim of advertising in this regard will be to maintain the adopted behaviour. Though advertising plays an important role in social marketing, its influence on changing behaviour among the targeted audience depends also on the nature of behaviour and the extent of prior education of the targeted audience (Donovan & Henley 2010: 330).
From the above discussion it can be argued that though advertising does not have its dominant presence as in the past, it is still a very important marketing communication mix element which must be included in a social marketing campaign which has an IMC approach.

### 3.6.2 Marketing public relations (MPR)

According to Belch and Belch (2012: 567) *Public Relations News* defines public relations as a “management function which evaluates public attitudes, identifies the policies and procedures of an organisation with the public interest and executes a program of action to earn public understanding and acceptance”. Public relations seek to build and maintain positive relationships between an organisation and its publics (Lattimore, Baskin, Heiman & Toth 2009: 5). In the case of social marketing relationships are built with targeted audiences with whom behavioural change messages are communicated. From the many definitions of public relations, one important element which stands out is the fostering of goodwill and understanding between an organisation and its stakeholders. Public relations functions include “the investigation of public opinion, attitude changes process and social psychology” (Lattimore et al 2009: 6). Public opinion and attitudes can also be investigated around a promoted behaviour or social issue by an organisation in the context of social marketing. These public relations functions can be regarded as the ‘traditional roles’ of public relations. Belch and Belch (2012: 567) posit that public relations has taken a much broader perspective which not only seeks to build relationships with publics but aims to promote the organisation, its products and services and causes in the case of social marketing.

Integration of marketing and public relations functions, known as marketing public relations (MPR), is about creating a buzz about a product through intermediaries to pass the message to customers or potential customers (Papasolomou & Melanthiou 2012: 325). The buzz can also be created around a social marketing campaign being launched for social marketing. Since Harris (1994) proposed the idea of public relations taking a role in supporting marketing objectives, the concept has grown in importance.
over the years. Lattimore et al (2009: 248) describe the integration of public relations and marketing as innate as both have the same goal of responding to a very significant public, the customer. Whereas public relations seek to enhance the image of the organisation, MPR is more about promoting products, services and causes of an organisation. Belch and Belch (2012: 568) explain that public relations can aid marketing objectives through activities which include “raising awareness, informing and educating, gaining understanding, building trust, giving consumers a reason to buy and motivating consumer acceptance”. In the case of social marketing organisations can raise awareness about a social issue or behaviour which the target audience should adopt and MPR helps motivate targeted audience to adopt the promoted behaviour. Van Heerden (2010: 243) concurs with Belch and Belch (2012) and adds that MPR has the ability to protect and enhance the image of a brand through added credibility. Enhancing an organisation’s image is primarily achieved by instilling trust and seeking long term relationships with the customers (Papasolomou & Melanthiou 2012: 323). To illustrate how MPR creates trust among customers, Papasolomou and Melanthiou (2012: 324) explain that MPR messages are spread by intermediaries who are not paid by the organisation and consequently MPR messages tend to have more credibility and customers are more receptive to the messages “since they are characterised by a third-party endorsement” (Papasolomou & Melanthiou (2012: 323).

In addition to its benefits, MPR also complements other marketing communication mix elements in the IMC approach. According to Papasolomou and Melanthiou (2012: 323) MPR complements other traditional tools by reaching niche markets which can be expensive to advertise. The following are ways in which MPR adds value to a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach (Belch & Belch 2012: 568):

- Building market excitement before media advertising breaks
- Improving on rate on investment
- Creating advertising news where there is no product news
- Introducing a product with little or no advertising
- Providing a value-added customer service
• Building brand-to-customer bonds
• Influencing the influentials
• Defending products at risk and giving customers a reason to buy

In addition to the above list Weinreich (2011: 230) argues that public relations in social marketing can also be used to supplement and reinforce social marketing campaigns' behavioural change messages. MPR is a critical marketing communication mix element which should be considered in an IMC approach as well as social marketing campaigns. Integrating public relations and marketing confirms that similar objectives can be achieved using two consistently integrated marketing communication mix elements. Although MPR plays an important role in a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach, other marketing communication mix elements need to be considered, henceforth marketing communication mix elements for instance, publicity also needs to be considered.

3.6.3 Publicity

Publicity can be defined as “non-personal communications regarding an organisation, product, service, or idea not directly paid for or run under identified sponsorship” (Belch & Belch 2012: 25). Through publicity an organisation seeks to attract the attention of the media about a product, service or idea which the media may consider newsworthy (Rensburg & Cant 2009: 162). Publicity is considered ‘free’ in that the organisation that provides the information to the media do not have to pay for the space or time however the media has control on whether to publish the provided information (Cutlip, Centre & Broom 2009: 29). Some authors and scholars state that public relations and publicity are sometimes confused and incorrectly used interchangeable (Rensburg & Cant 2009: 162; Cutlip et al 2009: 30).

Publicity and public relations are not the same in that publicity seeks to attract the media with newsworthy information while public relations seek to build long term relationships with publics (Donovan & Henley 2010: 334). According to Rensburg and Cant (2009: 162) public relations tend to be two-way communication between an
organisation and its publics while publicity tends to be one-way communication in form of news coverage. Nonetheless publicity plays an important role in that the media can cover or run a favourable story on a product, service, cause or event of an organisation at no cost to the organisation (Belch & Belch 2012: 25). Publicity is not totally regarded as free because some of the techniques which organisations use to generate publicity have to be prepared for and this involves some costs. However an organisation does not pay to have the story placed in the media.

Some of the techniques which organisations use to generate publicity include press releases, interviews, news conferences, editorials, announcements and feature articles (Rensburg & Cant 2009: 162). Through these techniques organisations aim to have their products, services, ideas or causes exposed to target audiences by the media as part of news coverage. However this might not always be the case as the media makes the decision of whether to publish or not stories provided by an organisation. According to Cutlip et al (2009: 29) an organisation has little if any control over if, when and how the information is used or misused by the media. Publicity is not always under control of an organisation and in some instances the publicity may not be favourable (Belch & Belch 2010: 25). Though this poses as a disadvantage, publicity does offer advantages to an organisation.

Publicity is considered low cost in that the organisation does not pay for the placement of stories in the media (Rensburg & Cant 2009: 161). Also publicity tends to have more credibility compared to other marketing communication mix elements (Lattimore et al 2009: 182). This is so because publicity appears in media in form of a story rather than a paid for advertisement and as a result audience can presume the story as unbiased since it comes from the media and not the organisation (Donovan & Henley 2010: 334).

In the context of social marketing publicity has an important role of generating free and positive mentions about a social marketing campaign in the media (Lee & Kotler 2011: 360). According to Donovan and Henley (2010: 333) the high cost of advertising has led to social marketers to pay more attention to publicity to get their behavioural messages placed in the media at no cost. Furthermore publicity lends credibility of
social marketing campaign and its behavioural change messages because by its nature publicity has more credibility than other marketing communication mix elements as explained above (Weinreich 2011: 229). There are many instances in which social marketing campaigns generate publicity. Lee and Kotler (2011: 361) states that through special events like launching a social marketing campaign media can be invited to increase the visibility of social marketing campaigns. Also press conferences with celebrities and staged events of a social marketing campaign attract considerable media coverage (Donovan & Henley 2010: 334). Weinreich (2011: 234) argue that social marketers need to build long term relationships with the media for publicity to be beneficial to social marketing campaigns and their behavioural change messages.

The importance of publicity in the context of social marketing campaign within an IMC approach can be summarised up as attracting media to cover stories which creates, maintains or increase target audiences’ awareness of an organisation’s social marketing campaign and its behavioural change messages (Donovan & Henley 2010: 334).

3.6.4 Sales promotion

Sales promotion can be defined as “those marketing activities that provide extra value or incentive to the sales force, the distributors or the ultimate consumer and can stimulate immediate sales” (Belch & Belch 2012: 24). Sales promotion as Belch and Belch (2012: 24) state can be grouped into two types, namely, consumer-oriented and trade-oriented sales promotion. The unique characteristic of sales promotion is its ability to encourage customers to respond quickly by either trying out the product or buying the product. Blakeman (2009: 244) explains that “sales promotion gives the target an incentive to react quickly to the advertised message”. Incentives could be in the form of coupons, price reduction, extra amount, a product or entering into a contest. The incentives generate short term results for a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach (Koekemoer 2011: 297). Cook (2010: 175) offers the following two fundamental traits of sales promotion:
• Sales promotions are short term in nature and they encourage the consumer to purchase immediately
• Sales promotions move stock and therefore reduce the cost of inventory.

The above traits of sales promotion by Cook (2010) demonstrate the benefits of sales promotion which has resulted in its growth. To illustrate this growth Belch and Belch (2012: 24) state that in many organisations there has been a shift in emphasis from advertising to sales promotion. The role and importance of sales promotion has dramatically grown and it is now used “for building interest in and selling products throughout their life cycle” (Cook 2010: 179). However, that is not the only role sales promotion plays, some of the objectives of consumer sales promotion identified by Belch and Belch (2012: 527-528) include:

• obtaining trial and repurchase
• increasing consumption of an established brand
• defending current customers
• targeting a specific market segment, and
• enhancing integrated marketing communications and building brand equity.

Cook (2010: 178) adds that sales promotion can be used to neutralise competitors which might help an organisation to increase its market share or as pointed above by Belch and Belch (2012) help defend current customers. Blakeman (2009: 244) also explains that sales promotion can lure users of competitors’ products to switch brands and in this case sales promotion takes an offensive position with regard to competition.

Regardless of the usefulness of sales promotion as highlighted above, Blakeman (2009: 245) warns against misuse or overuse of sales promotion which might lead to erosion of brand loyalty and devaluing of the brand itself. Sales promotion needs to be used in such a way that it entices customers to buy the product or service but at the same time preserving the brand of the product or service. Nevertheless, sales promotion as Koekemoer (2011: 297) argues should be integrated with other marketing communication mix elements to achieve optimum results. This position is also
supported by Belch and Belch (2012: 558) who are of the opinion that “sales promotion techniques usually work best in conjunction with advertising and other IMC tools”. Advertising and sales promotion can be coordinated in a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach which Blakeman (2009: 244) terms integrated brand promotion. The coordination of sales promotion and advertising has a synergistic effect which is much greater than the two marketing communication mix elements employed independently (Belch & Belch 2012: 558). Belch and Belch (2012: 559) further add that another way sales promotion can be integrated with other marketing communication mix elements is when the other marketing communication mix elements are used to draw attention to the sales promotion programme.

In the context of social marketing sales promotion activities are not necessarily aimed at increasing sales but increasing the chances of adopting certain behaviour. In social marketing incentives that encourage target audience to adopt certain behaviour are distinct from traditional sales promotion (Lee & Kotler 2011: 271). According to Beerli-Palacio and Martin-Santana (2009) in social marketing the targeted individuals are more influenced by intrinsic factors to change their behaviour. As a result social marketers tend to offer incentives which are psychological and personal in nature to encourage individuals to change behaviour (Lee & Kotler 2011: 271). Incentives to encourage behavioural change come in form of appreciation, social recognition and non-monetary gifts for changing the behaviour (Tscheulin & Lindenmeier 2005: 169). Sales promotion in social marketing can be summarised as activities or incentives which “promise the target audience that if they adopt the recommended behaviour, then the likelihood of positive consequences of compliance will increase” (Donovan & Henley 2010: 118).

Several scholars and authors agree that it is essential to have proper coordination of sales promotion with other marketing communication mix elements in a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach (for instance Belch & Belch 2012; Blakeman 2009). Blakeman (2009: 252) states that the role of sales promotion in social marketing campaign within an IMC approach is to “round out and reinforce the other advertising efforts that make up the marketing communication mix”.

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3.6.5 Personal selling

Koekemoer (2011: 13) defines personal selling as a “person-to-person process by which the seller learns about the prospective buyer’s wants and seeks to satisfy them”. Personal selling involves a marketer presenting product, service or behavioural change information in the case of social marketing to a prospective customer in a two way interaction (Percy 2009: 136). Given the two way interaction, personal selling allows opportunity for feedback and to tailor the product or behavioural change message according to the customer’s specific needs or situation (Belch & Belch 2012: 26). According to Mulder (2010: 141) the customer is at the core of IMC and the fact that personal selling allows for contact with the customer makes it a very important component of any social marketing campaign within an IMC approach. Personal selling within an IMC approach presents one of the opportunities where social marketers get to meet targeted individuals through face-to-face interaction. Though face-to-face interaction is an advantage of personal selling, it an expensive activity. Nevertheless, Percy (2009: 136) argues for the use of personal selling because unlike other marketing communication mix elements, it has the ability to move the behavioural change message directly from the social marketer to the prospective customer. By presenting behavioural change messages to the customers, social marketers are in a position to be more persuasive. In this regard Koekemoer (2011: 222) emphasise that personal selling messages are more persuasive than other marketing communication tools.

Though Belch and Belch (2012: 26) indicate that personal selling is not a direct part of IMC programmes in most organisations, it still has a role to play in IMC. Mulder (2010: 149) thus states that some of the required characteristics of personal selling in an IMC context are that it should:

- emphasise mutuality of benefit between the marketer and the customer
- be stakeholder oriented
- be operational, and
- be value driven.
In addition to the above, behavioural change messages in personal selling can be delivered with consistency of the overall marketing communication programme (Percy 2009: 136). Consistency can also be achieved by combining personal selling with other marketing communication mix elements. For instance, Mulder (2010: 150) states that personal selling and advertising can complement each other. While advertising creates awareness by providing basic information about a product or desired behaviour, personal selling becomes necessary by completing the exchange process (Mulder 2010: 150). Mulder (2010: 150) further explains that sales promotion creates a favourable situation for personal selling because there is already a reason for the customer to try out the product or adopt the promoted behaviour in the form incentives which encourage behavioural change. In personal selling, social marketers are involved in activities such as selling the idea of behavioural change, maintaining relationships and planning and this makes it a very important marketing communication mix element to consider in a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach (Koekemoer 2011: 232).

The appropriateness of personal selling in a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach is rightly explained by Koekemoer (2011). Koekemoer (2011: 232) in this regard argues that if the complexity of a product or behavioural change process increases, so does the value of the product or behavioural change being promoted. The fewer the potential customers or targeted individuals are, the more economically feasible personal selling becomes. Also personal selling will be more appropriate if inducing an immediate sale or influencing immediate behavioural change is a prerequisite to accomplishing social marketing campaign objectives (Koekemoer 2011: 245). It is thus within the above situations that personal selling can take a leading role for a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach.

3.6.6 Direct marketing

Direct marketing is another important marketing communication mix element which is available to a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach. Blakeman (2009: 230) views direct marketing as a way of creating dialogue between social marketers and customers. The dialogue seeks to create relationships which are conducive for
building and maintaining relationships. Direct marketing is defined as “a system of marketing by which organisations communicate directly with target audiences to generate a response or transaction” (Belch & Belch 2012: 470). The definition by Belch and Belch (2012: 470) indicates that the core function of direct marketing is to achieve a behavioural response from target customers (Koekemoer 2011: 204). Franck (2010: 321) argues that direct marketing has two primary objectives which are to establish relationships through soliciting of a direct response and maintaining and enhancing those relationships in the long term.

One of the reasons direct marketing is growing in importance according to Koekemoer (2011: 330) is that more and more customers are demanding customised and individualised products and services. Koekemoer (2011: 333-337) further points to the growth of direct marketing because of:

- the change in consumer lifestyles
- advances in computer technology
- the growth of consumer credit, and
- more accurately targeted media

As pointed above by Koekemoer (2011: 333-337), advances in computer technology gave growth to direct marketing hence databases have become a central tool in direct marketing. Database marketing is a form of direct marketing which uses sophisticated databases where marketers acquire knowledge to produce personalised behavioural change messages which appeal to targeted individuals in a language they understand and providing information on behaviours which are desirable to adopt. Information of individuals’ behavioural history, social lifestyles, customer service and support calls are stored in what Armstrong and Kotler (2011: 149) refer to as data warehouses. These data warehouses “do not just gather information, but pull it together into central, accessible location” (Armstrong & Kotler 2011: 149). Through a process of data mining marketers are able to use “specialised software to analyse large amounts of data to predict trends and likely customer behaviour” (Masterson & Pickton 2010: 305). Information gathered through data mining is then used to match a product, service or
idea being promoted with the unique needs of individual customers (Koekemoer 2011: 329). Blakeman (2009: 239) explains that “the ability to tie a key product benefit to the target’s lifestyle is crucial in direct marketing”.

There are many forms of direct marketing which include the following according to Armstrong and Kotler (2011: 477-482):

- Direct mail marketing: using mailing lists, social marketers are able to send an offer, announcement, reminder or other item to a person on a particular address.
- Catalogue marketing: this type of direct marketing is done through print, video or digital catalogues mailed to selected customers. These catalogues may be available in stores or online. Digital catalogues have increasingly become prominent in catalogue marketing.
- Telephone marketing: using telephones, social marketers are able to sell directly or promote certain behaviour to customers. Incoming calls are used to receive queries from customers while outgoing calls are used to sell directly to customers.
- Direct-response television marketing: Two forms are available to the marketer, namely direct-response television marketing and infomercials. Direct-response television is mainly used to persuasively describe a product or the behavioural change being promoted and give a toll free number on which customers can order or enquire about the behaviour. On the other hand, infomercials are usually included in a 30 minutes advertising programme about a single product or behaviour being promoted.
- Kiosk marketing: involves information and ordering machines that allow customers to order merchandise which might not be carried in the store.

Given its growing use, direct marketing is used in a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach in combination with other marketing communication mix elements (Franck 2010: 321). Public relations activities, for instance, could solicit funds for charities and at the same time benefit from the use of a direct marketing technique such as telemarketing (Belch & Belch 2012: 473). Belch and Belch (2012: 473) refer to another instance where direct marketing can be integrated with a marketing
communication mix element such as sales promotion. Social marketers in notifying customers about a sales promotion or inviting them to a contest related to behaviour being promoted can use direct mail. According to Blakeman (2009: 239) direct mail can also be used in launching a social marketing campaign. Through direct mail, target audiences get to know that there is a social marketing campaign which will be launched.

The above examples of how direct marketing could be integrated with other marketing communication mix elements show that direct marketing can be used to enhance the objectives of a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach. Some of the advantages of direct marketing, which makes it a suitable option in the IMC marketing communication mix, include (Blakeman 2009: 238):

- personalisation
- measurability
- database use (data mining)
- customer response; and
- its attention-getting nature.

3.6.7 Sponsorship

Koekemoer (2011: 456) defines sponsorship as “a business relationship between a provider of funds, resources or services and an individual, event or organisation that offers association and rights in return, that may be used for commercial advantage”. Sponsorship is all about a beneficiary being able to carry out some activity in return offering the sponsor some sponsorship rights. This arrangement is viewed as a business relationship between the sponsor and the beneficiary which has mutual benefits. According to van Heerden (2010: 279) sponsorship assists in adding value and differentiating brands in order to create brand associations among customers. These brand associations lead to the ultimate goal of sponsorship which is to create long term relationships with an event or activity and the target customers (Koekemoer 2011: 458). In the context of social marketing sponsors promote ‘a message’ on
behavioural change not necessarily a product or service (Donovan & Henley 2010: 368).

Sponsorship is perceived as an important and critical tool of the marketing communication strategy in an IMC context because of its potential to generate sustainable competitive advantage (Woodside & Summers 2011: 88). As one of the marketing communication mix elements in an IMC campaign, sponsorship can increase awareness of an organisation or social issue which the organisation is promoting and reinforce positive attitudes toward behaviour being promoted and the organisation involved in the sponsorship (Donovan & Henley 2010: 368). When using sponsorship in a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach it is important for an organisation to choose the right activity or event. McDonald and Wilson (2011: 292) point to four types of sponsorships, namely sport, social, arts and culture and media. Among the four types of sponsorships mentioned by McDonald and Wilson (2011: 292), sport sponsorship takes the biggest proportion because of its popularity among sporting fans (McDaniel, Lamb & Hair 2013: 638). Major sponsors spend a lot of money on big sporting events such as the Soccer World Cup and the Olympics with an array of events from which sponsors could associate themselves, “it is important to fit the brand image to those audiences who have interest in sponsored property” (Van Heerden 2010: 279). Koekemoer (2011: 465) offers the following as some of the aspects to consider in sponsorship selection:

- target market segment
- timing or seasonality
- competitor activity
- communication factors
- event profile
- potential media exposure
- product or brand relevance
- image
- budget
• hospitality opportunities
• return on sponsorship investment
• exclusivity

In addition to the above, Coppetti et al (2009: 17) also states that there should be congruence between the sponsor and the activity being sponsored. Coppetti et al (2009: 17) explain congruence as “the extent to which the sponsor and the event are perceived as similar, whether that similarity is derived from functionality, attributes, image or other associations”. A good match between the sponsor and the sponsored activity will justify the involvement of a sponsoring organisation in such a relationship. Sponsorship is an effective tool if it is integrated with other IMC elements (van Heerden 2010: 276). Integrating sponsorship with other promotional elements enables it to extend the impact of other marketing communication mix elements and the behavioural change messages they communicate (Koekemoer 2011: 461).

From the above discussion it is evident that sponsorship should be considered in a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach. Sponsorship’s ability “to cut through the clutter, providing the unique opportunity to build relationships with customers by creating an emotional bond” makes it a crucial tool to consider when engaging in a social marketing campaign (Koekemoer 2011: 456).

From sections 3.6.1 to 3.6.7 marketing communication mix elements of IMC have been discussed in great detail. It is, however, important to also mention that the discussed marketing communication mix elements are also performed on various online platforms by marketers referred to as the online marketing communication mix. Though it is beyond the scope of this chapter to offer an exhaustive discussion on how marketers are using the marketing communication mix elements on these online platforms, online marketing communication mix needs to be acknowledged. Widely acknowledged examples of online marketing communication mix elements include online advertising, online public relations and online direct marketing (Barker, du Plessis & Hanekom 2013: 335-336). In the next section an overview of some of the most popular digital
communication tools which can be used for a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach is provided.

### 3.6.8 Digital communication tools that benefit IMC

According to Belch and Belch (2012: 490) there have been many changes to the way marketing communication is practised due the digital revolution. Due to the adoption of digital communication by consumers, marketers nowadays appreciate the need to include it as part of their communication strategy in a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach. The digital revolution has connected the marketer and the consumer in ways that were never imaginable in the past. Digital communication tools have given consumers choice to “determine and select the organisations with whom they want to interact and when they want to interact” (Spiller, Tuten & Carpenter 2011: 75). Digital communication tools have been largely driven by the increasing use of the WWW and the Internet. Duncan (2002: 417) define the Internet as "a worldwide system of linked computer networks". On the other hand WWW presents a way in which to represent information on the internet. Using the WWW, marketers are able to have real time interaction with customers (Cook & Muir 2010: 371). The early days of the WWW consisted of mainly static sites which involved one-way flow of communication (Belch & Belch 2012: 495).

Nevertheless the introduction of Web 2.0 changed the nature of one-way flow of communication. According to Murugesan (2010: 3) Tim O'Reilly coined the term Web 2.0 in 2004 which “encompasses Web technologies and services, such as blogs, networking sites, wikis, communication tools and folksonomies that emphasise sharing of content among users and online collaborations”. Web 2.0 is “a set of applications and technologies that allows users to create, edit and distribute content, share preferences, bookmarks and online personas, participate in virtual lives and build online communities” (Laudon & Traver 2012: 56). The rise of Web 2.0 has made consumers not only receivers of information but also creators of information. Web 2.0 not only facilitates two-way communication between the marketer and the consumer but also allows communication among consumers themselves, a phenomenon known
as many-to-many communication (Thomas & Housden 2011: 34). The introduction of Web 2.0 has eliminated some of the limitations of the traditional marketing communication mix elements for instance advertising, where opportunities for feedback were not present or delayed. The Web 2.0 as a dominant platform in digital communication is appealing to both the consumer and the marketer because of its characteristics of being seamless, global reach, currency, comprehensiveness, interactivity and easy to use (Cook & Muir 2010: 381). Some of the characteristics of Web 2.0 technologies include the following (Laudon & Traver 2012: 57):

- They rely on user and consumer-generated content
- Easy search capability is a key to their success
- They are inherently highly interactive
- Rely on broadband connectivity to the WWW
- They attract extremely large audiences

Social marketers have realised the importance of digital communication tools and Web 2.0 technologies and have begun to incorporate them in their social marketing campaigns which have adopted an IMC approach. Keller (2009:147) explains that “to communicate effectively and efficiently, marketers have to go where customers are and increasingly that is online”. It is also important to note that digital communication tools and Web 2.0 applications can be accessed via desktop and mobile applications (Laudon & Traver 2012: 56).

In the next sections some of the digital communication tools and Web 2.0 technologies which can be included in a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach are discussed. Given the almost endless list of digital tools which can be included in a social marketing campaign it is beyond the scope of this study to explain each of these tools. Nevertheless, in the next sections an explanation of digital communication tools and Web 2.0 technologies and applications which are perceived as important for a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach and supported by numerous authors and scholars is provided.
3.6.8.1 Social media

Social media has emerged as an important platform for using digital communication tools through which marketers can communicate with millions of consumers worldwide as a result of the introduction of Web 2.0 technology (see section 3.6.8). According to McDaniel, Lamb and Hair (2013: 805) because of social media, social marketers can communicate with consumers not using mass messages but intimate conversations through user-generated content. Spiller et al (2011: 76) define social media as “the means of communication enhanced by the anytime, anywhere benefits of the web and mobile technologies, built around online communities and based on interdependent relationships and cooperation”. This means that consumers are afforded the space to engage with the organisation about its products and services. Feedback from consumers forges relationships and consequently builds brand loyalty (McDaniel et al 2013: 808).

The importance of social media is not only anchored in its ability to build relationships but also to measure direct consumer responses. According to McDonald and Wilson (2011: 282) organisations can use the free qualitative data on social media to tailor-make their product offerings. Numerous social media analytics software programmes to track and evaluate consumer conversation about a product are also available. By using information from the different social media tools, an organisation can measure how its products and services as well as their marketing messages are being perceived and received by customers. Nevertheless, data from social media can also work to the disadvantage of organisations. In instances where negative comments are made on social media this can have a negative impact on the image of the organisation through electronic word of mouth (eWOM). It is for this reason that some organisations are apprehensive when it comes to using social media for their product offerings. Viral marketing is one of the ways in which product information is spread among different customers by means of WOM and eWOM.

Viral marketing aims to generate a “buzz” about a product or service by spreading product information quickly using social media tools. Armstrong and Kotler (2011: 495)
describe viral marketing as a “website, video, email, cell phone message, advertisement, or other marketing event that is so infectious that customers would want to pass it along to their friends”. Sorger (2012: 223) concurs with Armstrong and Kotler (2011: 495) and adds that viral marketing “best work if the user believes the message will interest others, feature outrageous antics and quickly generate brand awareness”.

In section 3.6.1 WOM was described as interpersonal communication between either marketers and customers or customers amongst themselves about products or services. As a result of the WWW, eWOM has “shifted from small groups and communities to large scale networks of consumers” (Obal, Burtch & Kuz 2011: 33).

Social media tools, for instance, social networking sites act as digital vehicles of eWOM according to Sago (2010: 8). Not only are consumers able to pass information to others but they are also able to advocate for and rail against certain brands (Fogel 2010: 56). This illustrates that marketers do not have control over eWOM communication. Though marketers are not in control of word of mouth conversations online, they can influence sources of eWOM information. According to Fogel (2010: 56) traditional marketing communication mix elements for instance advertising, to some extent can influence word of mouth as a source of product information. Obal et al (2011: 34) add that “social networks sites provide marketers an opportunity to directly influence word of mouth communication in a manner that is not possible with traditional IMC elements”.

It is important not only to discuss the nature of social media but also explain some of the most popular social media tools and platforms. Social media can be classified into many types which include the following (Belch & Belch: 2012; Weinreich 2011; Laudon & Traver 2012; du Plessis 2010):

- social networking sites
- social bookmarking sites
- social news sites
- video-sharing communities
- photo-sharing sites
• professional networking
• web-based encyclopaedia
• community answer sites
• blog-networking communities
• social media aggregators
• micro-blogging
• blog publishing
• social web-content discovery
• social media research
• social event calendar
• mobile-phone platforms

It is beyond the scope of this study to discuss and explain all the above mentioned tools and platforms. In the following section examples of some of the most popular social media tools and platforms that could support behavioural change messages in social marketing campaigns are explained.

3.6.8.2 Social media tools and platforms that could add value to behavioural change messages

The following popular social media tools and platforms are perceived by numerous scholars as adding value to a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach (see McDaniel et al 2013; Weinreich 2011; Donovan & Henley 2010).

• Social networking sites

According to Thomas and Housden (2011: 55) social networking sites are social media sites where users can create personal profiles, upload content such as photos and video and interact with other users on various social media platforms. Social network sites allow individuals to connect and network around shared interests as explained by McDaniel et al (2013: 809). Consumers on social networking sites can share information about products and aspects regarding promoted behaviour with other users
in the context of social marketing. Social marketers can also share information about the promoted behaviour with customers making this an ideal platform for viral marketing. Information on customer location can be shared also on location based social networking sites which according to MacDonald and Wilson (2011: 270) “combine the fun of social networking with the utility of location-based GPS technology”. In a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach a social marketer can initiate a conversation regarding aspects of the promoted behaviour of the social marketing campaign. This allows target consumers to also comment on the promoted behaviour of the campaign and thus providing much needed immediate feedback on its marketing communication activities. Hundreds of social networking sites are available to marketers of which the most popular social networking sites include Facebook, MySpace, Google Plus and numerous others (Universal McCann, 2012).

- **Media sharing sites**

Almost similar to social networking sites, media sharing sites allow users to upload and share content such as photos and videos (McDaniel et al 2013: 809). Similarly social marketers can also upload their promotional videos on media sharing sites in order to increase the exposure of their behavioural change messages (Sorger 2012: 223). Media sharing sites are unique in that the social marketing campaigns within an IMC approach can target a niche market of the campaign. For instance, if some targeted individuals are interested in photographs, it will be easier to get their attention through posting photos of the social marketing campaign on for instance Flicker or Instagram. Many advertisements of social marketing campaigns have also proved to be popular after being viewed on YouTube where numerous organisations engaged in social marketing now have their own channels to which users could subscribe to receive all published videos. These videos can also be shared with other users providing added exposure to the behavioural change messages of the social marketing campaign.

- **Blogs**

Different types of blogs exist which could add value to a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach. A blog is a web page with a frequent set of posts on a certain
subject and users can comment on the entries made by the author (Cristian et al 2009: 983). Using corporate blogs social marketers can engage with targeted individuals on specific topics regarding a promoted behaviour. Corporate blogs are mainly used to enhance communication and culture within an organisation and externally they are used for branding, marketing and public relations purposes (Rensburg & Cant 2009: 182). According to Sorger (2012: 222) an organisation engaged in social marketing can communicate announcements about issues related to behavioural change through blogs and these are referred to as product blogs. Product blogs are blogs which are specific to a product or social issue not the organisation at large (Sorger 2012: 222). On the other hand social marketers can gather valuable information from other blogs from which they do not have control over for instance customer blogs. Customer blogs are increasingly offering reviews about certain product and services and provide added exposure to the organisation's products and services. In the case of social marketing these can be blogs by targeted individuals on issues related to the promoted behaviour. Reviews could, however, also be negative and affect the organisation's reputation negatively (McDaniel et al 2013: 639).

- **Microblogs**

A microblog is another type of blog where customers could follow the organisation and join the conversation about products and services. Microblogs are unique in that they have a limit on the length of message which can be posted. A popular example of a microblog is Twitter, where social marketers can post ‘tweets’ about their campaigns and behavioural change messages to their followers using 140 characters only. Social marketers can also provide interesting and useful information regarding behaviour being promoted through microblogs (Weinreich 2010: 220). Furthermore social marketers can create conversation around behaviour being promoted using use a hashtag on a microblog such as Twitter to reach a wider audience. A hashtag is used to “aggregate ‘tweets’ from many people on a particular topic, event or conference” (Weinreich 2011: 222). Tweets can also be re-tweeted by followers to their ‘followers’. Whichever type of blog is used it is important that marketers use blogs “to create
communities of consumers who feel positive about the brand” (McDaniel et al 2013: 639).

### 3.6.8.3 Corporate websites

Corporate websites are mainly used to provide information about an organisation and the behaviour or social issue it is promoting but more recently they are increasingly being used to promote an organisation or brand’s image (Belch & Belch 2012: 492). Armstrong and Kotler (2010: 491) further explain that corporate websites are also used to build customer goodwill, collect customer feedback and supplement other marketing communication mix elements. In a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach corporate websites could be used to generate excitement about the campaign, build relationships with visitors to the website to eventually associate the organisation’s website with behavioural change messages by other marketing communication mix elements. According to Lee and Kotler (2011: 369) websites impacts awareness of behaviour being promoted and also attitude towards the organisation promoting the behaviour. McDaniel et al (2013: 639) provide the following as some of the uses of a website in an IMC campaign:

- Introduce a new product
- Provide information to the media, including social media
- Promote existing products
- Obtain consumer feedback
- Showcase upcoming event
- Provide links to related site
- Interact with customers and potential customers

In addition to the above corporate websites “provides a relatively efficient and inexpensive forum for the development and dissemination of social marketing projects and materials” (Donovan & Henley 2010: 350). From the above discussion it is clear that using corporate websites can provide meaningful benefits to a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach if the website can attract many visitors. Belch and
Belch (2012: 492) argue that attracting visitors to a website requires a combination of creativity, effective marketing and continual updating of the website.

3.6.8.4 Mobile marketing

According to Cristian et al (2009: 985) mobile marketing allows for communication with targeted customers regarding a promoted behaviour by means of mobile devices. These mobile devices include tablets, mobile smart phones and many others. Mobile devices have the ability to send and receive plain text and multimedia behavioural change messages. Sorger (2012) defines mobile marketing as “a promotional activity designed for delivery to mobile devices”. With the emergence of smart phone technology consumers can do anything on their mobile devices which they could have done on their computers. Smart mobile phones can integrate tools like the GPS technology where customers can ‘check in’ in certain areas and social marketers will be able to send behavioural change messages which are specific to the location they have ‘checked in’. This location might be near services offered in relation to the promoted behaviour. This is referred to as contextual marketing which is defined as “the extent to which e-business use the Internet to provide customers with relevant information in the right context and in real time” (Lee, Korea & Jun 2007: 799). Furthermore using quick response (QR) code scanners on their mobile devices can get a quick link to the mobile website on an organisation which provides more information regarding behaviour or social issue being promoted. McDaniel et al (2013: 826) define QR codes as are “small, square bar codes that smart phones photograph and read in order to take the user to the product’s website”.

The following are some of the tools of mobile marketing (McDaniel et al 2013: 825; Bellman, Potter, Treleaven-Hassard, Robinson & Varan 2011: 191):

- Short message service (SMS)
- Multimedia messaging service (MMS)
- Mobile websites
- Mobile advertisements
- Bluetooth marketing
• Smartphone and mobile tablet applications (Apps)
• Mobile branded applications
• Mobile brand communities (eg Mxit)

Even though more and more digital communication tools are emerging, it may not necessarily mean that social marketing campaigns with an IMC approach should use each and every digital communication available. Sorger (2012: 209) argues that “digital communication tools work well in situations where the organisation emphasise its internet presence as part of its business model”. In the context of social marketing if the targeted individuals of behavioural change messages have a strong online presence.

The above examples of digital communication tools are interactive in nature and consequently encourage consumer feedback on behavioural change messages communicated through social marketing campaigns. Digital communication offers many advantages which include interactivity, cost effectiveness, targetable and highly accountability as Blakeman (2009: 258) explains. However, it is important to view digital communication in terms of its integration with other marketing communication mix elements in a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach. The WWW should be integrated with other marketing communication mix elements in that it contributes to a consistent and synergised behavioural change message (Cook & Muir 2010: 377). Public relations can, for instance, be integrated with the WWW by “providing company information, philanthropic activities and annual reports” on an organisation’s website (Belch and Belch 2012: 505). An organisation can use online coupons as part of its sales promotion strategy. In such instances the WWW complements sales promotion activities. Blakeman (2009: 271) describes that the presence of website addresses in other marketing communication mix elements, for instance in advertising, as further example of integration between WWW and other marketing communication mix elements.
Nowadays many organisations in their marketing communication mix elements mention their name and URL of their websites and social networking sites for example their Facebook pages and Twitter handles. These social media tools complement other marketing communication mix elements and should be used to create consistency of behavioural change messages in the context of social marketing. According to Blakeman (2009: 256) the WWW can play a primary role or a secondary role in IMC. A primary role is when the target customer initiates contact with the organisation through searches using tools such as search engines (Blakeman 2009: 256). A secondary role is when the WWW plays a supportive and “the target is directed to a website on exposure in a traditional advertising or promotional media vehicle” (Blakeman 2009: 256). Cook and Muir (2010: 376) summarise the support for integration by stating that “the choice is not between online or offline but to ensure that the brand is consistent online and offline”.

In this study it is argued that for a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach to be successful it must consider both online and offline marketing communication mix elements. These marketing communication mix elements should be integrated to maximise their respective strengths and contribute to the ultimate behavioural change objectives of the social marketing campaign. Not only should the marketing communication mix elements be considered in a social marketing campaign but its implementation should also be reflective of recent IMC practices. In the next section IMC application is discussed at both country and organisational level to illustrate the application of IMC.

3.7 IMC APPLICATION

It is important to highlight how IMC is currently being applied and to discuss its benefits, barriers to its practice, level of integration in organisations, the presence or lack thereof in social marketing campaigns as well as to identify some of the gaps in IMC applications in social marketing which necessitates this study. The study acknowledges that previous studies (for instance Kitchen & Schultz 1999; Eagle, Kitchen, Hyde, Fourie & Padisetti 1999; Kitchen & Schultz 1999; Kitchen & Schultz
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1998) have shown how IMC is implemented and applied. Nevertheless, in this section the aim is also to illustrate through studies and campaigns how IMC is implemented and applied on country and organisational level. This section will thus first consider county level application and implementation of IMC and secondly narrow its focus down to some of the latest organisational-level studies which shows IMC implementation in various organisations. This discussion is necessary in that it is essential to indicate which previous studies have been done on IMC campaigns to emphasise how this study fills the much needed gap in terms of an IMC approach in social marketing campaigns in South Africa.

3.7.1 Country level implementation and application of IMC

On country level, latest studies show that IMC is being applied in countries like United Kingdom, New Zealand (Eagle et al 2007) Turkey (Ebren, Kitchen, Aksoy & Kaynak 2006), South Korea (Kim, Han, & Schultz 2004), Australia (Kerr & Drennan 2010), India (Sisodia & Telrandhe 2010) and South Africa (Kallmeyer & Abratt 2001). It should be pointed out that the above studies after an extensive literature review proved to be the most recent in terms of country level IMC studies. There is also a deliberate attempt to omit the United States of America (USA) on the country list, since most literature on IMC has mostly been American. Latest literature on IMC should therefore also reflect how IMC has grown in other countries outside America where the concept originated.

Eagle et al (2007: 960) after studying advertising agencies in United Kingdom and New Zealand conclude that there is agreement in both countries that IMC is a necessary utility in marketing communication. The same conclusion is reached in studies focusing on Turkey (Ebren et al 2006: 140) and South Korea (Kim et al 2004: 35). The above studies indicate the growing importance of IMC in both developing and developed countries. According to Ebren et al (2006: 140) and Eagle et al (2007: 960) advertising agencies are involved in many ever widening array of marketing communication functions. This clearly indicates what was discussed early in section 3.4 that organisations in adopting an IMC approach must appreciate other elements of the marketing communication mix. However, Eagle et al (2007: 962) and Ebren et al (2006:
state that public relations and advertising agencies in United Kingdom, New Zealand and Turkey still regard advertising as the most important marketing communication mix element. Such an observation shows that very few organisations, if any have reached full integration as they still regard advertising as more important thereby disregarding integration with other promotional elements (Kitchen & Burgmann 2010: 7). This assertion is also supported by other authors (Eagle et al 2007: 965; Ebren et al 2006: 141) suggesting that IMC is still in its early stages of adoption in many countries.

In India, according to Sisodia and Telrandhe (2010: 136) many organisations faced with a diverse population are able to identify target niche markets using social and attitudinal behaviour and offering the niche markets coordinated and consistent marketing messages. Such an example shows how Indian organisations are able to utilise one of the important elements of IMC which is to target directly individuals with consistent messages. The same application of IMC is also evident in Australia, where both public relations and advertising agencies who use an IMC approach view it as a way of encouraging greater recall by customers (Kerr & Drennan 2010: 16). In the above studies, benefits of the application of IMC are also highlighted. Turkish advertising agencies see IMC as a way of delivering unified messages to customers (Ebren et al 2006: 141). Kitchen and Burgmann (2010: 5) also argue that “an important benefit of IMC is that it appreciates the significance of marketing strategy and corporate branding of new communication tools”. Indian organisations also agree that delivering brand value is key to IMC (Sisodia & Telrandhe 2010: 137). On the other hand, South Korean advertising agencies and their client organisations see IMC as a more efficient and effective communication strategy (Kim et al 2004: 36).

Though the above country level studies show benefits in applying an IMC, there are barriers which hinder the adoption of IMC. Some studies suggest that turf battles over control of the IMC process (Ebren et al 2006: 134; Kim et al 2004: 38) and different organisational cultures among participating agencies (Ebren et al 2006: 144; Kim et al 2004: 38) are some of the barriers to IMC adoption.
In the South African context, literature reflecting the broader application of IMC is limited. Kallmeyer and Abratt’s (2001: 370) study appear to be the latest reflecting how IMC has been adopted in South Africa. In their study Kallmeyer and Abratt (2001: 370) highlight the development of IMC in South African advertising agencies. Their study show that most advertising agencies are developing IMC strategies and IMC is growing in importance (Kallmeyer & Abratt’s 2001: 361). Many advertising agencies in South Africa view the adoption of IMC as a way of growth and survival (Kallmeyer & Abratt 2001: 370). This in relation to advertising agencies, indicates that IMC has been widely accepted and those organisations which do not adopt the approach risk losing their competitive edge (Kallmeyer & Abratt 2010: 377). Another study by Bonnema and van der Waldt (2008: 326), though not providing a broad picture of IMC adoption, recommends that South African educational institutions apply an IMC approach when marketing to prospective students. Such accession indicates how IMC is perceived as important not only in advertising agencies but in other industries such as education. Botha (2010: 110) carried out a study on the perceptions of South African practitioners on structures and tasks given to marketing and communication managers within organisations. Though not directly linked to IMC, the study shows that many South African organisations still separate marketing and communication functions in their organisational structure (Botha 2010: 110). To some extent the study gives an indication that South African organisations have not fully appreciated the integrated approach to marketing and communication. Such an approach could provide efficiency and better capability of marketing communication to South African organisations (Kallmeyer & Abratt 2001: 376). However, Botha (2010: 110) acknowledges that there is a shift towards an integrated approach among South African organisations. This shift can be successful if South African organisations are able to find and keep employees skilled in different functional areas as required by an IMC approach (Kallmeyer & Abratt 2001: 372).

From the above it can be concluded that IMC at country level has been accepted and is being applied in many countries. However, in the South African context not many organisations have totally embraced the concept. This could be attributed to limited
literature, as pointed above, which highlights how IMC is being applied by different organisations. This study could contribute to the body of literature on IMC application in the South African context. Nevertheless it is important to narrow down IMC application from a country level and look at how IMC is applied in the many different sectors of the different countries where the concept has been identified as the norm for marketing communication.

3.7.2 Organisational level implementation and application of IMC

IMC has been applied to many different organisations and campaigns. Studies show that IMC has been applied in launching of high end technology products (Winter & Sundqvist 2008), Scottish whisky campaigns (Dow & Jung 2011), campaigns on promoting heritage sites (Yu-Ju, Chihkang & Jingxue 2009), in small to medium enterprises (SMEs) (Gabrielli & Balboni 2010), promoting health products (Stokes 2009), repositioning banks (Sucharit 2011), promoting music festivals (Prakash & Sharma 2010) and health and blood donation campaigns (Herstein, Mitki & Jaffe 2008). The list of organisations and campaigns which have employed an IMC approach is not exhaustive and it is not the scope of this chapter to discuss them all. This section discusses the above mentioned current examples only to demonstrate how an IMC approach could be applied and implemented either in organisations or in specific campaigns.

In their study Dow and Jung (2011: 110) show that the IMC approach has been expanded to campaigns which promote Scottish whisky. Their study established that organisations that own the best-selling brands in the Scottish whiskey actively engage in all marketing communication mix elements (Dow & Jung 2011: 110). The same could be said about campaigns that promote heritage sites which also employ marketing communication tools which include public relations, advertisement and sales promotion in their campaigns (Yu-Ju et al 2009: 226). What is interesting about Yu-Ju et al’s (2009: 227) study is that they established that in heritage sites campaigns, advertising wield less influence than did public relations, direct sales and promotions. This is consistent with IMC literature which points to the fact that more marketing
communication mix elements are being used than before and advertising is no longer the dominant element (see section 3.3.1). Some of the varieties of marketing communication tools used in an IMC approach are highlighted in Gabrielli and Balboni’s (2010) study of SMEs in Italy. Gabrielli and Balboni (2010: 281) state that many SMEs in Italy use sales activities, public relations, trade shows, and interactive initiatives in their IMC campaigns. Stokes (2009; 344) who investigated the application of an IMC approach in an organisation that promotes health care products related to diabetes, observed that the organisation employs marketing communication mix elements like their website, advertising, direct mail marketing and partnerships with pharmaceutical organisations. The above examples of marketing communication mix elements highlight the fact that not only are organisations using them in a consistent way but are using marketing communication mix elements which are specific and relevant to their contexts.

According to Stokes (2009: 346) SMEs “acknowledge the need for customisation, the increasing use of technology and changes in advertiser preferences”. This acknowledgment indicates that SMEs understand most of the important marketing communication mix elements which are needed in the application of an IMC approach. Some of these elements were also discussed earlier in the chapter in section 3.5. The above is further evidence to the fact that most organisations are aware of how they should drive their IMC programmes. Another interesting study by Sucharit (2011: 151) shows how an IMC campaign can be used in repositioning of a specialised bank. The study indicates how a successful repositioning of a bank in Thailand was achieved using numerous marketing messages which were consistent and synergistic in nature. Prakash and Sharma’s (2010) study also brings out the synergistic nature of an IMC approach. An IMC approach was applied to the promotion of the World of Music, Arts, and Dance (WOMAD), an international music festival, in Abu Dhabi (Prakash & Sharma 2010). Using the IMC approach the WOMAD campaign managed to strategically combine different marketing communication mix elements to convey a consistent message about the event as family oriented (Prakash & Sharma 2010: 373). The campaign also managed to employ social media, for instance Twitter and
Facebook with traditional marketing communication mix elements such as advertising and public relations (Prakash & Sharma 2010: 377). Prakash and Sharma's (2010) study demonstrate how organisations are now strategically integrating new marketing communication mix elements with traditional marketing communication mix elements in a successful IMC campaign.

After an intensive search of literature, few studies seem to point out to the application of IMC in the context of social marketing (Herstein et al's 2008; Hawkins et al 2011; Morgan & Voola 2000). The limited nature of IMC application in the context of social marketing is discussed in the next section.

3.8 LIMITED LITERATURE ON AN IMC APPROACH FOR SOCIAL MARKETING

In the previous section IMC application in commercial marketing contexts was highlighted. However there is limited literature on how an IMC approach could be used in the contexts of social marketing.

In chapter 2 (see section 2.10.3), it was stated that when using various marketing communication mix elements in a social marketing campaign it is important to use the elements in an integrated approach. In this regard Lee and Kotler (2011: 376) identify IMC as one of the guiding factors when deciding on the marketing communication mix elements to use in a social marketing campaign. IMC literature highlights the success of using an IMC approach in commercial marketing contexts (see section 3.7). However, limited literature according to Hawkins, Bulmer and Eagle (2011: 228) is available on how an IMC approach can be used in a social marketing campaign. Given the well documented significance of IMC in commercial marketing contexts, Hawkins et al (2011: 230) argue that it is logical to use an IMC approach to promote behavioural change in social marketing contexts. The idea of using an IMC approach in social marketing contexts is not only argued for by Hawkins et al (2011).

As early as 2000, Morgan and Voola (2000: 838) propose that social marketing programmes should adopt centralised communication planning and management.
Centralised planning and management are components of an IMC approach which prescribe that message consistency be channelled through a centralised structure (see section 3.4.7). More recently, Alden, Basil and Deshpande (2011: 167) have argued that the brand promise of social marketing campaigns is best promoted if there is message consistency across all marketing communication elements. Alden et al (2011: 167) prefer the term integrated social marketing communications (ISMC) in explaining how each of the marketing communication mix elements can be designed to communicate the same brand message. Lefebvre (2011: 64) argues that integration should take a broader perspective to include the integration of promotion with other marketing mix elements in social marketing. What Lefebvre (2011) argues for is a broader perspective to integration however, this study focuses on the integration of marketing communication mix elements only. Nevertheless, Lefebvre's (2011) argument to some extent confirms the emerging importance for more literature and research which highlights the use of an IMC approach in a social marketing context. The limited literature on IMC application to social marketing does point to benefits of using an IMC approach. In the following section benefits of using an IMC approach to social marketing campaigns are highlighted.

3.9 BENEFITS OF AN IMC APPROACH FOR SOCIAL MARKETING CAMPAIGNS

The growing number of scholars and authors calling for the use of an IMC approach in social marketing contexts is validated by research results, though limited, which have indicated the benefits of employing an IMC approach in social marketing. In their study which investigated the communication of health promotion programmes within health promoting schools, Hawkins et al (2011), for example, established that IMC principles were being applied in health promotion programmes. Application of IMC by health promoting schools resulted in effective communication which led to behavioural change among school pupils (Hawkins et al 2011: 237). Morgan and Voola (2000: 839) also established that an IMC approach in drug and alcohol treatment services had the potential to increase chances of successful attitude re-enforcement among people who seek drug and alcohol abuse treatment. Lee and Kotler (2011: 377) state that an IMC
approach in social marketing campaigns increases efficiency in developing marketing communication materials and it also increases the effectiveness of marketing communication messages.

Furthermore Herstein et al’s (2008) study shows how Magen David Adom (MDA), which is equivalent to Red Cross in Israel, managed to successfully use an IMC campaign to reinforce its corporate image. According to Herstein et al (2008: 364) MDA’s objectives include “providing first aid services, maintaining storage service of blood, plasma and their by-products”. The importance of Herstein at al’s (2008) study is that the MDA case study used has close resemblance to the case study being used in this study which is the SANBS. Both MDA and the SANBS are non-profit organisations, are all involved in the donation and storage of blood products and both engage in social marketing, by the mere fact that they use marketing techniques in trying to solve societal issues (see chapter 4). In their study Herstein et al (2008: 364) pointed out that MDA’s work had been under enormous pressure after the increase of terrorism in Israel and MDA had to change its brand image to portray its employees as heroes. In its campaign MDA adopted an IMC approach which, through public relations activities and advertising, sorts to present a consistent image about its employees and the public who help during terrorist events as heroes (Herstein et al 2008: 354). In adopting an IMC approach MDA had to change both its internal and external communication procedure (Herstein et al 2008: 354) and this is consistent with IMC literature as highlighted earlier in section 3.4.6.

The above discussion indicates that an IMC approach is effective and efficient and social marketing organisations can benefit from the approach given the limited resources at their disposal (Hawkins et al 2011: 230). Despite the benefits of IMC in social marketing, there is still a limited body of knowledge on the application of IMC in social marketing contexts. This study, therefore, argues for the application of an IMC approach in social marketing. The above discussion has outlined the importance of an IMC approach to social marketing campaigns, however to validate the importance of IMC for social marketing context it is important also to discuss social marketing communication mix elements. These social marketing communication mix elements
when coordinated provide consistency and synergy to behavioural change messages. In the next section social marketing communication mix elements are discussed.

3.10 SOCIAL MARKETING COMMUNICATION MIX ELEMENTS

As briefly discussed in chapter 2, section 2.7.7 marketing communication is the communication and messaging elements of any social marketing campaign. According to Kotler et al (2002: 264) it “ensures that the target audience knows about the offer, believe they will experience the stated benefits and are inspired to act”. In social marketing campaigns, as part of promotion, there is a need for message development. Message development should be informed by behavioural theories as discussed earlier (Weinreich 2011: 105) (see chapter 2, section 2.6). Any message communicated in social marketing campaigns should aim to promote the adoption of a desired behaviour or rejection of an undesirable behaviour. Campaign messages comprise of three important elements, namely the main selling point of the behaviour, the ideas target audiences need to come away with and how the campaign will present information in order for target audience to pay attention (Weinreich 2011: 111). Kotler et al (2002: 264) add that messages should communicate the product benefits, pricing strategies and the place components which will offer convenience access to the target audience.

As mentioned earlier various authors propose different marketing communication mix elements which can form part of the marketing communication mix. The same can also be argued for the social marketing communication mix. Some authors (Masterson & Pickton 2010: 281; Armstrong & Kotler 2011: 405) include only five social marketing communication mix elements (public relations, advertising, sales promotion, direct marketing and personal selling) while Belch and Belch (2012: 18) add publicity and Internet marketing, which in this study is referred to as digital communication. In addition to the above mentioned social marketing communication mix elements, other authors include sponsorship (Koekemoer 2004: 456), and MPR (van Heerden 2010: 243). It is important to note that this study argues for the inclusion of, where applicable, all identified social marketing communication mix elements, namely public relations, publicity, MPR, advertising, sales promotion, publicity, sponsorship, direct marketing,
digital communication and personal selling in the marketing communication mix to support behavioural change messages. The inclusion of these elements is principally to have a wide-ranging list of marketing communication elements which can be used in social marketing campaigns to support behavioural change messages.

The marketing communication mix elements and their relevance for social marketing were discussed in detail in section 3.5. Due to the array of social marketing communication mix elements available to the social marketer there is a need for consumer research to identify audience preferences which form the basis of any promotional strategy (Storey et al 2008). Different promotional strategies can be used to target different audiences or groups, because some consumer groups may respond better to a certain promotional strategy than another group. These promotional strategies can be multifaceted, and involve mass communication or they can be small with an individualised approach (Coreil et al 2001). Coreil et al (2001) further argue that for any social marketing campaign to be effective there is a need for integration. Integration of marketing communication mix elements was discussed in section 3.3 of this chapter.

The above discussion explained social marketing communication mix elements and thus far, the origin, nature and application of IMC have been highlighted in the chapter. Also limited literature on IMC application has been discussed. However, as indicated in the introductory section, the aim of the chapter is not only to review IMC literature, which has been achieved up to this point, but to also propose IMC criteria to support behavioural change messages for a social marketing campaign. In the next section IMC criteria to support behavioural change messages for social marketing campaigns are proposed based on the literature review.

3.11 PROPOSING IMC CRITERIA FOR SOCIAL MARKETING TO SUPPORT BEHAVIOURAL CHANGE MESSAGE

Proposing IMC criteria for social marketing to support behavioural change messages, for the purpose of this study, is necessitated by two theoretical gaps in IMC literature. Firstly, IMC studies have mostly focused on public relations and advertising agencies
as is evident in sections 3.7.1 and 3.7.2. According to Kitchen and Burgmann (2010: 7) “most research has been conducted on advertising agencies and little is known about the actual IMC application within client firms”. Eagle et al (2007: 967) agree to the theoretical gap and state that it is time that evidence of IMC application is presented from client practitioner’s perspective. This study seeks to do just that by focusing on the SANBS (see chapter 4).

Secondly and mostly important for this study, after a thorough literature review a few studies shed some light on how an IMC approach could be applied in the context of social marketing campaigns to support behavioural change messages. These studies were highlighted in section 3.8 (Hawkins et al 2011; Morgan & Voola 2000; Herstein et al 2008). Clearly this shows a need for more literature which can demonstrate not only the interplay of an IMC approach and social marketing but also proposing sound theoretical IMC criteria for social marketing to support behavioural change messages. This study could thus also contribute to that body of literature by adding to the paucity of research in this context. In the next sections eight theoretical IMC criteria for social marketing to support behavioural change messages are proposed based on a sound literature review.

3.11.1 Communicating consistent messages

In section 3.4.1 it was explained that the main idea behind IMC is to produce messages which are consistent and unified. Due to the many marketing communication mix elements which can be used in communicating brand messages, there is need for a social marketing campaign to deliver clear, consistent and compelling messages about the organisation's brand. According to Villarreal (2010: 1) there should be established standards on how messages are planned and communicated with the aim of speaking in a single voice. In a social marketing campaign, message consistency should be present to support behavioural change messages in various contexts. Message consistency could involve integrating a central idea of a campaign in all messages and periodic review of the messages sent out. Navarro, Sicilia and Delgado-Ballester (2009: 224) state that consistency appears to be
one of the most obvious criteria to follow when developing an integrated strategy. In a social marketing campaign, message consistency should be part of the overall IMC approach in that every behavioural change message should have the same central theme of the social marketing campaign. A social marketing campaign supported by an IMC approach should be aimed at projecting consistent behavioural change messages to strengthen the effectiveness of the messages and adoption of the promoted behaviour.

3.11.2 Tactical coordination of marketing communication mix elements

Various marketing communication mix elements are available in an IMC approach as discussed in sections 3.6.1 to 3.6.8. Message consistency mentioned above can only be achieved through tactical coordination of marketing communication mix elements as explained in section 3.4.4. Tactical coordination is one of the features of an IMC approach (see section 3.4). According to Kliatchko (2008: 154) emphasis is on the effective delivery of outbound communication activities to achieve ‘one sight one sound’ in the overall campaign. Though literature suggests that IMC has moved from being tactical to being strategic (see section 3.4.4) tactical coordination of marketing communication mix elements which communicate behavioural change messages should be achieved first. Practical examples in sections 3.7.1 and 3.7.2 illustrate that many organisations coordinate various marketing communication mix elements to ensure that they deliver consistent and positive messages in IMC campaigns. The chosen marketing communication mix elements should be unique, relevant and consistent with the central idea of a social marketing campaign (Koekemoer 2011: 1). The ultimate objective is for the target audience of the social marketing campaign to receive and form in their minds a unified and integrated behavioural change message as sent out by the various marketing communication mix elements (Kliatchko 2008: 154). A social marketing campaign within an IMC approach should be focused on its ability to use and tactically coordinate appropriate marketing communication mix elements to strengthen behavioural change messages.
3.11.3 Consumer-oriented

In addition to tactical coordination of various marketing communication mix elements, a social marketing campaign should have an outside-in approach. An outside-in approach should be utilised starting with the customers, when developing a communication strategy (Kitchen & Burgmann 2010: 4). Both social marketing (see chapter 2 section 2.8.4) and IMC (see section 3.4.2) emphasise the significance of a customer-centric approach. According to Villarreal (2010: 1) a consumer focus provides the basis for selecting the most appropriate messages for the campaign. Section 3.4.2 in this chapter identifies the many authors and scholars who agree that IMC should have a market orientation. In addition, a consumer-centred approach should also embrace other stakeholders and consider them as important to the campaign. A social marketing campaign within an IMC approach should be planned on the basis of having customer needs as a guiding principle in developing social marketing campaign messages to support behavioural change.

3.11.4 Cross functional planning

In section 3.4.7 it was described that an IMC approach in not the responsibility of one function or department in an organisation. Every department and function within the organisation has a communication dimension. Cross functional planning requires managing the involvement of multiple departments and functions in social marketing planning (Villarreal 2010: 1). Luck and Moffatt (2009: 319) argue that cross functional planning is based on a premise of IMC that critical processes affecting customer relationships involve more than one department. Involvement of all functional areas in IMC requires linking of expertise and sharing of information. As pointed out in section 3.4.7 behavioural change message consistency can only be achieved if a certain function within an organisation monitors all the different implementation of the many marketing communication mix elements. This requires a central structure which monitors message consistency among the many marketing communication mix elements which communicate behavioural change messages (see section 3.4.7). However, authors and scholars in literature still highlight the on-going debate on
whether the IMC function should be centralised or not. The majority of the authors and scholars favour a centralised structure which monitors the planning and implementation of the social marketing campaign. Kliatchko (2008: 143), for instance, is of the view that management should take full responsibility for the full integration process of functional units. In that regard a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach should be planned based on its capacity to connect the various functional areas in an organisation and centralise planning of a social marketing campaign and its behavioural change message goals.

3.11.5 Relationship building

An IMC approach seeks to build a relationship with its customers. A social marketing campaign within an IMC approach should strive to building relationships. Relationship fostering communications with existing customers is part of IMC (Lee & Park 2007: 222). In section 3.4.3 many scholars argue that relationship building is a fundamental feature of an IMC approach. Luck and Moffatt (2009: 319) add that adopting customer orientation is a central concept in the broader marketing field and nourishing profitable relationships is a more central concept of IMC. Marketing communication mix elements such as MPR (see section 3.6.2), direct marketing (see section 3.6.6) and digital communication (see section 3.6.8) were explained as important in building relationships with customers. These relationships should be long term and profitable for the organisation (Kliatchko 2008: 143). Long term relationships with customers are desirable as it is more cost effective to retain customers than finding new ones. IMC adoption at organisational level was discussed which highlights that organisations use many techniques to build relationships with their customers as a way of creating brand loyalty (see section 3.7.2). Long term relationships, according to Villarreal (2010: 1) encourage repeat purchasing and enhance brand loyalty. It is crucial that a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach should have the ability to build and maintain relationships to encourage adoption and maintenance of the promoted behaviour by the targeted customers.
3.11.6 Consideration of all brand contacts

According to Ebre n et al (2006:130) sources of behavioural change information and persuasion are multiple not singular. IMC is about using many channels of behavioural change messages which are coordinated and integrated to create message consistency (Belch & Belch 2012: 10). To deliver a message correctly all communication regarding behavioural change should be included with contact points integrated into the IMC strategy (Kitchen & Burgmann 2010: 4). Marketing communication mix elements which are available to social marketing campaign within an IMC approach were outlined in sections 3.6.1 to 3.6.8. However, not only marketing communication mix elements should be considered but even stakeholders (see section 3.4.2) should be viewed as potential contact points for behavioural change messages. A social marketing campaign within an IMC approach should identify, consider and manage all customer-preferred brand contacts as a way of connecting and interacting with the target customers targeted to adopt the promoted behavioural change.

3.11.7 Strategic consistency

Consistency has to be approached from the view point of the whole organisation as argued by Armstrong and Kotler (2011: 408). As outlined in section 3.4.6 an IMC approach should be strategic in nature. Scholars and authors argue for a move away from tactical coordination of the marketing communication mix to a more strategic approach which considers all organisational activities and processes. IMC should become policy within an organisation involved in social marketing and supported by top management (Kerr & Drennan 2010: 16). Internal marketing is part of being strategically consistent and entails building and developing positive relationships with internal audiences in the social marketing organisation (Kliatchko 2008: 146). Organisations involved in social marketing should also be prepared to change organisational structures to make them conducive for an IMC approach (see section 3.6.3). According to du Plessis (2010: 12) unsupportive structures are not conducive for an effective IMC approach in an organisation involved in social marketing. Organisations carrying out social marketing campaigns should be able to align their
structures and overall mission and vision to an IMC approach for behavioural change messages to be effective.

3.11.8 Data-driven

A social marketing campaign within an IMC approach should appreciate the importance of a technologically driven approach. An important part of a technologically driven approach is the use of databases (see section 3.6.6). Database-centred behavioural change communication is one of the dimensions of an IMC approach (Lee & Park 2007: 222). According to Reinold and Tropp (2010: 1) every social marketing campaign within an IMC approach should be database-driven. Information on customers is crucial and organisations need to build and manage databases (see section 3.4.6). Data mining provides valuable information about target customers and enables the sending of customised behavioural change messages to customers (Masterson & Pickton 2010: 305). It is crucial that a social marketing campaign within an IMC approach has the ability to build and manage databases and turning customer data into tailor-made behavioural change messages.

Table 3.1 below summarises the proposed theoretical IMC criteria for social marketing to support behavioural change messages.
Table 3.1 IMC criteria for social marketing to support behavioural change messages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Proposed actions within social marketing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communicating consistent messages</td>
<td>• Producing unified and consistent behavioural change messages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Established policy and standards on marketing communication planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Periodic review of all behavioural change messages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tactical coordination of marketing communication mix elements</td>
<td>• Considering use of various marketing communication mix elements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Using relevant marketing communication mix elements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Central behavioural change messages contained in all marketing communication mix elements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer-oriented</td>
<td>• Customer needs inform the planning of communication strategy by incorporating feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Campaign should start and end with customer research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross functional planning</td>
<td>• Involving all organisational functions in developing behavioural change messages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Linking and sharing information among the various organisational functions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Establishing a central structure to monitor implementation of integration within the organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship building</td>
<td>• Identifying and updating the targeted customers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building and maintaining long term profitable relationships</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aiming for customer retention</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using marketing communication mix elements to build profitable relationships</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Consideration of all brand contacts**

- Identifying brand contact points
- All brand contacts should communicate the central behavioural change messages
- Managing and reviewing brand contacts

**Strategic consistency**

- Compile an IMC policy
- Consider feedback from internal audiences on IMC planning
- Support from top management
- Aligning IMC with organisational mission and vision

**Data-driven**

- Establishing customer databases
- Managing customer databases
- Using customer data to plan social marketing campaigns within an IMC approach

Source: (Kliatchko 2008; Koekemoer 2011; Villarreal 2010; Lee & Park 2007; Kitchen & Burgmann 2010; Armstrong & Kotler 2011; Reinold & Tropp 2010)

### 3.12 SUMMARY

The main aim of this chapter was to propose IMC criteria for social marketing to support behavioural change messages. In this chapter the origins, growth and nature of IMC
were explained in detail. Elements which make up the marketing communication mix were discussed in detail and their roles in the context of IMC were outlined. In explaining the application of IMC discussion in this chapter looked at both country and organisational level implementation of IMC. Limited literature on IMC approach to social marketing was highlighted as well as benefits of an IMC approach for social marketing. Furthermore the social marketing communication mix was outlined and lastly IMC criteria for social marketing to support behavioural change messages were proposed. In the next chapter, chapter 4, insight into the SANBS as the single case study for this study is provided.
CHAPTER FOUR

THE CASE STUDY: EXPLAINING THE SELECTED ORGANISATION AND SOCIAL MARKETING CAMPAIGNS

4 THE CASE STUDY: EXPLANATION OF THE SELECTED ORGANISATION AND SOCIAL MARKETING CAMPAIGNS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter an explanation of the case and the three examples of social marketing campaigns chosen for evaluation in accordance with the proposed IMC criteria for social marketing is provided. The nature of SANBS as the chosen case for the study is provided in the context of a non-profit organisation. Furthermore the organisational profile of the SANBS is provided in terms of its vision, mission, goals and objectives and services offered. Selected social marketing campaigns for this study are explained in detail and motivation for their selection is provided in relation to social marketing literature.

4.2 SELECTING THE CASE

This study follows a single case study approach and as such it is important to explain the case of this study before explaining the methodological design of the study (see chapter 5 for the theoretical discussion). According to Stake (2003: 135) a case is a specific, unique and bounded system which can be simple or complex. A case usually has its own unique history operating within a number of specific contexts which can be physical, economic, social or cultural (Stake 2003: 141). According to Rule and John (2011: 13) identifying a case is the first step in a case study. Case selection is guided by the research purpose, questions, propositions and the theoretical context (Rowley 2002: 19). Furthermore it is crucial to specify issues which are to be investigated within the selected case. The case study selected for this study aims to obtain in-depth knowledge of the topic and for this purpose the SANBS was chosen as the case study. To explain
the case study, three examples of SANBS’ social marketing campaigns were evaluated in accordance with proposed IMC criteria for social marketing to support behavioural change messages (see chapter 3, Table 3.1). It was appropriate to select more than one example of a social marketing campaign to obtain added insight into the case study.

SANBS’ social marketing campaigns were identified as examples to explore the phenomenon of IMC within the context of social marketing to support behavioural change messages. Rule and John (2011: 17) argue that there must be boundaries which define the case. In the following sections the case of this study, which is SANBS and examples of social marketing campaigns used to explore the case are explained in detail. Also the criteria used to select the campaigns as the examples used for the analysis are described which to some extent also define the boundaries of the case.

4.3 SELECTING THE ORGANISATION FOR THE CASE STUDY

The selected organisation for the case study is a non-profit organisation. Before explaining the SANBS as the selected case study it is important to discuss theory of non-profit organisations. This is done as a way of contextualising the SANBS within the non-profit sector. In the following sections an explanation of what a non-profit organisation is and how it differs from a for-profit organisation is provided. Furthermore a discussion is provided as to how the SANBS fits within the non-profit context.

4.3.1 Defining a non-profit organisation

A non-profit organisation is usually an organisation which seeks to identify a societal problem and advocate for change on a voluntary basis without seeking any profit for its operations (Glavin 2011: 7). However there is no one universally agreed upon definition of a non-profit organisation because of the diverse nature and the changing boundaries of non-profit organisations over time (Ahmed 2013: 2; Cornforth 2014: 3). Nonetheless authors and scholars have proposed various definitions of a non-profit organisation. According to Glavin (2011: 6) a non-profit organisation “is most simply a means for voluntary group action for mutual benefit and the benefit of others”. On the other hand
Worth (2014: 56) defines non-profit organisations as “organised entities, private, non-profit distributing, self-governing, voluntary and of public interest”. Though authors and scholars may not agree on a single definition, they tend to agree on some of the common features of a non-profit organisation. The following are distinguishing features of non-profit organisations as pointed out by various authors and scholars (Cutlip, Centre & Broom 2009: 456; Ahmed 2013: 4; Glavin 2011: 6; Worth 2014: 56-57):

- Organised: all non-profit organisation have a charter, rules and purpose for their existence
- Private: non-profit organisations are not controlled by the government, though they may receive funds from the government
- Non-profit distribution: all non-profit organisations do not generate profits for their owners or directors
- Self-governing: non-profit organisations set their own procedures and are independent of external control
- Voluntary: at minimum they must be some voluntary participation in either the management of the organisation or in the conduct of its program, meaning that there is some aspect of charitable contribution involved.

The above list clearly shows the distinct features which explain the nature of non-profit organisations. Given the above features for this study a non-profit organisation can be defined as “voluntary and self-governing, may not distribute profits and serve public purposes as well as the common goals of their members” (Boris & Steuerle 2006: 3). According to Cutlip et al (2009: 456) Boris and Steurle’s definition (2006) is one of the widely used definitions of a non-profit organisation as it also encompasses all the features of a non-profit organisation as proposed by various authors and scholars (Cutlip et al 2009; Ahmed 2013; Glavin 2011; Worth 2014). It is for this reason that Boris and Steuerle’s (2006) definition is adopted for this study.

Of the above listed features one which distinguishes a non-profit organisation from a for-profit organisation is the non-profit distribution (Ahmed 2013: 5). Unlike for-profit
organisations, non-profit organisations do not pursue a profit motive (Glavin 2011: 6). Some of the distinctions between non-profit and for-profit organisations are reflected in their different principal purpose, governance structure, level of public accountability and destination of net revenues (Grobman 2011: 15). Non-profit organisations pursue a social mission and their success is usually measured in terms of achieving that mission not profits or revenues (Worth 2014: 7). According to Ahmed (2013: 13) non-profit organisations are important in that they promote areas such as policy making, provision of 'common goods', social mobilisation and advocacy, social bonding, democracy and innovation and entrepreneurship.

After explaining the nature of a non-profit organisation is it important to illustrate how the chosen case study, SANBS, fits the description of a non-profit organisation as outlined by various authors and scholars above. In the next section SANBS as a non-profit organisation is explained.

4.3.2 SANBS as a non-profit organisation

The features of non-profit organisations in section 4.3.1 above as highlighted by various authors and scholars are all present in the operations and management structure of SANBS which are elaborated below.

Firstly, the SANBS is organised in that it has a structured management profile which include a Board of Directors and Executive Management (see section 4.4.4). Secondly, the SANBS is private and the government does not have control over the governance and operations of the organisation. Thirdly, though the SANBS offers some services for a fee it is not meant to be a profit making entity as it is classified as a non-profit organisation according to the Companies Act of 2008. This means SANBS does not generate any profits to management or employees. Fourthly, the SANBS is self-governing and its governing structures include the board of directors and executive management. Lastly, the voluntary element of SANBS constitutes that blood donors are not being paid to donate their blood and that the SANBS collects blood from voluntary donors who are not paid in any form. Given all the five elements as identified by various
authors and scholars in section 4.3.1 the SANBS possesses all the features of a non-profit organisation and the features are summarised in Table 4.1 below.

**Table 4.1: A summary of the features of a non-profit organisation which the SANBS possesses**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Feature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organised</td>
<td>Structured management which include board of directors and executive management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Board of directors have overall control of governance and operations, not the government or any other external entity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-profit</td>
<td>Mandate is not to make profits and any surplus is retained for future organisational operations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-governing</td>
<td>SANBS set their own governing procedures which are not influenced by external parties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voluntary</td>
<td>Blood donors are not remunerated to donate blood</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The above discussion outlined the nature of SANBS as a non-profit organisation and in the following section a detailed explanation of the organisational profile of the SANBS is provided.

**4.4 ORGANISATIONAL PROFILE OF SANBS**

The SANBS is a non-profit organisation which operates across South Africa with the exclusion of the Western Cape Province and involved in the provision of blood and blood products (SANBS 2012: 2). Within the South African context non-profit organisations are governed by the Companies Act of 2008 (Davis, Cassim, & Geach 2010: 31). According to Davis et al (2010: 31) the Act states that directors, members or
employees of a non-profit organisation “may not directly or indirectly receive any financial benefit or gain from the company other than the reasonable remuneration for work done or compensation incurred to advance the stated objects of the company”.

The SANBS was established in 2001 when eight provincial blood transfusion services merged to become the SANBS. Before 2001 various blood transfusion services within different provinces operated independent of each other (SANBS: 2012). After the merger of the various provincial blood transfusion services the Western Cape Province opted to remain independent hence SANBS activities do not involve the Western Cape Province.

Besides being a non-profit organisation, SANBS operates like any other for-profit organisation in terms of its business operations. SANBS’ business operations are guided by its vision and mission. In the following sections the vision, mission, strategic goals and objectives and services offered are explained to provide a holistic picture of SANBS as the setting in which its social marketing campaigns are carried out.

4.4.1 Vision of SANBS

Steyn and Puth (2000: 55) explain that a vision of an organisation “represents a realistic, credible and attractive future state of affairs, a condition that, in some important way is better than the one that exists now”. SANBS’ vision “is to be acknowledged nationally and internationally as a centre of excellence in the discipline of blood transfusion” (SANBS: 2012).

4.4.2 Mission of SANBS

A mission is an organisation’s purpose of existence which explains its identity and ambition (Steyn & Puth 2000: 55). The mission of SANBS is “providing patients with sufficient, safe, quality blood products and medical services related to blood services in a sustainable manner” (SANBS 2012: 2).
4.4.3 SANBS goals and strategic objectives

In line with its vision and mission the SANBS has the following goals and objectives (SANBS 2012: 13):

- Procure sufficient blood to meet South Africa’s requirements
- Offer an optimal product mix to meet health care demands
- Manage blood safety and risk at appropriate/affordable levels
- Harness technology for internal processes
- Ensure sustainability through product diversification and innovation
- Ensure an enabled, empowered and engaged employees to build a values-driven culture
- Ensure sustainable business operating model
- Be a responsible corporate citizen
- Ensure optimal customer and stakeholder relations

To fulfil the above mentioned goals and strategic objectives, SANBS has clearly structured management levels which are explained in the section below.

4.4.4 Organisational structure of SANBS

The SANBS has a Board of Directors made up of 15 members who are all appointed by the National Council whose members are nominated from Independent Donor Structures (SANBS 201: 12). The Board of Directors “provides strategic direction and responsible leadership to ensure that performance of SANBS with regard to the agreed strategy and business goals and the proper discharge of SANBS’ mandate” (SANBS 2010: 12). The day to day operations of SANBS are managed by the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) who with the help of eight Executive Management members oversee the operational functions of SANBS (SANBS 2012: 4). Each of the Executive members is responsible for managing a different department as represented in the organogram depicted in Figure 4.1 below.
4.4.5 Services offered by SANBS

The main purpose of SANBS is to collect and provide safe blood and blood products to deserving patients. However, the organisation also engages in other services linked to blood donation. The following are some of the services offered by the SANBS (Background information.....2011: 1):

- Antenatal testing
- Antibody identification tests
- Provision of blood for patients with rare blood types
- Confirmatory testing to determine the ABO group and Rh type of samples
- Transfusion reaction investigations
- Blood typing reagents
- Paternity testing

Figure 4.1: Organogram of SANBS

Source: SANBS (2012).
Evaluation of new reagents and techniques

The above subsections describe the organisational profile of SANBS and its objectives and goals. It is important to also explain the selected social marketing campaigns chosen for this study which SANBS carry out to advance its goals and objectives.

4.5 SELECTING THE SOCIAL MARKETING CAMPAIGNS EXAMPLES FOR THE CASE STUDY

In its endeavour to fulfil its mission of providing quality blood products the SANBS engages in various social marketing campaigns to encourage people to donate blood. However, three social marketing campaigns are chosen as examples for the purpose of this study, namely World Blood Donor Day, December Blood Drive Campaign and Nelson Mandela Day. From an operational perspective the three campaigns are the largest campaigns carried by SANBS in a single calendar year (SANBS 2012: 10). As such it can be argued that they can provide a holistic representation of how IMC is practiced within the SANBS’ social marketing campaigns. More importantly the three campaigns fit the theoretical criteria of good examples for the purpose of this study (see sections 4.5.1 to 4.5.6). The following is a description of the theoretical criteria used to choose the three social marketing campaigns as examples for the purpose of this study.

In chapter 2 (section 2.8) six key elements of social marketing were identified and explained. The six key elements of social marketing are used as criteria for selecting SANBS’ social marketing campaigns as appropriate examples to explain SANBS as the case in evaluating IMC. According to Rowley (2002: 19) case selection can be guided by theoretical context. The following discussion explains the six key elements in motivating why SANBS’ social marketing campaigns are regarded as appropriate examples of SANBS as a case for this study.

4.5.1 Behavioural change

Brennan and Binney (2008: 266) argue that social marketing involve individuals or groups who are encouraged to voluntarily adopt socially desirable behaviour (see chapter 2, section 2.8.1). The main purpose of SANBS’ campaigns is to encourage
people to adopt behaviour of donating blood. As its core business, SANBS recruits and seek to retain blood donors to ensure constant blood supply (SANBS 2012: 10). All SANBS operations are centred on the premise of reinforcing behaviour of donating blood. The social marketing campaigns were chosen as examples for this study on the criterion of behavioural change.

4.5.2 Individuals as primary beneficiaries

According to Maibach (2002: 9), the primary beneficiaries of any social marketing campaign should be the individual or the society at large (see chapter 2, section 2.8.2). The SANBS does not financially benefit from its operations since it is a non-profit organisation (SANBS 2011: 2). SANBS campaigns aim to encourage blood donation for the benefit of blood recipients who are the primary beneficiaries. For this reason SANBS’ social marketing campaigns qualify as appropriate examples for this study.

4.5.3 Voluntary and mutually beneficial exchange

In the context of social marketing customers, blood donors in this case, receive psychological benefits or peace of mind in return for their changed behaviour, which is donating blood (Peattie & Peattie 2003: 370) (see chapter 2, section 2.8.3). In the case of SANBS, donors donate blood and receive the psychological benefit of knowing that their donated blood will save someone’s life. Such intangible benefits are reflected in the campaign slogans of the SANBS. Some of the slogans include “Give blood and save life” and “Donate blood and be a hero” (SANBS 2012). People who donate blood to the SANBS are not remunerated in any way and this highlights the voluntary nature of the exchange process in donating blood (SANBS 2012: 1). It can be argued that SANBS’ campaigns were chosen as examples for this study because donors voluntarily give blood and in exchange receive some sense of fulfilment in knowing that their blood will save someone’s life. Such campaigns ensure that there is voluntary and mutually beneficial exchange between SANBS and the blood donors.
4.5.4 Consumer orientation

Thomas (2008: 14) argues that in social marketing needs and desires of customers are listened to and campaigns are built from these needs and desires, thus attending to individual needs (see chapter 2, section 2.8.4). The blood donor is at the centre of all campaigns carried out by SANBS. The SANBS “is legally and ethically obliged to ensure donor safety, promote blood usage and optimize transfusion safety in South Africa” (SANBS 2012: 20). The following are some of the projects which SANBS has implemented to ensure a focused customer relations (SANBS 2012: 18):

- increased call centre hours to provide efficient services to donors
- a customer feedback system at all mobile and fixed donor centres to monitor levels of customer services

By using a customer-oriented approach the SANBS aims to improve customer experience and build desire and commitment to donate blood (SANBS 2011: 5). For this reason SANBS’ social marketing campaigns were selected as examples because of their blood donor orientation.

4.5.5 Research

Research, according to Hastings (2007:181) should be considered a navigation aid in guiding progress and decision making in social marketing campaigns (see chapter 2, section 2.8.5). Research in marketing and communications is conducted at SANBS to guide marketing initiatives so that proper messages target the right blood donors (SANBS 2012: 18). All research activities guide the planning and implementation of campaigns while research helps SANBS acquire more information about donors. Consequently the SANBS takes an outside-in approach in its planning of campaigns in that information about its current and prospective blood donors guide the planning of social marketing campaigns. Some results from its past research include the following (SANBS 2012:19):

- Above the line medium of advertising and communications proved to be the most successful with radio being the largest source of information
• 33% of current donors and 44% of lapsed donors heard blood donation and SANBS at schools or at university
• Main barriers to blood donation include being afraid to know HIV status (63%), fear of needles (60%) and lack of knowledge (46%)
• Donors have a very positive perception of the SANBS brand with 74% associating the SANBS with superior customer service, keeping donors informed, being a life giving brand with good reputation.

Choosing SANBS’ social marketing campaigns as examples for this study was on the basis that any intervention to be considered as social marketing, research must feature prominently from the analysis of the social problem to the evaluation of the intervention process (see chapter 2, section 2.10).

4.5.6 Competition

Competition in social marketing, are the behaviours and associated benefits that target customers prefer over those that a social marketer is encouraging (Kotler et al 2002: 10) (see chapter 2, section 2.8.6). In the case of SANBS, competition can be all the behaviours and associated benefits potential donors might prefer over donating blood. Competing behaviours for blood donation are in form of other activities which donors can engage in, for instance, going shopping, schooling activities, spending time with family at home and many others. As a way of countering some of the competition numerous SANBS blood centres and mobile centres are located within the proximity of blood donors (SANBS 2012: 5). Some of SANBS donor centres are close to shopping malls while mobile centres visit schools and universities (SANBS 2012: 5). Such strategies ensure that donors can engage in the competing behaviours while at the same time finding it convenient to donate blood. Given that the act of donating blood has competition from other alternative behaviours, SANBS’ social campaigns fit the criteria of being examples used for this study.

All the six elements of social marketing are present in SANBS’ social marketing campaigns in some form or the other and this makes SANBS campaigns good
examples for the purpose of this study. Given the above motivation for selecting the campaigns, it is also important to provide a description of the chosen campaigns.

4.6 SANBS’ SOCIAL MARKETING CAMPAIGNS

The above discussion clearly shows that SANBS social marketing campaigns and activities ascribe to the concept of social marketing and consequently are the most appropriate examples to evaluate IMC within the context of social marketing. The following discussion gives detailed information on the three SANBS' campaigns selected for this study.

4.6.1 World Blood Donor Month

The World Blood Donor Month is an annual campaign which celebrates the important role of blood donors (SANBS 2012: 18). The SANBS engages in various events to encourage people to donate blood in the month of June. In collaboration with various partners the SANBS aims not only to collect blood but to also build awareness about blood donations (SANBS 2012: 18). Some of the main events during the World Blood Donor Month include the Pick ‘n Pay National Awareness Cycle Tour (SANBS initiatives [SA]). Cyclists and organizers, during the Pick ‘n Pay National Awareness Cycle Tour, assist in spreading the message of safe blood donation. The World Blood Donor Month is one of the most important annual campaigns for SANBS as messages encouraging blood donation are carried in various media at both local and national level. Also numerous marketing communication mix elements are used to convey blood drive messages and these marketing communication mix elements include publicity, advertising and digital communication (SANBS 2012: 18). During the World Blood Donor month all SANBS regional centres also have their own localised events to complement national events (SANBS 2012: 12).

4.6.2 December Blood Drive Campaign

During the month of December there is great demand for blood and consequently “there is need to address blood shortages as well as to assist donors in locating their nearest donor centre” (SANBS 2012: 18). During the December festive holidays the SANBS
focuses not only on collecting blood but messages which help donors locate their nearest donor centres. Around the festive season SANBS aim to maintain a daily blood stocks of five days (SANBS 2012: 18). Demand for blood around the December holidays is mainly due to many accidents caused by increased volume of traffic as people travel to different holiday destinations (SANBS 2012: 10). During the December Blood Drive campaign partnerships with other campaigns from organisations such as Arrive Alive help reinforce the behaviour of donating blood. The main message during the December Blood Drive campaign is to encourage blood donation by raising awareness of the various blood donor centres. Various marketing communication mix elements are used to carry this message and numerous media are used to convey the message of donating blood.

4.6.3 Nelson Mandela Day

The 18th of July of each year is celebrated worldwide as Nelson Mandela Day. During the Nelson Mandela Day the SANBS encourages people to donate blood as “the cause they would like to participate in as their action for Mandela Day” (SANBS 20012: 18). During the Nelson Mandela Day people are encouraged to support blood donation as a way of doing something good for the community. The main message for the Nelson Mandela Day is the idea of voluntary mutually beneficial exchange (see chapter 2, section 2.8.3) where blood donors engage in an unselfish act of donating blood and in return receive physiological benefits knowing that they are going to save someone’s life.

Up to this point a detailed description of the case of this study has been given and the setting (context) of the case has been alluded to. The essence of the selected case can be depicted by Table 4.2 as adopted from Rule and John (2011: 17).

Table 4.2: A summary of the essence of the selected case study for this study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research topic</th>
<th>What is the case?</th>
<th>What is the focus within the study?</th>
<th>What is it a case of?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IMC at SANBS: an evaluation of its</td>
<td>South African National Blood</td>
<td>IMC criteria for social marketing</td>
<td>IMC within the context of social</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.2 above clearly depicts the core issues surrounding the three SANBS’ social marketing campaigns as examples for this case study for the purpose of evaluating them in accordance with proposed IMC criteria for social marketing to support behavioural change messages. In the next chapter the case study as a research approach is explained in much theoretical detail.

### 4.7 SUMMARY

In this chapter a detailed description of the chosen organisation and three examples selected for this study was provided. The nature of SANBS as a non-profit organisation was highlighted as well as the organisational profile of SANBS. The selected three social marketing campaigns were explained in detail. Motivation for the selected three social marketing campaigns, based on social marketing literature, was provided. In the next chapter, chapter 5, the methodological design of this study is explained in great detail.
CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND OPERATIONALISATION OF THE STUDY

5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND OPERATIONALISATION OF THE STUDY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of this chapter is to explain the methodological design used in this study. Interpretivism as a research paradigm is adopted and explained at the beginning of the chapter. The qualitative approach to research is highlighted as the chosen research design. A single case study is described as the research approach chosen and motivation for its choice is provided. Furthermore the research problem, questions and assumptions are stated within the chapter. The research methodology in terms of data collection methods, target and accessible population, unit of analysis and sampling method are all explained in detail. Issues of validity and reliability in the study are discussed and lastly the data analysis process is outlined.

5.2 WORLDVIEW ADOPTED FOR THE QUALITATIVE RESEARCH DESIGN

Before the actual research process is explained in detail, there are two important concepts which need to be explained first. These concepts are the research design and research approach. In this section the research design is explained within the context of the worldview adopted for this study while in the next section the research approach is discussed. Creswell (2013: 5) describes a research design as the entire process of research from conceptualising a problem, to writing questions, data collection, analysis and interpretation and report writing. In other words a research design connects the empirical data to the study’s research questions and ultimately to its conclusions (Yin 2009: 26). The research design guides the researcher to ensure that the data collected eventually address the initial research questions. Yin (2009: 27) further states that there are five important components of research design in case studies. These components
are the study’s questions, its propositions (if there are any), its units of analysis, the logic linking the data to the propositions and the criteria for interpreting the findings (Yin 2009: 27). In this study the qualitative research design is guided by the interpretivist research paradigm.

According to Babbie (2013: 58) paradigms are fundamental models or frames of reference used to organise observations and reasoning. Two main paradigms which are usually referred to in research are positivism and interpretivism paradigms (Harrington 2005: 45). Positivism and interpretivism are portrayed as being on the two ends of a continuum. The difference between the two can be explained by their ontological and epistemological perspectives. Ontology is concerned with the nature of being according to Crotty (1998: 10). It involves studying the nature of reality while on the other hand epistemology deals with the nature of knowledge (Crotty 1998: 8). Epistemology looks at how knowledge is created and the various forms of knowledge.

In a positivist paradigm reality is regarded as objective and measurable through observable actions. According to the positivism paradigm, data collection is confined to observable behaviour and the researcher should be able to separate him or herself from the study in order to assert the subjectivity of the study. Positivism regards reality as concrete and objective according to Kroeze (2012: 48). However this is not the case with the interpretivism paradigm as interpretivism “focuses on reality as a human construction which can only be understood subjectively” (Kroeze 2012: 47).

Babbie and Mouton (2011: 33) argue that the basis of interpretivism is that people engage in the process of making sense of their world and data collection is not confined to observable behaviour but include descriptions of people’s intentions, meaning and reasons. The aim of an interpretivist perspective is to understand the multiple realities and the meaning people ascribe to such realities (Kroeze 2012: 48). Furthermore interpretivism emphasises getting close to the research subjects and viewing the world from their perspective (Babbie & Mouton 2011: 33). Such an assertion is adopted for this study in that the study seeks to understand human behaviour rather than explain it. Adopting an interpretivist perspective implies that this study ascribes to the notion that
any phenomenon under study can only be understood by looking at meanings which
society constructs and data collection should therefore go beyond observable
behaviour. Given that the interpretivist research paradigm takes the insider perspective
on social action as its departure in social science research and it is thus qualitative in
nature (Babbie & Mouton 2011: 53). The following section explains the qualitative
approach to research adopted for this study.

5.3 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH APPROACH

According to Denzin and Lincoln (2003:33) a research approach refers to the “skills,
assumptions and practices used by the researcher as he or she moves from the
paradigm to the empirical world”. A research approach thus provides direction for
procedures followed in the research design. In research there are two broad
approaches to research, namely quantitative and qualitative. According to Walliman
(2011: 75) a quantitative approach to research is built on the philosophical foundation
that the world is real and truth about reality can be established though measuring
properties of a phenomenon using quantitative measurements. A quantitative approach
emphasises the quantification of constructs in an objective manner (Barbie & Mouton
2011: 49). The quantitative approach is guided by a positivist paradigm which regards
human behaviour as observable and measurable (see section 5.2). In quantitative
research the role of the researcher is neutral with an objective view to the study
(Walliman 2011: 75). This approach is not suitable to this study given that concepts
such as IMC and social marketing, which are under study, are difficult to measure
quantitatively. Also data collected regarding these phenomena cannot be value free as
argued for by the quantitative approach. It is important to understand how meaning is
constructed and go beyond quantification of observable behaviour as advocated by an
interpretivist perspective (see section 5.2). This study ascribes to the qualitative
approach to research.

The purpose of qualitative research is to develop a comparative understanding of the
phenomenon as experienced by different participants in different settings. According to
du Plooy (2009: 35) a qualitative research approach provides insights into phenomenon
from the research subjects’ perspective. A qualitative perspective to research states that there are multiple sources of knowledge which can explore, interpret and understand a subjective world (du Plooy 2009: 35). This study follows a qualitative research approach as guided by the interpretivist paradigm explained above. The following are key features of qualitative research which give direction for procedures followed in this study (Babbie & Mouton 2011: 270):

- Research is conducted in the natural setting of social actors
- A focus on process rather than outcome
- The actor’s perspective is emphasised
- The primary aim is in-depth descriptions and understanding of actions and events
- The main concern is to understand social action in terms of its specific context rather than attempting to generalise to some theoretical population
- The research process is often inductive in its approach, resulting in the generation of new hypothesis and theories
- The qualitative researcher is seen as the “main instrument” in the research process

The above discussion provides a theoretical research foundation which guides this study. In the next section and subsections the research problem statement, research questions and assumptions are explained.

5.4 RESEARCH PROBLEM STATEMENT

The research problem statement was also formulated and explained in chapter 1, section 1.5.1 but is also repeated in this chapter for further elucidation. Numerous studies were conducted on the effectiveness of IMC in producing consistency in marketing communication messages. However, as mentioned in chapter 1, not much has been researched on how an IMC approach can be applied to support behavioural change messages in the context of social marketing campaigns (see chapter 1, section 1.2.1).
For this reason the study has the following problem statement:

The purpose of this qualitative study is to propose and refine theoretical criteria for IMC within the context of social marketing to support behavioural change messages by means of a cross sectional single case study.

In the next section research questions for this study are explained.

5.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study attempts to answer the following four research questions:

Research question 1: What are the theoretical criteria for an IMC approach to support goals of behavioural change messages in social marketing campaigns?
Research question 2: To what extent do SANBS’ social marketing campaigns conform to the theoretical criteria for IMC to support goals of behavioural change messages?
Research question 3: How is the use of IMC in social marketing campaigns relevant to a non-profit organisational context?
Research question 4: How can the theoretical IMC criteria for social marketing campaigns be further adapted based on the results of the study to support goals of behavioural change messages?

5.6 ASSUMPTIONS

This study makes the following assumptions:

**Assumption 1**: IMC criteria within a commercial marketing context can be used to support goals of behavioural change messages in a non-profit context for social marketing campaigns.

**Assumption 2**: SANBS’ social marketing campaigns conform to the proposed theoretical IMC criteria for social marketing.

**Assumption 3**: An IMC approach to social marketing within a non-profit organisational context is relevant to supporting behavioural change goals.

**Assumption 4**: Based on the study's findings IMC criteria for social marketing can be further refined to support behavioural change messages.
To investigate the above mentioned research questions, this study used a single case study to collect data. The research method adopted for this study is explained in detail in the below sections.

5.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research methodology specifies how a researcher may go about practically studying any phenomenon. In this study a single case study was used as the methodology. However, it is worth noting that various authors have different views with regards to a case study, with some referring to it as an approach while others regard it as a research methodology. In this regard Berg (2009: 202) explains that the definition of a case study is contentious as there are many confusions and misunderstanding about it. According to van Wynsber and Khan (2007:2) a case study is not a research methodology because researchers do not collect any information using a case study. This view is also supported by Stake (2008:119) who argues that it is not actually a methodological choice but rather a choice of what is to be studied.

Though the above mentioned authors do not regard a case study as a research methodology, this study adopts the opposite view that it is a valid methodology in qualitative research. This adoption stems from Creswell (2012:97) who views a case study as a methodology and a type of design used in qualitative research. A case study as a methodology is about studying a particular phenomenon which is examined through one or more cases (Berg 2009: 202). This study used a single case to investigate IMC as a phenomenon within the context of social marketing. A single case study as a research methodology for this study is discussed in the next sub section.

5.7.1 Single case study

This study used a qualitative single case study approach. A case study as a method of data collection in social research involves a systematic and in-depth investigation into a social phenomenon in its context (Rule & John 2011: 4). As explained in chapter 4, the single case for this study was the SANBS. A case study is “one single case, temporally, physically or socially limited in size, complex nature, unique and thus not comparable
with other cases” (Verschuren 2003: 121). The rationale behind choosing SANBS as a single case was explained in chapter 4 (see chapter 4, sections 4.3 and 4.6). However, it is important to define and explain some of the characteristics of a single case study and also motivate why a single case study is most suitable as a data collection method for this study.

For the purpose of this study a case study is defined as “a qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a real-life, contemporary bounded system or multiple bounded systems over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information and reports a case description and the case themes” (Creswell 2013: 97). From the above definition it is clear that a case study aims for a focused and rich description of a phenomenon within its broader context using information from many data sources.

A single case study can be useful in various situations. According to Yin (2009: 2) a case study is most useful when how and why questions are asked by the investigation, if the investigator has little control over events and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context. Further to that, Verschuren (2003: 128) argues that a case study becomes important when a study seeks a holistic rather than a reductionistic approach, which is more typical with quantitative studies. In such instances a case study explores a phenomenon from different lens which reveals the multiple facets of the phenomenon being studied. In addition if the boundaries are not clear between the context and the phenomenon under study it becomes paramount to use a single case study (Baxter & Jack 2008: 545). The above arguments constitute only some of the conditions which argue for adopting a case study approach to research. Nevertheless for the purpose of this study, a single case study was chosen mainly due to the particular nature of the study.

The study evaluates social marketing campaigns using the proposed IMC criteria to support behavioural change messages in a social marketing context as proposed in chapter 3. Social marketing campaigns cannot be isolated from the organisations where they are planned and implemented. Social marketing campaigns are products of
planning processes within an organisation. For this reason it is logical to use a single case study since the evaluation of the social marketing campaigns is conducted in the context or setting in which they are planned, namely the SANBS for this study. Not separating the phenomenon of social marketing campaigns and the context of SANBS thus benefits this study. Rowley (2002: 18) supports this assertion by arguing that the “strength of a case study is the ability to undertake an investigation into a phenomenon in its context”. A second reason for choosing a single case study is that the evaluation of social marketing campaigns involves the eight-point criteria proposed in chapter 3 (see chapter 3, section 3.11). The eight-point criteria require a focused and rich description of the many facets of IMC as outlined by the criteria. According to Yin (2009: 4), a case study is suitable “if the research questions require extensive and in-depth description of some social phenomenon”. Rowley (2002: 17) also supports this argument by stating that a single case study supports a much deeper and more detailed investigation. Another important reason why a single case study is more suitable is that it relies on multiple sources of evidence (Rule & John 2011: 7). Using multiple sources of evidence benefits this study in two ways. Firstly, the concept of social marketing in the context of IMC to support behavioural change messages is evaluated from a variety of perspectives which reveal the multiple facets from which it can be understood (Baxter & Jack 2008: 544). Secondly, triangulating the various data from multiple sources of evidence enhances the quality of the research findings (Gibbert, Ruigrok & Wicki 2008: 1468). From a practical point of view a single case study is more manageable given that a case is identified and “helps the researcher to identify the key sources of information and to complete research in a set of time frame” (Rule & John 2011: 8).

The discussion above defines and discusses the nature of a single case study and also presents reasons why a single case study was chosen for this study. In the following section the target and accessible population of this study are explained.

5.7.2 Target and accessible population

According to Babbie (2013:115) the population of a study is the group from which a researcher wants to draw conclusions. There is a target population and an accessible
population in any study. The target population “is the entire class or group of units, objects or subjects to which one want to generalise findings” (Du Plooy 2009:56). In this study the target population were all SANBS employees and all SANBS’ documents which relate to messages of their planned marketing communication for three social marketing campaigns. On the other hand an accessible population “are the units of analysis in the target population to which researchers have access” (Du Plooy 2009:51). For this study the accessible population was individuals interviewed in the face-to-face semi-structured interviews and one focus group. With regards to the qualitative content analysis selected SANBS documents using purposive sampling were the accessible population. These accessible documents included three annual reports, six Blood Beat SANBS magazines, five transcripts of radio advertisements, five transcripts of television advertisements, seven newspaper advertisements, 55 pages containing 176 Facebook updates and 55 pages containing 276 ‘tweets’ on Twitter. These documents were deemed enough to be able to explore the phenomenon and obtain enough rich data to support the findings of this study (see Table 5.1). According to Babbie and Mouton (2011: 279) qualitative research is open to multiple sources of data and in this case diverse documents allow phenomenon to be investigated from many sources.

5.7.3 Unit of analysis

A research unit is the object about which the researcher wants to produce knowledge on (Verschuren 2003: 125). Rowley (2002: 19) further adds that a unit of analysis is the basis for the case and must be determined by the research purpose, questions, proportions and theoretical context. For the interviews and one focus group the unit of analysis were the individuals who participated in the face-to-face semi-structured interviews and the focus group. On the other hand for the documents analysed the unit of analysis were social artefacts, namely selected SANBS’ documents which were considered products of SANBS’ planned marketing communication for three social marketing campaigns.
5.7.4 Sampling

In case studies, Rule and John (2011: 63) argue that it might not be possible to include every individual or document in the research study. As a result certain individuals and documents are chosen by way of sampling. There are broadly two types of sampling in research, namely probability and non-probability sampling. According to Babbie (2013:132) probability sampling is a “general term for samples selected in accord with probability theory, typically involving some random-selection mechanism”. In probability sampling the aim is to select a set of elements which accurately portray parameters of the total population by way of random selection (Babbie & Mouton 2011: 174). Rule and John (2011:64) explain that when using probability sampling a researcher can make generalisable claims from the sample to the total population represented by the chosen sample. The idea is to make sure that each element from the total population has an equal chance of being selected. However, that is not the case with a non-probability type of sampling in that every unit in the target population does not have an equal chance of being selected (du Plooy 2009: 112). Using a non-probability sampling method elements are selected in some way not suggested by probability theory where probability sampling might be impossible or inappropriate (Babbie 2013: 128). Babbie (2013: 128) further adds that qualitative research often uses non-probability sampling and types of non-probability sampling include purposive, quota and snowball sampling. Berg (2009: 50) also adds convenient sampling to the list.

For this study individuals for face-to-face semi-structured interviews and one focus group and documents for the qualitative content analysis were selected using a purposive sample method. A purposive sample method is relied heavily upon in case studies more than other types of sample methods (Liamputtong 2013: 15). Liamputtong (2013: 14) defines a purposive sample method as “the deliberate selection of specific individuals, events or settings because of crucial information they provide that cannot be obtained so well through other channels”. A purposive sample provides the space to choose a sample which is suitable for advancing the purpose of the study. This is so because case studies are less concerned with representativeness of the sample but more concerned with samples that provides an in-depth and trustworthy account of the
This study was not interested in the representativeness of the sample but rather in the in-depth and rich information which the participants and selected documents provided in advancing the objectives of the study. For this reason a purposive sample method was more suitable for this study than other qualitative sample methods.

With regards to sample size, Liamputtong (2013: 18) argues that any sample size should provide enough data to allow the research questions to be addressed fully. Liamputtong (2013: 18) further states that in qualitative research there is no set formula to determine an appropriate sample size, however data saturation is used as a way of justifying the number of participants or documents to be analysed. In this study four interviewees were interviewed using face-to-face semi-structured interviews (see section 5.8.2). The sample size for the focus group was six participants as they were the only accessible SANBS employees for the focus group interview. The numbers of individuals who can participate in a focus group vary from author to author. Rule and John (2011: 66) suggest a number of between six to 12 individuals while Babbie (2013: 349) suggests between five and 15 individuals. David and Sutton (2011: 139) are of the opinion that “the more group members know about or are motivated by the topic at hand, the smaller the group needs to be”. Following the argument of David and Sutton (2011) this study intended to have a focus group of between five to eight participants. However only six participants were available and they therefore constituted the focus group (see section 5.8.3). As for the qualitative content analysis the sample included three SANBS’ annual reports. The three annual reports for the years 2011, 2012 and 2013 are the latest and only available at SANBS website and for this reason were the only selected. In addition for the magazines the sample size was six Blood Beat magazines. The six magazine issues were selected because they were the only available issues and are also considered latest issues. With regard to advertisements the sample size was five transcripts of radio advertisements, five transcripts of television advertisements and seven newspaper advertisements. The sample size of advertisements was considered as they represented the three campaigns which the study focused on (see chapter 4, section 4.6). In addition Facebook and Twitter feeds
between June 2013 and July 2014 were chosen purposefully to form part of the qualitative content analysis sample. The period between June 2013 and July 2014 was considered for two main reasons. Firstly it covers the period in which the three campaigns focused on for this study were carried out and secondly the study was cross sectional in that it covered only one data collection period. Within the above mentioned periods there were 176 updates (posts) for Facebook and 276 ‘tweets’ for Twitter. Table 5.1 below summarises the sample size for documents analysed using qualitative content analysis.

Table 5.1: Sample and sample size of documents for the qualitative content analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample of documents for the qualitative content analysis</th>
<th>Number of Pages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SANBS Annual Reports (2011, 2012 and 2013)</td>
<td>148 (all three annual reports)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blood Beat magazines (January 2013 - August 2014)</td>
<td>214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio advertisement transcripts</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper advertisement</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Television advertisement transcripts</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facebook updates (July 2013 – July 2014)</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tweets from Twitter (June 2013 – July 2014)</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the next section data collection methods used for this study are explained in detail.

5.8 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

As explained earlier in this chapter a single case study approach uses multiple sources of evidence from different data collection methods (Rule & John 2011: 7). This study used a qualitative content analysis, one focus group and four face-to-face semi-
structured interviews to collect data. The three data collection methods are explained below.

5.8.1 Qualitative content analysis

In this study, a qualitative content analysis was used to collect data from SANBS' documents. These documents are considered suitable for the qualitative content analysis because they highlight message consistency as a product of IMC planning at SANBS. In conducting a qualitative content analysis the study aimed to provide insights into how IMC as an approach is discernible in the end results of SANBS' planning of marketing communication messages for their social marketing campaigns to support behavioural change messages. It was important to evaluate how an IMC approach produces unified and consistent messages for SANBS' social marketing campaigns. The best way to evaluate this was by conducting a qualitative content analysis on documents which highlight message consistency as a product of IMC planning. In this case the products of IMC planning were marketing communication messages conveyed by the official magazine publications (Blood Beat), messages in various promotional tools (advertisement transcripts) and social media messages (Facebook and Twitter feeds) in social marketing campaigns.

According to Hsieh and Shannon (2005: 1278), a qualitative content analysis is “a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes and patterns”. Qualitative content analysis can be categorised into three approaches, namely conventional, directed and summative (Hsieh & Shannon 2005: 1278). According to Hsieh and Shannon (2005: 1286) the main difference between the three approaches to qualitative content analysis is how each approach develops its initial codes. A conventional approach to content analysis is used when existing literature of a phenomenon is limited and as a result there are no preconceived categories when analysing data (Hsieh & Shannon 2005: 1279). All categories or names of categories in the conventional approach to content analysis are derived from the data. The second approach to qualitative content analysis, the summative approach, first identifies and
quantifies keywords in data being analysed (Hsieh & Shannon 2005: 1283). The keywords are derived from a review of literature. Once keywords are identified and counted, patterns from the continued keywords emerge and these patterns lead to interpretation (Hsieh & Shannon 2005: 1286). The interpretation gives contextual meaning of specific terms or context of the data being analysed. The third approach is a directed approach to content analysis. The directed approach to content analysis is directly opposite the conventional approach in that categories used for coding data are informed by existing theory rather than research data (Hsieh & Shannon 2005: 1281).

The directed approach to content analysis was chosen for the qualitative content analysis of this study because data from documents was coded using the criteria proposed in chapter 3 (see section 3.11). The proposed criteria for IMC within the context of social marketing were used as the preconceived categories for coding data collected from documents. Qualitative content analysis using a directed approach was useful in starting data collection as it informed other data collection methods used in the study (Rule & John 2011: 67). In this case the qualitative content analysis informed questions asked during interviews and the focus group. Documents which can be subjected to qualitative content analysis typically include internal reports, annual reports, committee reports, minutes of meetings of an organisation and publications such as newspapers, advertising copy, journals and books (Walliman 2011: 178). This study also collected data from SANBS’ external published documents, advertisements transcripts, and feeds from two social networking sites (Facebook and Twitter) in order to find evidence of an IMC approach in planning and execution of messages for social marketing campaigns (see also Annexure F). Official SANBS published documents used for the qualitative content analysis were SANBS’ annuals reports and Blood Beat magazine. As for advertising transcripts, data was collected from printed advertisements in newspapers, transcripts of radio and television advertisements. For social media feeds data from Facebook and Twitter was collected. With regards to all the above mentioned documents data relating World Blood Donor Month, Nelson Mandela Day and December Blood Drive campaign during the period of June 2013 to July 2014 was
collected (see chapter 4, section 4.6). The sample size for each type of document analysed has been explained in section 5.7.4 of this chapter (see also Table 5.1).

The main purpose of the qualitative content analysis as a data collection method was to first inform the line of enquiry in conducting the focus group and interviews. Data collected from the qualitative content analysis which needed further clarity formed part of the questions for the interview schedules for both the focus group and interviews. Secondly, the qualitative content analysis assisted in corroborating and also augmenting evidence from the focus group and interviews (Yin 2009: 103).

5.8.2 Face-to-face semi-structured interviews

Face-to-face semi-structured interviews involve the interaction of the interviewer and interviewee in which the interviewer asks questions in a guided conversation (Babbie & Mouton 2011: 289). A face-to-face interview as a method of data collection allows for a one-on-one discussion between the interviewer and the research participant. The interviewer poses questions to the interviewee using particular words in a particular order to solicit responses about the phenomenon under study (David & Sutton 2011: 122). Broadly there are three types of interviews, namely structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews (du Plooy 2009: 179). In structured interviews questions are asked in a predetermined manner and the researcher cannot deviate from these questions during the interview (du Plooy 2009: 197). Structured interviews according to Rule and John (2011: 65) are suitable when some level of standardisation has to be achieved, especially when different interviewers conduct interviews in the same study. These interviews are in contrast to unstructured interviews. Du Plooy (2009: 199) explains that in unstructured interviews there are no predetermined questions and the aim is to obtain as much insight and depth into a topic by giving the participant more freedom to respond in his or her own words. The third type of interviews, semi-structured, has features of both the structured and unstructured interviews. According to Rule and John (2011: 65) semi-structured interviews involve pre-set questions which usually initiates the discussion but allows for the interviewer to ask further questions which might arise from the response of the respondent. For this study face-to-face
interviews which are semi-structured in nature were used. The strength of face-to-face semi-structured interviews lies in their ability to solicit for in-depth information in a flexible manner and creating space for the interviewer to pursue lines of enquiry stimulated by the interview (Rule & John 2011: 65). This strength made face-to-face semi-structured most appropriate for the study. Face-to-face semi-structured interviews in this study were conducted with four SANBS employees who are involved in the planning and implementation of social marketing campaigns. The four employees were from the departments of marketing, market research, customer relations and communications. These SANBS employees were regarded in this study as key participants because of their involvement and knowledge of marketing communication activities at the SANBS. Their involvement and knowledge of marketing communication activities at SANBS was also the basis on which they were chosen as a sample for face-to-face semi-structured interviews using the convenient sampling method (see section 5.7.4).

The face-to-face semi-structured interviews were guided by interview schedules (see Annexures A, B, C and D). An interview schedule contains a set of questions which act as a guide in conducting interviews (Creswell 2013: 164). Rule and John (2011: 65) state that a semi-structured interview has "a set of pre-set questions which initiate the discussion followed by further questions which arise from the discussion". The pre-set questions are what David and Sutton (2011: 122) refer to as core questions. Core questions are questions which seek to address the key themes of the study (David & Sutton 2011: 122). In this study formulation of core questions was guided by the IMC criteria for social marketing as proposed in chapter 3 (see chapter 3, Table 3.1). When conducting face-to-face semi-structured interviews Yin (2009: 107) advises that an interviewer needs to operate on two levels. On one level the interviewer asks questions which seek to satisfy the needs of the inquiry while on the other level the interviewer put forth "friendly" and "nonthreatening" questions in an open-ended manner. During the face-to-face semi-structured interviews the researcher adhered to the two levels proposed by Yin (2009). Questions contained in the interview schedule were subjected to a pretesting process (see section 5.10).
Before interviews were conducted the researcher wrote a formal letter sent via email to SANBS requesting permission to conduct interviews with employees. The letter was accompanied by an ethical clearance form obtained from the University of South Africa regarding the study and the research proposal. Permission to conduct interviews was granted by SANBS' ethical committee. Once permission was granted the researcher proceeded to arrange appointments and venues with the interview participants. Arrangement with regards to dates and venues was facilitated by one of the Personal Assistants at SANBS. She managed to arrange the date and SANBS head offices in Johannesburg as the venue for the interviews.

During all four interviews the first step of the interviews was to make participants as comfortable as possible by providing a brief introduction about the researcher. The next step was explaining the purpose of the study and why the respective participants were chosen for the interviews. Rule and John (2011: 64) state that participants must be informed about the ethical obligations the researcher has when conducting the interview. For this reason ethical obligations which the researcher was bound by were explained to the participants. This included seeking consent from participants to take part in the interview and explaining how their confidentiality will be ensured. All four participants agreed to be interviewed. Confidentiality of participants was guaranteed in that data from the interviews was only accessed by the researcher and the research supervisor. During the interviews and in reporting study findings participants were not identified by name or specific position in the organisation.

Once introductions and ethical issues were explained the next step was to ask permission to have the interviews recorded to which all four participants agreed. The interviews commenced by asking opening questions which were contained in the interview schedule. During the interview the researcher asked both questions from the interview schedule and questions which were prompted by responses from the interviewees. Furthermore, during the interview the researcher took brief notes in addition to the recording. Interviews were concluded by first providing a brief summary of what participants said as way of providing space for the participants to add any information they think might be of further importance. Lastly participants were thanked
for their time and effort in participating in the interviews. Three interviews lasted no more than 45 minutes with one lasting just above 50 minutes.

The main purpose of the face-to-face semi-structured interviews in this study was to gain insight into how IMC is regarded in planning of marketing communication messages (to support behavioural change messages) for SANBS' social marketing campaigns. All participants in the face-to-face semi-structured interviews were involved in the planning of social marketing campaigns at either management or operational level. As such, data from the interviews provided insight into how SANBS view IMC as an approach which supports marketing communication messages in social marketing campaigns.

5.8.3 Focus group

Babbie (2013: 349) defines a focus group as “a group of subjects interviewed together prompting a discussion”. In a focus group a researcher engages with a small group of individuals to initiate interaction and dialogue among the group about a topic. The aim of a focus group is to gain a sense of the range and diversity of opinions among the participants with regards to the topic under discussion (Rule & John 2011: 66). One of the strengths of a focus group is that it gives participants greater control of the discussion in a way allowing the participants to interact amongst themselves rather than with the interviewer or moderator (David & Sutton 2011: 133).

The downside to the greater control of the discussion by participants is that some may dominate the discussion leading to some participants only conforming to ideas of the dominant participants (Babbie 2013: 350). However, David and Sutton (2011: 135) argue that this may be countered by the moderator setting out the terms of the discussion at the onset of the focus group interview. According to Babbie (2013: 349) regardless of some of the challenges of conducting focus groups, they are very useful “as some group dynamics frequently brings out aspects of the topic that would not have been anticipated by the researcher”. In this study one focus group was conducted with SANBS employees as participants who were involved at the operational level of executing social marketing campaigns. Babbie (2013: 349) states that participants of
focus groups should be chosen on the basis of relevance to the topic under study (see section 5.4.7). Participants for the focus group were from four divisions within the SANBS. These divisions included marketing, operations, client liaison and public relations.

As explained in section 5.7.4 six participants were chosen for the focus group interview. This is so because only six participants were available and they therefore constituted the focus group (see section 5.7.4). Nevertheless the number and composition of participants for the focus group were regarded as appropriate for the study because all participants were drawn from divisions within SANBS which engaged in social marketing campaigns. This implied that participants of the focus groups had insights into the planning and execution of social marketing at operational level. According to David and Sutton (2011: 139) in stances where group members know and are motivated by the topic of a focus group smaller groups are better.

Conducting the focus group followed more or less the same steps of face-to-face semi-structured interviews (see section 5.8.2). However, given the group dynamics of a focus group some steps were different from face-to-face semi-structured interviews. Like in face-to-face semi-structured interviews a formal letter to SANBS requesting permission to conduct a focus group with SANBS employees was sent accompanied by ethical clearance obtained from the University of South Africa regarding the study and the research proposal. Once permission was granted the researcher proceeded to arrange appointments and venues with the focus group participants. Arrangement with regards to dates and venues was facilitated by one of the Personal Assistant at SANBS. She managed to arrange the date and SANBS head offices in Johannesburg as the venue for the focus group.

The focus group was conducted on the same day face-to-face semi-structured interviews were conducted. Before commencing with the focus group participants were informed about the confidentiality of their participation which meant that they would not be identified by their name or position at SANBS. Also consent to participant in the focus group interview was obtained, including permission to record the focus group.
interview. All participants agreed to participate in the focus group and for the focus group session to be recorded.

At the start of the focus group interview some ground rules which guided the process were explained as contained in the moderator’s guide (see Annexure E). Thereafter participants were given a brief introductory background and purpose of the study. According to David and Sutton (2011: 140) this helps generate interest and reflection among focus group participants. After the introductory remarks by the researcher all participants were given an opportunity to introduce themselves by mainly explaining their roles and responsibilities in the organisation. During the focus group pre-set questions contained in the moderator’s guide were used to guide the line of enquiry. Questions from the moderator’s guide were pre-tested before the focus group (see section 5.10). Opening questions helped to get into the focus group interview and during the interviews the researcher took brief notes in addition to the recording. Over the duration of the focus group every participant had a chance to provide input into the discussion. There were few instances where some participants would try to dominate the discussion and how the researcher managed to ensure a balanced discussion by reminding participants about the ground rules was thus explained at the start of the focus group. Liamputtong (2013: 62) advises that it is important to finish a focus group interview by summarising the main points provided by participants and to ask whether they have anything to add. Liamputtong’s (2013) recommendation was adhered to and the main points from the focus group were pointed out while every participant was given a chance to add any information he or she deemed important. At the end of the focus group all participants were thanked for their time and effort in participating in the focus group. The focus group lasted not more than 45 minutes.

The main purpose of the focus group interview in this study was to obtain more insight into an IMC approach to support behavioural change messages of social marketing campaigns at operational level. Given that participants of the focus group interview were from divisions which are responsible for the actual implementation of marketing communication messages and social marketing campaigns, it was important to evaluate how planning of tactical coordination of various marketing communication mix elements
is dealt with. Furthermore the focus group interview gave insight into how an IMC approach at strategic level is translated into unified and consistent marketing communication messages at operational level.

In the next section methods used to ensure quality of the research process and research findings are explained.

5.9 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Every research study should ensure quality of the research process and the research results. Planning for quality should be done throughout the research process (Rule & John 2011: 104). Quality of the research process is important as it forms the basis on which research results can be regarded as knowledge which can be assimilated in the knowledge base of any respective field of study (Rowley 2002: 20). In qualitative research measures have been proposed to ensure quality of both the research process and the research results and these include validity and reliability measures (Yin 2009: 41). In the next subsections validity and reliability are explained with regards to interviews and qualitative content analysis.

5.9.1 Validity of interviews

According to Babbie and Mouton (2011: 122) validity refers to “the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration”. Validity looks at the degree to which a measuring instrument tests what it claims to test (du Plooy 2009: 135). Measures of validity ensure that any measuring instrument measures what it intends to measure. According to Gibbert et al (2008: 1466) validity measures can be divided into three main areas, namely internal validity, construct validity and external validity.

5.9.1.1 Internal validity

Du Plooy (2009: 90) explains internal validity as the extent to which an empirical measure can account for all aspects that might affect the outcome of the research question to be tested. A measuring instrument should adequately reflect the real
meaning of a concept under study by not disrupting or intruding into what is being measured (Babbie & Mouton 2011: 125). A number of measures were applied to this study to ensure internal validity of interviews. Rowley (2002: 23) identifies triangulation as one of the ways to establish internal validity which is explained as using different evidence from different sources to confirm the same fact or finding. Triangulation is one of the strengths of a case study since it uses a number of data sources to collect evidence. In this study data was collected using three different methods which can support the same findings (see section 5.8). In this regard the research question was analysed from different perspectives to increase the validity of the study. Pretesting of interview questions is another method used to establish internal validity. Questions used in face-to-face semi-structured and focus group interviews were pretested to ensure that the questions measure what they are supposed to measure (see section 5.10). Furthermore questions used in face-to-face semi-structured and focus group interviews were formulated as guided by a sound literature review and theoretical criteria for IMC within social marketing to support behavioural change messages. The literature review in both chapters 2 and 3 identified criteria which were used to evaluate SANBS’ campaigns (see chapter 3, section 3.11). The literature reviewed assisted in establishing valid measuring instruments namely the questions used in face-to-face semi-structured and focus group interviews. In addition to the above methods, the study used a case study protocol to establish internal validity (see Annexure F). According to Yin (2009: 79) a case study protocol is essential as way of guiding a researcher in carrying out the data collection process in a case study. As a guide to data collection, a case study protocol keeps the researcher focused on the aim of the study and helps also anticipate problems which might be encountered during data collection (Yin 2009: 82). Having a case study protocol enables the study to measure what it claims to measure because the protocol explicitly define the research questions and the actual data collection procedures to be taken.

5.9.1.2 Construct validity

According to Gibbert et al (2008: 1446) construct validity refers to “the extent to which a study investigates what it claims to investigate”. The study must link data collection
measures with research questions and propositions. Linking data collection measures and research questions ensures that the study has investigated that it initially sorts out to investigate. There are a number of ways to enhance construct validity in case studies. These include establishing a clear chain of evidence during data collection, using multiple sources of evidence, using different data collection methods and having key informants review draft case study report (Riege 2003; Gibbert et al 2008: 1468; Yin 2009: 43). Creswell and Miller (2000: 127) add peer debriefing and providing thick, rich descriptions as some of the ways of improving construct validity. This study adopted establishing a clear chain of evidence during data collection, using multiple sources of evidence and data collection methods (triangulation) and having key informants review draft case study report as ways of enhancing construct validity.

Firstly, the study clearly established a chain of evidence as guided by the case study protocol (see Annexure F). A case study protocol defined the data collection procedures which ultimately indicate how evidence was collected and stored. All interview transcripts were stored and used to allow the supply of sufficient citations and cross check of particular sources of evidence during the report writing stage (Riege 2003: 82). Secondly, using multiple sources which is referred to as triangulation was used to enhance construct validity. As explained above in section 5.9.1.1 triangulation improves construct validity in that there are multiple perceptions about a single phenomenon under study (Golafshani 2003: 603). In this study multiple methods of data collection as well as multiple sources of data were used (see section 5.8). According to Creswell and Miller (2000: 127) construct validity is improved if researchers rely on multiple forms of evidence rather than a single incident in the study. Golafshani (2003: 604) further explains that “engaging in multiple methods of data collection and sources of data leads to more valid, reliable and diverse construction of realities”. The third method of improving construct validity was having key informants review data collected, research process and research draft report (Creswell & Miller 2000: 129). A key informant is a person who is familiar with the study or phenomenon under study according to Creswell and Miller (2000: 129). In this study the key informants was the supervisor of the study and three experts who help with pretesting of interview questions (see section 5.10). To
ensure construct validity the supervisor and the three experts reviewed data collected, research process, data analysis and the final report which outlines the findings (Riege 2000: 82).

5.9.1.3 External validity

In a case study it is important to establish whether the research findings can be generalised beyond the immediate case study. According to Yin (2009: 43) this is referred to as the external validity or generalisability measure. External validity is based on the argument that “theories must be shown to account for phenomena not only in the setting in which they are studied but also in other settings” (Gibbert et al 2008: 1468). In this study the sample for both the semi-structured face-to-face interview and focus group were drawn from the SANBS (see section 5.7.4). Consequently, research findings of this study can only be generalised to the SANBS. However, the findings of this study could be used as a heuristic for constructing behavioural change messages for social marketing campaigns of other non-profit organisations.

5.9.1.4 Reliability

Reliability measures ensures that the study minimises errors and biases to such an extent that the study can be repeated by another investigator following the same procedures and giving the same research findings (Rowley 2002: 20). According to Gibbert et al (2008: 1468) the aim of reliability measures is to avoid random error in case studies. Gibbert et al (2008: 1468) further explains ways of enhancing reliability, namely transparency and replication. Transparency can be achieved by producing a case study protocol while replication can be done through compilation of a case study database (Gibbert et al 2008: 1469).

Yin (2009: 45) supports the above measures to enhance reliability and also adds that a case study report is important as it documents how the whole case study was conducted. Such documentation ensures that any other investigator following the same procedures will come to the same research findings. For this study reliability was ensured thorough proper documentation of the research procedure by way of a case
study protocol (see Annexure F). Also a case study database which contains all collected data as suggested by Yin (2009) and Gibbert et al (2008) was used to enhance the transparency of the study.

5.9.2 Validity of qualitative content analysis

In the preceding discussion validity measures were explained with regards to interviews for both the face to face and focus group as measuring instruments. It is important to also explain validity measures for the qualitative content analysis process to ensure that the process of analysis address the intended focus of the study (Graneheim & Lundman 2004: 109). Some authors argue that in the context of qualitative content analysis there are concepts which are more suited to qualitative research such as confirmability (construct validity), credibility (internal validity), transferability (external validity) and dependability (reliability) and which are used to measure quality in qualitative content analysis (Riege 2003:78-79; Graneheim & Lundman 2004; 109). Confirmability, credibility, transferability and dependability are explained in the following sections.

5.9.2.1 Conformability

According to Riege (2003:81) “conformability is analogous to the notion of neutrality and objectivity in positivism, corresponding closely to construct validity”. Interpretations of data should be done in a logical and unprejudiced manner if conclusions of qualitative data analysis are said to be reasonably from the data itself (Riege 2003: 81). To ensure confirmability methods and procedures used in the study have to be clearly explained and data used in the data analysis has to be retained and available for reanalysis by other researchers. In this study to ensure that conclusions made from qualitative content analysis are logical and done in an unprejudiced manner, the data analysis is explicitly explained (see section 5.11.2) and data used in the analysis is retained and stored safely for any further reanalysis by other researchers.

5.9.2.2 Credibility

According to Graneheim and Lundman (2004: 109) credibility “refers to how well data and process of analysis address the intended focus of the study”. It deals with whether
a study was conducted in a way that ensures credibility (Reige 2003: 81). Issues which ensures credibility include the amount of data collected for data analysis, how well categories cover data, judging the differences and similarities between categories and how rich and meaningful descriptions of the study are (Reige 2003: 81; Graneheim & Lundman 2004: 110). Credibility ultimately is reflected when internal coherence of findings and concepts are systematically related (Reige 2004: 78). To ensure credibility this study uses peer debriefing and researcher self-monitoring (Reige 2003: 78). Peer debriefing includes a peer looking at the differences and similarities of categories and how well categories cover the data. Researcher self-monitoring focuses on explanation-building such that there is a link between the process of analysis and the intended focus of the study.

5.9.2.3 Transferability

Transferability deals with whether findings of the study can be transferred to other settings (Graneheim & Lundman 2004: 110). This concept has also been addressed in section 5.9.1.3 under the discussion of external validity. As stated before, research findings of this study can only be generalised to the SANBS.

5.9.2.4 Dependability

According to Reige (2003: 81) dependability is measured by the stability and consistency in the process of inquiry. To ensure dependability of the qualitative content analysis process, inter-coder reliability was used. According to du Plooy (2009: 133) inter-coder reliability focuses on how reliable coding of text is when two researchers analyse the same data. Correspondence between the way codes are assigned to data by each coder is measured using inter-coder reliability (Joffe & Yardley 2004: 62). When there is close agreement between two coders on how codes were applied to categories then there is high inter-coder reliability. Measures to ensure that there is high inter-coder reliability include having clear rationale for coding decisions (Joffe & Yardley 2004: 62).
In the next section the pretesting process of interview questions and focus group is explained.

5.10 PRETESTING OF INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

As mentioned earlier in section 5.9, pretesting of interviews questions is one of the ways of ensuring that a measuring instrument measures what it intend to measure. In this study questions for face-to-face semi-structured interviews and focus group interviews were subjected to pretesting. According to Czaja (1998: 8), pretesting can be done using a panel of experts.

During the pretesting process, face-to-face semi-structured and focus group interview questions were pretested on three experts. Two experts were identified because they were knowledgeable on the concepts under study, mainly social marketing and integrated marketing communication. The other expert was identified because of experience in the formulation and construction of interview questions. Feedback and comments from the panel of experts centred on two main aspects, namely the structure of the questions and the content of the questions in terms of concepts contained in the questions. The following sections provide a feedback and comments provided by the panel of experts after pretesting of face-to-face and focus group interview questions and the corrections undertaken by the researcher.

5.10.1 Face-to-face semi-structured interview questions

One of the aspects pointed out during the pretesting of face-to-face semi-structured interview questions was to explain to participants why they were chosen for the interviews before the actual interview begins. The researcher added this information in the interview schedules. Some of the experts pointed out that the term semi-structured in-depth interviews might not be appropriate to describe the documents containing face-to-face questions. This is so because 'in-depth' interviews are associated with unstructured interviews. The panel of experts advised that best alternative term would be face-to face semi-structured interview. As a result the term face-to-face in-depth interview was changed to face-to-face semi-structured interview. Also the panel of
experts noted that the order of questions for all interviewees should be consistent for easy analysis and in this regard the order of questions as contained in the interview schedules were rearranged to ensure consistency.

With regards to concepts contained in the questions the panel agreed that most of the concepts contained in the questions were appropriate to elicit responses which would answer the research questions. However, the concept of relationship building was pointed out as missing in one of the interview questions. One expert pointed out that the study seeks to find more information about relationship building in IMC with regards to social marketing campaigns but the interview question only sorted responses on relationship maintenance. The question was rephrased to ensure that it elicit responses on both relationship building and maintenance. With regards to grammar a few grammatical errors were picked up during the pretesting and these errors were also corrected.

5.10.2 Focus group questions

One of the experts mentioned that instead of referring to the document containing focus group questions as interview schedule it could be more appropriate to refer to it as a moderator’s guide. According to the expert the term moderator’s guide is mostly used for focus group. The document was renamed moderator’s guide in line with the feedback from the expert. In addition the order of questions was changed after being advised that the order of the questions need to be consistent for both focus group and face-to-face semi-structured interviews. Consistent order of questions would help with data analysis according to recommendations from the panel.

Another point raised during the pretesting phase related to was how important it was to briefly explain some of the concepts contained in the questions which focus group participants might not understand or unfamiliar with. According to the feedback from the pretesting, some concepts might be applicable in academic work but might have different meanings in practice in the industry. All concepts which were identified as abstract were briefly explained to the participants to give them meaning which is
contextual to the study. Lastly, with regards to structure of questions there were a number of grammatical errors noted and the researcher corrected these.

The above are aspects pointed out during the pretesting phase of the study, in the following section the data analysis is explained in detail.

5.11 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis is a crucial stage of research as it gives meaning to the data collected. Babbie and Mouton (2009: 490) define qualitative data analysis as “all forms of analysis of data that was gathered using qualitative techniques”. The purpose of data analysis is to discover, within collected data, presence or absence of patterns of meaning. These patterns of meaning should point to a theoretical understanding of social life (Babbie 2013: 396). The process of data analysis is not linear as a researcher moves around what Creswell (2013: 182) terms analytical circles. As such the process of data analysis is interwoven into the data collection process (Creswell 2013; Babbie 2013; Liamputtong 2013; David & Sutton 2011). The following sub sections explain the data analysis methods used for this study and in chapter 6 an explanation is provided on how the actual data analysis was done for face-to-face semi-structured interviews and focus group (see chapter 6, section 6.2.1) and qualitative content analysis (see chapter 6, section 6.2.2).

5.11.1 Data analysis of interviews and focus group

In this study, a six-phased thematic analysis process by Braun and Clarke (2006) was used for data analysis of the interviews and one focus group. Thematic analysis is defined as a “method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data” (Braun & Clarke 2006: 79). The following are phases of the thematic analysis as adopted from Braun and Clarke (2006).

5.11.1.1 Familiarising with the data

Before data is analysed it is important that the data is prepared for analysis. In this study data preparation was in form of transcribing all recorded interviews. After the data
preparation. Braun and Clarke (2006: 87) explains that the first step in the thematic analysis process is for the researcher to get familiarised with the data. Creswell (2013: 183) adds that familiarisation with the data involves reading and re-reading through all the data collected to get the sense of the entire data. During this initial phase it is important to repeat reading the data in order to generate ideas about what is in the data (Braun & Clarke 2006: 87). The main idea behind the first phase is to understand the depth and breadth of the data collected by taking notes and coming up with ideas for coding which is the next phase.

5.11.1.2 Generating initial codes

Once a researcher is familiar with all the data the next natural step is to produce initial codes from the data. According to David and Sutton (2011: 339) coding is the process of “applying codes to chunks of text so that those chunks can be interlinked to highlight similarities and differences within and between texts”. Codes are described by Walliman (2011: 217) as labels or tags which are used to give meaning to collected data. Liamputtong (2013: 243) adds that codes are names which are given to sections of the data. These codes are generated by identifying interesting aspects in the data which shows some repeated patterns across the data set (Braun & Clarke 2006: 89). There are mainly two ways of generating codes as described by different authors. Codes can emerge from the data or they can be based on concepts in the theoretical framework (Rule & John 2011; Babbie 2013; Creswell 2013). When codes are generated from the data this is referred to as open coding while codes based on identified theory are generated through the process of axial coding (Babbie 2013: 397). For the purpose of this study open coding was used which was also guided by a literature review (see proposed IMC criteria in chapter 3, section 3.11).

Braun and Clarke (2006: 89) explain that the coding process involves writing notes on the text being analysed or using highlighters or coloured pens to indicate potential patterns. Once a code is identified it should be matched with data extract that demonstrate that code. In this study data extracts from face-to-face semi-structured and focus group interviews which demonstrate a certain code were collected and collated.
together within each respective code. At the end of this phase all data was initially coded and a list of identified codes was matched with data extracts.

5.11.1.3 Searching for themes

This phase of the thematic analysis process involves sorting the identified codes into potential themes. Creswell (2013: 185) defines themes as “broad units of information that consist of several codes aggregated to form a common idea”. Codes are transformed into themes by way of identifying similar patterns among the various codes (Berg 2009: 341). The various codes should reflect some form of relationship amongst themselves for them to be grouped in a single theme (Braun & Clarke 2006: 89). Once the preliminary themes were identified for this study, the next phase was to review such themes.

5.11.1.4 Reviewing themes

According to Braun and Clarke (2006: 89) reviewing the themes is a process of refinement of the preliminary themes. Themes should be supported by enough data and the data within the themes should fit together in a meaningful way (Braun & Clarke 2006: 91). During the reviewing of themes all the collated data extracts for each theme are read to ensure that the data extracts do form a coherent pattern which gives meaning to each respective theme (Braun & Clarke 2006: 91).

5.11.1.5 Refining and naming themes

This phase is more or less an extension of the previous phase where themes are defined and further refined (Braun & Clarke 2006: 92). During this phase the researcher can go back to the collated data extracts for each theme and “organise themes into a coherent and internally consistent account, with accompanying narrative” (Braun & Clarke 2006: 92). The main idea in this phase is to identify the real meaning of each theme and also finding out aspects of the data which captures such meaning. It is during this phase that themes are assigned working titles. According to Braun and Clarke (2006: 93) titles of themes need to give any reader a sense of what the theme is
about (see chapter 6, sections 6.3.1 to 6.3.2 for the different themes of the interviews and focus group which emerged for this study).

5.11.1.6 Producing the report

This last phase of thematic analysis involves doing the final analysis and writing the report (Braun & Clarke 2006: 93). The final analysis “provides a concise, coherent, logical, non-repetitive and interesting account of the story of the story the data tell” (Braun & Clarke 2006: 93). The report should be supported by enough data extracts and should also go beyond describing the data but making an argument in relation to the study’s research questions and literature.

5.11.2 Qualitative content analysis

It is important to mention that for this study a qualitative content analysis had a dual role of collecting data from documents and analysis of the data from the documents. As mentioned in section 5.8.1 qualitative content analysis used in this study adopted a directed approach. According to Hsieh and Shannon (2005: 1278) four steps should be followed when using a directed approach to content analysis of data as explained in the subsections below.

5.11.2.1 Identification of key concepts or variables

The first step is identifying key concepts or variables as initial coding categories (Hsieh & Shannon 2005: 1281). In chapter 3 (section 3.11) the proposed IMC criteria for social marketing were used as initial coding categories. The eight variables identified in the proposed criteria were considered as the key variables for the qualitative content analysis.

5.11.2.2 Developing operational definitions

After identifying key concepts or variables the second step is developing operational definitions of all predetermined categories (Hsieh & Shannon 2005: 1281). This was accomplished in chapter 3, when the proposed IMC criteria for social marketing was explained in detail and tabulated (see chapter 3, section 3.11). Explanations of the
eights key variables were used to formulate operational definitions which helped show boundaries of each identified key variable clearly.

5.11.2.3 Review of documents

The third step is to review all transcripts, which in this case were all the documents (Hsieh & Shannon 2005: 1281). Before reviewing the documents it is important to decide on what documents to analyse, in what detail and the sampling considerations (Elo & Kyngas 2008: 109). These decisions were explained in section 5.8.1 when qualitative content analysis was explained as data collection method. Also when performing qualitative content analysis it is also important to decide whether the analysis focuses on manifest or latent content (Graneheim & Lundman 2004: 106; Elo & Kyngas 2008: 109). Manifest content focuses on the content aspects and describes the visible, obvious components of the text (Elo & Kyngas 2008: 109). While latent content deals with the underlying meaning which might be hidden within the text (Graneheim & Lundman 2004: 106). In this study analysis concentrated on the latent content of the data as the aim of the analysis was to go beyond visible and obvious aspects of the data. The aim was to describe the underlying meaning of text found in the documents. These underlying meanings give a deeper and much higher level of understanding of IMC evaluation which is the phenomenon under study.

Reviewing documents involve careful reading of all documents. In this case all the documents were read in their entirety and re-read to understand the sense of the data (Elo & Kyngas 2008: 109). The direction of reviewing documents was guided by a focus on the latent content of the data.

5.11.2.4 Coding text into categories

The fourth step involves identifying and categorising all instances within the data which appear to represent instances of a predetermined category (Hsieh & Shannon 2005: 1282). Identified text within the data which represent instances of a predetermined category is then highlighted. Once highlighted, the text was coded into specific predetermined categories. According to Hsieh and Shannon (2005: 1281) it is possible
that some text may not fit into predetermined categories and in such a case the text is given a new label.

5.11.2.5 Determine need for subcategories

Once all highlighted text is coded into categories, the last step of data analysis is to examine the data for each category to determine if subcategories are needed for each category.

5.12 SUMMARY

In this chapter the methodological design used was clearly illustrated. It was highlighted that the study is informed by an interpretivist paradigm which make a qualitative research design more appropriate to this study. A single case study approach was explained and its appropriateness for this study was motivated. Furthermore the research problem statement, research questions and assumptions were outlined. Data collection methods were discussed in detail as well as the target and accessible population, units of analysis and sample methods. Validity and reliability as measures of quality in research were explained and at the end of the chapter the data analysis process used in this study was outlined. In the next chapter, chapter 6, the data analysis and research findings of the study are explained in detail.
CHAPTER 6
DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

6 DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The main aim of this chapter is to first explain the data analysis procedure followed and then to outline all the findings of four face-to-face semi-structured interviews, one focus group and a qualitative content analysis. These findings are then contextualised within the proposed theoretical IMC criteria for social marketing campaigns of a non-profit organisation to support behavioural change messages. The chapter is structured as follows. Firstly the data analysis procedures followed during the analysis process are explained in detail. Secondly a discussion of face-to-face semi-structured interviews, focus group and qualitative content analysis findings is provided. Thirdly, the overall findings of the study are discussed with regards to use of IMC in social marketing in the context of a non-profit organisation. Lastly based on the study findings final IMC criteria for social marking in support of behavioural messages are proposed.

6.2 DATA ANALYSIS

In this section the actual data analysis process as followed by the researcher is outlined. In chapter 5 theoretical guidelines to data analysis was discussed and this section explicates the step by step process of analysing data from the face-to-face semi-structured interviews, focus group and qualitative content analysis.

6.2.1 Face-to-face semi-structured interviews and one focus group

In chapter 5, (see section 5.11.1) a thematic analysis was explained as the qualitative data analysis method adopted for analysing data for the face-to-face semi-structured interviews and the one focus group. This section explains the actual data analysis process followed for both the four face-to-face semi-structured interviews and one focus
group. The initial stages of thematic analysis involved transcribing of four face-to-face semi-structured interviews and one focus group. Once interviews were transcribed, the researcher read through all the face-to-face semi-structured interviews and focus group transcripts. Similar to Braun and Clarke (2006), before any coding was done all the transcripts were read twice. Reading though the transcripts was a way of familiarising the researcher with the data and also to acquire the depth and breadth of the data. It was during the initial reading process that the researcher obtained ideas on how the coding process could be undertaken.

The coding process was initiated during the third reading of the transcripts. The researcher used open coding as explained in section 5.11.1 in chapter 5. Using open coding, initial codes emerged from the data within the transcripts after identifying some potential or repeated patterns within the data. Data extracts which reflected a certain code were identified either by highlighting them with a marker or writing notes next to them. Once initial codes emerged from the data, they were grouped into potential themes. This process involved aggregating codes which reflected either some form of relationship amongst them or indicating a common idea. At this point the themes were only identified as preliminary themes. The next step of data analysis was thus to review the preliminary themes. During this stage all the preliminary themes were subjected to a review which involved assessing whether the themes were supported by enough data. Also the researcher read all the data extracts which supported the preliminary themes to establish if the data extracts not only provided meaning to their respective themes but also fit together. Once the researcher was satisfied with the themes, they were assigned appropriate working titles. These titles reflected the meaning of each theme (see Braun & Clarke 2006).

6.2.2 Qualitative content analysis

The process of qualitative content analysis used a directed approach as explained in section 5.11.2 in chapter 5. The initial stage of analysis involved is reading the proposed IMC criteria for social marketing (see section 3.11 in chapter 3) from which eight variables were used as the pre-determined categories. Operational definitions for the
pre-determined categories were thus formulated guided by the proposed IMC criteria for social marketing. Operational definitions used for the pre-determined categories are outlined under each respective category in section 6.3.3 of this chapter. After getting sense of each pre-determined category and their operational definitions, the documents were read in their entirety.

In the first reading no coding was done, the first reading was to obtain a sense of the whole text in the documents. In the second reading texts within documents which potentially represented pre-determined categories were highlighted using a highlighter. Highlighting of text extracts which matched the pre-determined categories was guided by the idea that analysis focused on latent content. In this regard text which had underlying meaning which might be hidden but represented any of the pre-determined categories was highlighted. All the highlighted text was read again and interesting and repeating patterns across the highlighted text were identified from which codes were generated. Labels of the various codes were guided by operational definitions of the pre-determined categories. Codes with similar meanings were then grouped into their respective pre-determined category. In some instances codes were grouped into sub-categories and these sub-categories were then grouped into their respective main categories (see Hsieh & Shannon 2005).

Reliability was established through inter-coder reliability (see chapter 5, section 5.9.2.4). Data was individually coded by the researcher and another coder. The second coder is well vested in the field of organisational communication and research and was very familiar with the study and its aims. Two similar documents were initially coded independently by the two coders. After coding of the data, the researcher met with the second coder and discussed the coding procedure and compared notes on the coding process. Coding discrepancies were identified by the two coders and a degree of agreement was established through extended discussions. A second set of two similar documents were coded by the same two coders and in the second meeting the level of coder agreement had improved in comparison to the first round of coding (see Joffe & Yardley 2004).
The findings of the study can now be elucidated as follows in the section below.

6.3 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

In the following sections the findings of the face-to-face semi-structured interviews, one focus group and the qualitative content analysis are explained in detail. Findings are discussed and presented in either themes for the face-to-face semi-structured interviews and one focus group and categories for the qualitative content analysis.

6.3.1 Face-to-face semi-structured interviews

Insights gained from four face-to-face semi-structured interviews with SANBS employees are outlined in the next sub sections. From a thematic analysis of these face-to-face semi-structured interviews six themes emerged. These themes are explained in detail below.

6.3.1.1 Theme 1: Cross functional planning is core to social marketing campaigns

This theme encompasses the idea that social marketing campaigns planning is cross functional in nature and the theme emerged from interview data which illustrate that mechanisms are present within SANBS which ensures that there is cross functional planning with regards to social marketing campaigns. There are platforms which facilitate such planning as participants state “it’s called a marketing forum, so the first covers first quarter and second quarter and then the second one covers the third quarter and the final”, another participant expressed “there’s this planning sessions, where everybody comes in and virtually decided what which direction are we going” and the third participant “there is always on going planning and every quarter , every three months we would meet with the operations division”. It is apparent from participants' responses that cross functional planning are a vital component of social marketing campaigns. There is a need to adopt a centralised communication planning and management in the context of IMC (see Morgan & Voola: 2000: 838). All relevant organisational functions in SANBS are involved in the planning and furthermore the functional activities are coordinated in such a way that there is coherence in achieving
the same objectives. This is supported by interview responses such as “it’s sort of like a chain reaction. Marketing does a campaign to get these guys [blood donors] in the door, we [operations function] have to treat them like a king when they come to donate”, “so the divisions, they map off their business plans in line with the core focus of making sure that we [marketing division] meet our mandate”. And more interesting is the nature of planning carried out. Interview data showed that during planning sessions emphasis is put on feedback and sharing of information from all organisational functions during planning. Participants asserted that “yes, you see something like obviously each area gets to give feedback and that’s the way forward”, “three days, yes. So that’s where the information is brought back, shared and distributed” and “we have feedback sessions but those sessions I would not also say I do not want to dictate in terms of how they do”. It is significant to note that data from interviews pointed to cross functional planning as a requirement to producing coordinated marketing communication activities by the various functions involved in social marketing campaigns. All organisational functions coordinate their activities within a central platform to share information. Furthermore data supports that there is interdependence of functional areas. These findings concur with literature which states that an important distinct feature of IMC is the inclusion of multiple stakeholders in communication planning (Mulhern 2009: 95). According to Kitchen et al (2008: 533) cross functional planning takes into consideration interests and desires of different stakeholders when planning communication efforts.

Table 6.1 below reflects codes which emerged from findings which constituted this theme.
Table 6.1: Theme 1: Cross functional planning core to social marketing campaigns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Different functions involved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasis on feedback from functions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functional activities coordinated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presence of planning platform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharing of information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presence of central structure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.3.1.2 Theme 2: Customer needs embedded in social marketing campaigns

This theme highlights that social marketing campaigns are customer-oriented and emerged from findings which show that SANBS campaigns emphasise the importance of catering for customer needs in every step of the social marketing campaign process. Interview participants concurred that planning and implementation of social marketing campaigns has to centre on the donor. The donor is the most important component of the whole process in that social marketing campaigns messages target the donor. A customer orientation to management of social change has achieved considerable progress in social marketing (see Peattie & Peattie 2003: 366). Data from interviews illustrate that the one message which SANBS social marketing campaigns consistently communicate is encouraging people to donate blood. In this regard one participant highlights that the main message “I think the central message in all our communication, is donating blood”, and another participant “Actually our main message now is our main pay off line ‘your blood saves lives’”. This main message targets three segments of blood donors, namely active donors, lapsed donors and potential blood donors. Data showed that it is this main message that social marketing campaigns try to convey to
donors using a customer-oriented approach. There are a number of mechanisms used by SANBS to ensure that social marketing campaign activities are customer focused.

Firstly, SANBS continuously carry donor research to understand the needs of donors and find ways of rightly targeting them with the correct marketing messages. Participants supported this by stating “we are also doing market research just to find out what is happening in the communities, we look at our donor profile”, “so what we decided to do is actually do our own study to find out the drivers like who are the youths of South Africa, you know” and “we also do research and you know to diversify ourselves”. According to Stead et al (2006:129) interventions of social marketing are based on an understanding of customer experiences, values and needs and for this reason customer research becomes important. Secondly, participants highlighted that results from donor research is valuable information which is stored in donor databases and used to plan social marketing campaigns. Donor databases are a vital tool in satisfying needs of donors in that information they contain can be of use to a lot of marketing activities. As one participant put it “that information is going to be broken up into a lot of different things using just keywords”, another participant supported “so every time there’s results of research, something changes no matter how small, but there are incremental changes”. It is evident from interview data that a customer-oriented approach uses research results and donor information as one of its anchors. Customer-centred approach in social marketing campaigns has its roots in continuous research on the needs of donors. Interview data further showed that the SANBS has customer feedback systems which also feed into the donor database. As one participant states “we have got a system that we have put in place, we have used it now for the past five years. It’s called customer feedback system”. Feedback from donors complements research results in that donor feedback enhances the profile SANBS has about its donors. The value of customer feedback is demonstrated by the some of the participants’ responses “he [blood donor] gets given this machine to fill his overall feel of this donation experience”, “if you go to our donor centre and give positive feedback that will automatically relay onto our Facebook page”. According to McGrath (2005: 194) it is
important that there is on-going dialogue between customers and social marketers for social marketing to be successful.

The unique nature of SANBS social marketing campaigns lies in the fact that being customer-oriented is motivated by a very important and vital need to have continuous stocks of blood. In that sense donor retention is strongly emphasised. For people to donate once affects SANBS' national blood stocks in that blood has a limited shelf time. To counter such an adverse situation SANBS highlights donor retention and donor satisfaction. As correctly put by participants “you must treat him [blood donor] like a king. When he walks in there you jump, it doesn’t matter what you are doing, it can wait”, “we look at our donors, are they satisfied, what do they expect from us, what are they getting from us, what else can we do” and “that’s the kind of touch that we trying to give that personal touch”. Such is the value of retaining donors that donors needs have to be an integral part of social marketing campaigns. Interview data demonstrates that the donor is the centre of all a social marketing campaign has to deliver. SANBS has in place a number of mechanisms which all point to the fact that customer needs are rooted in social marketing campaigns. Satisfying these needs is part of delivering social marketing campaign which has an IMC approach. These findings are in line with the argument that social marketing is customer-centric in that all activities are focused on discovering attitudes, needs and motivations of customer and design communication strategies accordingly (see Wang et al 2009: 222).

Table 6.2 below reflects codes which emerged from findings which constituted this theme.
Table 6.2: Theme 2: Customer needs embedded in social marketing campaigns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Presence of database</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Donor data used in planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasis on donor satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback systems available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer retention emphasised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuous donor research</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.3.1.3 Theme 3: Management drives IMC approach in social marketing campaigns

This theme includes a discussion of the nature of management support for social marketing campaigns and emerged from findings which illustrate that management is important in supporting an IMC approach in social marketing campaigns. Opinions expressed by participants showed that without management support not much can be achieved by social marketing campaigns. Data from interviews illustrate that management thus has a crucial role in formulating strategy that drives an IMC approach and has to support all the operational activities anchored around social marketing campaigns. Management support was shown to be in various forms. Participants articulated that one form of management support is how strategy is formulated and communicated to functions involved in social marketing campaigns. Participants stated “from a management level, we make sure that everyone in the organisation knows, understands our strategy”, “we follow a proper business model, put a strategy in place have goals you know, have a plan for the next five years” and “whilst actually having a coherent strategy, so that the left hand can know what the right hand is doing, you know”. Such sentiments illustrate that support should always come from the top and all functional activities should be guided by strategy. Another form of management support
demonstrated by data for the interviews is how internal feedback channels are utilised. Participants expressed that within SANBS there are internal feedback channels which are a very important platform from which management are informed on operational activities which include social marketing campaigns. Sentiments such as “we recognise their [functional areas] input into strategy but then how we monitor it is, through these monthly meeting we have” and “we have feedback sessions but those sessions I would not want to dictate” demonstrate how management value feedback from internal functions. Of interest from the interview data is that there is no explicit strategy which is specific to IMC and its implementation. There are, however, broader strategies which guide the operationalisation of social marketing campaign activities. Presence of strategy demonstrates how management view social marketing campaigns as a vital tool for its core business. The above findings reflect that IMC is essentially a management approach which drives all communication efforts towards optimising the communication impart of various disciplines within the organisation (see Kitchen et al 2008: 532).

Table 6.3 below reflects codes which emerged from findings which constituted this theme.

**Table 6.3: Theme 3: Management drives IMC approach in social marketing campaigns**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme 3</th>
<th>Codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Management drives IMC approach in social marketing campaigns</strong></td>
<td>Organisational strategy present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strategy communicated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Operational activities supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Importance of campaigns acknowledged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Internal feedback channels available</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.3.1.4 Theme 4: Organisational structures affect IMC implementation

This theme provides a discussion on how organisational structures have a bearing on how IMC is implemented and emerged from findings which highlight that within SANBS there are some structures which negatively affect how IMC is implemented within the organisation. The SANBS is divided into seven geographical zones which are spread across eight of the country's nine provinces. The head office coordinates the functioning of all the zones, however, each zone has a Zone Manager. All interview participants acknowledged the presence of a marketing and communication head office from which ideally every marketing communication activity in different zones should be planned and reported to. Participants expressed the following sentiments “so we have the executive, we have two senior managers, that is the communications manager which is myself and we got the marketing manager” and “The planning comes from this office [head office] because like as I mentioned, we, have regional marketing managers”. It is clear from interview data that there is a central structure within the SANBS which directs the marketing activities which include social marketing campaigns. It is from this central structure that all marketing and communication activities should be formulated and monitored.

Nevertheless, participants were of the opinion that the organisational structure does not fully support planning and monitoring of IMC from a central point. As much as the marketing and communication head officeformulates and control marketing activities, regional marketing managers working in regional zones do not report directly to the marketing communication head office as they report to their Zone Managers. One participant expressed “another issue is they [regional marketing managers] do not report to this office [head office]. They report to their zone managers who are sitting there. The zone managers are not necessarily marketing people”. Another participant supported saying “they [regional marketing managers] have their own budget, they contextualise an idea, their zone manager will agree”. In the words of one participant “it would have been easier had they [regional marketing managers] reported directly to this office [head office], but it’s also the dynamics”. Opinions expressed by the participants demonstrate that reporting lines with regard to marketing and communication activities
are fragmented and as such monitoring of IMC implementation might be difficult. Consistency in planning and implementing an IMC approach in this regard is not easily achieved. Such an unfavourable organisational structure was attributed to inherent challenges caused by the merger of eight different blood donor services in 2001 (see chapter 4, section 4.4.1). As one participant puts it “there were all these little blood transfusion services that offered a service and made it well and carried on and then it merged”. Another one expressed “if you come with a new campaign, they [regional zones] always have their own way of saying, no this will not work in that area, why are you doing this?”. Data from interviews supports the assertion that SANBS organisational structure particularly with regards to monitoring of IMC implementation is not fully conducive. That as it may, participants also are of the opinion that the marketing communication head office cannot be in a position to monitor all activities in the regional zones. This is captured by three participants’ responses “They [regional marketing managers] work in the community more closer at hand than we do so they know what can work for a certain community”, “you see them [regional marketing managers] once in a while so it is easier for someone who is sitting there with them to deal with the issues that are there” and “So whatever we do a national plan and they do a provincial plan. That’s how it’s broken down”. It is apparent from the data that regional managers who may not necessarily have marketing expertise oversee some of the social marketing campaign activities. Data which emerged from this theme demonstrated that the SANBS has a central structure which is supposed to coordinate and monitor implementation of IMC across the board. However, that is not always the case and such a scenario makes the organisational structure of SANBS less conducive to fully support an IMC approach for social marketing campaigns. The findings above reflect that business culture and decision making procedures remain some of the barriers to IMC implementation (Kim, Han & Schultz 2004: 36). Some organisational structures still negatively affect the adoption of IMC.

Table 6.4 below reflects codes which emerged from findings which constituted this theme.
Table 6.4: Theme 4: Organisational structure affects IMC implementation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fragmented reporting lines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi-autonomous zones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problems inherent from merger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contextual differences in zones</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.3.1.5 Theme 5: Challenge to measuring return on investment (ROI) on IMC

This theme includes a discussion of some of the challenges to measuring or evaluating IMC in a social marketing context and emerged from interview findings which showed the difficulty of measuring results of an IMC approach in social marketing campaigns. Interview participants acknowledged the importance of measuring return on investment (ROI) with regards to social marketing campaigns. As one participant puts it “we need to make sure that everything that we do is, is as efficient, so that it get more mileage with the limited spend”. Rensburg and Cant (2009: 112) explains ROI as a measure to determine the value or benefits of an activity against its associated costs. Measuring ROI as data demonstrated is a challenge for SANBS as current measurements are either elementary or not applied consistently. As expressed by two participants “currently its [ROI] all been measured manually” and “they look at my stats on a monthly basis to say yes we ran a campaign on television let’s see your numbers then compare to last when we never ran a campaign”. Nevertheless, data demonstrated that SANBS strive to find measurement tools that work for social marketing campaigns. There is continuous effort to ensure that whatever is invested in social marketing campaigns indicates some returns. These returns are measured against the objectives of each campaign to ensure efficiency. Many participants are of the opinion that emphasis of measuring ROI is present within SANBS. They expressed that “we actually try to make
it as robust as possible, we measure what we do, you know”, “so now obviously we are driving towards a system to measure it [ROI]” and “we measure what we do, so we look at, we look at advertising, we look at PR, we look at below the lines activations”. It is valuable to note that data from interviews which indicates challenges in measuring ROI also reflects the importance of measuring ROI on social marketing campaigns. It is apparent from the data that whatever activity goes into social marketing campaigns needs to be accounted for and this is done through measuring ROI. Interview data illustrated that investment made in social marketing campaigns need to be measured, though challenges remain in terms of finding applicable measurement tools. These findings are in line with the argument that not many organisations are in a position to measure or evaluate IMC campaigns (see Kitchen et al 2008: 541). Kitchen et al (2008: 541) further explain that what makes measurement more problematic is the absence of a globally standardised measurement discipline that could facilitate IMC evaluation and this was also reflected in the study’s findings.

Table 6.5 below reflects codes which emerged from findings which constituted this theme.

**Table 6.5: Theme 5: Challenge to measuring return on investment (ROI) on IMC**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme 5</th>
<th>Challenge to measuring return on investment (ROI) on IMC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Codes</td>
<td>Absence of standard measurement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Need for measurement acknowledged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Measurement tools not consistent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Elementary measurements</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.3.1.6 Theme 6: Constraints in applying an IMC approach to social marketing campaigns

This theme provides a discussion on some of the constraints faced by SANBS in applying IMC to its social marketing campaigns and emerged from findings which indicated that the constraints are particularly unique to the nature of SANBS as a non-profit organisation. Interview data illustrated that using various marketing communication mix elements in a coordinated manner to convey a consistent marketing message tend to stretch limited budgets of social marketing campaigns. SANBS as a non-profit organisation has limited financial resources and as a result is constrained in using many of the available marketing communication mix elements. Participants pointed out “We actually advertise when there is a need”, “the way our marketing is structured here is because we are not for profit organisation, we do not have big budgets”, “you can’t do this because you must know the biggest thing we sit with you can’t do this, were are an NGO that’s the biggest factor”. Gurau (2008: 172) concurs with these findings and explains that lack of an appropriate budget is one of the significant organisational barriers to IMC implementation. Given this position of limited financial resources social marketing campaigns cannot fully take advantage of the many marketing communication mix elements as they would want to. As such their ability to fully embrace the IMC approach in social marketing campaigns is affected. As one participant puts it “right in terms of creating that synergy, I would say, yeah it is a financial resource [challenge]”. It is apparent from such sentiments that one of the hurdles to fully IMC compliant social marketing campaigns are limited financial resources.

In addition to limited resources, data indicated that the concept of brand consistency poses a challenge to the success of an IMC approach. It is worth noting that participants all agreed on the importance of branding and how it affects every aspect of social marketing campaigns. Participants noted “we are actually looking into studies having studies that actually looking our brand contact point, you know”, “there should not be much of a difference in terms of the branding, the way the message is put out”. According to Wood (2008: 82) social marketers should start considering how branding
may help their social marketing efforts. That as it may the challenge of brand consistency is evident in data which points to the fact that not all SANBS employees understand either the concept of branding or what the SANBS as a brand stands for. As brand contacts employees are expected to comprehend every aspect which makes SANBS as a brand. This concept extends to how the brand is portrayed in social marketing campaign messages. Sentiments such as “their idea is brand is just a logo” and “they do not have a clue, they would take a poster from last year’s campaign and put it up because it is a poster” demonstrate that branding is a concept which is still filtering in some areas of the organisation. It is a concept strongly linked to IMC approach and some of the employees are still to grasp its importance. This finding is in line with the assertion that branding in social marketing is problematic due to ethic concerns of being manipulative and exploitative (Tian & Borges 2012: 104). Nonetheless participants expressed mechanisms which are in place to ensure that everyone in the organisation understands and consistently projects the same brand image. Data from interviews demonstrate that mechanisms put in place seek to train and educate employees across the regional zones on how SANBS branding activities should be carried out. To illustrate participants stated “I created a whole new brand that is value now and did a whole new CI [corporate identity] manual”, “the Brand Officer will be rolling out training with all these people” and “that is why we actually have marketing campaigns that actually speak about the brand”. All the initiatives by SANBS point to the assertion that a brand is central to an IMC approach as there needs to be consistency in that regard. Social marketing campaigns convey brand messages and it is the effort generated by SANBS to create brand consistency which shows without brand consistency an IMC approach may be negatively affected.

Furthermore, another constraint in applying IMC to social marketing campaigns is in form of difficulty in satisfying donors who do not, in the commercial sense, have anything to gain in donating blood. Data from interviews demonstrate that customer satisfaction, which is key to an IMC approach, is not easily achievable in social marketing campaigns. Participants pointed out “that’s the biggest challenge, is time. The donor is not available from this time to this time they are available from this time to that
time”, “like some people ask questions, why don’t you pay us to donate” and “some people get upset, oh you talk about donation but you are not in our area but not considering why we may not physically come”. Such are the realities of social marketing campaigns that they have to stretch a little bit more in satisfying donors as data pointed out. According to Fourie and Froneman (2009: 252) social marketing campaigns are not necessarily aimed at customer satisfaction but rather improving social welfare. This assertion is supported by data which indicates that customer satisfaction is a problematic concept within social marketing. Linked to the idea of difficulty in satisfying customers is how social marketing campaign messages compete with commercial marketing messages for the same audience. Participants were of the opinion that social marketing messages compete with commercial messages which always have something attractive to offer. In this regard the advantage of message consistency of social marketing campaigns sometimes is lost in the message clutter. As one participant puts it “it is very hard we competing with for example SAB is [SABMiller] about fun, its December, everybody want fun” and another concurred “so in terms of resources in that case it becomes significantly harder for us to break through the clutter, you know”. Such realities are faced by SANBS as it tries to convey behavioural change messages in a market which is already littered with commercial marketing messages which promises to offer not only tangible but attractive products and services. The nature of exchange in social marketing is problematic since benefits customer receives are often ambiguous than in commercial marketing (Hastings & Saren 2011: 309). As data showed such constraints either reduce benefits to adopting an IMC approach in the context of social marketing or make social marketing campaigns stretch more of their marketing efforts to reach targeted audience. These findings are in line with literature which illustrate that there are still presently barriers to the adoption and implementation of IMC (Barker 2013: 188). Findings indicate that these barriers also extend to social marketing contexts to support behavioural change messages.

Table 6.6 below reflects codes which emerged from findings which constituted this theme
Table 6.6: Theme 6: Constraints in applying an IMC approach to social marketing campaigns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Limited marketing budget</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competition from commercial marketing messages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge to donor satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees unaware of branding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty in filtering brand awareness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The next section deals with reporting the findings of the one focus group.

6.3.2 Focus group

Four major themes emerged from a thematic analysis of data from one focus group with six participants. The following sub sections explain the findings from this focus group in accordance with these themes.

6.3.2.1 Theme1: Nature of social marketing campaigns planning

This theme includes a discussion on the nature of planning with regards to social marketing and emerged from findings which point to various dynamics to the planning process which may be considered not conducive to IMC approach. Data from the focus group highlighted the nature of planning between the marketing head office and the various regional zones of SANBS with regards to social marketing campaigns. Participants were of the opinion that the marketing head office does include their inputs when planning social marketing campaigns. Sentiments regarding the nature of planning between regional zones and the marketing head office included “zones do have an input there when it is a specific activation”, “we do [plan with head office] to a
certain extent, a very small amount and only sometimes”, “I think the two-way communication that we currently have is brilliant” and “if the zones say listen, we have done it before it doesn’t work, we’ll [head office] look at a different strategy”. From what participants expressed it is apparent that the marketing head office at SANBS does consult the various regional zones with regards to planning of social marketing campaigns. The established channels of communication do provide a platform for inputs from zones.

Nevertheless data from the focus group illustrated that the marketing head office does most of the planning with not much input from the different regional zones. Data illustrated that at SANBS social marketing campaigns which are at national level are planned with limited participation of zones. The focus group participants highlighted that much of the planning regarding social marketing campaigns is done at national level. Participants expressed “it starts at the corporate office, the national office and it cascades to us [zones]”, “so they come up with a concept and that happens at the corporate office so we, operationally, do not have input in any of that” and “certain things like a national campaign, we generally don’t [plan], that happens at the national office”. The nature of planning between the head office of SANBS and the various regional zones in the country does not accommodate many of the inputs of regional zones. Plans regarding social marketing campaigns at a national level tend to be cascaded to the regional zones and mostly the regional zones have to implement the plans. Data illustrated that regional zones tend to have an operational function more than a planning function. The marketing head office assumes the planning function and expects the different regional zones to operate within the planning of the head office. As much as the marketing head office provides channels for inputs, these channels tend to be more on feedback on how the different regional zones have implemented the plans from the head office. These findings highlight that the nature of social marketing planning is one characterised by centralised co-ordination (see Barker 2013: 188). This is also argued for by du Plessis (2010: 12) who maintains that organisations need to maintain a central structure which controls planning and implementing of IMC activities.
Nevertheless it might not always be the case in some organisations which still face challenges is centralising IMC planning.

Table 6.7 below reflects codes which emerged from findings which constituted this theme

**Table 6.7: Theme 1: Nature of social marketing campaigns planning**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Limited input from zones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most planning from head office</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback channels present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two-way communication present</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.3.2.2 Theme 2: Importance of donor retention

This theme highlights the vital role of donor retention and emerged from findings which point to various mechanisms used by SANBS to ensure their donor retention strategies are effective. The focus group participants concurred that consumer retention is an integral part of social marketing campaigns. Donating blood is an initial step of the process which social marketing campaigns aim for donors to go through with repeated donations being the ultimate aim. Participants stated “we need our existing donors to come back more often” and “now if we can move that up to three donations a year, we will never have blood shortage again”. Data from the focus group demonstrated donor retention is supported by other three important components of IMC namely, message consistency, strong emphasis of customer service (customer-oriented) and brand consistency. These three components feature prominently in social marketing campaigns. First, all behavioural change messages are coordinated to achieve message consistency. Focus group participants were of the opinion that social marketing campaigns’ hinge on the idea that regular blood donation saves lives. This
idea is carried through in many of the social marketing campaign messages. As participants expressed “the company slogan is ‘Your blood saves live’ and at the end of the day that’s what we want”, “we also bring across the message that of one blood donation, you can save up to three people’s lives” and “if they donate four times a year, they will get something”. Such sentiments showed that every social marketing message is rooted in the idea of regular donation and this idea is consistently communicated to donors. As such having consistent behavioural change messages reinforce donor retention in that donors can receive the main idea carried through the different social marketing campaign messages. It is apparent that message consistency supports donor retention in social marketing campaigns. In addition to message consistency, strong emphasis on customer service also strengthens the push for donor retention. Participants expressed that social marketing campaign activities highly regard customer service as it drives donor retention. Sentiments like “we’ve actually got to keep that resource [donors] very happy because that’s the only resource there is”, “customer service plays an integral role there as our one-on-one recruitment” and “at the end of the day the crucial thing behind all this is customer service” demonstrated how important customer service is in retaining donors. Efforts to enhance donor experiences foster the ability of social marketing campaigns to achieve the goal of encouraging continuous blood donations. According to Dooley et al (2009: 36) customer services are also used to understand targets customers with regards to their preferences and reactions to social marketing activities and behavioural change messages.

The third component which supports donor retention in social marketing campaigns as highlighted by focus group data is brand consistency. Participants highlighted that brand consistency is very important to achieving donor retention. Focus group data showed that brand consistency is of value if donors are to be convinced to continue donating blood. The emphasis on brand consistency is illustrated by sentiments such as “SANBS as a whole, every employee is a brand ambassador”, “we talk the brand, we live the brand, are the brand, that is how we achieve it”, “at the end of the day people need to identify with the brand when they come into contact with it” and “we need to keep up to date so that our donors experience the brand when they actually go and donate”. Focus
group data illustrated that a push for donor retention in social marketing campaigns has been creatively complemented by the above three mentioned components of an IMC approach. These three components give weight to the concept of donor retention and also consistently feed into donor retention. These findings are in line with the argument by Renner et al (2013: 238) that donor retention remains important to non-profit originations involved in blood donation services. Constant supply of safe blood is core to survival of blood donations services (Tscheulin & Lindenmeier 2005: 165).

Table 6.8 below reflects codes which emerged from findings which constituted this theme.

**Table 6.8: Theme 2: Importance of donor retention**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Messages consistent in communicating retention</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Priority on customer service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Brand consistency support retention</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 6.3.2.3 Theme 3: Unique nature of social marketing campaigns

This theme includes a discussion of the nature of social marketing and emerged from findings which illustrate that social marketing possesses unique features which need to be considered during the planning process of social marketing campaigns. Findings which emerged from the focus group pointed that an IMC approach in social marketing campaigns may be influenced by other factors which are unique to the core business of SANBS. Participants agreed that for an IMC approach to achieve its goals in the context of social marketing other aspects have to be considered and factored in the process of planning social marketing campaigns. Data from the focus group indicated that as much as communicating consistent messages and coordinating the various marketing communication mix elements is crucial, education should be an extension of an IMC
approach for it to succeed. Participants expressed that consistency and tactical coordination has to be extended or linked to education of donors. Sentiments of participants regarding this include “you can do as much marketing as you like but at the end of the day you’ve got a lot of people that don’t realise what blood donation is”, “education is a huge part of what we try and drive and that will continue to drive”, “our donor education is so phenomenally important to attract our regular donor” and “you can’t do that [education] in a thirty second marketing campaign”. Such data illustrate that an IMC approach in the context of social marketing campaign requires supporting mechanisms such as educating of donors to achieve its goals. An IMC approach as a stand-alone might not fulfil the goals of social marketing campaigns and this as data showed is due to the nature of blood donation. Wymer (2010: 99) supports this in stating that social marketing may not be effective in behaviour change in some instances which may require policy changes from the external environment. Donors in some cases might need education before they can comprehend social marketing messages. Without such comprehension from donors focus group participants were of the view that benefits and goals of using an IMC approach in social marketing may be minimal. Individuals live in complex environments of multiple internal and external influences on their behaviour as such it is important to include these factors in social marketing campaigns (see Wymer 2010: 99).

Furthermore, participants expressed opinions which showed that tactical coordination of various marketing communication mix elements has to be sensitive to the idea that blood donation not only competes with commercial marketing messages which are backed by major financial investments but also compete with donors’ time. Data from the focus group highlighted that planning of social marketing campaigns have to be take cognisance to the fact that timing of behavioural change messages and competition is crucial. As participants put it “as we don’t have competitors per se, a different blood service, we do have competitors we do compete for attention” and “you are bombarded every single day with different things asking you to spent time, then that is our main competition” and “we cannot possibly compete with a Coca-Cola or an MTN or a Vodacom where you see their TV ads every five second”. Such is the unique nature in
which social marketing campaigns are planned that not only marketing related decisions need to be considered but other aspects which have a bearing on how an IMC approach is implemented in social marketing campaigns. Of importance to note, as highlighted by data is the unique nature of blood transfusion which requires expertise from people planning social marketing campaigns which may extend beyond marketing communication. Such expertise has a bearing on the success of an IMC approach for social marketing campaigns. The above findings illustrate that social marketing campaigns have unique features which might not be present in commercial marketing campaigns (Tian & Borges 2012: 105). These unique features become more important when planning for social marketing campaigns.

Table 6.9 below reflects codes which emerged from findings which constituted this theme.

**Table 6.9: Theme 3: Unique nature of social marketing campaigns**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sensitive to non-marketing factors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competition with commercial marketing messages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expertise beyond marketing communication</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**6.3.2.4 Theme 4: IMC approach affected by limited budget**

This theme focuses on how a limited budget negatively affects implementation of IMC and emerged from findings which showed that the non-profit nature of SANBS has an effect on its budget to carry out IMC related activities. Focus group participants were of the opinion that social marketing campaigns do make use of various marketing communication mix elements. One participant expressed “we make the public aware of events through the use of above the line and through the line media in support of our below the line campaigns”, the other participant agreed “so it’s important for us to be
able to stand out and that is why our below the line advertising is important as well". This finding is in line with the argument that social marketing uses a range of tailor-made marketing communication mix elements to target their audiences (Villarreal 2010: 4). Though an array of marketing communication mix elements are used participants expressed that financial constraints do limit the extent to which such marketing communication mix elements can be utilised to create synergy in social marketing campaigns.

Data from the focus group indicated that social marketing campaigns are limited in terms of the number of marketing communication mix elements that can be used to convey their behavioural change messages. Participants expressed “when it comes down to advertising and marketing, cost is a major issue”, “we have budget restrains though. I think that could be a challenge for us operationally”, “you know advertising is not cheap” and “R20 000 for a thirty second advert on a radio station you know, a very small budget doesn’t go very, very far”. It is in this regard that social marketing campaigns have to be planned using resources as sparingly as possible. This situation as data indicated gives social marketing campaigns limited choices in terms of which marketing communication mix elements to include. Data furthermore indicated that implementing an IMC approach requires financial resources so that every marketing communication mix element applicable can be utilised. Nevertheless, of interest is data which demonstrated that limited resources has resulted in more creative ways of planning and implementing social marketing campaigns. Due to limited financial resources SANBS has resorted to ingenious methods of maximising available limited marketing budget. As one participant illustrated “we need to be exceptionally frugal in how we spend that money and also strategic”, another stated “they give us added value, sometimes public service announcements”, the other participant puts it as “[we] say listen we will buy ‘X’ amount of adverts and then they say-okay, fine we’ll double that adverting for you”, and all these sentiments are summarised by the other participant who expressed “we’ve got to be very, very strategic and careful about where we spend our money”. SANBS social marketing campaigns maximise on publicity opportunities, solicit for free advertising space especially in community radios, most advertising is
done when experiencing blood shortages than any other period, build good relationships with media houses and target their marketing messages to geographical areas where they have a better chance of collecting a lot of blood. Such creative ideas are an indication that SANBS as much as it has financial constraints with regards to social marketing campaigns, it has found creative ways of maximising available marketing communication mix elements. These findings indicate that adoption of IMC has been negatively affected by increasing marketing communication costs which has put constraints on limited marketing available budgets more specially among non-profit organisations (see Olatunji 2011: 27).

Table 6.10 below reflects codes which emerged from findings which constituted this theme.

**Table 6.10: Theme 4: IMC approach affected by limited budget**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>IMC approach affected by limited budget</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expensive promotional marketing mix elements</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited financial resources</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creative spending required</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partnerships with media houses</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The next section deals with reporting the findings of qualitative content analysis.

### 6.3.3 Qualitative content analysis

In this section findings from the qualitative content analysis of three annual reports, six Blood Beat magazines, five transcripts of radio advertisements, five transcripts of television advertisements and seven newspaper advertisements, 176 updates (posts) for Facebook and 276 ‘tweets’ for Twitter (see Table 5.1) are explained using eight pre-
determined categories. A detailed discussion of the eight pre-determined categories is provided below.

**6.3.3.1 Category 1: Communicating consistent messages**

Category 1 encompasses findings on how behavioural change messages of SANBS social marketing campaigns are consistently communicated and emerged from an analysis of documents summarised in Table 5.1. The operational definition of this pre-determined category stated that communicating message consistency involve outlining the central idea behind all marketing messages and integrating the central idea into all marketing messages to create message consistency across all social marketing campaigns. Analysis of documents produced two sub-categories which are related to the aims of the main pre-determined category. The first sub-category, donating blood saves lives as central idea, emerged from data in the documents which illustrated that there is one central idea conveyed by SANBS messages. Data from documents analysed indicated that the main idea conveyed by SANBS messages is that of encouraging people to donate blood as a way of saving lives. This idea is strongly present and emphasised in majority of documents analysed. Data in transcripts of radio and television adverts, printed newspaper adverts, Facebook updates, and Twitter feeds reflect the idea that donating blood saves lives. All SANBS promotional materials were found to carry the main tag line “Your Blood Saves Lives”. In addition, though various campaigns had different slogans the central idea of donating blood as an act of saving lives was reflected in the different slogans. Examples of campaign slogans include “Don’t let life get in the way of life”, “You don’t just give blood, you save lives”, “Take a moment to give life” and “Safe blood for saving mothers”.

It is valuable to note that data from some documents analysed reflected the central idea behind social marketing messages on a manifest level. As an illustration, data found in transcripts of radio and television adverts, printed newspaper adverts, Facebook updates, and Twitter feeds clearly reveal that the idea of donating blood to save lives is the central theme. On the contrary some documents analysed like annual reports and donor magazines (Blood Beat) the central idea behind SANBS messages was found to
be more on a latent level. This is so because as much as donating blood to save lives is not explicitly expressed it is implied in the various social marketing messages contained in such documents.

The second sub-category focused on data which illustrated how the central idea is integrated into the various campaign messages to create message consistency in behavioural change messages found across all social marketing campaigns. Data from analysed documents revealed that the central idea which SANBS communicates is integrated into three main marketing messages.

The first main social marketing message conveyed in SANBS social marketing campaigns focuses on the benefits donors get by donating blood. This main message concentrates on the altruistic nature of giving blood and the altruistic benefits of donating blood. From the documents analysed, data shows that SANBS encourages its donors to donate using terms like “an act of charity and goodwill”, “selfless giving”, “making a difference”, “changing someone’s life” and “epitome of selfless Ubuntu” in their marketing messages. The second main message present in SANBS social marketing campaigns highlights the importance of continuous donations. This message mainly deals with donor retention to ensure sufficient stocks of blood. Data from Twitter feeds and Facebook updates showed that targeted donors on a nearly daily basis are informed about the daily stock levels of available blood. Furthermore data from SANBS donor magazines, transcripts of television, radio and printed newspaper advertisements revealed that strong emphasis is placed on messages which encourage future commitment to donating blood. In these messages donors are encouraged to donate after every 56 days or four times a year. The third message which supports the central idea of donating blood to save lives focuses on highlighting heroic acts of donors. Data from analysed documents illustrated that some social marketing messages centre on communicating that donors are important to other people’s lives. Many of the television, newspaper advertisements, marketing messages in SANBS donor magazines portray blood donors as “unsung heroes and angles”, “honour to save people’s lives” and “selfless”. At this point it is important to mention that all the three main social marketing messages of SANBS do integrate the central idea of donating blood to save lives. A
primary part of all the three messages is the central idea. This shows that message consistency is present in the majority of behavioural change messages conveyed by social marketing campaigns of SANBS.

It is apparent from this category that analysed documents show that there is a central idea which SANBS communicates in all its marketing communication activities and messages consistency is present across the different social marketing messages. Also in many of the behavioural change messages the central idea is integrated within these messages. The above findings support the argument that multiple messages must convey a single message consistently (Villarreal 2010: 2). Navarro et al (2009: 224) add consistency is the most obvious criteria to follow when developing IMC and this is clearly reflected in the above findings.

Table 6.11 below reflects codes and sub-categories of Category 1.

Table 6.11: Category 1: Communicating consistent messages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category 1</th>
<th>Communicating consistent messages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sub-categories</td>
<td>Donating blood saves lives as main idea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Codes</td>
<td>Tag line “Your Blood Saves Lives” contained in advertisements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Central idea reflected in different campaign slogans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Central idea is implied in other SANBS marketing messages</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.3.3.2 Category 2: Tactical coordination of marketing communication mix elements

Category 2 encompasses findings on how marketing communication mix elements utilised in social marketing campaigns are coordinated to produce consistent behavioural change messages and emerged from an analysis of documents summarised in Table 5.1. For this category the operational definition was that tactical coordination of marketing communication mix elements involve consideration of various marketing communication mix elements which have to project the same behavioural change messages and tactically coordinated and integrated.

From the data found in analysed documents it showed that there are six main marketing communication mix elements used in SANBS social marketing campaigns. These marketing communication mix elements are advertising, digital communication, publicity, personal selling, sales promotion and direct marketing (see chapter 3, section 3.6). According to Morgan and Voola (2000: 838) it is important to understand and analyse various marketing communication mix elements in order to choose the most appropriate to a social marketing campaign. With regards to advertising qualitative content analysis revealed that SANBS social marketing campaigns make use of media such as television, radio, magazine and newspaper. It is apparent from data analysed that television and radio advertising are the main promotional media used to convey marketing messages. Data from the documents such as annual reports reveal that social marketing campaigns rely more on radio and television advertisements to convey messages to current and potential blood donors than any other media. Digital communication is used in the SANBS social marketing campaigns in the form of social media tools like Facebook, Twitter and YouTube, a corporate website and mobile marketing. The SANBS Twitter account was followed by 6 288 followers by the time of data collection, with 3002 tweets have been sent out. On the other hand the SANBS Facebook page had 22 083 “likes”. SANBS has a fully functional corporate website and a YouTube account which had 13 uploaded videos. The SANBS makes use of mobile marketing whereby current blood donors are reminded to donate blood via SMS whilst
potential blood donors are encouraged to provide their mobile phone numbers through platforms such as social media.

Publicity takes mainly the form of television appearances of SANBS employees during interviews and television news stories when social marketing campaigns are being launched. Furthermore data from qualitative content analysis showed that personal selling is one of the marketing communication mix elements used by the SANBS social marketing campaigns. Data from analysed documents revealed that the SANBS has a number of brand ambassador programmes which is further explained in category six. Part of the ambassador programmes involves various SANBS ambassadors who have contact with potential blood donors during social marketing campaigns and explain the central concept of donating blood as an act of saving other people’s lives. These ambassadors ‘sell’ the idea of donating blood to potential blood donors. Another marketing communication mix element used by social marketing campaigns is sales promotion. The SANBS engages in a number of donor awards, lucky draws and complementary gifts during social marketing campaigns. Data from qualitative content analysis illustrated that these initiatives are not explicitly referred to by the SANBS as sales promotion. However an element of sales promotions is present in such marketing activities. This is so because such marketing activities encourage people by way of incentives to donate more of their blood. It is especially important to note that data from documents such as the donor magazines showed that donor awards do recognise the number of donations made by donors. The more people donate the more they are recognised for their acts. Direct marketing in form of an established call centre was found to be part of the marketing communication mix elements used during social marketing campaigns. Data from analysed documents revealed that SANBS target its current donors by calling them to encourage them to donate blood. Moreover they encourage current and potential donors to contact their call centre. Data from documents like transcripts of radio, television advertisements, Facebook updates, Twitter feeds and the donor magazine showed that toll free number of the call centre is always mentioned. Such findings indicate that social marketers have a wide range of
marketing communication mix elements which they can use to influence behaviour (see Morgan & Voola 2000: 837).

The second sub-category focused on message and brand consistency across the many marketing communication mix elements. Data from the qualitative content analysis revealed that there is a level of message and brand consistency across the various marketing communication mix elements used in SANBS social marketing campaigns. The majority of behavioural change messages in many marketing communication mix elements do reflect the main idea which was explained in category one above. In addition these marketing communication mix elements support the central idea consistently. For instance, data from analysed documents showed that all advertisements, digital communication, sales promotion and direct marketing activities emphasise donating blood as an act of saving lives. Furthermore all the social media platforms used in social marketing campaigns in many instances carried duplicate behavioural change messages clearly showing message consistency across the social media platforms. The SANBS brand is portrayed consistently also in that many of the marketing communication mix elements such as SANBS logo, its corporate colours, corporate website and toll free number are always present and presented in the same way.

Integration, an important part of tactical coordination of marketing communication mix elements was a sub-category which emerged from the qualitative data analysis. Data from analysed documents illustrated that the various marketing communication mix elements used in social marketing campaigns integrate and complement each other. For instance, in the majority of SANBS advertisements social media platforms are mentioned. This shows the integration of advertising, as a marketing communication mix element, and social media platforms which is another marketing communication mix element. Furthermore many of the television and radio adverts are uploaded on YouTube channels while some of the newspaper adverts are featured in the donor magazine. In the documents analysed there was data which also revealed that social media platforms complemented each other. As an illustration, data indicated that the SANBS include links to their Facebook page on Twitter and vice versa.
Data from the analysed documents illustrated that SANBS social marketing campaigns make use of a variety of marketing communication mix elements, which are tactically integrated to give message consistency. The above findings support the notion that marketers are aware and do use varied marketing communication options in their IMC activities (Keller 2009: 142). Furthermore findings are in line with the idea that sources of information within an IMC approach are not singular but multiple (Villarreal 2010: 2; Ebren et al 2010: 30).

Table 6.12 below reflects codes and sub-categories of Category 2.
Table 6.12: Category 2: Tactical coordination of marketing communication mix elements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-categories</th>
<th>Consideration of various marketing communication mix elements</th>
<th>Message and brand consistency across marketing communication mix elements</th>
<th>Integration of various marketing communication mix elements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Codes</td>
<td>Advertising (television, radio, newspaper, magazine)</td>
<td>Central idea carried in all marketing communication mix elements (Your blood saves lives)</td>
<td>Mention of social media tools in traditional media adverts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Digital communication (Facebook page, Twitter account, corporate website, YouTube channel, mobile marketing)</td>
<td>Marketing communication mix elements messages support main idea</td>
<td>Traditional media adverts on social media platforms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Publicity (TV appearances, news stories)</td>
<td>Duplicate posts or feeds on various social media platforms</td>
<td>Facebook links on Twitter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal selling (brand ambassador programmes)</td>
<td>Presence of SANBS logo and corporate colour on marketing communication mix elements</td>
<td>Twitter links on Facebook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sales promotions (lucky draws, gifts, donor awards)</td>
<td>Toll free number and corporate website present on marketing communication mix elements</td>
<td>Mention of corporate website in traditional media adverts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Direct marketing (call centre)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Newspaper adverts carried in magazine (Blood Beat)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>TV and radio adverts uploaded on YouTube</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.3.3.3 Category 3: Customer-oriented

Category 3 encompasses findings which illustrate that SANBS social marketing campaigns reflect a customer-oriented approach when communicating its behavioural change messages and emerged from an analysis of documents summarised in Table 5.1. The customer-oriented category was operationally defined as the consideration of customer needs and reflection of such customer needs in marketing communication activities relating to social marketing campaigns. Two sub-categories emerged for qualitative content analysis of documents. The first sub-category focused on how the needs of customers are considered in social marketing campaigns. Data from analysed documents showed that the SANBS engage in market research. SANBS does environmental scanning on aspects regarding their active and non-active blood donors. The aim of market research is mainly to help achieve donor retention. Using research results the SANBS plans their social marketing campaigns to target active and lapsed blood donors with tailor made behavioural change messages. Data from analysed documents also showed that the SANBS engages in research which seeks to analyse marketing and communication trends. Furthermore market research on aspects which seek to enhance customer care is undertaken. Such market research, according to data, focuses on how and when donors consume information from the media. Knowledge on information consumption patterns among donors is an important tool for SANBS in understanding appropriate ways of targeting blood donors when they are most aware of marketing messages. Data also showed that SANBS, through customer satisfaction surveys, aim to understand the needs of blood donors. Understanding the needs of blood donors is also central to SANBS’ donor care and retention strategy. Another important aspect of considering customer needs relate to how the SANBS views customer care as an integral part of quality assurance. From documents analysed, it is evident that great awareness is placed on customer interests and SANBS employees are also made aware of such needs through employee training.

The second sub-category under customer orientation relates to how SANBS engages with its customers. Data from analysed documents illustrated that SANBS has numerous avenues for engaging with its blood donors. The nature of customer
engagement within SANBS includes a dedicated call centre. Through the call centre donors can contact SANBS with any query or request for information on blood donation. Equally important is how the SANBS encourages customer engagement by including their toll free number in all of their advertisements. This aspect was mentioned earlier on in category two. In addition to the call centre, SANBS’s emphasis is on customer feedback. In many of its tweets and updates on social media platforms donors are highly encouraged to share their blood donation experiences. At the same time the SANBS provides prompt replies on social media platforms which provide space for dialogue with donors. Other avenues which encourage engagement with donors include donor awards ceremonies. During these award ceremonies, people who have donated blood on numerous occasions are recognised with certificates and other accolades. Such ceremonies afford SANBS to engage with its active blood donors. The concept of customer-oriented is strongly supported by data from qualitative content analysis in that the SANBS has various approaches which put the donor at the centre of all the social marketing activities. The above findings reflect that customer focus is the basis of making IMC decisions (Villarreal 2010: 1). Social marketers are aware of the importance of gathering customer information from multiple sources as a way of developing tailor-made marketing communication strategies (Mendez 2009: 640; Malcolm, McDaniel & Langett 2008: 21).

Table 6.13 below reflects codes and sub-categories of Category 3.

**Table 6.13: Category 3: Consumer-oriented**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-categories</th>
<th>Consideration of customer needs</th>
<th>Engagement with customers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Codes</td>
<td>Analysis into marketing and communication trends</td>
<td>Availability of call centre 24 hours a day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Market research on blood donors</td>
<td>Presence of toll-free number on</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.3.3.4 Category 4: Cross functional planning

Category 4 encompasses findings which reflect the cross functional nature of planning social marketing campaigns and emerged from an analysis of documents summarised in Table 5.1 in chapter 5. The operational definition of cross functional planning was formulated as the coordinated planning of social marketing campaigns involving various functional areas within the organisation. Data from the analysed documents illustrated only one aspect of cross functional planning. This aspect relates to sharing of information among different functions. Data showed that the marketing function relies on research results from the research function in planning marketing communication activities. An analysis of donor demographics help the marketing function to properly target different people with tailor made behavioural change messages. It is important to note that the qualitative content analysis did not show much data which supports or explains cross functional planning. This might be because many of the documents used for the qualitative content analysis were products of the planning and did not have many details with regards to the actual planning process. These findings are in line with what
Ebren et al (2006: 132) state, namely that marketing communication activities within an IMC approach cannot be developed in isolation. It thus remains the responsibility of various managers to plan marketing communication activities (Hartley & Pickton 2010: 98).

Table 6.14 below reflects codes of Category 4.

**Table 6.14: Category 4: Cross functional planning**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Analysis of donor demographic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Share research results</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.3.3.5 **Category 5: Relationship building**

Category 5 encompasses findings on relationship building strategies employed by the SANBS within the context of behavioural change messages and emerged from an analysis of documents summarised in Table 5.1 in chapter 5. For this category the operational definition was that relationship building involves the identification of target customers and building and maintaining relationships with such customers with the aim of customer retention. Three sub-categories emerged with the first category identifying what are considered main target customers for the SANBS. The qualitative content analysis revealed that SANBS categorises its target customers into three main segments in relation to social marketing campaigns. These segments are active, lapsed and potential blood donors. These three main segments of target customers are subject to various relationship building mechanisms as a way of maintaining relationships and retaining donors for future blood donations. Nevertheless, data also showed that there are other stakeholders who play an important role in social marketing campaigns. These stakeholders include hospitals, cancer related organisations, schools, universities, radio stations, corporate companies, sports clubs and cinemas. Many of these stakeholders offer support to social marketing campaigns. Their support is in the form of providing
venues for social marketing campaigns, providing free air play for advertisements and motivating either their students, employees, sports players or the public in general to donate blood.

The second subcategory explained tools used to build and maintain relationships with aforementioned target customers. Data highlighted that the SANBS has an existing customer feedback system which is used to solicit feedback from blood donors. The customer feedback system provides a platform for dialogue with target customers and a foundation for building relationships. It is through the customer feedback system that needs of target customers are gathered and considered for future social marketing campaign activities. Furthermore, the SANBS developed a customer engagement model which works in sync with the customer feedback system. Data from the qualitative content analysis illustrated that the customer engagement model broadens the space for building and maintaining relationships with target customers. In addition to the two mentioned ways of building and maintaining relationships with target customers, the SANBS in many of its social marketing campaign messages are always grateful for their target customers’ support. Data indicated that the SANBS in many of its social marketing communication conveys behavioural change messages which highlight how important blood donors are to the SANBS activities. Such acknowledgement through behavioural change messages is another way of building lasting relationships with target customers. Some of these messages were discussed in findings of category one.

Continuous enhancements of the SANBS call centre services and its infrastructure compliment efforts to build relationships. Data from analysed documents revealed that the call centre is an important platform to reach target customers. It is a tool the SANBS uses not only to initiate but to also stay in contact with active and lapsed blood donors. It is apparent that the SANBS has the necessary mechanisms which not only seek to establish relationships but also to maintain such relationships. These mechanisms also extend to the SANBS stakeholders as data showed that relationships with stakeholders are equally regarded as important. Findings show that within SANBS there are frameworks and policies which emphasise the importance of stakeholder relationships. As an illustration, all issues relating to stakeholders are mainly initiated from the Board
of Directors and there are established stakeholder management frameworks which exclusively deal with stakeholder relations. Furthermore stakeholder relations are part of the SANBS’ strategic objectives and moreover there is a dedicated Stakeholder Officer who deals with operational issues regarding stakeholders.

The third sub-category focused on customer retention as data from the qualitative content analysis illustrated that customer retention is a central part of building relationships with target customers. It is valuable to note that data from analysed documents supports the notion that customer retention is very important with regards to blood donation. Data showed that the SANBS' social marketing campaigns strongly emphasise continuous blood donation as discussed earlier in category one. Part of trying to ensure that blood donors are retained for further donation involves an established donor retention strategy which outlines ways in which donors are encouraged to continuously donate blood. Data demonstrated that most reliable blood donors are people who have donated before. It is thus for this reason that the SANBS has put additional efforts to reach those donors who have lapsed and as data has shown are easier to retain than potential blood donors (see Percy 2009: 138). It is evident that the SANBS concentrates on customer retention given the nature of blood donation which requires a constant supply of blood. Building relationships in the case of the SANBS has extended beyond blood donors as it also target stakeholders who are important for the core business of the organisation. These findings reflect that it is necessary to establish long lasting relationships with customers through behavioural change messages (Kitchen & Burgmman 2010: 5). Furthermore findings support the assertion that it is important to take a stakeholder-centred perspective which has a special focus on customers (Reinold & Tropp 2010: 2). Mendez (2010: 643) in this regard states that it is the mandate of IMC to establish dialogue between an organisation and its customer through building relationships.

Table 6.15 below reflects codes and sub-categories of Category 5
Table 6.15: Category 5: Relationship building

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-categories</th>
<th>SANBS target customers</th>
<th>Tools to build and maintain relationships</th>
<th>Customer retention</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Codes</td>
<td>Active donors</td>
<td>Customer feedback system implemented</td>
<td>Donor retention strategy in place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lapsed donors</td>
<td>Developed a customer engagement model</td>
<td>Developed customer relationship management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Potential donors</td>
<td>Thankful messages constantly communicated to donors</td>
<td>Continuous assessment of customer experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stakeholders (hospitals, cancer related organisations, schools, universities, radio stations, corporate companies, sports clubs, cinemas)</td>
<td>Enhanced call centre services and infrastructure</td>
<td>Donor retention campaigns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Stakeholder relations part of strategic objectives</td>
<td>Continuous alerts of blood stock levels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Established Stakeholder management framework</td>
<td>Increased call centre hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Stakeholder Officer function</td>
<td>Additional focus on deferred donors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Stakeholder interests dealt with at strategic level (Board of Directors)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.3.3.6 Category 6: Consideration of all brand contacts

Category 6 encompasses findings on how brand contacts are identified and managed within a social marketing campaign context and emerged from an analysis of documents summarised in Table 5.1 in chapter 5. Consideration of all brand contacts as a pre-determined category was operationally defined as the consideration of all brand contacts of an organisation by ensuring that the brand contacts communicate a central behavioural change message of the social marketing campaign. Data from the qualitative content analysis illustrated that the SANBS has numerous brand contact points and makes use of these brand contacts to communicate their social marketing campaign behavioural change messages. Active blood-donors help communicate not only the behavioural change messages but the overall brand messages of the SANBS. Findings indicate that blood donors are regarded as brand ambassadors by the SANBS. Data from the qualitative content analysis further indicated that some behavioural change messages encourage active blood donors to recruit other potential donors who may be in their social or professional spheres. It is through active blood donors that some people come into contact with the SANBS’ brand. Data from analysed documents further showed that the SANBS understands and values active blood donors as brand ambassadors. In addition tele-recruiters who are employed to operate the tele-centre are also regarded as important brand contact points. Data showed that tele-recruiters “sell” the SANBS brand to potential blood donors by recruiting them to start donating blood. Given that many of the SANBS advertisements constantly mention the toll free number, tele-recruiters are crucial in presenting the SANBS brand to potential blood donors. Another interesting brand contact point used by the SANBS is school pupils. Through their ambassador programmes such as Peer Promoter and Adopt a Month, the SANBS trains primary and high school pupils on aspects of blood donation. Using such initiatives, data illustrated that trained pupils are then encouraged to recruit their peers in case of high schools pupils or parents in case of primary pupils to donate blood. Through ambassador programmes primary and high school pupils are exposed to behavioural change messages which they also pass to their parents and peers.
Equally important brand ambassadors who are vital for social marketing campaigns are local celebrities. From data analysed it is apparent that many local radio and television personalities endorse many of the social marketing campaigns. Their celebrity status helps enhance the brand messages of the SANBS during social marketing campaigns. Data which emerged from the qualitative content analysis demonstrated that many of the brand contact points used by the SANBS project behavioural change message consistently. The one central idea which all of the brand contacts consistently communicate is the idea of people donating blood to save lives. This central idea behind all behavioural change messages of social marketing campaigns was discussed in category one. Another aspect which was evident from data is how important SANBS regards its brand. Data demonstrated that the reputation of the SANBS is dealt with on a strategic level. As an illustration brand reputation is one of the strategic objectives of the SANBS, moreover harm to brand reputation is considered a risk factor which is closely monitored. Data from the qualitative content analysis clearly indicated that various brand contacts are utilised in social marketing campaigns. Furthermore these brand contacts project the same behavioural change messages. These findings support the theoretical claim that branding has become key priority to most organisations (Keller 2009: 1). Furthermore findings indicate that organisations understand that in order to deliver behavioural change messages correctly all communication activities should be included with contact points as part of the strategy (Kitchen & Burgmann 2010: 5). The argument that every touch point to the brand is a channel to communicate with external audiences is also supported by the above findings (see Reinold & Tropp 2010: 2).

Table 6.16 below reflects codes of Category 6.
### Table 6.16: Category 6: Consideration of brand contacts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Active blood donors as ambassadors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Available tele-recruiters</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presence of brand ambassadors programmes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand contact point communicate consistent brand messages</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee training on branding aspects</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand reputation as a strategic objective</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harm to reputation identified as risk to organisation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 6.3.3.7 Category 7: Strategic consistency

Category 7 encompasses findings on the nature of strategic consistency within the SANBS in relation to IMC and emerged from an analysis of documents summarised in Table 5.1 in chapter 5. For this pre-determined category the operational definition was formulated as strategic consistency involves the support of management of an IMC approach and alignment of IMC approach with strategic objectives of the organisation. Data which emerged from the qualitative content analysis indicated that there are internal communication channels which employees use to provide feedback to management regarding planning of social marketing campaigns at the SANBS. These channels also provide a platform on which employees participate in the decision making process with regards to the planning of social marketing campaigns. It is worth noting that data demonstrated that there are no explicitly established policies on IMC, however operational activities undertaken in social marketing campaigns are aligned to strategic objectives of the SANBS. Support from management for IMC approach was shown to be in form of employee training on particularly branding and reputation management. These aspects are linked to an IMC approach as discussed in category six. In addition, management communicates its strategic plan to employees to ensure that every operational plan, including social marketing campaign planning, is in sync with the
overall strategic plan. These findings are in line with literature where it is argued by various authors and scholars that strategic consistency is one of the mandated critical conditions for IMC implementation (Kitchen et al (2008: 532). Winter and Sundqvist (2009: 191) reiterate that strategic consistency is not always the case in many organisations and as such it is a challenge in that there is potential for conflict among the various marketing communication mix elements used by an organisation. This notion is clearly reflected by findings above.

Table 6.17 below reflects codes of Category 7.

**Table 6.17: Category 7: Strategic consistency**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employee feedback channels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee participation in decision making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic plan communicated to employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training and support to employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operational programmes aligned to strategic objectives</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**6.3.3.8 Category 8: Data-driven**

Category 8 encompasses findings which illustrate how social marketing campaigns are driven by donor information and emerged from an analysis of documents summarised in Table 5.1 in chapter 5. Data-driven as a pre-determined category was operationally defined as the provision of customer data and applicable technology in planning and supporting of social marketing campaigns. Data from this category illustrated that at the SANBS there are established information technology (IT) policies which govern the operations of all IT related issues. The SANBS does have databases which contain information about their donors. As an illustration the SANBS has a Collections Management System used to monitor daily blood stock levels and managing potential
blood shortages. In addition there is the Meditech mobile laptop solution which enables clinics to have real time information on regular donors and thus facilitates follow ups on lapsed donors. Another example is the SAP clinic Planning Software which enables the SANBS to plan mobile blood drives by forecasting blood stock levels more accurately. Furthermore emphasis on innovation has led to the appointment of a Chief Information Office (CIO) who oversees the implementation of IT projects within the organisation. Such initiatives are an indication of how the SANBS has harnessed technology for internal purposes as a strategic objective. It is apparent that donor information and related technology plays a crucial role in the planning of social marketing campaign activities. These findings are in line with theoretical arguments that IMC uses evidence-based decision making by means of customer databases as a source of information on actual customer behaviour (Mulhern 2009: 93). In addition the use of a data-driven approach provides continuous data that provides continuous flow of information to assist the planning of IMC activities (Mulhern 2009: 93).

Table 6.18 below reflects codes of Category 1.

**Table 6.18: Category 8: Data-driven**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Emphasis on innovation</th>
<th>Established IT policies</th>
<th>Investment in IT infrastructure</th>
<th>Presence of donor databases</th>
<th>IT Governance framework</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

The overall findings of the study with regards to IMC in social marketing campaigns in a non-profit organisational context to support behavioural change messages are explained in the next section.
6.4 OVERALL FINDINGS OF THE STUDY WITH REGARD TO THE USE OF IMC IN SOCIAL MARKETING CAMPAIGNS IN A NON PROFIT ORGANISATIONAL CONTEXT

In this section the overall findings of the face-to-face semi-structured interviews, one focus group and the qualitative content analysis are outlined and related to the context of a non-profit organisation to highlight the relevance of the findings within a social marketing context as proposed in chapter 3, section 3.8. The discussion below thus constitutes the major findings of this study in accordance with the proposed IMC theoretical criteria for social marketing campaigns to support behavioural change messages.

6.4.1 Cross functional planning of social marketing campaigns

Findings of this study illustrate that the SANBS as a non-profit organisation has adopted a cross functional process of planning its social marketing campaigns. The planning process within the SANBS involves multiple internal stakeholders. Study findings indicate that the SANBS in its planning process reflects the same features of the campaign planning process as in commercial marketing contexts. This indicates that non-profit organisations are already adopting business like techniques for their marketing communication activities (Dolnicar & Lazarevski 2009: 275). It was apparent from the findings that different functional areas within the SANBS are involved in the planning of social marketing campaigns. Functional areas involved in the planning of social marketing campaigns include marketing, communication, operations, and research functions. According to Modi and Mishra (2010: 553) the concept of inter-functional coordination of planning is very important for the implementation of non-profit organisations’ social marketing activities to support behavioural change messages. The overall findings illustrate that the different functional areas within the SANBS coordinate their planning activities through established platforms which include marketing forums and planning sessions. Using these planning platforms information is shared among the various functional areas as findings illustrated. These findings are furthermore in line with literature which shows that non-profit organisations have recognised and are
responding to developments and progressions in marketing such as linking and sharing of information among internal functional areas within an organisation (Dann, Harris, Mort, Fry & Binney 2007: 297). Another importance aspect to the planning process of social marketing campaigns is the presence of feedback mechanisms within the SANBS. These established feedback mechanisms as the overall findings illustrate play a very important role in guiding the planning of social marketing campaigns. Findings demonstrated that there are mechanisms which facilitate feedback among the various functional areas with regards to planning. It is important within a non-profit organisational context that support from employees is achieved before social marketing campaigns can be implemented (Khan & Ede 2009: 347). Feedback was highlighted as a crucial component to the process of gaining employee support especially when planning involves the marketing head office and the various regional zones within the SANBS. The different regional zones operate away from the head office of SANBS and it is through feedback that marketing head office solicits employee support of its social marketing campaign planning. It is evident from the overall findings that coordinated planning which involves multiple internal stakeholders is vital for non-profit organisations in planning of their social marketing campaigns which adopt an IMC approach. It is thus crucial that non-profit organisations consider all their internal audiences during the planning process for social marketing campaigns to be successful (Tian & Borges 2012: 104).

Another important aspect to social marketing campaign planning involves the role of management. The overall findings illustrate that within a non-profit organisational context, management’s support in planning of social marketing is important. In this regard the SANBS management render support to the planning process in the form of strategy formulation. The formulation of an organisational strategy which accommodates an IMC approach for social marketing campaigns provides the foundation on which any marketing communication activity to support behavioural change messages should be planned. This supports the argument by Dolnicar and Lazarevski (2009: 284) that numerous top managers within non-profit organisations perceive the planning of marketing communication activities to support behavioural
change messages as very important to their organisational goals. At the SANBS organisational strategy is communicated to every employee of the organisation. Employees involved in social marketing campaign planning have to align their planning according to the established and communicated organisational strategy. This is a further indication of how important it is to align operational activities to overall strategy within a non-profit organisation due to today’s tight and competitive economic climate which has made non-profit organisations to be more concerned and often also more proficient as their for-profit counterparts (Henley 2001: 7) The overall findings illustrate that there are no explicitly established policies within the SANBS which emphasise an IMC approach for social marketing campaigns. According to Modi and Mishra (2010: 549) some non-profit organisations have remained sceptical about adopting marketing practices such as IMC. Such assertion can explain the absence of an established IMC policy at the SANBS. However, findings demonstrated that available organisational strategy supports operational activities which enable an IMC approach for social marketing campaigns. The overall findings point to the fact that even in the absence of an established IMC policy, a conducive and ideal management strategy can still provide an enabling environment according to which social marketing campaigns within an IMC approach can be planned and implemented. This supports literature where it is stated that non-profit organisations have not fully harvested the advantages of using marketing principles such as an IMC approach and that there is still space for them to full adopt these principles (see Dolnicar & Lazarevski 2009: 276).

In addition to management support another important aspect of planning social marketing campaigns relates to how information on donors provides an important input for planning. The overall findings highlight that the SANBS has IT policies which govern all information and technology related facets of the organisation. Present donor databases and related technology within the SANBS ensure that planning of social marketing is information driven. Information driven in the sense that planning relies on donor information stored in databases and such information enable proper targeting of different segments of donors which include active, lapsed and potential donors. Overall findings thus illustrate that within a non-profit organisational context planning of
campaigns always need to start and end with the customer in mind (Blakeman 2009: 7). Using donor information, planning of social marketing campaigns thus enables the SANBS to formulate behavioural change messages which are appropriate for each donor segment. It is apparent from the overall findings that within a non-profit organisational context customer information is considered a very important aspect which is needed for the planning process of behavioural change messages for social marketing campaigns (Kliatchko 2008: 140).

6.4.2 Importance of consumer-oriented perspective

Another major overall finding is how the SANBS positions donor needs at the centre of all its social marketing campaign activities. The overall findings illustrate that in a non-profit organisational context a consumer-oriented perspective is very important to formulate behavioural change messages for social marketing campaigns. According to Dolnicar and Lazarevski (2009: 277) a customer-oriented perspective can significantly increase the effectiveness of behavioural change message for a non-profit organisation. This is because many non-profit organisations have previously adopted a market-oriented approach to their organisational activities and this impeded their ability to create tailor-made marketing communication messages (Maria, Jose & Pinho 2006: 548). The overall findings show that the SANBS adopts a customer-oriented approach which focuses on satisfying the needs of the donors as a first step towards donor retention. Donor retention was strongly emphasised by the overall findings given the nature of blood donation which requires continuous blood donations to maintain sufficient blood stocks. This supports the assertion that non-profit organisations are increasingly aware of the need to create customer loyalty for the survival of their services (Khan & Ede 2009: 348). It is evident from the overall findings that the SANBS has various mechanisms in place which seek to retain donors such as continuous engagement with donors, on-going research on donor needs as well as a strong emphasis on customer service.

The SANBS in this regard has numerous platforms on which it engages with its active and lapsed donors. Such engagement platforms as the findings illustrate are an
important tool not only to retain donors but also to solicit donor feedback. Feedback on donor experiences is vital to the SANBS as it enhances future planning of social marketing campaigns’ behavioural change messages. Non-profit organisations strive to understand determinates and aspects that influence behavioural change among its target market (see Renner et al 2013: 238). Continuing donor research at the SANBS on the other hand ensures that it identifies and understands the needs of its donors and that these needs are reflected in how social marketing campaigns are implemented and accommodated in behavioural change messages. Non-profit organisations have embraced a customer-oriented perspective in order to understand the needs of customers as a way of co-creating valued with the customers (Dann et al 2007: 296). According to Leo (2013: 65) co-creation of value involves the extent to which non-profit organisations actively seek participation or collaborative efforts with its customers. Overall findings illustrate that at the SANBS there is continuous research on various aspects pertaining to donors. This is done as part of better understanding the needs of its donors with regards to behavioural change message formulation. According to Modi and Mishra (2010: 553), a customer-oriented perspective unifies the focus of a non-profit organisation as needs and wants of customers are understood better.

In addition to donor research, the overall findings clearly indicate that there is a strong emphasis on customer service as the SANBS strives to maintain an impeccable customer service as part of being customer-oriented. In the context of non-profit organisations customer services aim to serve both the individual and societal interests (Leo 2013: 58). The findings highlight that by serving the interests of blood donors the SANBS is also serving the interests of society as blood donation is a social issue which affects the whole society. This is in line with the notion that in some instances non-profit organisations have to present behavioural change motivation through tailor-made messages which will be of value to the target customer and will thus fill a need for both the customer and the society (Thackeray, Fulkerson & Neiger 2012: 86).

Findings further illustrate that the SANBS has in place various ways of building and maintaining relationships with its donors. Established relationships with donors for the SANBS ensure donor retention which it maintains in a number of ways. This also
emphasises the importance of relationships with donors for the SANBS’ social marketing campaigns. This finding further supports the argument that non-profit organisations understand the need to create good relationships with customers which in turn encourages sustainable behaviour (Zainuddin et al 2011: 376). It is also interesting to suggest that in social marketing campaigns, the SANBS extends the concept of relationship building to include stakeholders. Not only donors are thus important for social marketing campaigns but other stakeholders play an important role as well. Overall findings indicate that there are a number of stakeholders who are vital to the SANBS' social marketing campaigns namely hospitals, cancer related organisations, schools, universities, radio stations, corporate companies, sports clubs and cinemas. According to Bill (2007: 93) public-private partnerships are becoming an increasingly important element for non-profit organisations engaged in social marketing. This argument is supported by findings indicating that the SANBS values partnerships with its external stakeholders. The SANBS invests much to build and maintain relationships with various stakeholders as they are considered vital to the success of social marketing campaigns. Non-profit organisations should thus be more able to develop an outward focus on its key stakeholders which can be done through relationship building efforts (see Modi & Mishra 2010: 564). The overall findings illustrate that in a non-profit organisational context a customer-oriented approach is vital and some non-profit organisations are thus moving away from an organisational-centred mind set (Dolnicar & Lazarevski 2009: 276). In addition non-profit organisations are forging mutually beneficial links and therefore working in partnerships with different stakeholders in promoting their behavioural change messages (Khan & Ede 2009: 348).

6.4.3 Level of integration and tactical coordination

The overall findings reveal that the SANBS uses a variety of marketing communication mix elements in its social marketing campaigns to support behavioural change messages. Some of the marketing communication mix elements used in social marketing campaigns includes advertising, digital communication, publicity, personal selling, sales promotion and direct marketing (see chapter 3, section 3.6). This is in line with the argument that non-profit organisations have been able to translate promotion
as part of the marketing mix from a commercial to a social marketing context (Fourie & Froneman 2009: 259). It is evident from the findings that in the many marketing communication mix elements utilised by the SANBS behavioural change message consistency is present. This supports the idea that non-profit organisations need to comprehend that behavioural change messages should be delivered in such a way that audiences relate to them and develop comfort with the behaviour change being promoted (Saini & Mukul 2012: 314). Findings illustrate that in every social marketing message conveyed by social marketing campaigns, there is a central theme which is carried through. For this study the central theme in all social marketing behavioural change messages is donating blood as a way of saving lives. In all behavioural change messages communicated by the SANBS this central theme is reflected and thus integrated.

In addition to behavioural change message consistency the various marketing communication mix elements used are also consistent in conveying this central theme through the social marketing campaigns. The overall findings illustrate that marketing communication mix elements are tactically coordinated which ensures that they consistently convey the same behavioural change messages. According to Dolnicar and Lazarenski (2009: 278) non-profit organisations “are challenged by more complicated decisions than for profit organisations and survival is depended on careful application of marketing tools”. This concurs with the overall findings which illustrate that SANBS has adopted an IMC approach, which is used as a social marketing tool, for the selection and use of marketing communication mix elements to support behavioural change messages for its social marketing campaigns. Nevertheless findings indicate that the SANBS still regards advertising as most important. This is because SANBS regard radio and television advertising as still more relevant and appealing to its various donors. As a result the SANBS uses advertising as the main marketing communication mix element, with the other marketing communication mix elements taking a more supportive role. These findings are in accordance with the argument that many non-profit organisations still perceive advertising as the most important marketing communication mix element. Regardless findings clearly indicate that both online and
traditional marketing communication tools are integrated to produce synergy for all the marketing communication mix elements. Digital communication in the form of social media tools also complement traditional marketing tools such as advertising and public relations. This supports Ebren et al's (2010: 130) arguments that non-profit organisations need to appreciate that sources of behavioural change are not singular but multiple.

Findings further indicate that tactical coordination extends beyond marketing communication mix elements to include tactical coordination of brand contacts of the SANBS. It was indicated that brand contacts are important for the social marketing campaigns of the SANBS. This in particular illustrates that the SANBS has made strides in adopting the concept of branding as many other non-profit organisations have been rather slow to adopt the concept of branding (Khan & Ede 2009: 338). Various brand contact points were outlined within the section in which the findings of this study are discussed (see section 6.3.3.6). These brand contacts play a pivotal role in the recruitment of blood donors and complement social marketing campaign efforts. Branding thus plays a critical role in promoting fundamental values linked to behavioural change messages within social marketing campaigns (Saini & Mukul 2012: 312). The SANBS makes an effort to ensure that the different brand contacts portray the same SANBS brand and communicate the same behavioural change messages. Through the various brand ambassador programmes the SANBS tactically coordinates its various brand ambassadors. Furthermore findings indicate that the SANBS, through its brand ambassador programmes, is able to ensure that its numerous brand ambassadors communicate and portray a consistent brand and behavioural change messages. It was highlighted that the SANBS employees also act as ambassadors for the organisation. This supports the notion that employees are deliverers and communicators of non-profit organisations’ brands (Khan & Ede 2009: 349). Nevertheless coordinating the different brand contact points as is explained in section 6.4.5 below does not occur without facing some challenges. The overall findings have clearly illustrated that through its social marketing campaigns the SANBS has achieved tactical coordination and integration of various marketing communication mix elements to ensure that they
consistently convey the same behavioural change messages. Tactical coordination and integration have also extended to the various contact points used by the SANBS. These various brand contacts complement social marketing campaigns as the first point of contact for blood donors.

### 6.4.4 Nature of social marketing campaigns

The overall findings highlight the context of social marketing campaigns in which an IMC approach is adopted. It was evident from the findings that the nature of social marketing campaigns can be considered unique in the sense that the success of applying an IMC approach to social marketing campaigns also depends on many other aspects which are not in the domain of marketing communication or influence of non-profit organisations. For an IMC approach to be effective issues such as the education of donors need to be considered during the planning process. Given the nature of blood donation, conveying behavioural change messages which are tactical coordinated might not be enough. According to Dann et al (2007: 294) in some instances social marketing by non-profit organisations constitutes just one method of social change rather than the only available method. The overall findings further highlight that the education of donors on the importance of blood donation might be the best initial step towards communicating behavioural change messages through social marketing campaigns. In the context of social marketing an IMC approach is dependent on such non-marketing factors. The nature of social marketing campaigns requires the planning process to be sensitive to such aspects. This supports the argument that instead of only looking at changing individual behaviour non-profit organisations should also consider the environment which can effect behavioural change through policy makers (Hastings 2007: 108).

Furthermore the planning process of social marketing campaigns has to appreciate that social marketing behavioural change messages compete with commercial marketing messages. This argument is supported by the overall findings which indicate that while commercial marketing messages promise attractive products and services, social marketing campaign messages on the other hand can only guarantee altruistic benefits.
The nature of social marketing campaigns thus requires social marketers to put in extra marketing efforts to enhance social marketing behavioural change messages to become more obvious in the clutter of commercial marketing messages. According to Dann et al (2007: 295) social marketing represents an approach that focuses on making a deal rather than forcing compliance of individuals. As a result non-profit organisations are challenged by more complicated decisions than for-profit organisations with regards to persuading behavioural change among target groups (Dolnicar & Lazarevski 2009: 278). The overall findings also illustrate that blood donation is not always an easy concept to communicate to target audiences at any random time. Because potential donors are preoccupied with other activities, the SANBS acknowledges this in that behavioural change messages for its social marketing campaign are conveyed mostly when potential donors are in a position to consider doing something good for others such as donating blood. The timing of behavioural change messages is thus a very important component of an IMC approach for social marketing campaigns. SANBS is, for instance, cognisance of the fact that an act of blood donation is voluntary and their behavioural change messages are therefore as less evasive as possible. The importance of the convenience of customers in the context of non-profit organisations’ social marketing campaigns is thus considered very important. According to Mohr and Schultz (2014: 42) changing behaviour is extremely difficult and the first critical step in promoting any behaviour is ensuring convenience on the part of targeted individuals. Convenience is an important aspect when individuals decide to adopt behaviour and non-profit organisations should be aware of this. (Zainuddin, Previte & Russell-Bennett 2011: 371).

Also of interest is how difficult customer satisfaction is in the context of social marketing campaigns. The SANBS regards customer satisfaction as very important for an IMC approach to support its behavioural change messages. Nevertheless in the context of social marketing campaigns the SANBS requires more to cater for donors who in a commercial sense have nothing to benefit from blood donation. To ensure donor satisfaction the SANBS has instituted numerous mechanisms which place the donor at the centre of its core business. It is apparent that in the context of social marketing
campaigns the planning of behavioural change messages not only requires sensitivity for customer satisfaction but also has to accommodate and reflect it. The overall findings confirm the argument that some of the traditional challenges of non-profit organisations relate to adopting and adapting the techniques of commercial marketing (Dann et al 2007: 295).

6.4.5 Challenges of an IMC approach in social marketing context

The overall findings indicate that there are a number of challenges faced by the SANBS as a non-profit organisation in adopting an IMC approach for its social marketing campaigns. These challenges as reflected in the literature are not only akin to commercial contexts but also extended to non-profit organisational contexts. Quantifying results or effectiveness of an IMC approach for social marketing campaigns is a difficult task. The SANBS does acknowledge the value of measuring their investment in social marketing campaigns. This supports literature where it is stated that non-profit organisations should be able to track their own performance levels with regards to social marketing campaigns (Maria et al 2006: 548). However, at present there is no standard measuring tool even though the findings point to a number of attempts by the SANBS to measure its campaign results after having applied an IMC approach to its social marketing campaigns. The overall findings thus support arguments that the impact which non-profit organisations activities have on society at large is sometimes intangible and therefore difficult to measure or find a measuring tool (Mano 2010: 555). It is thus apparent that the SANBS has not yet reached the desired level to consistently measure its return of investment (ROI) with regard to its social marketing campaigns. ROI as a concept has been explained earlier on in this chapter (see section 6.3.1.5). The benefits of using an IMC approach have not been quantified as a way of guiding future social marketing campaigns planning. These findings confirm arguments in the literature that even in commercial marketing contexts, measuring of IMC effectiveness is problematic (Kerr & Patti 2002: 2382).

Another challenge is also highlighted with regard to organisational structures which hinder the proper functioning of an IMC approach within a non-profit organisation. At the
SANBS, for instance, some of the reporting structures do not support the application of an IMC approach. This is contrary to literature where it is stated that for IMC to be effective there is a need for change with regard to organisational processes and structures (see Belch & Belch 2012:11). The overall findings indicate that not all employees involved in social marketing campaigns report to managers who are knowledgeable in marketing communication activities. The various regional zones within the SANBS are headed by Zone Managers who may not necessarily be specialists in the field of marketing communication. That as it may, Marketing Managers in the different zones have to report to Zone Manager on issues relating to social marketing campaigns not directly to the marketing head office. Many non-profit organisation managers do not have the necessary expertise to manage marketing communication activities (see Liston-Heyes & Lin 2013: 1962). This lack of expertise thus hinders the coordination of social marketing campaign planning in that employees may not be in a position to provide valuable feedback to relevant managers who are involved in social marketing campaigns planning. In many instances non-profit organisation’s marketing portfolios are run by employees that are not trained in the field of marketing (Dolnicar & Lazarevski 2009: 286).

Further challenges to applying an IMC approach to social marketing campaigns relate to limited financial resources allocated to marketing communication activities at the SANBS. The SANBS as a non-profit organisation does not have access to many financial resources to commit to a fully-fledged IMC approach. Non-profit organisational literature points to the same conclusion that non-profit organisations often have limited financial resources (Mano 2010: 555; Omura & Forster 2014: 256). The SANBS is thus not in a financial position to use as many marketing communication mix elements as an IMC approach might require to adequately support behavioural change messages. To this effect social marketing campaigns at the SANBS have to be implemented using only the available financial resources thereby limiting the full benefits of an IMC approach to its social marketing campaigns. According to Dolnicar and Lazarevski (2009: 278) limited financial resources have in some instances force non-profit organisations to prioritise fund raising to the disadvantages of marketing activities such
as using enough marketing communication mix elements to support behavioural change messages. In addition the SANBS faces the challenge of communicating its brand to its employees due to issues which lingered from the merger of various blood services to form SANBS (see chapter 4, section 4.4). The filtering of the concept of branding to its employees within the organisation is still a challenge which has an effect on its social marketing campaigns. This supports literature where it is argued that non-profit organisations have been slow in adopting the concept of branding (Khan & Ede 2009:338). Branding is central to applying an IMC approach in that the brand image of the SANBS has to be consistently portrayed by all its brand points. According to Saini and Mukul (2012: 313) branding techniques assist non-profit organisations to communicate their social marketing objectives in a more effective manner in that brand contacts convey non-profit organisation’s aims consistently. Nevertheless the SANBS has numerous mechanisms in place to ensure that the brand image is consistently communicated to its employees.

In the next section revised theoretical IMC criteria within social marketing are proposed based on the overall findings of this study.

6.5 PROPOSING REVISED IMC CRITERIA WITHIN SOCIAL MARKETING TO SUPPORT BEHAVIOURAL CHANGE MESSAGES

Thus far findings of this study have been presented and discussed in detail. It is important at this stage to critique IMC criteria presented earlier in chapter 3 (see section 3.11 and Table 3.1) against the overall findings of this study. The aim of this study is to propose and revise theoretical IMC criteria which are contextual to social marketing in support of behavioural change messages. In the following subsections revised IMC criteria within a social marketing context to support behavioural change messages are proposed.

6.5.1 Communicating consistent informative messages

Communicating consistent messages is one of the prevalent features of IMC (Belch & Belch 2012: 10). Earlier in chapter 3, section 3.11 communicating consistent messages
are explained as important for theoretical IMC criteria. Within IMC a central theme should be integrated into all messages communicated by social marketing campaigns (Navaro et al 2009: 224). Nevertheless overall findings of this study indicate that within a social marketing context messages communicating behavioural change go beyond projecting consistency but that behavioural change messages should also include an element of being informative and educational (see section 6.3.2.3). In the context of behavioural change messages, it is important to not only emphasise consistency of messages but also the informative nature of these messages. Beerli-Palacio and Martin-Santa (2009: 206) argue that changing behaviour involves high involvement decisions and as such behavioural change messages conveyed are charged with informative content. It can be argued then that behavioural change messages should communicate consistent informative messages.

Consistent informative messages within a social marketing context should deliver information about the consequences of changing behaviour or not changing the behaviour (Mayasari 2012: 173). This argument is supported by the overall findings which highlight that the SANBS' behavioural change messages not only project consistency but also inform donors of the consequences of donating or not donating blood (see section 6.3.3.1). Renner, Lindenmeier, Tshcheulin and Drevs (2013: 246) state that two-sided messages are more effective in promoting behavioural change than one-sided messages. One-sided messages only focus on the benefits of adopting certain behaviour. Findings of this study show that SANBS messages reflect the importance and benefits of donating blood. In a way these messages deliver information on the consequences of donating blood. According to Beerli-Palacio and Martin-Santa (2009: 206) information is the starting point of the process of adopting the behaviour of donating blood.

Another important element to communicating consistent informative messages is the nature of messages which seek to change behaviour. The overall findings illustrate that behavioural change messages should include an altruistic appeal in trying to change a certain behaviour. The SANBS' behavioural messages convey the altruistic nature of donating blood (see section 6.3.3.1). This is supported by Tshcheulin and Lindenmeier
(2005: 167) who argue that altruistic motives tend to positively influence willingness to change behaviour. Renner et al (2013: 238) add that altruism is regarded as a predominate aspect in influencing people to donate blood. In the context of social marketing, behavioural change messages should be consistent, informative and reflect altruism in adopting certain behaviour. As such it can be argued that IMC criteria in the context of social marketing should encompass communicating consistent behavioural change messages which have both informational and educational goals.

6.5.2 Behaviour maintenance

Findings of this study illustrate that retaining blood donors is central to survival when it comes to the business of blood donation and that the SANBS depends on donors who continually repeat the behaviour of donating blood (see sections 6.3.3.5 and 6.3.1.2). This way the SANBS is guaranteed of sufficient blood levels. This occurrence is mentioned in the earlier proposed IMC criteria under relationship building (see chapter 3, section 3.11.5,). However, given the findings of this study it is important that donor retention be accorded more prominence in IMC criteria within a social marketing context to support behavioural change messages. For instance, the nature of blood donation requires that donors donate at least three times a year (see section 6.3.2.2). SANBS' behavioural change messages communicate the importance of donors to keep donating blood. Such findings illustrate that the behaviour of donating blood need not only be adopted but also maintained. As such it can be argued that behaviour maintenance should be integral to IMC criteria within a social marketing context (Tian & Borges 2012: 106). According to Renner et al (2013: 239) the ability of non-profit organisations to motivate individuals to repeat a socially acceptable behaviour is a prerequisite in achieving their mission. Zainuddin, Previte and Russel-Bennett (2011: 263) refer to repeating behaviour as behavioural loyalty.

As is also mentioned earlier the SANBS has various mechanisms in place to ensure behaviour maintenance. Some of the mechanisms include strong emphasis on customer services, donor awards, offer of small gifts upon donation and continuous engagement with donors (see sections 6.3.2.2 and 6.3.3.3). This is supported by
Tschueulin and Lindenmeier (2005: 167) who state that low-value gifts positively influence future donation behaviour. In addition, Beerli-Palacio and Martin-Santana (2009: 206) argue that social marketing should have the ability to capture donors and instil loyalty for regular blood donation. Offering a reward for behaviour can also increase the frequency of the behaviour (Monhr & Schultz 2014: 41). It is in this manner that IMC criteria within social marketing context to support behavioural change messages should have the ability to maintain changed behaviour among the targeted individuals.

6.5.3 Consideration of informational reference groups

In section 3.11.6 of chapter 3 it was explained that IMC considers all potential brand contacts as sources of organisational communication (Belch & Belch 2012: 10). As a result brand contacts are integrated to an IMC strategy (Kitchen & Burgmann 2010: 4). The findings illustrate that the concept of branding is highly regarded by the SANBS. The brand contacts of the SANBS thus communicate behavioural change messages of its social marketing campaigns in an integrated manner (see section 6.3.3.6). According to Saini and Mukul (2012: 313) branding assists communicating aims of social marketing in an effective manner and behavioural change messages associated with a strong brand are more impactful in changing behaviour. Nonetheless in the context of social marketing brand contacts might not be the appropriate concept to use. This is because findings indicate that what might be considered brand contacts are in fact informational reference groups. Informational reference groups are operationally defined as groups of people who have the ability to influence others to change their behaviour (Helmig & Thaler 2010: 373).

Findings further indicate that potential donors are influenced to adopt the behaviour of donating blood by various informational reference groups. The SANBS has numerous brand ambassador programmes which are aimed at school children to influence their peers and parents to donate blood. Furthermore local celebrities endorse social marketing campaigns while the SANBS’ employees and active donors also act as its ambassadors (see section 6.3.3.6). The SANBS targets these informational reference
groups with behavioural change messages to ultimately influence individuals within their social networks. According to Tian and Borges (2012: 104) within a social marketing context, society or representatives of it are responsible for assisting individuals change their behaviour which is in the interest of both the individual and the society. The findings illustrate that the SANBS managed to do so by targeting informational reference groups who influence potential donors' decisions. Potential donors according to Renner et al (2013: 248) prefer to rely on other individuals' expertise when deciding whether to donate blood. This is reflected in the findings which highlight that the SANBS communicates behavioural change messages in the form of stories of people whose lives have been saved by donated blood (see section 6.3.3.1). This indicates that within social marketing individuals within informational reference groups can influence others using testimonials (Beerli-Palacio & Martin-Santana 2009: 212). D'Souza, Zyngier, Robinson, Schlottelein and Sullivan-Mort (2011: 148) argue that there is need “to target authorities that are seen as the influencers with marketing communication strategies that reinforce social bonds to bring about changes”. It can then be argued that IMC criteria within social marketing campaigns should consider all informational reference groups when targeting individuals with behavioural change messages.

6.5.4 Customer-oriented approach to create value for customers

The concepts of social marketing and IMC regard the customer as very important (Maibach 2002; Kitchen & Schultz 2009). In section 3.11.6 of chapter 3 it is argued that a customer-oriented approach should be present in IMC criteria to support behavioural change messages. The primary focus for social marketing should be upon the consumer (Tian & Borges 2012: 102). Findings of this study indicate that the SANBS uses a customer-oriented approach to its social marketing campaigns (see sections 6.3.1.2, 6.3.2.2 and 6.3.3.3). In its quest to understand the needs of customers the SANBS engages in market research which provides donor information used to tailor-make behavioural change messages communicated through social marketing campaigns. Within a social marketing context research seek to discover the customer's perceptions of a social problem and need for solution to it through behavioural change (Tian & Borges 2012: 102). In this study it was further highlighted that customer needs
are at the centre of social marketing planning (see section 6.3.2.1). This supports the argument that non-profit organisations recognise the need to adopt a customer orientation approach to provide products and services that serve societal interests (Leo 2013: 58). The importance of a customer-oriented approach can never be underestimated, but findings of the study emphasise that in the context of social marketing a customer-oriented approach should greatly encompass customer value. It was highlighted in the findings that the act of donating blood is a voluntary behaviour. During the act of donating blood the exchange process is complex in the sense that donors do not necessarily receive any benefits, in the economic sense, in exchange for their donated blood (Wood 2008: 80). According to Peattie and Peattie (2003: 370) in social marketing customers receive psychological benefits and in the case of donating blood, donors thus receive the benefit of knowing that they have saved someone’s life. These are reflected in the many behavioural change messages communicated in SANBS’ social marketing campaigns. Given the voluntary nature of blood donation and the fact that donors do not receive any tangible benefits, study findings illustrate that creating value for customer becomes more important in fulfilling their needs.

According to Zainuddin et al (2011: 362) in the context of social marketing value “can be regarded as an incentive for consumers to perform desirable behaviour that lead to both greater social good and individual benefit”. It can therefore be argued that given the voluntary nature of behavioural change in social marketing there is a need for a customer-oriented approach which creates or enhances value for adopting or changing the desired behaviour. Behavioural change offered in social marketing has to be of value to the targeted customers and fill a need as individuals are not obligated to adopt the behaviour (Thackeray, Fulkerson & Neiger 2012: 86). In social marketing understanding customers perceptions of value facilitates a greater appreciation of the benefits that consumers seek by changing behaviour (Zainuddin et al 2011: 376). It is further highlighted in the findings that the SANBS has numerous platforms on which it engages with its donors as part of a customer-oriented approach (see section 6.4.2). In a way SANBS involves donors, through established platforms, in creating value for adopting behaviour of donating blood. These findings support the recommendation that
in social marketing there is a need for co-creation of the meaning of value to 
behavioural change (Leo 2013: 65).

Against this background, IMC criteria within social marketing to support behavioural 
change messages should incorporate a customer-oriented approach which creates or 
enhances value to the customer for voluntarily changing behaviour.

6.5.5 Building Partnerships

The nature of blood donation requires an important consideration for donor retention 
(see also section 6.5.2). Study findings illustrate that retaining donors is the foundation 
on which the SANBS ensures that there is a sufficient supply of blood. Behavioural 
change messages by the SANBS strongly emphasise repeated donations. Given this 
situation the SANBS perceive relationship building as a significant part of an IMC 
approach. Accordingly, IMC criteria proposed in chapter 3 (section 3.11) explain 
building relationships as crucial to an IMC approach as it aims to build long term 
relationships which involve interaction between an organisation and its customers 
(Blakeman 2006: 6). Findings of this study point to a number of ways in which the 
SANBS seeks to build and maintain relationships with its donors (see section 6.3.3.5).

As much as relationship building is important in donor retention, the findings illustrate 
that of equal importance is building and maintaining partnerships. According to 
Mayasari (2012: 168) social marketing emphasises relationships beyond the customer 
to also include partnerships which form part of the social marketing mix elements (see 
chapter 2, section 2.7.2). The findings indicate that the SANBS has numerous partners 
who have an influence in communicating behavioural change messages of its social 
marketing campaigns (see section 6.3.3.5). Partnerships refer to “cooperation among 
various participants because social issues are often so complex that one agency cannot 
succeed alone and needs to collaborate to be effective” (Tian & Borges 2012:104).

In the context of IMC criteria for social marketing IMC cannot be limited to only building 
relationships with customers but should also include building of partnerships. The 
findings illustrate that the SANBS has built partnerships with hospitals, cancer related 
organisations, schools, universities, media houses, private organisations and sports
clubs. These linkages with likeminded organisations strengthen the ability of the SANBS to effectively deliver its behavioural change messages. Bringing about significant and broad social change cannot be done without partnerships in the context of social marketing (Abercrombie, Sawatzki & Lotenberg 2012: 55). It is for this reason that IMC criteria within a social marketing context should appreciate that there is a need for good coordination and relationships with other role players beyond immediate customers in pursuing behavioural change goals. The addition of building partnerships as a criterion for IMC within social marketing therefore becomes more important because the importance and power of partnerships is often an underutilised asset in social marketing efforts (Abercrombie et al 2012: 56).

6.5.6 Tactical coordination of marketing communication mix elements

Findings highlight that the SANBS uses various marketing communication mix elements to communicate behavioural messages in its social marketing campaigns. Marketing communication mix elements used within social marketing campaigns include advertising, digital communication, publicity, personal selling, sales promotion and direct marketing (see section 6.3.32). In section 3.11 (chapter 3) in the proposed IMC criteria it is indicated that non-profit organisations should consider using many marketing communication mix elements in communicating their behavioural change messages (Kitchen & Burgmann 2010: 1). Findings of the study, however, highlight that within social marketing context coordinating and integrating marketing communication mix elements should also enhance the consistency and synergy of behavioural change messages. Marketing communication tools should be integrated to enhance the effectiveness of social marketing (Mayasari 2012: 172).

From the findings it is apparent that utilising various marketing communication mix elements in a coordinated way within a social marketing context does not differ much from any other context where IMC is employed. What can be considered different is that within social marketing, marketing communication mix elements focus on communicating behavioural change messages which seek to create and sustain demand for a certain behaviour (Tian & Borges 2012: 104). The findings indicate that
the SANBS considers various marketing communication mix elements for its behavioural change messages and thus has achieved tactical coordination of these elements (see section 6.4.3). This is also supported by Hawkins et al (2011: 234) who argue that social marketing should use a variety of marketing communication mix elements to communicate the same behavioural change message consistently. Tactical coordination of marketing communication mix elements increase the effectiveness of behavioural change messages in that all marketing communication mix elements emphasise the same behavioural change message (Saini & Mukul 2012: 313). It can thus be argued that tactical coordination of marketing communication mix elements is integral to IMC criteria within the context of social marketing. This supports theoretical arguments that the application of coordinated marketing communication mix elements can lead to effective communication resulting in behaviour change (Hawkins et al 2011: 237).

6.5.7 Cross functional planning linked to policy issues

Findings of this study illustrate that planning of social marketing campaigns which communicate behavioural change messages involve multiple organisational functional areas. Planning of social marketing campaigns and its behavioural change messages is, however, not a task undertaken by one functional area only. The findings highlight that functional areas such as marketing, communication, operations, and research are involved in social marketing campaign planning (see sections 6.3.1.1, 6.3.2.1, 6.3.3.4 and 6.4.1). Multiple functions within an organisation should be involved in planning since IMC is influenced by various organisational functions (Luck & Moffatt 2009: 319). IMC criteria proposed in section 3.11 in chapter 3 include cross functional planning as a criterion within a social marketing context which is also supported by the findings. Within the SANBS there are defined platforms where various employees of the different functional areas meet and plan its social marketing campaigns. This thus supports the argument that in an organisation there should be a central structure which coordinates all the planning and monitoring of IMC activities (Caemmerer 2009: 536). According to Kliatchko (2008: 142) in the planning and monitoring of IMC activities there is a need for linking of expertise and sharing of information among different functions.
It is evident that cross functional planning in social marketing campaigns in support of behavioural change messages is a requirement. Nonetheless in the context of social marketing there are other considerations which need to be taken into account when planning behavioural change messages. Findings of the study indicate that marketers involved in the planning of social marketing campaigns should be sensitive to policy issues (see section 6.4.1). Issues such as education of blood donors play a pivotal role in the ultimate success of behavioural change messages. According to Mayasari (2012: 168) “an individual consumer is a social person therefore the existence of social environment supports the formation of behaviour”. Cognisance of this fact it can be argued that within a social marketing context there are aspects which can influence behavioural change besides behavioural change messages. Findings indicate that aspects such as educating of donors on the importance of donating blood play a pivotal role in behavioural change (see section 6.4.1). Policy changes in some instances within a social marketing context might be the most effective tools to support behavioural change among individuals. According to Tian and Borges (2012: 104) policy changes might be required for some social marketing campaigns to be effective. The reverse is also true in that behavioural change messages in social marketing campaigns might support or complement policy changes in creating a favourable environment for the adoption of a desired behaviour (Weinreich 2011: 21).

Planning of behavioural change messages in social marketing should take cognisance of how changes in policy can support the effectiveness of social marketing campaigns. For this reason IMC criteria within social marketing should include cross sectional planning which is sensitive to external policy issues within the environment in which behavioural change takes place.

### 6.5.8 Strategic consistency

Schultz and Kitchen’s (2002) explain that strategic integration is the highest level of adopting IMC within an organisation. Earlier in chapter 3 (section 3.11) it was proposed that IMC criteria should include not only tactical coordination of marketing communication mix elements but also integration of all organisational activities and
processes at a strategic level. According to Kerr and Drennan (2010: 16) the top management within an organisation should support IMC activities for it to be effective. This argument is supported by findings of this study which indicate that IMC within social marketing campaigns has support from management (see sections 6.3.1.3 and 6.4.1). Part of being strategically consistent involves a change in organisational structures to include internal frameworks which cater for internal marketing (see du Plessis 2010: 12). The findings illustrate that planning of behavioural change messages cater for feedback from people implementing social marketing campaigns. This indicates that within the SANBS there are channels in which management seek support from employees with regards to social marketing campaigns which has an IMC approach to behavioural change messages (see section 6.3.1.3).

The nature of strategic consistency of IMC in the context of social marketing as illustrated by the findings is the same as proposed in chapter 3 (see section 3.11). Behavioural change messages have to be strategically reflected in everything an organisation does. The SANBS management has in place established mechanisms for an IMC approach within social marketing campaigns to support behavioural change messages. It is thus apparent from the findings that IMC criteria within social marketing to support behavioural change messages should include strategic consistency.

From the above subsections it is clear that the proposed IMC criteria as explained in chapter 3 (see section 3.11) cannot absolutely be applied to a social marketing context. Findings of this study highlight that it is important to propose IMC criteria which is contextual to behavioural change messages within social marketing. To this end the study has managed to propose IMC criteria which take into account the nature of social marketing to support behavioural change messages.

Table 6.19 below summarises the proposed refined IMC criteria within social marketing context to support behavioural change messages.
Table 6.19: Revised IMC criteria within the context of social marketing to support behavioural change messages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMC Criteria</th>
<th>Proposed actions within social marketing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communicating consistent informative messages</td>
<td>• Communicate informative and educational behavioural change messages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Produce unified and consistent behavioural change messages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Produce behavioural messages which are altruistic in nature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviour maintenance</td>
<td>• Aim for behavioural maintenance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Communicate behavioural maintenance benefits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Establish retention strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Emphasise behavioural loyalty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consideration of informational reference groups</td>
<td>• Identify informational reference groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Target informational reference groups with behavioural change messages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Manage and review informational reference groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer-oriented approach for value creation</td>
<td>• Customer needs inform planning of social marketing campaigns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Co-create meaning of value of behavioural adoption</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Communicate value of behavioural adoption</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building partnerships</td>
<td>• Identify immediate target customers and partners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Build and maintain relationships with customers and partners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Target customers and partners with behavioural change messages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tactical coordination of marketing communication</td>
<td>• Consider use of various marketing communication mix elements</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| elements                                      | • Use relevant marketing communication mix elements  
|                                             | • Behavioural change messages should be reflected in all marketing communication mix elements |
| Cross functional planning linked to external policy issues | • Involve all organisational functions in developing behavioural change messages  
|                                             | • Link and share information among various organisational functions  
|                                             | • Consider external policy issues in planning |
| Strategic consistency                       | • Support from top management  
|                                             | • Consider feedback from internal audiences  
|                                             | • Align social marketing campaigns to vision and mission of organisation |

6.6 SUMMARY

The main of this chapter was to discuss the findings of the study and propose refined IMC criteria for social marketing to support behavioural change messages. In the chapter the data analysis process which was followed by the researcher was explained in detail. Furthermore a discussion of the findings of the face-to-face semi-structured interviews, one focus group and the qualitative content analysis findings was provided. Overall findings of the study were outlined within the context of a non-profit organisation. Also IMC criteria for social marketing campaigns in support of behavioural change messages were proposed based on the study findings. In the next chapter, chapter 7 recommendations and conclusions of the study are provided.
CHAPTER 7
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter 6 the findings of the study were explained and interpretations of the findings were presented. In this chapter conclusions of the study and some recommendations are discussed. Firstly a detailed discussion is provided as to whether the study has managed to answer the research questions as set out in chapters 1 and 5. In addition the assumptions of the study are revisited to highlight how they were supported or not by the findings. The relevance of the findings for a non-profit organisations involved in social marketing is provided as well as recommendations for future studies. Lastly major conclusions of the whole study are discussed.

7.2 ANSWERING THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In chapter 6, the findings were discussed in detail and revised IMC criteria in the context of social marketing to support behavioural change messages were proposed. It is important in this chapter to discuss whether and how the study's findings answered the research questions (see chapters 1 and 5), as explicated in the subsections below.

7.2.1 Research question one

The first research question for this study wanted to answer what are the proposed theoretical IMC criteria for social marketing campaigns to support goals of behavioural change messages. This question was answered by proposing IMC criteria for social marketing to support behavioural change messages based on an extensive literature review in chapter 3, section 3.11. The findings illustrate that IMC criteria specific to a social marketing context can be formulated using extensive social marketing and IMC
literature which appreciates the behavioural change nature of social marketing messages.

It can be argued that this study managed to answer the first research question in that initial theoretical IMC criteria for social marketing to support behavioural change messages were proposed. The initial proposed IMC criteria provided the foundation on which further refinement of the IMC criteria was made possible (see section 3.11 in chapter 3 and section 6.5 in chapter 6).

7.2.2 Research question two

The second research question of this study asked how SANBS’ social marketing campaigns conform to theoretical IMC criteria in support of behavioural change messages within social marketing. This research question probed the extent to which social marketing campaigns which communicates behavioural change messages are guided by the principles of an IMC approach. This research question was answered by findings which illustrate that the planning process of behavioural change messages within social marketing campaigns in the context of a non-profit organisation is cross functional in nature. Findings highlight that the planning of social marketing campaigns to support behavioural change messages is informed by an IMC approach (see chapter 6, sections 6.3.1.1, 6.3.3.4 and 6.5.7). The planning process of behavioural change messages is coordinated from a central platform on which information and expertise is shared (see chapter 6, section 6.4.1). These established planning platforms provide a conducive environment in which SANBS employees provide feedback on the progress of a social marketing campaign. This indicates that SANBS prescribes to the notion that planning of social marketing campaigns should be coordinated and monitored from a central structure (see du Plessis 2010: 12).

Furthermore the tactical coordination of marketing communication mix elements within social marketing campaigns to a greater extent was achieved as reflected in the findings (see chapter 6, sections 6.3.3.2 and 6.5.6). Various marketing communication mix elements convey behavioural change messages consistently. Nevertheless full integration and coordination of marketing communication mix elements to communicate
consistent behavioural messages have been affected to some extent by the limited marketing budget of SANBS (see chapter 6, section 6.3.2.4). A limited budget was indicated as a stumbling block to attaining full tactical coordination of marketing communication mix elements which could be utilised for social marketing campaigns. Findings also indicate that a customer-oriented approach within social marketing campaigns in support of behavioural change messages is utilised by the SANBS (see chapter 6, sections 6.3.1.2, 6.3.3.3 and 6.5.4). Strong emphasis on a customer-oriented approach is driven by the need for the SANBS to retain blood donors. However, the SANBS as a non-profit organisation engaged in social marketing activities faces challenges in utilising a customer-oriented approach (see chapter 6, section 6.4.5). This is because in the context of a non-profit organisation satisfying customers is not easy to achieve. Findings also illustrate that in communicating behavioural change messages, the SANBS considers all brand contacts as sources of behavioural change messages (see chapter 6, sections 6.3.3.6 and 6.5.6). Within the SANBS there are indications which show that there is tactical coordination with regards to brand contacts (see chapter 6, section 6.3.3.6). However, the challenge SANBS faces in this regard is the filtering of brand awareness among the employees (see chapter 6, section 6.4.5). The findings reflect that some SANBS employees still need to understand the essence of SANBS as a brand and how the brand can be portrayed.

The findings also illustrate that the SANBS has sound organisational strategies which guide the formulation and implementation of behavioural change messages of its social marketing campaigns (see chapter 6, section 6.3.1.5). Some of the organisational strategies have provided a favourable foundation on which operational activities of social marketing campaigns can be planned. However, there are no established policies which are specific to IMC or management frameworks by which social marketing campaigns are guided in implementing an IMC approach to support of behavioural change messages (see chapter 6, section 6.5.7). It can thus be argued that strategic consistency with regards to an IMC approach is not visibility present from a management perspective. Nevertheless, the SANBS management has a conducive
environment which guides an IMC approach for the planning of behavioural change messages within its social marketing campaigns.

Given the aforementioned findings the study managed to answer the second research question by highlighting how SANBS’ social marketing campaigns conform to the proposed theoretical IMC criteria within the context of social marketing to support behavioural change messages.

7.2.3 Research question three

The third research question for this study wanted to answer how the use of an IMC approach in social marketing is relevant within a non-profit organisational context. The findings illustrate that the form and nature of planning, with regards to social marketing campaigns, in a non-profit context does not vary much compared to commercial marketing context. A non-profit organisation such as the SANBS requires inputs from its multiple internal stakeholders in the planning process of its social marketing campaigns (see chapter 6, section 6.4.1). Furthermore there are a number of aspects which have to be considered when planning social marketing campaigns within a non-profit context which are also reflected in the above findings. One aspect to consider is a customer oriented approach which has a vital role in retaining customers of non-profit organisations (see chapter 6, section 6.4.2). The importance of the customer becomes vital in the sense that non-profit organisations depend on continued support from customers for their survival.

The findings also highlight that the SANBS has not gone beyond the tactical level of integration and coordination even though in literature it is advocated by scholars for a shift from tactical to strategic integration. These findings give credence to the argument that many non-profit organisations are far from having reached the full potential of marketing tools such as IMC (see chapter 6, section 6.4.3). It was furthermore discovered that the nature of social marketing requires non-profit organisations to consider aspects which may not be akin to commercial marketing contexts when planning their social marketing campaigns. The findings have illustrated that non-profit organisations in some instances have to consider external aspects which may be
beyond the domain of marketing communication when planning behavioural change messages for their social marketing campaigns. Other findings indicate that non-profit organisations face challenges in adopting an IMC approach for their social marketing campaigns. These challenges are barriers to benefits of using an IMC approach and thus support arguments that many non-profit organisations are far from having reached the full potential of adopting an IMC approach to social marketing campaigns to support behavioural change messages (see chapter 6, section 6.4.5).

Considering the above, it can be argued that the third research question was answered by the study. It was illustrated that an IMC approach in a non-profit organisational context is important. In addition challenges which are barriers to applying an IMC approach to non-profit organisations that engage in social marketing were pointed out.

### 7.2.4 Research question four

The fourth research question asked how proposed theoretical IMC criteria for social marketing to support behavioural change messages can further be adapted to become more contextual to social marketing. The initial theoretical IMC criteria were proposed as theoretical foundation for the case study analysis (see chapter 3, section 3.11). Based on the findings these criteria were further refined to make it more contextual to social marketing to support behavioural change messages. In chapter 6 (see section 6.5) the revised IMC criteria for social marketing were proposed. Based on the findings more tailor-made IMC criteria for social marketing were formulated. Research question four was thus answered by proposing revised IMC criteria which are more tailor-made for a social marketing context to support behavioural change messages.

### 7.3 SOLVING THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The objectives of the study were both descriptive and exploratory in nature. The study described proposed theoretical IMC criteria within a social marketing context to support behavioural change messages. The initial theoretical criteria were formulated after an extensive literature review which considered all variables which constitute an IMC approach within the context of social marketing to support behavioural change
messages. These proposed theoretical criteria were then further refined and adapted, based on the findings, to be more tailor-made for a social marketing context. As a result revised IMC criteria for social marketing to support behavioural change messages were proposed. Findings of the study reflect the essence of IMC which should be tailor-made for a social marketing context in that achieving a behavioural change is a complex process. As such communicating behavioural change messages using an IMC approach requires some adaptation to also include aspects which make behavioural change more appealing to targeted individuals. It is for this reason that the initial IMC criteria was adapted to reflect the fact that planning of IMC has to also consider the inclusion of an informative element to communicating consistent behaviour change messages. Furthermore behaviour maintenance is important to social marketing and IMC criteria should reflect the importance of maintaining behaviour in an IMC approach which supports behavioural change messages. Also in the context of social marketing IMC criteria should include informational reference groups as brand contacts. It is thus important that an IMC approach targets individuals who can influence its target groups. Furthermore a customer oriented approach in social marketing should extend to creation of value for the promoted behaviour. For this reason IMC criteria for social marketing should include value creation in its customer-oriented approach. Building of relationships was identified as important in the initial proposed IMC criteria but was revised as it is vital that in the context of social marketing building of partnerships is also reflected. As such IMC criteria for social marketing should emphasise partnership building. Planning of behavioural change messages within social marketing have to be sensitive to the external environment which can influence behaviour change. As such the revised proposed IMC criteria for social marketing suggest that cross functional planning of social marketing campaigns which have an IMC approach should be linked to external policy issues. From the above it can be argued that the study managed to describe IMC criteria which are contextual to social marketing to support behavioural change messages.

The study also explored how IMC is used in a non-profit organisational context to support behavioural change messages. The findings illustrate that a non-profit
organisation can use an IMC approach in social marketing campaigns which support behavioural change messages. The findings clearly show that there are instances where an IMC approach within a non-profit organisational context has been adopted to reflect all the complexities of communicating messages targeted as individuals to change their behaviour.

7.4 REVISITING RESEARCH ASSUMPTIONS

It is also important to revisit the research assumptions stated in chapter 1 to understand whether the findings support or do not support them. In the following sections the assumptions of the study are revisited in relation to the study’s findings.

Assumption 1: IMC criteria within a commercial marketing context can be used to support goals of behavioural change messages in a non-profit context for social marketing campaigns

It is reflected in literature that not many studies have focused on IMC in the context of social marketing campaigns that have behavioural goal messages. This study assumed that IMC criteria within a commercial marketing context can be used to support goals of behavioural change messages in a non-profit context for social marketing campaigns. The initial IMC criteria for social marketing campaigns in support of behavioural change messages were proposed in chapter 3, section 3.11. It was illustrated in the study that IMC criteria specific to a social marketing context can be formulated based on extensive social marketing and IMC literature.

Assumption 2: SANBS’ social marketing campaigns conform to the proposed theoretical IMC criteria for social marketing

The findings support the assumption that social marketing campaigns of the SANBS conform to the proposed theoretical IMC criteria in that its social marketing campaigns mirror features of an IMC approach. The findings highlight various aspects of the SANBS’ social marketing campaigns which indicate the presence of an IMC approach. On the other hand some findings indicate that even though its social marketing campaigns conform to IMC criteria there are areas in which the SANBS still faces
challenges when adopting an IMC approach. The SANBS’ social marketing campaigns in communicating behavioural change messages have achieved some tactical integration, however strategic integration is still not fully realised.

**Assumption 3: An IMC approach to social marketing within a non-profit organisational context is relevant to supporting behavioural change goals**

This assumption was confirmed by the findings in that the relevance of an IMC approach to a non-profit organisational context was reflected in the findings. The findings confirm this assumption that an IMC approach within a social marketing context can support messages of adopting behaviour of blood donation for a non-profit organisation. Applying an IMC approach to the context of non-profit organisations engaged in social marketing campaigns is feasible as it enables consistency of behavioural change messages. Complexity of changing behaviour requires messages which offer value to adopting the promoted behavioural change. An IMC approach to support behavioural messages was applied to SANBS’ campaigns and findings illustrated the feasibility of using the approach. As such benefits of using an IMC approach can be extended to a social marketing context.

**Assumption 4: IMC criteria for social marketing can be further refined to support behavioural change messages**

This assumption was supported by the findings when the IMC criteria were further refined. In chapter 6, section 6.5 the revised IMC criteria contextual to social marketing were proposed. The revised theoretical IMC criteria for social marketing was based on the findings which clearly indicate that IMC criteria within a social marketing context should take into account the nature of social marketing as well as all the complexities of communicating behavioural change messages.

### 7.5 LIMITATIONS AND STRENGTHS OF THE STUDY

It is important to also address the limitations and strengths of this study. In the next subsections the limitations and strengths of this study are explained in detail.
7.5.1 Limitations of the study

Some of the limitations to this study relate to using a single case study as the research methodology. The downside to this is that findings of this study cannot be generalised to any other case study. Findings of this study can thus only be generalised to the SANBS and cannot be generalised to other South African non-profit organisations engaged in social marketing campaigns. Nonetheless a case study was applicable to the study because it offered systematic and in-depth investigation into the phenomenon of IMC in its context which was the SANBS. Also participants of face-to-face semi-structured interviews and focus group where chosen using convenient sampling method with many of the participants working at the SANBS head office. Therefore views expressed in face-to-face semi-structured interviews and the focus group may not represent all of the SANBS employees. However, the chosen participants were heavily involved in the planning and implementation of social marketing campaigns which was the focus of this study.

Another limitation of the study relates the number of SANBS’ social marketing campaigns which the study focused on. Three social marketing campaigns were chosen on which the findings of the study are based. Regardless of the seemingly small number of the campaigns, the chosen campaigns are the biggest social marketing campaigns which SANBS carries out annually and much rich data could thus be obtained. As such the findings based on the campaigns provide a good picture because the best of marketing resources and efforts are put into these campaigns.

7.5.2 Strengths of the study

In the above section, limitations of this study were outlined. However, there are also strengths to this study. Firstly the study managed to propose theoretical IMC criteria for social marketing campaigns to support behavioural change messages. Studies in literature showed that not many studies have highlighted the use of IMC approach to social marketing, let alone criteria for IMC within social marketing. This study has managed to provide IMC criteria tailor-made for a social marketing context to support behavioural change messages. No study has focused on this before. Also this study
provides a well detailed description of the situation of this case study. According to Yin (2009: 4) findings of a case study should offer a detailed account of the case. In this study a detailed account of the SANBS’ social marketing campaigns was described in detail. The description of the SANBS as a case was initiated by means of an extensive literature review which informed the proposed theoretical IMC criteria. By using these proposed theoretical IMC criteria, an in-depth description of SANBS’ social marketing campaigns to support behavioural change messages was provided by highlighting how the planning of campaigns is informed by an IMC approach. The findings from the SANBS’ social marketing campaigns were then used to formulate revised IMC criteria more tailor-made for a social marketing context to support behavioural change messages which is a contribution to existing literature on the topic.

The strength of this study also relates to how the research methodology was clearly outlined and the field work rigorously conducted. Each and every aspect of the methodological design of this study was thoroughly explained and motivated. The choice of a qualitative research design in the form of a single case study was explained in detail as well as the population of the study in terms of target and accessible population. The sampling method and the unit of analysis were also explained and the data collection method and process was explained in detail.

In addition the strength of the study pertains to how quality of both the research process and the study findings were ensured. To ensure high quality of the research process the researcher used validity and reliability measures which included establishing a clear chain of evidence by way of a study protocol, pretesting of interview and focus group questions and having a database for all collected data. The quality of the findings was ensured using multiple sources of data, explaining clearly the data analysis process and using a second coder during the coding process.

In the following section the relevance of the findings for non-profit organisations involved in social marketing are discussed.
7.6 RELEVANCE OF THE FINDINGS FOR NON PROFIT ORGANISATIONS INVOLVED IN SOCIAL MARKETING

It is important to highlight the relevance of the findings especially in the context of non-profit organisations involved in social marketing. Studies in literature shows that not many studies have focused on IMC within non-profit organisations involved in social marketing (Kerr & Patti 2002: 2382). This study provides the necessary foundation which non-profit organisations can use when they want to adopt an IMC approach for their social marketing campaigns aimed at changing the behaviour of targeted groups through behavioural change messages. The refined IMC criteria which are tailor-made for social marketing campaigns to support behavioural change messages can thus be used as a heuristic by other non-profit organisations wishing to adopt an IMC approach.

Furthermore it is indicated in literature that non-profit organisations operate on limited budgets (Omura & Forster 2014: 256). This implies that non-profit organisations cannot afford the cost which comes with incorrectly applying an IMC approach to their social marketing campaigns. This study provides an outline of challenges faced by non-profit organisations when adopting an IMC approach. The relevance of this study’s findings becomes significant by outlining all the pitfalls that non-profit organisations can avoid when adopting an IMC approach.

7.7 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The following recommendations are made for future research:

- A case study, SANBS, was used for this study, however, future studies can engage in comparative studies which explore adoption of an IMC approach in various non-profit organisations engaged in social marketing activities. It is important that future studies compare adoption of IMC among different non-profit organisations to better evaluate its level of adoption in social marketing contexts.

- Furthermore future studies could go beyond evaluation of IMC adoption to also include the measurement of all the benefits to adopting an IMC approach. It is imperative that future studies consider all the benefits of adopting an IMC approach.
(in especially non-profit organisations engaged in social marketing) in more quantifiable terms as a way of highlighting the benefits of using an IMC approach. Given the need for accountability on the part of organisations, measuring the ROI by adopting an IMC approach might benefit non-profit as well as for-profit organisations.

7.8 CONCLUDING REMARKS ABOUT THE NEW KNOWLEDGE REGARDING THE STUDY

Typical IMC criteria used for commercial marketing contexts are not all suitable in the context of social marketing to support behavioural change messages. This is because the social marketing context in so many ways differs from the commercial marketing context as highlighted by the study findings. As such IMC criteria for social marketing should be sensitive to complexities of the behavioural change process and communicating such behavioural change. To adopt IMC criteria successfully will require IMC criteria which are more tailor-made for social marketing in that the criteria should be grounded on realities of influencing and communicating behavioural change among individuals.

The refined proposed IMC criteria for social marketing to support behavioural change messages in this study do take into account the nature of social marketing and the complexities of communicating behavioural change messages. Thus it can be argued that the proposed IMC criteria by this study are grounded in the realities of the social marketing context.

This study contributes to literature in that it proposes new knowledge which provides insights into IMC criteria for social marketing in support of behavioural change messages. No study has provided such insight before and as such the contribution to literature becomes important. This study offer useful insights to non-profit organisations involved in social marketing which intend to adopt an IMC approach. Non-profit organisations can use findings of this study as a basis on which adoption of an IMC approach can be initiated.
LIST OF SOURCES


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ANNEXURE A: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR COMMUNICATIONS MANAGER

OPENING

- Thank you for agreeing to take part in this interview, my name is Gibson Chauke.
- The purpose of my research is to evaluate how SANBS use the concept of integrated marketing communication in its campaigns to consistently communicate behavioural change messages regarding blood donation.
- I would like to ask you some questions regarding SANBS’ campaigns, your role in the planning of such campaigns and issues involved in the marketing communication activities at SANBS.
- I hope to use information from this interview to highlight how the concept of integrated marketing communication can support the behavioural change messages of social marketing campaigns like the ones being carried out by your organisation.
- Before we start let me explain that this interview will be recorded and collected data will be treated with utmost commitment to confidentiality. Information from the interview will not identify your name or position in the organisation to ensure anonymity. Only my supervisor and I will have access to recorded data.
- This interview will not take more than 45 minutes.
- Do you agree to have this interview recorded and proceed with the interview?

(Transition: Let me start by asking you questions regarding your organisation’s purpose)

a) SANBS
   - Can you describe briefly what SANBS is all about?
   - What are your main responsibilities as a Communications Manager at SANBS?

(Transition: Now let’s look at some of the campaigns SANBS engages in)

b) SANBS social marketing campaigns
   - Can you explain what the World Blood Donor Day, December Blood Drive Campaign and Nelson Mandela Day campaigns seek to achieve?
How important are these campaigns in attracting people to donate blood?

c) Cross functional planning
How are you involved in the planning process of these campaigns?
How would you describe the relationship among the various department/sections which are involved in the planning of the campaigns?

Who monitors the implementation of campaigns?

What is your opinion on having a central structure to which all departments/sections reports to regarding campaign planning?

d) Communicating consistent messages
In planning campaigns which messages do consider as important and should be present in all the campaigns regarding blood donations?

Can you describe how you ensure that the different campaigns you explained at the beginning of the interview (the three campaigns) communicate the same messages about blood donation?

Given your explanation would you say your campaigns are communicating the right messages (behavioural change messages)?

In your opinion would you say your current and potential donors understand your marketing messages the way you intended (plan) them to?

e) Tactical coordination of marketing communication mix elements
Can you mention some the promotional tools (marketing communication mix elements) you use to communicate your marketing messages (behavioural change messages)?

How important are these tools (promotional tools) in communicating your intended messages regarding blood donation?

Can you describe the process of planning the various promotional tools for your campaigns?
How would you ensure that your messages are consistent in all your promotional tools?

(Transition: Ok, if its fine can we now talk about people who donate blood to SANBS?)

f) Consumer-oriented
Can you explain the value of blood donors to SANBS?
How useful is information about your blood donors when formulating your messages about blood donation (behavioural change messages)?
Can you point out some of the marketing activities which reflect your value towards blood donors?

g) Relationship building
How do you maintain continuous contact (relationships) with your blood donors?
How important is it to have such continuous contact with your blood donors?
Can you explain tools/mechanisms you use to encourage blood donors to donate multiple times (donor retention)?

(Transition: is it ok if we move to a discussion about SANBS as a brand)

h) Consideration of all brand contacts
How would you explain SANBS as a brand?
Can you explain ways in which current and most importantly potential donors come into contact with SANBS?
Which SANBS employees would you say interact with current and potential blood donors?
In your opinion do these employees understand the brand of SANBS?
How would you describe the effectiveness of such ways in which current and potential donors come into contact with SANBS, in portraying the brand of SANBS?

i) Strategic consistency
How would you describe the support management offers to marketing communication activities?
Is management open to feedback with regards to policies which affect marketing communication activities?

(Transition: Well it has been a pleasure intervening you. If it’s ok, I will briefly summarise information that I have recorded during our interview)

CLOSING

Again let me say I enjoyed interviewing you and really appreciate your time afforded me in making this interview possible. Is there anything you feel you might need to add before we end our interview?

End the interview
ANNEXURE B: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR CUSTOMER RELATIONS MANAGER

OPENING

• Thank you for agreeing to take part in this interview, my name is Gibson Chauke.

• The purpose of my research is to evaluate how SANBS use the concept of integrated marketing communication in its campaigns to consistently communicate behavioural change messages regarding blood donation.

• I would like to ask you some questions regarding SANBS’ campaigns, your role in the planning of such campaigns and issues involved in the marketing communication activities at SANBS.

• I hope to use information from this interview to highlight how the concept of integrated marketing communication can support the behavioural change messages of social marketing campaigns like the ones being carried out by your organisation.

• Before we start let me explain that this interview will be recorded and collected data will be treated with utmost commitment to confidentiality. Information from the interview will not identify your name or position in the organisation to ensure anonymity. Only my supervisor and I will have access to recorded data.

• This interview will not take more than 45 minutes.

• Do you agree to have this interview recorded and proceed with the interview?

(Transition: Let me start by asking you questions regarding your organisation’s purpose)

a) SANBS

Can you describe briefly what SANBS is all about?
What does your position entail within SANBS?

(Transition: Now let’s look at some of the campaigns SANBS engages in)

b) SANBS social marketing campaigns

Can you explain what the World Blood Donor Day, December Blood Drive Campaign and Nelson Mandela Day campaigns seek to achieve?

How important are these campaigns in attracting people to donate blood?

What is your role in these campaigns?

c) Communicating consistent messages

What would you regard as the central message every SANBS campaign should communicate to current or potential blood donor about?

Can you explain how you think this message is being conveyed by SANBS' campaigns?

(Transition: Now let’s talk about the promotional tools used in these campaigns)

d) Tactical coordination of promotional mix elements

Can you describe promotional tools (promotional mix elements) mostly used in SANBS’ campaigns?

How important are these (promotional tools) in encouraging people to donate blood?

In your opinion do these promotional tools carry the central message you mentioned earlier which every blood donor should receive?

e) Cross functional planning

In terms of planning for these promotional tools, what relationship do you have with other departments in the planning process of campaigns?
Do these departments solicit information regarding blood donors or any other SANBS customers during their planning?

How important do you think donor/customer information is to such departments which plan campaigns?

Describe your views on having a central structure within SANBS monitoring the implementation of campaigns by the various departments?

(Transition: Ok, if its fine can we now talk about your blood donors?)

f) Consumer-oriented

How important are blood donors to what SANBS does?

In your opinion does the SANBS marketing communication reflects the central role of blood donors play in blood donation?

What marketing communication decisions do you think are informed by donor information SANBS collects from its current donors (customer information)?

What do you think should be the best way to balance the needs of your blood donors and your organisation’s capacity to cater for such needs?

g) Relationship building

What mechanisms to you have in place to ensure that you retain your blood donors?

How do you maintain contact with current blood donors to ensure you retain them?

How easy or difficult is it to retain current blood donors?

i) Data driven

Do you have a data base on information on such current blood donors?
How important is information in your donor database when planning marketing communication messages for campaigns?

(Transition: Well it has been a pleasure intervening you. If it’s ok, I will briefly summarise information that I have recorded during our interview)

CLOSING

Again let me say I enjoyed interviewing you and really appreciate your time you took to make this interview possible. Is there anything you feel you might need to add before we end our interview?

End the interview
Thank you for agreeing to take part in this interview, my name is Gibson Chauke.

The purpose of my research is to evaluate how SANBS use the concept of integrated marketing communication in its campaigns to consistently communicate behavioural change messages regarding blood donation.

I would like to ask you some questions regarding SANBS’ campaigns, your role in the planning of such campaigns and issues involved in the marketing communication activities at SANBS.

I hope to use information from this interview to highlight how the concept of integrated marketing communication can support the behavioural change messages of social marketing campaigns like the ones being carried out by your organisation.

Before we start let me explain that this interview will be recorded with your permission and collected data will be treated with utmost commitment to confidentiality. Only my supervisor and I will have access to recorded data. Information from the interview will not identify your name or position in the organisation to ensure anonymity.

This interview will not take more than 45 minutes

Do you agree to have this interview recorded and proceed with the interview?

(Transition: Let me start by asking you questions regarding your organisation’s purpose)

a) SANBS
How would you describe the core business/purpose of your organisation (SANBS)?
Can you explain how your position fit in your organisation’s activities?

_Transition: Now let’s look at some of the campaigns SANBS engages in_

b) **SANBS social marketing campaigns**

Are you aware of the various campaigns (social marketing campaigns) carried out by your organisation?

Can you briefly explain World Blood Donor Day, December Blood Drive Campaign and Nelson Mandela Day campaigns?

How important are these campaigns in encouraging people to donate blood?

How would you describe your role in some of these campaigns?

c) **Communicating consistent messages**

What messages would you consider important/central in encouraging people to donate blood?

Would you say these messages feature prominently in campaigns you mentioned earlier?

Are there mechanisms which from time to time review these messages to consider their relevance to blood donors (audiences)?

_Transition: Let’s talk about the planning of these messages in campaigns_

d) **Cross functional planning**

Can you point out departments or sections in SANBS which are responsible for planning campaigns?

How would you describe the planning process of campaigns involving the various departments or sections?

What is your opinion in having a central structure to which every department/section reports to regarding campaign planning?
e) **Tactical coordination of promotional mix elements**
Looking at how you plan your campaigns, can you describe promotional tools (promotional mix elements) mostly used in SANBS’ in these campaigns?

How important is it for your campaigns to use more than one promotional tool in conveying messages which encourage people to donate blood?

Describe the relevant of using various promotional tools in conveying the same messages in your campaigns?

How do promotional tools convey/carry the same central messages you mentioned earlier?

*(Transition: Ok, can we now move to your blood donors)*

g) **Consumer-oriented**
How important are blood donors to the activities of SANBS?

Can you explain processes you have in place which identify needs of blood donors as way of encouraging them to donate blood?

How do you cater for such needs of your blood donors in planning of campaigns?

h) **Relationship building**
Linked to the idea of donor needs, which tools/channels do you use to maintain contact with your donors?

Describe the importance of retaining blood donors in the blood donation process (building relationships)?

Can you explain any challenges you face in retaining blood donors?

*(Transition: At this point I want to ask you about SANBS as a brand)*

i) **Consideration of all brand contacts**
How would you describe SANBS as a brand?
Can you describe ways/avenues potential and current blood donors come into contact with SANBS as a brand?

How important are these avenues in conveying the brand messages you want your current and potential blood donors to receive?

Are these avenues conveying the right brand messages?

(Transition: Lastly, let’s can we talk about the role of management in campaigns)

i) Strategic consistency
What would you consider as the role of management in marketing communication activities?

Are organisational structures conducive to support objectives of SANBS’ campaigns?

Describe the support management renders to various departments involved in campaign planning?

(Transition: Well it has been a pleasure intervening you. If it’s ok, I will briefly summarise information that I have recorded during our interview)

CLOSING
Again let me say I enjoyed interviewing you and really appreciate your time you took to make this interview possible. Is there anything you feel you might need to add before we end our interview?

End the interview
ANNEXURE D: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR RESEARCH MANAGER

OPENING

- Thank you for agreeing to take part in this interview, my name is Gibson Chauke.
- The purpose of my research is to evaluate how SANBS use the concept of integrated marketing communication in its campaigns to consistently communicate behavioural change messages regarding blood donation.
- I would like to ask you some questions regarding SANBS’ campaigns, your role in the planning of such campaigns and issues involved in the marketing communication activities at SANBS.
- I hope to use information from this interview to highlight how the concept of integrated marketing communication can support the behavioural change messages of social marketing campaigns like the ones being carried out by your organisation.
- Before we start let me explain that this interview will be recorded and collected data will be treated with utmost commitment to confidentiality. Information from the interview will not identify your name or position in the organisation to ensure anonymity. Only my supervisor and I will have access to recorded data.
- This interview will not take more than 45 minutes.
- Do you agree to have this interview recorded and proceed with the interview?

(Transition: Let me start by asking you questions regarding your organisation’s purpose)

a) SANBS

Can you describe briefly what SANBS is all about?

What is your role in SANBS?

(Transition: Now let’s look at some of the campaigns SANBS engages in)
b) **SANBS social marketing campaigns**
   Can you explain what the World Blood Donor Day, December Blood Drive Campaign and Nelson Mandela Day campaigns seek to achieve?

   How important are these campaigns in attracting people to donate blood?

   Are you in any way involved in the planning of campaigns?

   What is your role in these campaigns?

c) **Communicating consistent messages**
   From your previous research initiatives what is the main message, with regards to blood donation, you believe should reach every current or potential blood donor through such campaigns?

   Do you believe this message is carried in most of SANBS’ campaigns?

   *(Transition: Now let’s talk about the promotional tools used in these campaigns)*

d) **Tactical coordination of promotional mix elements**
   Can you describe promotional tools (promotional mix elements) mostly used in SANBS’ campaigns?

   As the research department how do you assist in identifying appropriate promotional tools used to convey messages which encourage people to donate blood?

   Can you describe the process or mechanisms in place which ensures that your promotional tools convey/carry the same central messages you mentioned earlier?

   From a research department's point of view how relevant is it to use various promotional tools in conveying similar messages in various campaigns?

e) **Cross functional planning**
   What relationship do you have with other departments in the planning process of campaigns?
How important are your research results to the planning of campaigns?

Do you believe that other departments value your research results in planning campaigns?

(Transition: Ok, if its fine can we now talk about your blood donors?)

f) Consumer-oriented

Can you explain the research process and tools you use to collect information from your current and potential blood donors?

How often do you carry out such research?

How important is your research in identifying the needs of current and potential blood donors?

How is this information useful to other department which are involved in planning campaigns?

g) Data driven

How do you store information send as feedback from your blood donors?

How often do you update such blood donor information?

In your opinion how has technology enhanced your ability to collect and maintain information about your donors?

(Transition: Lastly, let’s can we talk about how relationships with donors are built and maintained with the help of research)

h) Relationship building

Explain the role you think research activities plays in building relationships between donors and SANBS as way of retaining donors?

Can you explain how your research activities enhance such relationships?
(Transition: Well it has been a pleasure intervening you. If it’s ok, I will briefly summarise information that I have recorded during our interview)

CLOSING

Again let me say I enjoyed interviewing you and really appreciate your time you took to make this interview possible. Is there anything you feel you might need to add before we end our interview?

End the interview
ANNEXURE E: MODERATOR’S GUIDE TO FOCUS GROUP

OPENING

• Thank you for agreeing to take part in this focus group interview, my name is Gibson Chauke.
• The purpose of my research is to evaluate how SANBS use the concept of integrated marketing communication in its campaigns to consistently communicate behavioural change messages regarding blood donation.
• The purpose of this focus group is talk about your opinions and experiences on issues concerning planning and implementation of SANBS campaigns.
• Before we start let me explain the ground rules which will be applicable during our discussion.

Ground rules:

1) This focus group will last around one hour
2) This session will be recorded
3) In our discussion there are no right or wrong answers I encourage you to express your opinions freely as main it is important to have as many varied and divergent ideas opinions as possible
4) It will be appreciated if we talk one at a time in a clear voice.
5) To ensure confidentiality and anonymity no individual will be identified by their name or position in the organisation. Only my supervisor and I will have access to recorded data from this focus group interview.
6) My role as the facilitator is ask questions and also keep track of time to ensure we finish within our allocated time.

Request permission to record and proceed with the focus group interview.

(Transition: Let me start by asking everyone to introduce himself or herself to the group)

(Transition: ok now am going to ask background information about SANBS campaigns)
a) **SANBS campaigns**

Can someone explain World Blood Donor Day campaign as carried out your organisation?

What about the December Blood Drive campaign?

How about the Nelson Mandela Day campaign?

*(Transition: I will now proceed to ask questions around planning of campaigns you have just mentioned)*

b) **Cross functional planning**

Can you give me an overview of the planning process for campaigns you just mentioned earlier on?

How do the various departments work together in planning the campaigns?

How important is it that various department are involved in the planning of campaigns?

Would you find it relevant to have a central structure in the organisation which coordinates the planning of campaigns by the various departments?

c) **Strategic consistency**

In your opinion should to what extent should management influence operational activities regarding campaign planning?

Are the current organisational structures conducive for effective campaign planning?

Would you say your planning of campaigns is informed by strategic plans from management?
d) Communicating consistent messages
   When planning your campaigns which message would you consider important to include in every campaign to encourage blood donation?

   Currently can you point out examples in the three campaigns mentioned earlier which shows that this message feature prominently in your campaigns?

   What is your opinion in having this consistent message in most of your campaigns?

   (Transition: Now let’s look at some of the promotional tools used in most of your campaigns)

e) Tactical coordination of marketing communication mix elements
   Can you mention some the promotional tools (marketing communication mix elements) you use in your campaigns?

   Can you describe to me some of the factors which influence promotional tools to be chosen for your campaigns?

   How important are these tools in communicating your intended marketing messages (behavioural change messages) regarding blood donation?

   How would you ensure that your marketing messages are consistent in all your promotional tools?

   Do you encounter any challenges in using various promotional tools in your campaigns?

   (Transition: Ok, can we now move to your blood donors)

f) Consumer-oriented
   Can you explain the value of blood donors to SANBS?

   In your opinion does the SANBS marketing communication reflects the central role of blood donors play in blood donation?
Can you point out some of the marketing activities which reflect your value towards blood donors?

**g) Relationship building**

Within the SANBS are there ways of maintaining contact with current donors?

How important are these ways in retaining blood donors?

*(Transition: Lastly I want find out your opinions about SANBS as a brand)*

**h) Consideration of all brand contacts**

How would you describe SANBS as a brand?

Can you describe some of the ways current and potential blood donors come into contact with SANBS as a brand?

*(Transition: Well it has been a pleasure listening to all your contributions in this focus group interview. If it’s ok, I will briefly summarise information that I have recorded during our interview)*

**CLOSING**

Let me thank you again for your participation in this focus group interview. I really appreciate your time you took to make this focus group interview possible. Is there anything you feel you might need to add before we end our interview?

End the interview
ANNEXURE F: CASE STUDY PROTOCOL

1.1 INTRODUCTION

A case study protocol is essential as way of guiding a researcher in carrying out the data collection process in a case study (Yin 2009: 79). As a guide to data collection, a case study protocol keeps the researcher focused on the aim of the study and helps also anticipate problems which might be encountered during data collection (Yin 2009: 82). In this study a case study protocol is compiled to detail the field procedures to be followed in data collection. Below are sections which are contained in a case study protocol for this study. The sections below are adopted and borrowed from Yin (2009), Runeson and Host (2008) and Brereton, Kitchenham, Budgen and Li (2008). Not all sections were, however, used as proposed by the above mentioned authors but only those sections deemed relevant to the study were included in this case study protocol.

1.2 OVERVIEW OF THE CASE STUDY

This study aims to evaluate IMC approach in the context of social marketing. The study seeks to answer the following research questions:

**Research question 1**: What are the theoretical criteria for an IMC approach to support goals of behavioural change messages in social marketing campaigns?

**Research question 2**: To what extent do SANBS’ social marketing campaigns conform to the theoretical criteria for IMC to support goals of behavioural change messages?

**Research question 3**: How is the use of IMC in social marketing campaigns relevant to a non-profit organisational context?

**Research question 4**: How can the theoretical IMC criteria for social marketing campaigns be further adapted based on the results of the study to support goals of behavioural change messages?

To investigate the main research problem, a qualitative single case study is used. A qualitative single case study is chosen because it allows a phenomenon to be investigated within its natural context. In this case evaluating an IMC approach in social
marketing campaigns is done in the context of the SANBS, which makes a case study the most appropriate methodological design.

1.3 FIELD PROCEDURES

The study uses in-depth semi-structured interviews, qualitative content analysis and focus groups to collect data.

a) In-depth semi-structured interviews to collect data from individuals in management positions. The aim is to provide a picture into how SANBS at strategic level support an IMC approach to achieve marketing communication goals of social marketing campaigns. Procedure to collect data will include securing an appropriate venue, make participants comfortable, ask permission for recording, use interview schedule as guide to asking questions, take notes during interviews, summarise major points of the interview to interviewees and ask if interviewees have any questions then conclude the interview. Duration of each interview should not exceed 45 minutes.

b) Qualitative content analysis aims to collect data which shows evidence of an IMC approach in planning and execution of messages for social marketing campaigns. Data from content analysis should outline whether IMC is present in both planning and products of such planning with regards to SANBS’ social marketing campaigns. Procedure for conducting analysis include seeking permission to access all documents with regards to the three campaigns, organise documents into similar types, read through the documents while marking notes, read though the notes, formulate categories from the notes as guided by the proposed criteria for evaluation, try link similar categories where possible and then produce categories which can answer the research problem.

c) Focus group interviews are conducted for the purpose of collecting data which highlights operational coordination of various marketing communication mix elements. Data from focus group interviews should give an idea on how strategic planning of IMC from top management is translated into actual unified and consistent marketing communication messages. Procedure to collect data will
include securing an appropriate venue, make group participants comfortable, ask permission for recording, use moderator’s guide in asking questions, take notes during interviews, ensure that all participants have a chance to participate in the discussion, summarise major points of the focus group interview to interviewees and ask if interviewees have any questions then conclude the focus group interview. Duration of each focus group interview should not exceed 45 minutes.

1.4 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

During the data collection process concerns regarding ethic should be dealt with. In this study the following should be observed:

a) There must be formal communication from the SANBS granting the researcher permission to collect data from its employees and documents. A formal letter was set to the SANBS in this regard.

b) Informed consent from all individuals involved in in-depth semi-structured and focus group interviews should be sort. Preferably before each interview is conducted.

c) Confidentiality of participants’ identity and information from the SANBS’ documents should be guaranteed. Participants of interviews should be informed of how their confidentiality will be protected.

1.5 CASE STUDY QUESTIONS

Case study questions should reflect the line of inquiry which the researcher should follow during data collection. The following are major questions the researcher should have in mind when collecting data and in brackets are sources from which answers could come from:

a) Which main message does SANBS consider should feature in every marketing communication? Is this message reflected in SANBS’ marketing communication? (qualitative content analysis, in-depth interviews)
b) Does an IMC approach enjoy support from management? Which resources are aligned to IMC approach to show presence of management support? (in-depth interviews, qualitative content analysis - especially planning documents)

c) Does an IMC approach feature in research and planning of social marketing? How is its implementation monitored? (in-depth interviews, focus group interviews)

d) Is there tactical coordination among the various marketing communication mix elements in social marketing campaigns? (qualitative content analysis, focus group interviews)

e) Do SANBS’ social marketing campaigns concur with proposed IMC evaluation criteria? (qualitative content analysis, focus group interviews, in-depth interviews)

f) Can an IMC approach support social marketing campaign marketing communication goals? (qualitative content analysis, focus group interviews, in-depth interviews)

1.6 DATA ANALYSIS

There are two data analysis methods used for this study. For face-to-face semi-structured interviews and focus group interview a six-phased thematic analysis was used while a directed approach was used for qualitative content analysis. The following sections outline the steps for the two chosen data analysis processes.

1.6.1 Face-to-face semi-structured interviews and focus group

For face-to-face semi-structured interviews and focus group interview this study adopts the six-phased thematic analysis by Braun and Clarke (2006). The table below depicts the process of data analysis followed in this study.

Table 1.1: Data analysis for face-to-face interview and focus group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Description of process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Familiarising with the data</td>
<td>Transcribing data, reading and re-reading the data and noting initial ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generating</td>
<td>Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic way</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
codes across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each code

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Searching for themes</th>
<th>Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reviewing themes</td>
<td>Checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts and the entire data set, generating a thematic 'map' of the analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defining and naming themes</td>
<td>Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tell, generating clear definitions and names of each theme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Producing the report</td>
<td>The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


1.6.2 Qualitative content analysis

Qualitative content analysis in this study has a dual role of collecting data from documents and analysis of the data from the documents. The qualitative content analysis study adopted a directed approach. According to Hsieh and Shannon (2005: 1278) there are steps to follow when using a directed approach to content analysis of data as explained below.

Table 1.2: Data analysis for qualitative content analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Description of process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identification of key concepts</td>
<td>Identifying key concepts or variables as initial coding categories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing operational definitions</td>
<td>Developing operational definitions of all identified predetermined categories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review of documents</td>
<td>Reviewing all the documents by way of reading and re-reading to understand meaning of each respective document</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coding text into</td>
<td>Identifying and categorizing instances within the data which</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>categories</td>
<td>appear to represent instances of a predetermined category, highlighting text with a highlighter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determine need for subcategories</td>
<td>Examine the data for each category to determine if subcategories are needed for each category</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### 1.7 SKILLS OF THE RESEARCHER

The research has the ability to carry out independent research. The researcher is acquainted with research skills acquired from previous qualifications.

### 1.8 ACCESS TO SANBS

The first step in accessing the SANBS is to write a formal letter to the organisation which outlines the purpose of the research. The letter must include research broad aims of the study and accompanied by the letter is a copy of the approved research proposal. Ethical clearance certificate from the UNISA must also be attached to the formal letter. The letter must explicitly request permission to interview employees of SANBS for face-to-face and focus group. Once permission to conduct the interviews and focus group had been granted arrangement must be made to visit SANBS. It is important to have a contact person at SANBS to help with scheduling of meetings and arrangement of venues.

When the date, time and venue have been confirmed by the contact person and the potential interviewees and participants researcher must diarise the date. On the day of the interview the researcher must call the contact person at SANBS to just confirm details regarding time and venue. This is done to ensure nothing has changed as arranged. Important to arrive at the venue early to inspect the suitability of the venue and test recording equipment.

### 1.9 CASE STUDY DATABASE

Data collected was in printed format and this included all documents analysed, transcripts of interviews and other documents pertaining to the study. These documents
were stored in manual folders which were clearly labelled. The following table summarise how each document was stored under which folder.

### Table 1.3: Case Study Database

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Label of folder</th>
<th>Type of Document contained</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Documents**   | **Published reports**: Annual reports  
|                  | **Official publications**: *Blood Beat* magazines  
|                  | **Advertisements**: Radio, Television, Newspapers  
|                  | **Social media**: Facebook updates, Twitter tweets  |
| **Field Research** | **Interviews**: Interview Schedule, transcriptions of interviews  
|                  | **Focus group Interviews**: Moderators guide, transcripts of interviews  |
| **Researchers Toolkit** | **Resources**: Case study protocol; interview schedule; moderators guide, directions to the site, copy of appointment email  |
| **Other** | **Notes**: Interview notes, and other evidence that is collected that may not be suitably filed in the above sections  |
**ANNEXURE G: APPROVED ETHICAL CLEARANCE FORM**

**SUMMARY SHEET FOR THE ETHICAL CLEARANCE OF A POSTGRADUATE STUDENT'S RESEARCH PROPOSAL FOR THESES/DISSERTATION:**
**DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNICATION SCIENCE**

*Please note: Prospective students should, in addition to this form, submit the research proposal as required by the Department of Communication Science*

### A STUDENT'S DETAILS (PLEASE USE PRINT)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A1</th>
<th>FIRST NAME(S) AND SURNAME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gibson Chauke</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A2</th>
<th>HIGHEST ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B Soc Sc Comm (Hons)</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A3</th>
<th>PROPOSED THESIS/DISSERTATION TITLE</th>
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<table>
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<th>PERSONAL PARTICULARS</th>
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<td>46027890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>current address:</td>
<td>Residential:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Flat 105 Dalbergia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cnr Walker and Mears Street</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sunnyside</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pretoria</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Flat 105 Dalbergia</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>154 Walker Street</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e-mail address:</td>
<td><a href="mailto:chaukg1@unisa.ac.za">chaukg1@unisa.ac.za</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>telephone number(s)</td>
<td>(w) 012 429 6843  (h)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cellphone: 073 299 6894</td>
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</table>

**A5 PROVISIONAL SUPERVISOR/(S)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title, initials &amp; surname:</th>
<th>Prof TC du Plessis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contact details:</td>
<td>Tel (w):012 429 6525</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Email: <a href="mailto:dplestc@unisa.ac.za">dplestc@unisa.ac.za</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department:</td>
<td>Communication Science</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title, initials &amp; surname:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contact details:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**B PROPOSAL SUMMARY SHEET**

**B1 ABSTRACT OF THE RESEARCH PROPOSAL**

The study is a qualitative evaluation of integrated marketing communication in the context of social marketing campaigns, using the South African National Blood service as a case study. The study is motivated by the lack of research studies which indicate how organisations involved in social marketing campaigns can benefit from the use of IMC in their campaigns. Data from the study will be collected using different qualitative methods and the data will be analysed using content analysis.

**B2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

The objectives of the study are both exploratory and descriptive in nature.

The study is descriptive because it provides an in-depth description of literature on the latest trends in the IMC approach and describes the theoretical requirements for social marketing campaigns.

The study is exploratory also because it seeks to obtain new insights into the relatively less researched area of how an IMC approach could be employed to support behavioural change messages for social marketing campaigns.
**B3  RESEARCH DESIGN**
The research will use a case study approach with one focus group, interviews and content analysis as methods of data collection.

**B4  HOW SHOULD THIS STUDY BE CHARACTERISED? (Please tick all appropriate boxes.)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Not applicable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal, social and other relevant information to be collected directly from respondents by means of an interview</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents to complete a self-administered questionnaire</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participants to participate in a focus group</td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A content analysis of identifiable information to be collected about people from available records (e.g. staff records, student records, etc.)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (Please specify)</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**B5  WHAT IS THE AGE RANGE OF THE INTENDED RESPONDENTS/PARTICIPANTS IN THIS STUDY?**

Above 18 years of age

Not applicable
Reason:

**B5.1 If the proposed participants are 18 years and older, is the informed consent form for participants/respondents attached?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Not applicable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**B.5.2 If the proposed participants/respondents are younger than 18 years, are consent and substitute consent forms attached?** (In order for minors - younger than 18 years of age - to participate in a research study, parental or guardian permission must be obtained. For minors a substitute consent form is required.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Not applicable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
B 5.3 Do the intended research participants fall under the category “vulnerable participants” as described on page 1 and especially page 15, paragraph 3.10 (vulnerable participants) of the Policy on Research Ethics of UNISA? Available at: http://cm.unisa.ac.za/contents/departments/res_policies/docs/ResearchEthicsPolicy_aprvcounc_21Sept07.pdf

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Please provide details and outline steps to protect such vulnerable groups:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No ×</td>
<td>Go to B 5.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B5.4 Does the proposed study involve collaborative, multi-institutional or multi-country research? (Please see paragraph 6 of the Policy on Research Ethics of UNISA and make sure that the principal researcher complies with the stipulations of the policy). Please complete if applicable. Available at: http://cm.unisa.ac.za/contents/departments/res_policies/docs/ResearchEthicsPolicy_aprvcounc_21Sept07.pdf

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Research in more than 1 country</td>
<td>Please state countries: ____________________________________________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research to be conducted in 1 institution</td>
<td>Details: __________________________________________________________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research is multi-institutional</td>
<td>Please give details: _______________________________________________</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B5.5 Description of the process for obtaining informed consent (if applicable)

Official permission will be sort from the South African National Blood Service to use their organisation as a case study, then during the data collection phase all participants will be asked to sign an informed consent form.
Not applicable. Reason:

B6 DESCRIPTION OF THE RISKS POSED BY THE PROPOSED STUDY WHICH RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS/RESPONDENTS MAY/WILL SUFFER AS WELL AS THE LEVEL OF RISK (IF APPLICABLE) (Please consider any discomfort, pain/physical or psychological problems/side-effects, persecution, stigmatisation or negative labelling. See also B9 below.)

There is no foreseeable risk involved for the participants who will take part in the study.

B7 DESCRIPTION AND/OR AMOUNTS OF COMPENSATION INCLUDING REIMBURSEMENTS, GIFTS OR SERVICES TO BE PROVIDED TO PARTICIPANTS/RESPONDENTS (IF APPLICABLE) (Will the participants/respondents incur financial costs by participating in this study? Will incentives be given to the participants/respondents for participation in this study?)

No compensation will be involved

B8 DESCRIPTION FOR ARRANGEMENT FOR INDEMNITY (IF APPLICABLE)

B9 DESCRIPTION OF STEPS TO BE UNDERTAKEN IN CASE OF ADVERSE EVENTS OR WHEN INJURY OR HARM IS EXPERIENCED BY THE PARTICIPANTS/RESPONDENTS ATTRIBUTABLE TO THEIR PARTICIPATION IN THE STUDY (IF APPLICABLE)
C STUDENT’S STATEMENT AGREING TO COMPLY WITH ETHICAL PRINCIPLES SET OUT IN UNISA POLICY ON RESEARCH ETHICS

I…Gibson Chauke…. (First name(s) and surname of student) declare that I have read the Policy for Research Ethics of UNISA and that the contents of this form are a true and accurate reflection of the methodological and ethical implications of my proposed study. I shall carry out the study in strict accordance with the approved proposal and the ethics policy of UNISA. I shall maintain the confidentiality of all data collected from or about research participants, and maintain security procedures for the protection of privacy. I shall record the way in which the ethical guidelines as suggested in the proposal has been implemented in my research. I shall work in close collaboration with my promoter(s)/supervisor(s) and shall notify my promoter(s)/supervisor(s) in writing immediately if any change to the study is proposed. I undertake to notify the Higher Degrees Committee of the Department of Communication Science in the College of Human Sciences in writing immediately if any adverse event occurs or when injury or harm is experienced by the participants attributable to their participation in the study. I have taken note of paragraph 5 of the Policy for Research Ethics in which integrity in research is detailed and have read and understood UNISA’s Policy for Copyright Infringement and Plagiarism (http://cm.unisa.ac.za/contents/departments/tuition_policies/docs/copyrightinfringement_and_plagiarism_policy_16nov05.pdf)

(Signature)

19/01/11 (Date)